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Pedagogies, Practices and Perspectives

Edited by Christine Savvidou

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Meet the editor

Christine Savvidou is an assistant professor at the University of Nicosia, Cyprus, and has a doctorate in Teacher Education from the University of Nottingham, UK. Her research focuses on teacher education, professional development, and professional knowledge and identity in second language teaching. A member of several professional associations, she is an active researcher and has published her work in several international refereed journals (*Intercultural Education*, Technology, Pedagogy and Education, *Journal of Teacher Development*, *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*). She is also a regular reviewer for several international journals.

Contents

Preface

This volume recognizes a growing body of research that focuses on second language acquisition (SLA) and second language teaching (SLT), and acknowledges the contribution of such research to an increased understanding of the pedagogies, practices and perspectives within these interrelated fields. As such, this volume brings together different aspects of learning, teaching and researching a second language. Chapters include topics ranging from emotional communication, pragmatic competence, transformative pedagogy, inclusion and functional diversity, reflective teaching and research skills in language teacher education and innovative methodologies in SLA research. The chapters provide a cross-section of international perspectives in as much as the authors are drawn from seven countries across four continents. Working in a variety of educational contexts, the authors address a global audience to offer insights into current theories, research, policies and practices within SLA and SLT. This volume is aimed at students, researchers and practitioners working in these areas in order to reflect on challenges, enhance practice and identify potential research directions.

Chapter 1 introduces the rationale for this volume as it explores the intersection between second language acquisition and teaching. Christine Savvidou outlines a disciplinary shift from a traditional view of SLA and SLT as distinct and separate areas of research to a contemporary understanding of them as interrelated research areas that function within the same interdisciplinary space. The author proposes that within this space, there exist innovative pedagogies, practices and perspectives that are grounded in diverse teaching and learning contexts. It is this space that this volume sets out to explore.

Chapters 2 and 3 both focus on issues of pedagogy within SLA and specifically on how second languages are learned, what challenges are faced and how learning may best be supported.

In Chapter 2, Anna De Marco examines how the expression and the perception of emotional states represents a challenge for second language (L2) learners. The author presents an overview of the interface between prosody and pragmatic competence in L2 in relation to the expression and perception of emotions. She goes on to outline some of the outcomes of the research in the field, focusing on experimental studies conducted with L2 learners of Italian. The second part of the chapter examines the instructional practices aimed at helping L2 learners improve their perception and production of emotional communication.

Bernard Mulo Farenkia, in Chapter 3, compares the production of offer refusals between native and non-native French speakers in a Canadian context. Specifically, he examines the differences between L1 speakers and L2 learners of French with respect to the use of direct refusals, indirect refusals and adjuncts to refusals. Comparing the differences between L2 French learners with L1 English speakers, he goes on to examine traces of pragmatic transfer in L2 French refusals behavior. The author also considers the implications for teaching and concludes with suggestions and perspectives for future research.

Chapters 4, 5 and 6 focus on how best to support second language teaching. Issues of second language teacher education are explored at philosophical, conceptual and institutional levels.

Patrick Farren, in Chapter 4, discusses the concept of transformative pedagogy in the context of language teacher education. The author proposes a social–psychological model of teaching based on a critical, intercultural and moral–philosophical foundation. This model aims at developing a more encompassing teacher education that focuses on the professional identity of the language teacher as research practitioner and leader.

In Chapter 5, Carmen Maria Campoy-Cubillo examines issues of inclusion and specifically the relationship of the foreign language student with functional diversity within their educational and sociocultural context. The author proposes a theoretical multidimensional model to support students with different special needs in the language classroom. It is a model that encompasses the needs of students in terms of accessibility to learning and specific learning skills and competences on one hand, and learning support, institutional services, assessment protocols and teacher training on the other hand.

Marie-Immaculée Ndayimirije and Rachel Nsimire Bigawa, in Chapter 6, examine challenges facing language teacher education in Burundi. Working within a specific sociocultural context and institutional framework, the authors ask how teacher educators can best prepare student teachers in Burundi. The authors offer a critique of current training practices and propose initial teacher training courses that promote reflective teaching and research skills aimed at preparing student teachers for active participation as future EFL teachers.

The final chapter focuses on how research into SLA is developing using innovative research methodologies. In Chapter 7, Jiang Xiaoming examines the latest innovative research trends in the fields of psycholinguistics and SLA. Using bibliometric analyses of these research literatures, the author highlights the emergence of novel experimental methodologies, such as the application of neuroimaging and machine learning approaches to the psycholinguistic research. Such methodologies offer new opportunities for researching and extending the boundaries of SLA research in real-world contexts.

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Chapter 1

Introductory Chapter: Second Language Acquisition - Pedagogies, Practices and Perspectives

Christine Savvidou

1. Introduction

This edited volume aims at exploring second language acquisition (SLA) research and second language teaching (SLT) with the goal of highlighting recent developments within these interrelated fields. At its core, the book is premised on the assumption that the intersection between SLA and SLT represents an interdisciplinary space in which there exist specific pedagogies, practices and perspectives that inform the teaching and learning of a second language. It is worth pointing out, at this juncture, that for the purposes of this book, SLA and SLT are defined as the acquisition, use, learning and/or teaching of any language which is not the learner's first language (L1).

The rationale for this book emerges from fundamental questions of how learners use and learn a second language and what constitutes effective second language teaching in today's global context. Thus, within this context, the authors in this book set out to explore what it means to learn, teach or research a second language (L2); they also examine issues that define research, shape policy and inform the practice of SLT. As such, this book is aimed at language teaching professionals, linguists, teachers and teacher educators with the purpose of providing insights into the field of SLA and contributing to more effective teaching and teacher education within SLT.

2. Background

While it might be assumed that there is a natural relationship between SLA and SLT, these two fields have rather distinct histories [1]. On the one hand, early SLA research was preoccupied with identifying general patterns of linguistic development and the incremental and sequential steps that learners undergo as part of the L2 learning process [2, 3]. Rooted in such theories as interlanguage [4], error analysis [5] and contrastive analysis and transfer [6], early SLA research prompted the notion that 'Instruction that is not compatible with the way L2 acquisition takes place cannot be successful' [7]. In other words, SLT was based on what was considered to be a natural order in SLA. However, subsequent research has highlighted the limitations of instruction on learning with observations that L2 learners do not necessarily learn what is directly taught [8].

The recognition that SLA research cannot not provide a panacea for modern SLT has led to a rich and diverse interdisciplinary space drawing on theories from linguistics, psychology, sociology and education and a shift towards more

'usage-based learning', which refers to the observation of actual language in actual communicative events [9]. Despite this shift, it is argued that such research remains 'pure' with the study of SLA for its own sake [10].

Meanwhile, the early history of SLT also has a distinct history drawing on cognitive psychology and educational research. As such, the development of SLT in the latter half of the last century was preoccupied with finding the most effective teaching methods. Indeed, this obsession with methods resulted in a pedagogical 'swinging of the pendulum' [11]. Since the mid-twentieth century, SLT has seen alternating shifts in pedagogy. For example, the focus on teaching grammatical explanation and translation shifted to teaching spoken language; the goal of achieving communicative competence shifted to acknowledging learners' needs, learning styles and motivation; teachers' insistence on the exclusive use of the target language in the L2 classroom shifted to integrating learners' native languages; the goal of achieving native-like proficiency shifted to acknowledging World Englishes [12, 13]. It is against this background that modern SLT now operates within what is known as the 'postmethods era' [14] in which ideas of principled pedagogy, context-based teaching, technology-enhanced learning and values of citizenship now play a significant role.

In sum, developments in SLA and SLT highlight the need for an interdisciplinary space that goes beyond traditional notions of second language learning and teaching. This book, therefore, attempts to address this need by examining the pedagogies, practices and perspectives that occupy the space between SLA and SLT.

3. Scope of the book

The scope of this book encompasses the rich and diverse perspectives of language teaching professionals, academics and researchers from different disciplines and different countries. Each chapter presents distinct theoretical approaches and empirical evidence exploring an array of contemporary topics including L2 learners' linguistic development, L2 pragmatic and prosodic competence, multidimensional networks for inclusive L2 education, transformative pedagogy for L2 teachers and innovative and context-specific practices in second language teacher education. Such diversity reflects a global vision on the current state of SLA and promotes a view of SLA research rooted in transversality [15], based on the idea that there is no one theory that monopolises the field. Indeed, such multiple and diverse theories and approaches to SLA and SLT research reflect innovative and creative ways of understanding this interdisciplinary space.

As one explores the different chapters within this book, it becomes apparent how each one directly or indirectly discusses SLA in relation to the three themes—pedagogies, practices and perspectives—around which this book is structured. In as much as these themes intersect, the chapters included in this volume also reflect one or more of the three themes. In relation to the theme of *pedagogies*, authors highlight the pedagogical approaches to second language learning based on an understanding of learners' L2 linguistic development, the use of the L2, learning needs, learning identities and the social and cultural backgrounds that impact second language learning. Within the theme of *practices*, authors discuss methods and approaches to SLT and propose techniques, strategies and conditions for effective second language learning and teaching. Finally, within the theme of *perspectives*, authors discuss local and global issues, policies and frameworks that support second language teaching and teacher education in relation to language learning rights and values.

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4. Conclusion

Finally, this book hopes to contribute to new understandings of SLA research, theory and practice that transcend traditional theoretical and research perspectives. While this edited book represents the significant research efforts of academics and leading professionals in this area, it does not intend to provide a definitive overview of this complex and interconnected area. It can, however, serve as a foundation for further research and inquiry into SLA. All in all, it is hoped that this book will enable readers to inquire into their own research and practice, challenge existing assumptions and add to their own professional knowledge and practice of SLA research and SLT. In this regard, is hoped that the pedagogies, practices and perspectives discussed in this book will provide both insights and inspiration to second language teaching professionals, linguists, teachers and teacher educators working in a global context.

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Chapter 2

Teaching the Prosody of Emotive Communication in a Second Language

Anna De Marco

Abstract

The expression and the perception of emotional states in a foreign language represent a difficult task for the learners. One of the reasons is the fact that, more than other aspects related to speech, the expression of emotional states in second language requires full control of the prosodic resources that contribute to their realization. The aim of this chapter is to give an overview of the main tenets of the interface between prosody and pragmatic competence in L2 and in particular the expression and perception of emotions. The chapter will also outline some of the outcomes of the research in the field, focusing on experimental studies that have been conducted with learners of Italian as L2. The second part of the chapter will be devoted on the instructional practice aimed at developing the awareness of pragmatic-prosodic aspects of emotive communication in speech. Teaching practices such as a training focused on the expression of emotions (anger, joy, sadness, disgust, fear, and surprise) and video dubbing projects have proven to be useful tools to improve the performance of learners both in production and in perception of prosodic patterns of emotional communication.

Keywords: emotion, Italian L2, teaching practices, prosody, pragmatics

1. Introduction

This chapter is the result of the experience working with students of Italian L2 and, in particular, of the observation of their need to improve the competence of language use, that is, communicative competence. This competence involves different communicative dimensions even the most "hidden" and "subtle" ones but no less essential for the purposes of effective communication, such as the paraverbal (e.g., prosody) and nonverbal (facial expressions, gestures, postures) aspects which give form and meaning to our words and specify our utterances in ways that escape our awareness. Very often, when we find ourselves talking with a nonnative speaker, especially when we misinterpret each other, these paraverbal and non-verbal aspects come to light and call into question our complex competence as speakers because they represent a substantial part of our intentions and attitudes.

Only recently, in Italy, scholars have devoted themselves to the research on prosodic competence in L2, and the works dealing with this competence from a pedagogical perspective are even smaller. Indeed, emotional competence is one of the most overlooked aspects of communicative competence in teaching a native and a nonnative language. In a linguistic scenario that is ever more diversified in our

eyes, the conspicuous presence of students with different cultural and linguistic backgrounds draws the attention of educational institutions toward the need to adopt language teaching approaches that should be able to cope with the multilingual and multicultural complexity of our schools.

The first part of the chapter will be devoted to give an overview of the main tenets of the interface between prosody and pragmatic competence in L2, and it will introduce the reader to some of the outcomes of the research in the field, focusing on experimental studies that have been conducted with learners of Italian as L2.

The second part of the chapter will focus on the instructional practice to show how it is possible to improve the emotional competence of L2 learners through some teaching activities in the language classroom.

2. Theories on emotive speech

The study of the vocal expression of emotions is based on the analysis of complex structures that regulate the communication process: the voice constitutes a fundamental unit of measure within the emotional phenomenon. As D'Urso and Trentin explain: "the relationship between voice and emotion is based on the assumption that the physiological reactions typical of an emotional state, modifying the breathing, the phonation and the articulation of the sounds, produce appreciable variations in the acoustic indices detectable in the production of discourse" ([1], p. 58). The human voice, among its multiple potentialities, is able to convey different meanings and nuances through its own modulation. These prosodic modifications, which represent suprasegmental entities, merge with the segmental characteristics typical of each language. When we express an emotion, the meaning of our communicative act is conveyed not only by the voice and individual characteristics but also by the choice of the lexicon, by the way we organize our speech, and, of course, by the way we articulate sounds. As Poggi and Magno Caldognetto [2] maintain, there are four segmental resources that regulate the linguistic nature of emotional speech:

Lexical resources: That is, words (verbs, adjectives, adverbs, nouns) and interjections whose semantic and pragmatic content indicates a clear reference to specific states of mind (I feel guilty; I am sad, angry, etc.). In particular, interjections (damn, gosh) convey the emotional message without explaining its cause, which must necessarily be inferred from the context.

Syntactic resources: Emotional speech also influences the structure and organization of the utterances and is expressed through the alteration of the canonical order of the sentence. An example is the left dislocation, whose use implies the choice to focus a certain element of the discourse.

Morphological resources: The structure of words can undergo further transformation in emotional production. For example, it is very common to use diminutives and endearment words in relation to positive emotions, such as joy, and offensive words in the case of negative emotions, such as anger.

Phonological resources: In emotional speech, the articulation of sounds is altered by the subjective experience in a given context. Such alterations can be attributed, for example, to speaking while smiling or to other relevant aspects of nonverbal communication.

3. A cross-cultural perspective on emotive speech

Much of the research on emotional speech has attempted to identify common trends in the interpretation of vocal expressions of emotions at an intercultural

level. This approach should provide an indirect proof of the existence of universal (or specifically cultural) elements in emotional communication. However, there is a series of studies—less numerous—focused on the analysis of acoustic parameters and their variation at the interlinguistic level.

The research conducted by Scherer and other scholars has undoubtedly the merit of having conducted a systematic analysis, also examining cultures distant from each other. In this regard, we recall a study conducted in 2001 [3] which involved subjects from nine different countries (European, North-American, and Asians), in order to test their ability to recognize emotions expressed in another language (German). The body of emotional stimuli—conveyed through a nonsense sentence and pronounced by professional actors—included five emotions: joy, sadness, fear, anger, and disgust (along with neutral productions). The results showed an index of accuracy in identifying emotions equal to 50%. However, the percentage of correct decoding has not proven to be homogeneous in all the samples considered, since the Indonesian group has reached the lowest percentage, while the sample of German listeners recorded the highest percentage (in-group advantage), followed by the American group. The authors have attempted to explain the phenomenon, hypothesizing that linguistic closeness played an important role in the decoding process (language distance hypothesis). This accounted for the much higher percentage obtained by the British and the Dutch than the speakers of Romance languages (Italian and French) and above all with respect to the Indonesians (not belonging to the Indo-European family).

In addition to linguistic factors, sharing the same social codes and similar communication styles also plays an important role in the recognition of emotions. As Elfenbein and Ambady ([4], p. 204) explain: "It is possible that recognition is higher when the emotions are both expressed and perceived by members of the same cultural group" (see in-group advantage hypothesis). In this regard, Elfenbein and Ambady have suggested that the contact and the interaction between cultures, as well as the sharing of some cultural traits, can favor the decoding of emotions (cultural proximity hypothesis). On the basis of this hypothesis, "members of cultures who share ideas of individualism or collectivism, power structure, and gender roles, need to be more successful at decoding each other's emotional expressions than members of cultures that are less similar" ([5], p. 409). In fact, according to the authors, the variability of the recognition indices is due not only exclusively to ethnic, geographical, or linguistic factors but also to the absence of mutual involvement between the cultures considered. To support this finding, some research has shown that the index of accuracy in the recognition of emotions at the cross-linguistic level is higher when the contact (even by telephone) between the cultures examined is greater [4]. Similarly, members of linguistic minorities within a given country would be able to decode more accurately the vocal expressions produced by members belonging to the majority culture than the latter in the reverse situation.

4. Emotions in L2: state of the art

Research on vocal expression and the perception of emotions in a second language are not numerous. The interest in this aspect of communication in L2 is relatively recent; however, the acoustic-perceptive investigations have highlighted some problems related to the management of emotional speech in a second language, with an emphasis on linguistic, cultural, and social factors.

As we pointed out above and as suggested by Dewaele, the typological and cultural distance from the target language can influence the ability of learners to manage emotional speech in L2: "SLA research shows that learners from 'distant'

cultures experience significantly greater difficulties in identifying emotion in the L2 and in judging the intensity of that emotion than do fellow learners from 'closer' cultures with similar levels of proficiency" ([6], p. 375). In this regard, the first studies in L2 [7, 8] have shown that the competence linked to the vocal communication of emotions depends to a large extent on the degree of familiarity and knowledge of the cultural context of the target language [9].

Difficulties also exist on a purely prosodic level. A study conducted by Holden and Hogan [10] explored the perception of paralinguistic intonational trends in Russian and English learners, with the aim of evaluating "the emotional and attitudinal 'confusion' that may arise in the use of foreign intonation in L2" ([10], p. 70). The authors started from the consideration that the differences existing between the two linguistic systems in relation to pitch range are often the cause of misunderstanding in the interactions between Russian learners of English and native English speakers, highlighting the tendency of the latter to interpret intonation variations judged as neutral by native Russian speakers, as signs of anger or irritation.

For this reason, the groups involved were asked to evaluate different types of utterances (interrogative and exclamative) based on their emotional value, in order to verify "if there would be a significant change in the judgment of selection of 10 emotions and attitudes with a change of intonation, while keeping other phonetic factors constant" ([10], p. 67). The utterances were manipulated to reproduce the English intonation in Russian sentences and vice versa. Participants were also asked to evaluate the differences between original and manipulated productions.

Results showed that in relation to positive emotions, native English speakers judged the pitch of their own language "higher" than that of native Russian speakers in polar questions. Furthermore, native English speakers have shown themselves to be more sensitive to the intonation of the Russians than to the latter, who on the contrary have shown a lower sensitivity to the variations in tone of the English language. However, in relation to pitch range, both groups "reacted more negatively to the greater pitch range of Russian intonation in exclamations and yes-no questions" ([10], p. 84), giving the original statements in Russian a greater negative value than to the English originals, defined instead as more "passive" in the WH questions. As Ladd points out ([11], p. 94): "English and Russian listeners interpreted differences in sentences in broadly the same way, regardless of their specific cultural norms about what count about 'neutral'".

On the perception of paralinguistic intonation patterns in a second language, the study by Chen [12] focused on learners of Dutch of English origin (with a low level of competence) and on Dutch learners of English (with an advanced level of competence), in order to verify whether the prosodic variations linked to biological codes convey universally shared meanings on an emotional level. The adopted methodology was taken up by Chen et al. [13]. Even in this case, the groups involved have demonstrated a lingual-specific sensitivity to the paralinguistic intonation patterns produced in a foreign language (in this case a second language). Comparing the two studies, the author found out that "L2 English listeners differ from L1 Dutch listeners differ from L1 English listeners" ([12], p. 163). According to the author, the influence of L1 could have played an important role in the interpretation of prosodic variations:

First, there is strong evidence from both L2 English and L2 Dutch listeners that L1 transfer plays an important role in interpreting paralinguistic intonational meaning in L2, as in interpreting linguistic intonational meaning in L2. Also, there is an indication that L2 listeners may activate their knowledge about intonational universals embodied in the biological codes (in particular, Gussenhoven's Effort Code), which accounts for L2 Dutch listeners' native-like behavior in the perception of "emphatic" as signaled by pitch register.

In relation to the level of competence, Chen suggested that from the first phases of acquisition, the learners were able to catch some differences on the paralinguistic level between L1 and L2, to then improve this knowledge in the more advanced stages of the interlanguage.

The study by de Abreu and Mathon [14] focused on the perception of spontaneous emotional speech, which investigated the role of prosody in encouraging or hindering the recognition of emotions by a group of Portuguese French L2 learners. The stimuli consisted of some portions of spontaneous speech drawn from a corpus of prank calls made by a radio host against public institutions and service encounters, in order to trigger a reaction of anger in the victims. The linguistic content of the statements has been obscured by introducing white noise, "in order to keep only the prosodic information" ([14], p. 2). The subjects, native French speakers and Portuguese learners of L2 French with an intermediate level of competence, were involved in two tasks: the first aimed at the recognition of the statements of anger (decision task), and the second asked to evaluate the productions in terms of intensity (evaluation task). The recognition rates recorded for both groups (50% for the Portuguese and 62% for the French) led the authors to claim that "prosodic information represents enough information to allow subjects recognizing anger" ([14], p. 4). However, some differences emerged in the interpretations of anger utterances. In some cases, Portuguese learners evaluated utterances that contained pauses, repetitions, and errors as emotional productions other than anger ("not anger") unlike the French. In other words: "it seems that Portuguese do not consider a sentence said with anger when there are disfluencies, unlike French listeners" ([14], p. 4). In terms of production, Komar [15] proposed a contrastive analysis of emotional speech produced by Slovenian speakers in English and by native English speakers. The elicitation of emotions was entrusted to the reading of a dialog in English. The results highlighted the tendency of Slovenes to use a "flat," less dynamic intonation than natives, mainly due to the diversity of the two intonation systems. As Komar explains ([15], p. 4):

There are two main reasons for Slovenes sounding flat in English. First, the Slovenes produce the falling tones in a much narrower pitch range than the English, and second, the step up in pitch from the end of the falling pre-tonic segment and the beginning of the falling tone is significantly smaller compared to the step-up in pitch made by the English speakers.

These two factors, together with the state of anxiety and discomfort felt when one is not competent in a language, could be responsible for some communicative failures in interactions with native English speakers, who, according to the author, would be inclined to judge the less dynamic intonation of the Slovenes as a sign of disinterest and scarce participation (or rudeness). On a perceptive level, some studies have shown that access to the verbal and vocal content of the emotional message is not as automatic in L2 as it is in the native language [16–18]. In this regard, Chua Shi and Schirmer [19] have explored the process of integrating linguistic content with prosodic indexes in native and nonnative speakers of English of different origins. The stimuli consisted of a series of terms with positive, negative, and neutral valence, pronounced in a happy, neutral, or sad tone. In two separate experiments, the participants expressed a judgment about the emotional value of the stimulus based exclusively on the lexical content; later, they focused on the tone of the voice, thus excluding the linguistic level. The results showed some similarities between the two groups, in particular with regard to response times: "More importantly, both native and non-native listeners responded faster and more accurately when verbal and vocal emotional expressions were congruent as compared to when they were incongruent" ([19], p. 1376). In the case of incongruent verbal and vocal stimuli, the participants' reaction was similar, regardless of the level of competence possessed.

In light of this, the authors have suggested that "the integration of verbal and emotional expressions occurs as readily in one's second language as it does in one's native language" ([19], p. 1376). Graham et al. [20] verified the ability of a group of native and nonnative English speakers to recognize some emotional productions made by native English speakers. The results showed that learners with a higher level of competence were not able to recognize more accurately the proposed stimuli. According to the authors, the ability to decode cannot be acquired in the absence of an intensive exposure to the cultural context of the target language or without a didactic intervention aimed at developing these skills.

Bhatara et al. [21] explored the relationship between competence in L2 and the ability to recognize positive and negative emotions in the target language, specifically American English. The subjects involved were of French origin, with a variable level of competence (established on the basis of the participants' self-assessment). The perceptive experiment involved listening to some utterances in English made by professional actors and the decoding of the emotions expressed through a multiple-choice test. Afterward, the participants were asked to evaluate (on a scale) the pleasantness, the power, the alertness, and the intensity of the emotional stimuli. In addition to whole utterances, the stimuli also included simple vocalizations (or affect bursts). The results showed that learners with a high level of competence were not facilitated in the recognition of emotions, especially positive ones (joy, pride, interest, and relief). According to the authors, the increase in the proficiency of the English language could have compromised the perception and recognition of positive emotional states rather than facilitating it, concluding that: "increasing understanding of the L2 may be accompanied by a slight decrease in ability to understand subtle differences between positive emotions among other speakers" ([21], p. 11).

The correlation between the level of competence of the L2 (perceived by the learner) and the ability to recognize emotions therefore appears to be in doubt. However, recent studies [22] have shown that a high level of competence in the target language corresponds to greater accuracy in decoding positive audiovisual stimuli; moreover, cultural distance seems to influence recognition rates (as already reported in cross-linguistic studies).

In the Italian context, the studies that have investigated this particular aspect of communication in the acquisition process of the Italian L2 are still rather small. Recent studies [23] analyzed the emotional speech produced by Chinese learners of Italian with a high level of competence (C1 level of CEFR). A sample of native Italian speakers was also involved in the experiment. Emotions were elicited through a card task, i.e., a verbal interaction activity between two participants involved in a card game. As the authors explain, this procedure was adopted in order to elicit "emotional linguistic reactions in the players and arouse five different emotions (anger, anxiety, disgust, fear and surprise)" ([23], p. 82). The emotional productions collected were analyzed using Praat, taking into consideration the following parameters: duration and number of syllables, full pauses and silent pauses, and maximum and minimum values of f0. Based on these measurements, time, articulation rate, and pitch range (in semitones) were calculated. The analyses also considered the presence of affect bursts.

In relation to native Italian, the results confirmed the well-known distinction between high and low activation emotions. The expressions of anger, fear, and surprise were characterized by high f0 values and a wide tonal extension; on the contrary the expression of disgust presented lower values, being a low activation emotion. The emotional speech of the Chinese did not show, however, this variability: "as a matter of fact, F0 height and tonal range are quite steady in the whole corpus. The only exception is represented by anger and fear that are expressed with

slightly higher values. These data seem to suggest that Chinese learners vary their pitch account to distinguish different emotional states in the case of native Italian speakers" ([23], p. 83). Production in nonnative Italian was generally characterized by a slowing of speech rate (due to the attempt to articulate single words with greater precision). The use of a modulated intonation and variable in the expression of emotions seems therefore to be a common tendency in learners of a second language. This data was also reported in some pilot studies [24, 25] conducted on Indonesian and Polish students, whose productions highlighted similar intonation contours in all the emotions investigated (joy, anger, sadness, fear, surprise, disgust, and neutral speech). Furthermore, the perceptive investigations conducted in these studies have suggested the hypothesis that the emotional speech produced by the learners in Italian L2 may be not very effective in terms of communication, leading to misunderstanding with native speakers [25].

4.1 The role of transfer in Italian L2

The role of L1 transfer in emotional speech in Italian L2 was explored in a recent pilot study [26], which involved native Italian speakers (three males and two females) and Russian (two females) and Persian (one male and one female) Erasmus students with a B2 level of competence. All the students involved in the study were following an Italian (grammar and communication course), within the same class, at the University of Calabria, and they had lived in Italy for 9 months at the time of the experiment. The elicitation of emotions has been entrusted to the reading of a text, which has been inserted a standard phrase: "It is not possible" (adapted by [27, 28]), translated into the three native languages. To favor the identification of the subject, they were invited to express the required vocal emotion and equivalent facial expression simultaneously. The participants had the opportunity to repeat their performances several times, in order to reduce any inhibitions or insecurities due to the presence of the microphone.

The learners were invited to express their emotions in their language and later in Italian. The parameters investigated were divided into two macro-categories: temporal (computed in milliseconds of the total duration of the target sentence and of the speech rate); intonation, i.e., the pattern and the values of the fundamental frequency (f0), initial frequency (onset), final frequency (offset), the average frequency, and the melodic excursion of the utterance (calculated in semitones). From the results emerged that in relation to the temporal parameters (total duration and speech rate), with equal number of syllables, all the emotional statements produced by the learners in their native language were shorter than those articulated in Italian L1, with the sole exception of the neutral utterance. This pattern has suggested the hypothesis that Russians and Persians, when they express themselves in Italian, fail to adequately control the elocution parameter, especially when the behavior of emotion differs significantly from that of the native Italian, thus determining emotional productions "different" from those expected. Indeed, it was observed that the emotional utterances produced by the learners in Italian L2 did not differ from those produced in their L1. The effect of transfer is, therefore, confirmed. In relation to the intonation parameters, the F0 excursion of the emotional utterances produced by the native Italian tended to be more extended than that produced in L2. The analysis of the utterances produced in the learners' L1 showed, both in Russian and in Persian, a more reduced tonal excursion than native Italian, resulting in a clearly more monotonous production. In fact, a less dynamic intonation characterized the productions in Italian of both groups (to a greater extent, the statements produced by the Russian participants showed a narrower frequency range than the Persians, which instead managed to better modulate the intonation, in some

cases approaching the target language). In this case, it was difficult to attribute the lack of dynamism of the learners' speech to a real prosodic transfer, as, as already mentioned, such behavior can be justified by the discomfort felt when speaking a foreign language and even more so in contexts that invest the emotional sphere.

From a recent study [29], a heterogeneous picture emerged in relation to the L1 of the learners involved (Russians, Tunisians, and Spaniards). The acoustic verification of the emotional productions made by the students in their L1 and in Italian showed a clear evidence of transfer, especially in the speech of the Tunisians, who tended to reproduce in Italian intonational contours very similar to those of their native language. In the productions of the Russians and the Spaniards, instead, the contours, partially overlapping and rather monotonous, lost part of their auditory distinctiveness. According to the authors, the productions in L2, in some ways confused and very often not congruent on a pragmatic level, represent an indication of the difficulty faced by learners when they realize in a different language a complex paralinguistic phenomenon such as emotions.

5. Teaching to express and perceive emotions in L2: a prosodic training

In this section, we will deal with the implementation of a training for the classroom practice. Learners involved in this study are Persian and Russian students who participated in the research described in the previous paragraph. The structure of the training is partly structured following the didactic approach of the task which is defined by Nunan as follows:

> *A piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, middle and an end. ([30], p. 4)*

During the lesson, students concentrate on the meaning and not on the linguistic form and are involved in tasks that simulate or reproduce what happens outside the school context. However, reflection on the language may arise during the work in class and therefore from the need of the learners to reach the communicative objective they have set for themselves. Given the experimental nature and the prosodic focus of the activities, we have planned tasks of different nature that the students have prepared to face a reflection on the paraverbal and non-verbal elements of the emotions that were the object of the training. The first activity involving learners on the theme of emotions is a meta-pragmatic activity. The next phase of the experimentation focused on the presentation of linguistic and communicative inputs of an emotional nature. The learners viewed some film clips showing examples of emotional states (verbal and non-verbal) and were involved in role-play activities. Other non-verbal activities prepared the learners for the actual task which consisted in the planning and realization of a dubbing. Previous studies [31–34] have shown that video technologies are a didactic tool with a strong motivational component, able to involve and stimulate learning in an environment free from anxieties and apprehensions. To assess the effectiveness of the training, we adopted a cross-analysis of learners' production and perception skills—through acoustic analysis and auditory tests—before and after the training. This allowed us to highlight any improvement following the didactic intervention and to formulate further hypotheses. The auditory tests and the acoustic analysis were carried out according to the procedures described above.

Now let us see in detail the articulation of the training which took place over 4 weeks and was divided into four phases.

Phase 1: Meta-pragmatic activities: brainstorming

The aim of the initial phase was to provide language learners with space for a reflection on the language. The meta-pragmatic activity was aimed at an exchange of impressions and information on the modalities of expression of emotions in the learners' countries of origin in order to identify the main criticalities experienced by the learners in the interactions with the natives. This reflection also allowed learners to check the correspondence between the emotional labels proposed in Italian and those used in their L1. In this phase emerged the first criticality experienced by the learners of both groups in the interactions with the natives, due to the Italian habit of amplifying the volume of the voice, during the verbal exchange. Especially in Persian culture, this vocal variation is interpreted as a display of anger. This difference is often the origin of misunderstandings and misinterpretations.

Phase 2: Exposure to linguistic inputs and focus on prosodic aspects

This phase, which we can consider a phase of preparation for the actual tasks, has been focused on exposure to linguistic input, taken from Italian films and from the corpus of emotions produced by the natives. In particular, in the case of films, other non-verbal aspects (facial expression, gestures, postures, distance between interlocutors, etc.) involved in the expression of emotions were also identified. Subsequently, we gave the students a description of the mode of expression from a vocal point of view, focusing on the prosodic features [28, 34]. For example, as far as anger is concerned, we have given some information on the physiological alteration (irregular breathing, increased heart rate, etc.) and on the effects observable in speech (sustained speed, increase in intensity, etc.). The objective was to develop the awareness of the psychophysical changes and the effects on the vocal aspects triggered by the emotional states considered above. One of the activities proposed to the learners, who were working in a multilingual environment, was the vision of the clips without the audio, after which they were asked to guess the messages and then to try to realize the acoustic characteristics of the emotional expression conveyed by the messages themselves.

Phase 3: Non-verbal communication practice

The third phase of the training included the performance of some exercises related to non-verbal communication. Learners were divided into pairs and placed back to back. Afterward, they had to reproduce an emotional state by repeating the sequence of numbers from 1 to 4 (to avoid any interference of a semantic nature), letting the other person guess the reproduced emotional state. Some emotions have been expressed more easily (e.g., anger, sadness, and joy); others, however, have raised some difficulties (e.g., disgust and fear), both in production and recognition. In general, learners have learned to "play" with the intonation and the voice, managing to capture the emotional nuances, beyond the linguistic content of the message.

Learners were then involved in a series of playful activities such as interpreting certain dialogic parts characterized by a specific emotional context (e.g., an unexpected encounter between two friends, in which emotional states emerged, i.e., joy, sadness, anger, etc.) and then improvising a similar dialog resorting to some expressions used by the protagonists (see Appendix). The theatrical component of these activities gave the students the opportunity to use other non-verbal components during simulations. In order to enhance the focus on prosodic aspects, students carried out shadowing exercises, in which they were asked to listen to the emotional stimulus produced in Italian and to replicate it (in the shortest possible time) in terms of rhythm and intonation. In this last phase, learners had the opportunity to put into practice the suggestions provided in the previous phase.

Phase 4: The dubbing task

The actual task consisted in the realization of the dubbing. In our study, we selected some scenes (see Appendix) taken from an Italian film, *L'ultimo bacio* ("The Last Kiss" by Gabriele Muccino), containing specific emotional contexts (anger, sadness, joy, fear, and disgust). This phase consisted, in turn, of several moments in order to elaborate the task. During the preparation phase, we invited learners to carefully observe the scenes, initially projected without the audio, and to focus on the facial expressions and the gestures of the actors. Each learner proposed a personal interpretation of the video in an emotional key and tried to guess which of the primary emotions was expressed in the video. The same activity was replicated following the projection of the film with the original audio. This activity encouraged learners to exchange their impressions with respect to the hypotheses that they had previously formulated. The students were then divided into pairs, and each of them was assigned a scene to be interpreted, and they were asked to write the relating script. In this phase, the learners have been given a description of the emotions from a vocal point of view (speech rate, voice volume, intonation, etc.), analyzing together with the learners the characteristics of the actors' speech and its variability according to the emotional context. Later, the students were invited to individually and collectively experiment the lines of the dialogs assigned to each of them. Their interpretative effort focused on the emotions that were realized paying attention to gestures, facial expressions, and composite vocal modulations. Shootings were done with a digital camera, and audio recording was done using a professional recorder with internal microphone, to facilitate the dynamism of the scenes. At the end of the shoot, the material obtained was processed through a video editing software (Windows Movie Maker). With the active collaboration of the students, the assembly of the scenes was carried out; finally, the films obtained were screened in class, and the projection was followed by a meta-pragmatic discussion on the use of the voice and the body in the expression of emotions.

Acoustic analysis ad auditory assessment: results

The data collected in the first and last phase of the training were subject to an acoustic analysis. Furthermore, before the training began, an auditory test was presented to both groups containing the six considered emotions (together with the neutral speech), performed by a native Italian speaker, in order to highlight any initial critical points. The hypotheses formulated at the outset were confirmed by the results obtained, highlighting the presence of concrete difficulties in the management of emotional speech by the subjects involved, both in terms of production and in terms of their auditory recognition. The acoustic analysis revealed some elements worthy of reflection. First of all, among all the investigated parameters, the most resistant index seems to be the intonation contour. Moreover, the analysis of learners' emotional speech in their L1 confirmed the hypothesis of the influence of the prosodic structures of the native language on those of the target language. In the melodic contour the emotions produced in L2, different phenomena of prosodic transfer can be noticed; the native language of the learners acts as a powerful filter that slows down, and sometimes blocks, the acquisition of the new intonation patterns. For example, the intonation contour of sadness realized by the Russian learners in L2, at least before the training, is similar to the one they produce in their native language, while the melodic excursion related to surprise never reaches hearing adequacy in the L2 of Persian learners, being less modulated than that of native Italian, but approximate to the melodic excursion of native Persian. In **Figure 1** we report by way of example the intonation contour relating to the sadness produced in Italian by a Russian learner. Before the training, the contour, placed in a wide tonal space, settles on high F0 values (EM: 11 ST); after the training we can see not only a re-dimensioning of the melodic excursion (7.7 ST) but also the correct positioning

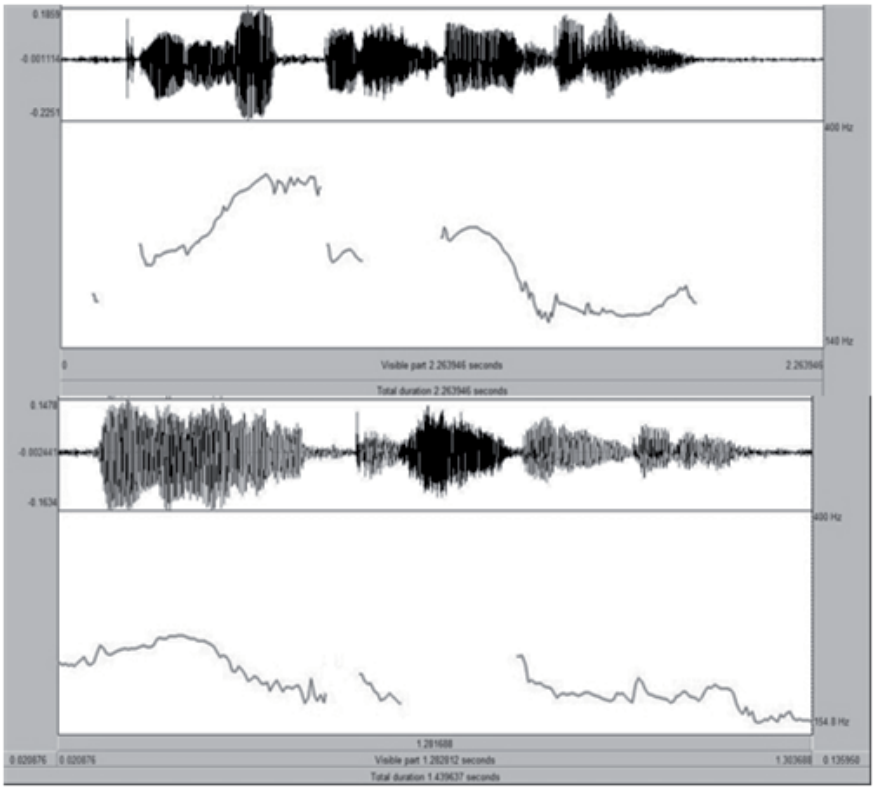

Figure 1.
Waveform and intonation contour of the sentence non è possibile *("it's not possible") conveying sadness produced by a Russian learner before the training (upper figure) and after the training (lower figure).*

of the final contour; in this last case, the hearing result is obviously improved. However, it should be pointed out that emotional intonations only partially improve, and not all, under the action of training.

Learners are able to better control temporal parameters, duration, and speech rate and consequently to adapt them to the new linguistic model (**Figures 2** and **3**).

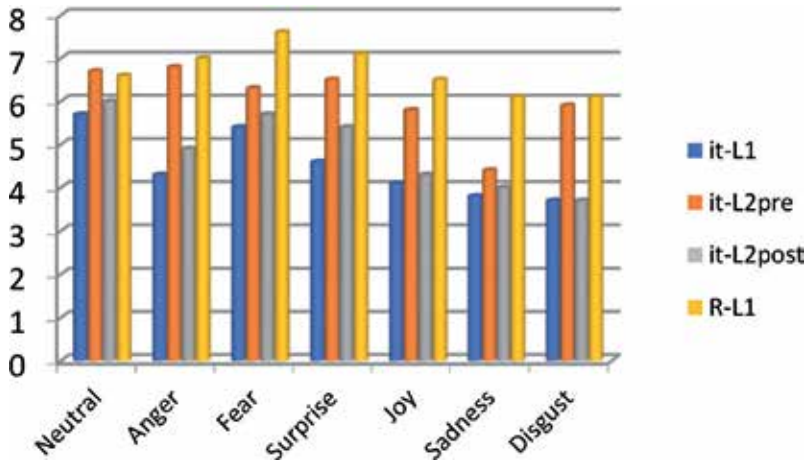

Figure 2.
Speech rate. Comparison of Russian learners' productions before (it-L2pre) and after (it-L2post) the training. The figure also shows the variation of speech rate in learners' L1 (R-L1).

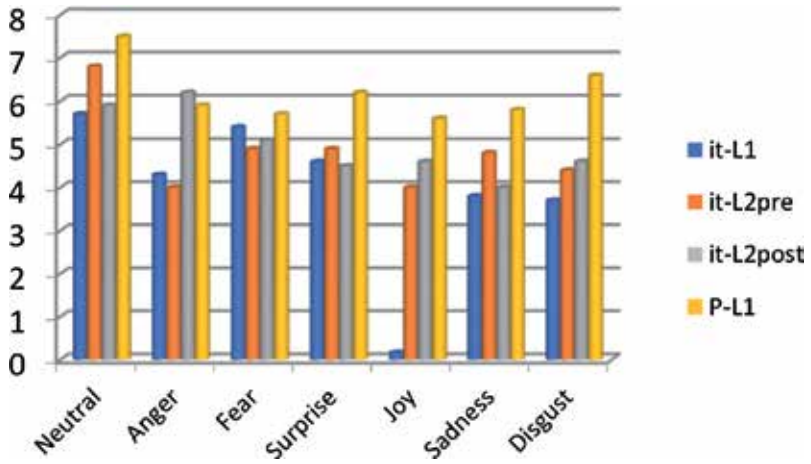

Figure 3.
Speech rate. Comparison of Persian learners' productions before (it-L2pre) and after (it-L2post) the training. The figure also shows the variation of speech rate in learners' L1 (P-L1).

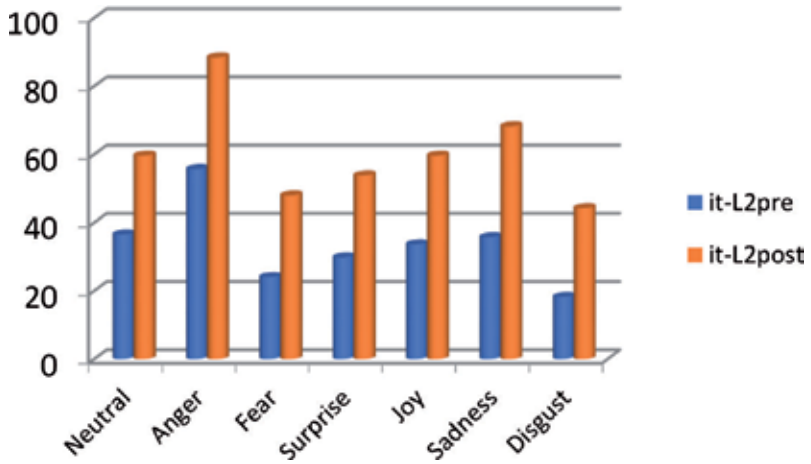

Figure 4.
Percentages of mean recognition accuracy of emotional sentences produced by learners before (it-L2pre) and after (it-L2post) the training.

These two parameters therefore show greater ductility, and presumably these are the ones that contribute to improving the auditory responses of the subsequent experimental phase. For example, the speech rate, anger, surprise, joy, and disgust found in Russian learners before teaching training show a strong conditioning by their native language, an effect that is, however, reduced after the training phase (**Figure 2**). The overall improvement was proven by the decoding of native speakers[1]: learners' emotional productions after the training have been recognized by native speakers much more than the pre-training productions (**Figure 4**). On the level of auditory

[1] The vocal productions of the learners (before and after the training) and those of an Italian speaker were included in an online auditory test and submitted to a sample of 26 Italian listeners (12 men and 14 women, aged 18–66 years, mean age: 35 years). The initial page of the test provided a brief introduction on the object of the research and a series of indications on the modalities of execution. The test consisted in listening to the stimulus and selecting the response within a set of options (joy, anger, disgust, fear, sadness, surprise, and neutral). The listeners had the opportunity to listen to the audio file several times and to add comments and personal opinions. Stimuli were played randomly.

recognition, the learners have shown a marked improvement in their decoding skills, correctly recognizing the emotions that initially caused major problems (although the Persian group encountered some difficulties).

6. Conclusions

The results of this study lead us to some more general considerations regarding possible interpretations on the acquisition of prosody in L2, including some observed transfer phenomena. Although the linguistic distance between L1 and L2 potentially constitutes an obstacle to the acquisition of new prosodic structures and their decoding, cultural distance plays in many cases a very important role in the elaboration of the perception and production of emotional states. From a verbal report conducted with the Russian and the Persian learners, extremely different communication profiles emerged with respect to the target language, and their perception of emotion is interpreted and adapted according to the cultural norms. In particular, the strong discomfort of the Persians arises from a different interpretation of the non-verbal signals of the Italian natives; for example, in Persian culture, prolonged eye contact is often decoded as an act of defiance; the voice volume of the conversation tends to remain rather calm, and the use of gestures is moderate. In the Italian culture, a communicative exchange is instead based on maintaining a visual contact, interpreted as a sign of attention, sincerity, and participation; moreover, in a normal conversation, participants continually resort to gestures and facial expressions to emphasize the message, and the volume of the voice adapts to the general emphasis and tends to rise considerably. All this is interpreted by Iranian speakers as an act of aggression; on the other hand, the Italians themselves could interpret the non-verbal behavior of the Persians as signs of coldness and low emotional participation.

These are therefore two essentially different communicative styles that are often the cause of misunderstandings due to the reciprocal tendency to interpret emotional speech according to its own cultural and linguistic parameters, considering them universally shared. As we have observed at length in the course of our discussion of the emotional phenomenon, vocal productions that manifest certain emotional values in a given culture can, in another, characterize contexts that are not specifically emotional or neutral. The difficulties encountered by the Persian learners in the interpretation of some verbal and non-verbal behaviors of Italians amply demonstrate this aspect. We therefore hypothesize that the transfer is not only of a prosodic nature, but that it has deeper roots, closely linked to the behavioral patterns that we have learned to manage and decode since our infancy and that are part of an adult's cultural and emotional memory. In this perspective, the management of emotional speech in an L2 is not limited to the correct use of the intonation structures of the target language, but involves deeper levels, perhaps less sensitive to the educational intervention. Moreover, the transfer acts as a sort of filter that the learner uses to elaborate the hypotheses on the target language being not the mere passage of a structure from one language to another. The development of an emotional competence in the target language represents, as we know, a delicate and personal path. However, we believe that focused instruction, similar to what we have proposed, can positively contribute to the process of interaction between very different linguistic and cultural systems.

As a matter of fact, the training carried out in this study, beyond the cultural and typological distance existing between the native languages involved in the experiment, has nevertheless produced positive effects. A long-term verification

still remains to be carried out, in order to determine whether the phenomena under investigation have been actually acquired.

Thanks

I would like to thank Emanuela Paone for the careful and extensive revisions, suggestions, and the helpful comments on the chapter.

Appendix

Screenplay: "The Last Kiss" by Gabriele Muccino, 2000.
La Confessione
The confession
Anna irrompe nello studio del marito psicologo (Emilio), mentre questi è impegnato con una paziente.
Anna breaks into the studio of her husband, the psychologist (Emilio), while he is engaged with a patient.
A.: *Eccoci qua!*
A.: Here we are!
E.: *Cos'è successo?*
What happened?
A.: *Secondo te niente di importante, vero*?
A.: In your opinion, nothing relevant, isn't it?
E.: *Sto lavorando.*
I'm working.
A.: *Lo vedo.*
I see it.
E.: *E allora esci e ripassa tra quaranta minuti, quando avrò finito.*
And then go out and come back in 45 minutes, when I'm done.
A: *Ti devo parlare*.
I have to talk to you.
E.: *E non potresti parlarmi tra quaranta minuti o stasera, quando torno a casa, di grazia?*
So couldn't you talk to me in 45 minutes or tonight, when I get home?
A.: *NO!*
NO!
E.: (rivolgendosi alla paziente) *È mia moglie, non si preoccupi*.
(turning to the patient) She's my wife, don't worry.
A.: *Te la devo dire subito questa cosetta, di grazia!* (arrabbiata)
I have to tell you this *little thing* right away, goodness! (angry)
(Emilio si alza e si avvicina minaccioso alla moglie)
(Emilio gets up and approaches her wife threateningly)
A: (sarcastica) *Dio, che paura! Sto provocando una reazione!*
(sarcastically) God, what a fear! I'm provoking a reaction!
E.: *Ma tu hai bevuto, eh?*
But you've been drinking, haven't you?
A.: Ah, now I've been drinking, huh?
Tonight, I leave you, my dear, you understand what
I said? I'll leave you forever!
E.: *Adesso fuori! Fuori!* (urla)
Out now! Out! (yell out)

A.: TI HO TRADITO! Hai capito che ho detto? TI HO TRADITO!
Arrivederci e tante scuse per il disturbo
(rivolgendosi alla paziente).
I HAVE BETRAYED YOU! You understand what
I said? I CHEATED ON YOU!
Goodbye and many apologies for the trouble
(addressing the patient).

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Chapter 3

Offer Refusals in L2 French

Bernard Mulo Farenkia

Abstract

This study examines the production of offer refusals in native and non-native French. Data were obtained through written discourse completion tasks by a group of Canadian learners of French as a second language, a group of L1 French speakers, and a group of English native speakers. The aim was to compare offer refusal strategies in French L1, French L2, and English L1 and to locate traces of pragmatic transfer in L2 French refusal behavior. Significant differences were found between the French L1 speakers and the French L2 learners with respect to the use of direct refusals, indirect refusals, and adjuncts to refusals. For instance, it was found that the French L2 learners use a very limited repertoire of linguistic realizations to express the inability to accept offers. At the level of indirect refusals, the results reveal some similarities between the L2 French learners, the L1 French speakers, and the L1 English speakers: the three groups use reasons more often than any other strategy in their refusal utterances. Differences emerge, however, in the linguistic realization of this pragmatic category. Implications of the findings for L2 French pedagogy were also discussed.

Keywords: interlanguage pragmatics, offer refusals, L2 French, variation, canadian context

1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on strategies used by a group of Canadian university students to decline offers in French as a second language. Three groups of participants were involved in the study: 19 French L1 speakers, 12 French L2 speakers/learners, and 32 English L1 speakers. The analysis aimed at comparing the strategies used by French L2 learners with those employed by French L1 speakers and English L1 speakers. The study also examines traces of pragmatic transfers, that is, the impact of the source language of the learners (English) on the refusal patterns produced by the French leaners. The chapter is structured as follows. Section 2 presents the theoretical background, in which the speech act of refusing is defined and a brief literature review is presented. The methodology is outlined in Section 3, and the findings are presented and discussed in Section 4. The chapter concludes with remarks and perspectives for future research.

2. Theoretical background

A speaker may produce a refusal to express his/her will not "to engage in an action proposed by the interlocutor" ([1], p. 121). Refusals are usually negative responses to requests, invitations, offers, suggestions. A refusal represents a high degree of threat to the hearer's face and to social harmony. Refusals can be realized

in many different ways, depending on the language or cultural setting in which the exchange occurs and on whether the speaker intends to achieve a harmonious or conflictive outcome of the verbal exchange. Refusals may appear as single acts/moves (e.g., single direct refusals (*I cannot, I am unable to; no*) or single indirect refusals such as justifications (*I am very busy*), promises (*next time*, etc.) or as multiple moves consisting of head acts (*no I cannot. I am very busy; I am sorry I cannot make it*), or heads acts and supportive acts that come before or after the head act (*thanks for the offer but I cannot accept it*). In short, refusals may be described as single speech acts or as speech act sets or communicative acts (cf. [2]). Given the real danger of face threat inherent in refusals, language users are expected to be very cautious in the choice of linguistic realization patterns of refusals. In second language acquisition, this expectation seems even more problematic for the L2 speaker.

A number of interesting studies have been carried out on refusals, from a cross-cultural pragmatic (cf. [3]) or interlanguage pragmatic perspective (cf. [4–6] for a discussion of previous studies on refusals). Studies on refusals from a variational pragmatic perspective include Ren's [7] comparative study of refusals in Mainland and Taiwan Chinese and Mulo Farenkia's [8] comparative study of invitation refusals in Hexagonal (France) French and Cameroon French.

Whereas a considerable body of research in second language acquisition has focused on various speech acts and target languages (cf. [3], pp. 44–55), there are very few studies on refusals in L2 French. These include Bakkum's [9] analysis of request and suggestion refusals by Dutch advanced French learners. It is important to note that the production of other speech acts in French L2 has been the focus of several studies. These include Kraft and Geluykens' [10] analysis of complaint strategies in L2 French by German learners of French, Schaeffer's [11] analysis of complaints in L2 French by English-speaking learners, Mulo Farenkia's [12] study of compliments in L2 French by English-speaking Canadian learners of French, Warga's work [13] on requests in L2 French by Austrian learners of French, and Warga and Schölmberger's [14] study of apologies by Austrian learners of French in a study abroad situation. The present study of offer refusals adds to this growing body of research on how learners become proficient in the pragmatics of French.

Our study is situated within the framework of interlanguage pragmatics, that is, the study of "how non-native-speaking (...) learners of a language acquire pragmatic competence in their target language" ([15], p. 261). Our goal is to examine how a group of Canadian students who are native speakers of English produce offer refusals in French, their target language. Acquiring an appropriate refusal behavior in L2 French learning is considered as a part of the general goal of L2 French learners, which is to be able to communicate effectively in an "L2-speaking environment where the leaner's target linguistic behavior is, ultimately, that of the [native speaker]" ([15], p. 261).

3. Method

3.1 Participants

A total of 63 students participated in the present study: 19 French L1 speakers (native speakers of French), 3 males and 16 females, aged between 18 and 23, University students in Toulouse (France); 12 intermediate French learners at Cape Breton University (Canada), three males and nine females, aged between 20 and 25, and native speakers of Canadian English; and 32 English L1 speakers, first and second year students at Cape Breton University, 16 females and 16 males, aged between 18 and 23, and native speakers of Canadian English.

3.2 Instrument

A discourse completion task questionnaire (see [16]) consisting of many different situations was employed to elicit refusals from the three groups of participants. The questionnaire comprised many situations in which the participants were asked to produce speech acts. Data were collected in Toulouse, France, in 2014 and in Sydney, Nova Scotia, Canada, in 2016. The French version of the DCT questionnaire was distributed to the L1 French respondents and the L2 French learners, while the English version of the questionnaire was distributed to the L1 English informants. Three of these situations elicited offer refusals, the focus of the present study. The three scenarios employed were described as follows:

a. **Situation 1**: *financial assistance from a friend*

Vous avez quelques difficultés financières ces derniers temps et l'un(e) de vos ami(e) s se propose de vous prêter deux mille francs, que vous rembourserez quand vous pourrez. Vous voulez décliner l'offre. Vous lui dites.

"You are in a difficult financial situation and your friend offers to lend you some money. You want to decline the offer. You say to him/her."

b. **Situation 2:** *ride from a stranger*

Alors que vous attendez le taxi / bus à la sortie des cours, une voiture s'arrête devant vous. Le/la chauffeur(e) que vous ne connaissez pas vous propose de vous déposer où vous rendez. Vous voulez décliner l'offre. Vous lui dites.

"You are waiting for a cab/the bus after classes. A car stops and the driver, who you have never met before, offers to give you a ride home. You want to decline the offer. You say to him/her."

c. **Situation 3**: *job offer from the boss*

Vous travaillez à temps partiel dans une entreprise de la ville. Votre patron vous propose un poste à temps plein et nettement mieux rémunéré dans une autre ville. Vous voulez décliner cette offre. Vous lui dites.

"You are working part-time in an enterprise and your boss offers you a full-time and better paid job in another town. You want to decline the offer. You say to him/her."

In Situation 1, the speakers, that is, the person refusing the offer, the addressee, and the offerer, know each other very well: the relationship is a close one; in Situation 2, the participants do not know each other, that is, their relationship is distant. In Situation 3, the person making the offer has a higher socio-professional status.

3.3 Data analysis

The 63 informants provided 189 answers for the three questionnaire tasks: 57 responses by the L1 French participants, 36 responses by the French L2 informants, and 96 responses by the English L1 speakers. The offer refusals collected mostly consist of combinations of at least two utterances. Analysis of the data was based on schemes established in previous studies (cf. [3, 17]) in which refusals are examined with respect to number of moves involved in the same utterance, the use of head

acts and supportive moves, level of directness of head acts, the use of internal mitigating or intensifying devices, etc.

The first step of the analysis consisted in segmenting the examples produced by the participants of the three groups and in classifying each occurrence or token as either a head act or an adjunct or supportive act. A head act is the main component or strategy used to realize refusals, independently of other elements in the conversational turn. It can be direct (direct refusal) or indirect (indirect refusal).

In the examples produced by the respondents, direct refusals are realized in many different ways. While some participants use "no," others prefer utterances that express their inability to accept the offer using utterances like 'I cannot," 'I cannot accept," and *je ne peux pas l'accepter* "I cannot accept it." In the three data sets, direct refusals are generally embedded in sequences made up of different types of speech acts with various pragmatic functions as in (1–3). In (1), the direct refusal *non* "no" is mitigated by a gratitude expression *merci* "thanks," which is then followed by a justification *je vais prendre le métro et le bus* "I will take the metro and the bus." In (2), the direct refusal is je *ne peux pas l'accepter*. It is preceded by a gratitude expression (*Merci pour l'offre)* and followed by the reference to an alternative (*Je vais voir si je peux travailler plus à mon emploi*). In (3), the direct refusal is "no." It is followed by a gratitude expression "thank you" and then by a statement of the speaker's principle "I do not like to take money from people" which may also be considered as a justification of the direct refusal. In the three examples, the accompanying speech acts are intended to soften the illocutionary force of direct refusals and to save the face of the person who made the offer.

1. Non merci je vais prendre le métro et le bus (FL1-S2[1]).

"No thanks I will take the metro and the bus."

2. *Merci pour l'offre! Je ne peux pas l'accepter. Je vais voir si je peux travailler plus à mon emploi (FL2-S1)*.

"Thanks for the offer! I cannot accept it. I will see if I can work more."

3. No, thank you. I do not like to take money from people (EL1-S1).

Indirect refusals also appear in many different forms. They can take the form of justifications as in (3), statements of preference as in (4), or statements of principles as in (5). In many examples of the corpus, indirect refusals are usually combined with different types of speech acts or refusal strategies as in (6).

4. *Je préfère rester dans ma ville, en plus c'est là où je fais mes études* (FL1-S3).

"I prefer to stay in my city moreover I am a student here."

5. *Je n'aime pas dépendre de quelqu'un surtout lorsqu'il s'agit d'argent* (FL1-S1).

"I do not like to depend on someone especially when it concerns money."

Adjuncts to refusals, also called supportive moves, are strategies or speech acts that normally accompany refusals but cannot realize refusals on their own. They are acts that come either before or after head acts. They cannot be used alone to

[1] The examples are coded as follows: the three situations are coded as S1 (for the friend situation), S2 (for the stranger situation), and S3 (for the boss situation). French L1 is coded as FL1, French L2 is coded as FL2, and English L1 is coded as EL1. For instance: (FL1-S2) stands for examples of refusals to offers of a ride offer by a stranger in French L1.

decline an offer. Rather, their pragmatic function is to mitigate the head acts, in order to save the other's face and preserve social harmony as in (6), where the direct refusal *je suis toutefois obligé de decliner* is supported by a positive opinion about the job offer, namely, *c'est une belle perspective,* and a gratitude expression, namely *je vous remercie d'avoir pensé à moi*. These adjuncts are intended to inform the boss that despite the refusal, the speaker really appreciates the offer. In doing so, the speaker intends to mitigate the refusal and to dissipate any potential threat to their professional relationship.

6. *C'est une belle perspective, je vous remercie d'avoir pensé à moi, je suis toutefois obligé de décliner* (FL1-S3).

"It's a good offer. I thank you for having thought about me. However, I am obliged to decline the offer."

The research questions addressed are the following: (1) How do L2 French learners refuse offers in comparison with L1 French and L1 English speakers? (2) What is the effect of social distance and social power on the choices of refusal strategies by L2 French learners? (3) Are there any elements of pragmatic transfer in the use of refusal strategies by L2 French learners? The results are presented and discussed in the next section.

4. Results and discussion

4.1 Overall distribution of refusal strategies

We will start with the overall distribution of the three main refusal strategies (direct refusals, indirect refusals, and adjuncts to refusals) in the three groups of respondents (cf. **Table 1**).

There is a total of 163 refusal strategies in the French L1 data. The L2 French learners produced 126 refusal strategies, and the L1 English speakers used 243 refusal strategies. Indirect refusals are the most commonly used strategies by the participants of the three groups, with the L1 French speakers showing a higher number of indirect strategies than the L2 French learners and the L1 English speakers (French L1, n = 75 (46%), vs. French L2, n = 51 (40.5%), vs. English L1, n = 94 (38.7%)). Although adjuncts are the second most frequent strategies in the three data sets, the L1 English speakers used a higher percentage of adjuncts (37.8%) than the respondents of the two other groups (L2 French learners, 35.7%, and L1 French speakers, 32%). Direct refusals are the least employed strategies, and they are distributed equally across the three data sets. The results summarized in **Table 1** show that the participants of the three groups displayed the same preferences for head acts strategies, albeit with slight differences with respect to their frequencies.

Refusal strategies	L1 French	L2 French	L1 English
Direct refusals	36 (22%)	30 (23.8%)	57 (23.5%)
Indirect refusals	75 (46%)	51 (40.5%)	94 (38.7%)
Adjuncts to refusals	52 (32%)	45 (35.7%)	92 (37.8%)
Total	**163 (100%)**	**126 (100%)**	**243 (100%)**

Table 1.
Distribution of refusal strategies in French L1, French L2, and English L1.

The analysis further reveals that the three groups of informants differed in many ways in the choice of direct and indirect refusal strategies and adjuncts to refusals.

4.2 Realizations of refusal strategies

4.2.1 Direct refusal strategies

Direct refusals are expressed in many different ways, as can be seen **Table 2**. Overall, four different direct refusal strategies emerge across the three language groups, albeit with differences.

While the L1 French speakers and the L2 French learners used four different direct strategies, the L1 English participants used three direct strategies. **Table 2** also shows that the most frequently used direct strategy in the three groups is "no." It represents 61% in the L1 French data set, 53.3% in the L2 French data, and 47.4% of the L1 English responses. The results indicate that the choice of the L2 French learners leans more toward that of the L1 French speakers.

The second most frequent type of direct refusal consists in expressing the speaker's inability to accept the offer. We can see in **Table 2** that the three groups of participants behaved differently in using this direct strategy. While this strategy accounts for 45.6% and 36.7% of the L1 English and L2 French direct refusals, respectively, it accounts only for 22.3% of the direct refusals in L1 French. In other words, L2 French learners express their inability to accept offers much more frequently than the L1 French speakers but in a lesser extent than L1 English speakers.

The analysis of linguistic realizations of the "inability" strategy revealed some interesting results. In the L1 French and L2 French examples, statements of inability to accept the offer are realized using negative short or elliptic syntactic constructions such as *Je ne peux pas (accepter)* "I can't (accept)" and *Je ne peux pas l'accepter* "I can't (accept) (it)." The L1 French and L2 French participants also produce expanded negative syntactic structures in which they explicitly mention the object offered and declined, as can be seen in the following examples: *Je ne peux pas accepter votre proposition* (FL1-S3) "I can't accepter your offer" and *Je ne peux pas donner suite à votre demande* (FL1-S3) "I can't give a positive response to your offer/request." While all the L2 French learners used the verb *pouvoir* in the present tense, some of the L1 French speakers used *pouvoir* in the future tense (e.g., *Je ne pourrai accepter/je ne pourrai pas* "I won't accept/I won't").

Overall, the L2 French learners have a limited repertoire of the patterns of "*je ne peux pas*" to express "inability," while the L1 French speakers have a larger and more diversified repertoire of constructions to express "inability" to accept the offer. The fact that the L2 French respondents mostly make use of short structure to express inability may be due to a similar behavior in their first language. As a matter of fact, the analysis shows that the L1 English speakers mostly use short structures such as "I can't (accept)" and "I will not." They also employ expanded structures, such as

Type of direct refusal	L1 French	L2 French	L1 English
No	22 (61.1%)	16 (53.3%)	27 (47.4%)
Inability	8 (22.3%)	11 (36.7%)	26 (45.6%)
No want/interest/need	3 (8.3%)	1 (3.3%)	4 (7%)
Performative	3 (8.3%)	2 (6.7%)	0
Total	**36 (100%)**	**30 (100%)**	**57 (100%)**

Table 2.
Distribution of direct refusal strategies in French L1, French L2, and English L1.

"I can't take your money/the job," "I cannot accept the offer," "I am unable to accept the position," etc., but in a much lesser extent. Also noteworthy is the fact that realizations of the "inability" strategy are generally accompanied by other speech acts, as can be seen in the following three examples. In (7), the direct refusal is followed by three other strategies. In (8), the direct refusal is preceded by a gratitude expression and followed by the mention of an alternative plan to solve the problem. In (9), the direct refusal is preceded by an expression of gratitude.

7. Je ne peux pas accepter! T'inquiète pas je vais m'en sortir, merci quand même (FL1-S1).

"I can't accept it. Don't worry (about me). I will be fine. Anyways, thanks."

8. *Merci pour l'offre! Je ne peux pas l'accepter. Je vais voir si je peux travailler plus à mon emploi* (FL2-S1).

"Thanks for the offer. I can't accept it. I will see if I can work more."

9. Thank you for the opportunity, but I cannot accept that offer (EL1-S3).

The third strategy employed to refuse offers directly consists in expressing either lack of interest ("no interest") in the offer or lack of need ("no need") for the object or help offered. This strategy represents 8.6% of the L1 French direct refusals, 3.3% of the L2 French direct refusals, and 7% of the L1 English direct refusals. The "no interest/no need" strategy is realized in the L1 French corpus as *je ne suis pas intéressé par cette offre* (S3) "I am not interested in the offer," *ça ne m'intéresse pas* "I am not interested," and *je n'en ai pas besoin* "I don't need it," while it is realized in the L2 French data as *je n'ai besoin pas*[2] (FL2-S1) "I don't need it." In the English L1 data, it is realized as "I don't want to borrow money" and "I don't need your charity."

The fourth direct strategy consists in employing performative utterances. This strategy occurs only in the L1 French and L2 French data sets. In the L1 French responses, the strategy appears either in a direct form as in (10) or in the form of a hedged performative, as in (11) and (12). In both examples, the illocutionary force is directly expressed by the performative verb *decliner* "to decline" and mitigated by means of the hedging expressions *je suis oblige de; je me vois obligé de* ("I obliged to").

10. **Je refuse de déménager**. Ce n'est. pas dans mes projets (FL1-S3).

I refuse to move (to another city). It is not part of my plans.

11. C'est. une belle perspective, je vous remercie d'avoir pensé à moi. *Je suis toutefois obligé de décliner* (FL1-S3).

It's a good idea. Thanks for thinking about me. I am however obliged to decline (the offer).

12. Je suis très intéressée. ***Cependant je me vois obligée de décliner*** car pour ma vie de famille j'ai besoin de stabilité et je ne peux pas me permettre de changer la ville (FL1-S3).

"I am interested. However, I have to decline (the offer) because I need stability in my family and I cannot afford to move to another city."

[2] This example shows that the FL2 learner has difficulties in the use of the negation particle "ne pas": instead of "je n'en ai pas" or "je n'ai pas besion de", the FL2 learners mostly write "je n'ai pas besoi" or "je ne besoin pas."

In the two examples attested in the L2 French data set, the performatives are characterized by the use of the verbs *décliner* (to decline) and *refuser* (to refuse), and these verbs are modified my means of the modal verb "je dois" (I must/have to), as in (13) and (14). The mitigating devices employed in performative utterances by the L1 French speakers and L2 French learners seem to be motivated by their intention to be explicit enough while trying to save the face of their interlocutors/superiors.

13. *Malheureusement, je dois te décliner*[3]. Je ne peux pas déménager à une autre ville à ce temps (FL2-S3).

"Unfortunately, I have to decline (the offer). I cannot move to another city at this moment."

14. *Je suis très contente que vous m'offrez ce poste et j'apprécie beaucoup, par contre je dois refuser* (FL2-S3).

"I am very happy that you offer me the position and I really appreciate it, I however have to decline it."

4.2.2 Indirect refusal strategies

Indirect refusals may take different forms, as can be seen in **Table 3**. The results show similarities and differences regarding their use by the three groups of respondents.

Table 3 shows that the L1 French speakers produced 75 tokens, the L2 French learners used 51 examples, while the L1 English speakers used 94 examples of indirect refusals. **Table 3** also establishes that the L1 French speakers used six different speech acts (reason/explanation, dissuasion, preference, principle, apology, and delayed response), the L2 French learners employed six different speech acts (reason/explanation, dissuasion, preference, principle, apology, and request), while the L1 English speakers chose seven different speech acts (reason/explanation, dissuasion, preference, principle, apology, alternative, and moralizing).

Reasons/explanations are by far the most preferred speech act by the respondents of the three groups when declining offers indirectly: the percentage of this speech act is much higher in the L2 French corpus (64.7%) than in the L1 French data set (60%) and the L1 English data set (43.6%). This result suggests that the L2 French learners felt more comfortable giving reasons for their refusals than the participants of the other two groups. The reasons and explanations provided by the respondents when declining offers are generally combined with other speech acts as in (15–17).

15. *C'est très gentil de ta part mais je ne peux pas accepter, cela me gêne et ce n'est pas ton rôle* (FL1-S1).

"That's very kind of you but I can't accept (the offer), it makes me uncomfortable and it's not your role" (to help me out).

16. *Merci, c'est très gentil, mais je ne suis pas confortable avec ceci* (FL2-S1).

"Thanks, that's very kind, but I am not comfortable with that."

[3] In this example, the L2 French speaker literally says "I have to decline you" instead of "I have to decline the offer."

Type of indirect refusal	L1 French	L2 French	L1 English
Reason/explanation	45 (60%)	33 (64.7%)	41 (43.6%)
Dissuasion	18 (24%)	9 (17.7%)	23 (24.5%)
Preference	6 (8%)	4 (7.9%)	1 (1%)
Principle	3 (4%)	3 (5.9%)	12 (12.7%)
Apology/Regret	2 (2.7%)	1 (1.9%)	12 (12.7%)
Avoidance	1 (1.3%)	0	0
Request	0	1 (1.9%)	0
Alternative	0	0	4 (4.3%)
Moralizing	0	0	1 (1%)
Total	**75 (100%)**	**51 (100%)**	**94 (100%)**

Table 3.
Distribution of indirect refusal strategies in French L1, French L2, and English L1.

17. *Merci beaucoup! Mais, je ne suis pas confortable d'accepter de l'argent de vous. Je vais trouver un [sic] autre façon d'avoir de l'argent* (FL2-S1).

"Thanks a lot! But I am not comfortable accepting money from you. I will find another means to get money."

The content of the reasons given is not the same across the three situations. In Situation 1, one of the main reasons given to decline a loan from a friend is that such an offer makes the speaker uncomfortable. Expressions of embarrassment are different in three groups. As a matter of fact, the L1 French speakers mostly used constructions like *cela me gêne* it bothers me" and *je suis super gênée* "I am really not comfortable," whereas the L2 French learners preferred the construction *je ne suis pas comfortable*, which appears to be a literary translation of "I am not comfortable." The L1 English speakers used constructions such as *I do not feel right taking your money*; *I do not want to cause conflict in our relationship*.

In Situation 2, the main reason given to decline the ride offered by a stranger is that the speaker wants to use public transportation or take a cab. Some respondents indicate that they are waiting for a drive, as in (18–20).

18. *Non merci, j'ai déjà appelé un taxi pour me ramener* (FL1-S2).

"No thanks, I have already called a cab."

19. *Non, merci! Je vais prendre l'autobus* (FL2-S2).

"No thanks! I will take the bus."

20. No, thank you. I'm already waiting for a drive (EL1-S2).

In Situation 3, the respondents most commonly justify their refusals to the job offer by indicating that they do not want to leave the city in which they are currently. Other participants indicate that they are happy with the part-time job or that they have commitments (e.g., family, friends, etc.) that make it impossible to move, as in (21–22).

21. *C'est une superbe opportunité* **mais je ne peux pas partir de Toulouse** (FL1-S3).

"It's a superb opportunity but I cannot leave Toulouse."

22. *Merci, mais je ne peux pas quitté [sic] cette ville maintenant.* **Je dois finir mes études premièrement** (FL2-S3).

"Thanks, but I can't leave this city now. I first have to finish my studies."

23. **I'm too busy with school and other things**. Thank you but I cannot accept your offer (EL1-S3).

Dissuasion is the second most common act used to decline offers. With the dissuasion act, the refuser seeks to do two things: to convince the interlocutor not to worry or to tell him/her that the refuser has a way out or other options. In some cases, both intentions are expressed in the same turn. The dissuasion act is also distributed differently in the three data sets. While this speech act is equally distributed in the L1 French (24%) and L1 English (24.5%) data sets, it shows a much lower frequency in the L2 French examples (17.7%). This result may be due to the fact that some of the L2 French learners cannot adequately articulate this intention (the dissuasion act) in the target language. With regard to realization patterns, the results show that the dissuasion act generally appears with other refusal strategies in the data as in (24–26).

24. *Non,* **c'est bon t'inquiète***, pas envie d'avoir une dette en plus* (FL1-S1).

"No, **that's fine don't worry about it**, (I) don't want to be in debt."

25. Merci pour vouloir m'aider, mais je ne peux pas accepter. *Vous travaillez fort pour votre argent et vous le méritez*. ***Je vais trouver un autre moyen*** (FL2-S1).

"Thanks for trying to help me, but I can't accept it. You work hard for your money and you deserve it. I will look for another way out."

26. No thank you. I appreciate your offer but I cannot take your money. **I'll figure something out** (EL1-S1).

Many differences emerge in the way the respondents of the three groups frame their dissuasions. The L1 French speakers mostly used constructions like *T'inquiètes /ne t'inquiète pas* "do not worry," *je vais m'en sortir* "I will be fine/I'll find a way out," *je vais trouver une autre solution* "I will find another solution," *je vais me débrouiller* "I will cope/I will *préfère me débrouiller toute seule , je vais me débrouiller (par moi-même/autrement)*, and *je vais trouver une (autre) solution.* The L2 French learners used constructions like *c'est okay* "It's fine," *ça va*, *ce n'est pas grave*, *je vais être ok* "I will be fine," *c'est pas une bonne idée*, *Je vais voir si je peux travailler plus à mon emploi*, *Je vais trouver un autre façon d'avoir de l'argent*, *je vais faire un plan*, and *Je vais trouver un autre moyen.*

The L1 English speakers employed utterances like *that's okay*, *I'm alright*, *I'll be alright*, *I'm fine*, *I'm good*, *I'll be fine*, *I'd rather pull my own weight*, *I'll manage and get back on my feet soon*, and *I'll figure something out.* Overall, the two most frequently used speech acts by the participants of the three groups represent more than 80% of all instances of indirect refusals in the L1 French and the L2 French data sets, while they represent less than 70% of all instances of indirect refusals in the L1 English examples.

The distribution of the third and fourth most frequent speech act is also different in the three groups. As can be seen in **Table 3**, while the expression of preference is the third most common type in the L1 French corpus (8%) and the L2 French examples (7.9%), this speech act is the least employed by the L1 English speakers. The statement of preference is similar to the justification act in that it indicates

that refuser would consider another plan of action instead of accepting the offer made by the interlocutor. Differences emerge regarding realization strategies of this speech act in the three groups. In refusing a friend's offer to lend them money, L1 French speakers expressed preference using constructions like *je préfère me débrouiller toute seule* and *je préfère ne pas mélanger mes amis à ces affaires* as in (27). In refusing a stranger's offer of a ride, the L1 French respondents used constructions like *je préfère rentrer à pied* "I prefer to walk" and *je préfère marcher et utiliser les transports en commun* "I prefer to walk and use public transportation."

27. *Non merci, c'est adorable* **mais je préfère me débrouiller seule** (FL1, S1).

"No thanks, that's kind of you but I prefer to deal with the situation on my own."

In the L2 French data set, there is one instance of the preference strategy in Situation 2 (refusing a ride from a stranger): the speaker explicitly prefers to wait for the bus (*Non merci,* **je préfère l'autobus** "No thanks, I prefer the bus"). The other three examples are found in the boss situation, where the L2 French learners indicate their preference to keep their current part-time job as in (28). It is noteworthy that preference in the three corpora is supported by other speech acts (direct refusals, indirect refusals, and adjuncts). The only example in L1 English is found in the stranger situation: the refuser says he/she would prefer to wait for the bus, because the person offering the ride is a stranger as in (29).

28. *Non, merci beaucoup!* **Mais, j'aimerais rester ici avec mon temps partiel** (FL2-S3).

"No, thanks a lot. But I would like to stay here as a part-time employee."

29. Thanks, but **I'd prefer to wait for the bus**, because I do not know you (EL1-S2).

The statement of principle act and the apology act are the third preferred strategies by the L1 English participants (12.7% each), whereas the statement of principle act appears in the fourth position in the L1 French (4%) and the L2 French (5.9%) data sets. By stating a principle act, the speaker attempts to make reference to (moral) philosophy and lifestyle or habits that would hinder him/her from accepting the offer. This strategy is generally supported by other speech acts. The informants of the three groups displayed some similarities in refusing a friend's loan offer: they mostly expressed discomfort in borrowing money from friends, depending financially on others, having debts. The L1 French speakers realized the preference strategy using the construction *je n'aime pas X* "I don't like to X" *as in* (30). The L2 French speakers used the constructions *je n'aime pas X* as well. Other constructions found in the L2 French corpus are *je ne peux pas permis vous de faire ça* and *je ne suis pas votre responsabilité*. In Situation 2 (refusing a lift from a stranger) an L2 French learner stated that s/he cannot accept a ride from a stranger as in (31). In the L1 English corpus, statements of principles are realized using constructions like *I do not feel like getting into a car with a stranger*, *I do not take rides from strangers, I do not like to take money from people*, *I am not a fan of borrowing money*, and *I do not like to owe anyone anything, especially money*. In the L1 English data set, statements of principle could be repeated in an utterance as in (32) or accompanied by other types of speech acts as in (33).

30. *Non ne t'inquiète pas*, *je vais me débrouiller*, ***je n'aime pas avoir de dettes*** (FL1-S1).

"No don't worry, I will find a way out, I don't like to have having debts."

31. *Non merci, je préfère l'autobus.* **Je ne pense pas que je veux aller avec une personne que je ne sais [sic] pas** (FL2, S3).

"No thanks, I prefer the bus. I don't think I would want to go with somebody I don't know."

32. I do not like borrowing money from people. It is a personal standard (EL1-S1).

33. Thanks for the offer, but I do not like owing money. I'd rather pull my own weight (EL1-S1).

Also interesting is the use of apologies and regrets by the three groups. While these speech acts are least employed by the L1 French speakers (2.7%) and L2 French learners (1.9%), they are highly employed by the L1 English speakers (12.7%). The two apologies attested in L1 French are realized as *je m'excuse* and *veuillez m'excuser,* while one L2 French respondent expressed his apology using the form *désolé*. In the L1 English data set, apologies and regrets are realized as *sorry* and *I'm sorry.* In the three data sets, apologies and regrets are always accompanied by other speech acts as in (34–36).

34. *Ça ne m'intéresse pas,* **veuillez m'excuser***, mais je me sens très bien dans mon poste actuel* (FL1-S3)

"I am not interested, please excuse me, but I am very comfortable with my current position."

35. **Désolé***, mais j'ai déjà décidé de prend l'autobus. Merci pour l'offre* (FL2-S2)

"Sorry but I have already decided to take the bus. Thanks for the offer."

36. **Sorry**, no thanks. I'm just going to wait for the bus (EL1-S2)

A small number of other strategies were also used as indirect refusals, with very low frequency. They include acts such as delayed refusal, request, suggestion, and moralizing. The delayed refusal occurred once in the L1 French corpus as in *je vais y réfléchir* "I will think about it". The speaker does not want to commit him/herself. The requesting act was used by an L2 French learner to accompany a justification act. The refuser says that it is at the moment not possible for him/her to accept a new job in another city because he/she is currently a student. This also explains the request for permission to stay on the part-time job as in (37). The request could also be interpreted here as a suggestion.

37. *Merci pour l'offre de temps plein, mais comme je suis encore à l'école,* **pourrais-je rester à temps partiel pour maintenant?** (FL2, S3)

"Thanks for the offer of a full-time job, but since I am still a student, could I keep my part-time position for the moment?"

The analysis also reveals that L1 English speakers suggested alternatives and produced moralizing acts in order to refuse offers. Of the four suggestions made, three appeared in the boss situation: the employee suggests working full-time position without having to move to another city as in (38) or suggests to defer the offer to another time in the future. Another indirect refusal strategy was the act of moralizing as in (39), which could be interpreted here as a form of justification or an indirect statement of principle.

38. Is there any way to make that happen here? (EL1-S3)

39. Money can cause a wedge between friends (EL1-S1).

4.2.3 Adjuncts to refusals

As already indicated in Section 3, adjuncts are different kinds of speech acts, which may come before or after direct and indirect refusals. Adjuncts are only used as external modification devices to soften or intensify refusals. **Table 4** below presents the types of adjuncts[4] found in the three data sets.

As can be seen in **Table 4**, the L1 English speakers produced the highest number of adjuncts, using three different types of speech acts (expression of gratitude/appreciation, expression of positive opinion, and expression of willingness).[5] The L1 French speakers produced 52 tokens of adjuncts, using six different speech acts (expression of gratitude/appreciation, expression of positive opinion, expression of willingness, greetings, regret, and hesitation). The L2 French learners produced 42 examples of adjuncts using three different speech acts (expression of gratitude/appreciation, expression of positive opinion, and expression of willingness). Expressions of gratitude/appreciation are the most preferred adjuncts by the respondents of the three groups, with the L1 English speakers being the most productive in using this adjunct (93.4%), followed by the L2 French learners (91.2%). The frequency of gratitude expressions in L1 English corpus is much lower (82.7%).

Expressions of gratitude and appreciation are realized in the L1 French data set mostly by using the term *Merci,* which can be accompanied by adverbs such as *beaucoup/200 fois* and *quand même* or by a prepositional clause highlighting the reason for the gratitude expression (e.g., *Merci* **pour/de votre offer**). Some L1 French speakers made use of performative formulas such as J*e vous remercie d'avoir pensé à moi* and *Je vous remercie pour votre offre.* Also attested are expressions like *c'est adorable*, *c'est très amiable*, *c'est (très/super) gentil (de ta part)*, *ton attention me touche énormément*, and *ça me touche beaucoup ma poule*. Positive opinions about the offer are realized in L1 French as *c'est une belle perspective* and *c'est une super opportunité*.

The L2 French learners expressed gratitude and appreciation using structures like *merci*, *merci quand même/beaucoup*, *merci (beaucoup) pour l'offre*, *merci pour vouloir m'aider*, *c'est très gentil*, *c'est vraiment gentil de vous; vous êtes très gentil(le)*, *ça c'est vraiment gentil*, *merci beaucoup de me considérer*, *merci pour l'opportunité*, *merci pour l'offre de temps plein*, *Je vous remercie pour votre proposition gentile*, *merci d'avoir penser à moi*, *Je suis très contente que vous m'offrez ce poste*, and *j'apprécie beaucoup.* Expressions of positive opinion about the offer were realized as *c'est tentant*, *c'est une bonne idée*, and *Ça c'est une bonne offre.*

Expressions of gratitude in L1 English are *thanks (so much) for the offer/the opportunity*, *thank you*, *I appreciate the offer*, and *I am grateful that you think of me so highly.* The L1 English speakers used the following expressions of positive opinion about the offer*: it means a lot*, *I am glad you considered me plus appreciate my work*, *this is an amazing opportunity*, *I am humbled by your offer*, *you are the best*, *I always knew you had my back*, and *love you*.

The other adjuncts, namely, the expression of willingness and deception, have very low frequencies in the data. While "willingness' is realized twice in the L1 French (4%) and once in the L2 French (2.2%) data sets, this adjunct appears four times in the L1 English corpus (4.3%). In the French L1, willingness is realized as

[4] The classification emerged from the speech acts found in the data.

[5] The very higher number of adjuncts to refusals, compared to the other two groups, may be due to the higher number of L1 English participants in the study.

Type of adjunct to refusal	French L1	French L2	English L1
Gratitude/appreciation	43 (82.7%)	41 (91.2%)	86 (93.4%)
Positive opinion	3 (5.9%)	3 (6.6)	2 (2.2)
Willingness	2 (3.8%)	1 (2.2%)	4 (4.4%)
Greetings	2 (3.8%)	0	0
Regret	1 (1.9%)	0	0
Hesitation	1 (1.9%)	0	0
Total	**52 (100%)**	**45 (100%)**	**92 (100%)**

Table 4.
Distribution of types of adjuncts in French L1, French L2, and English L1.

ça aurait été avec plaisir as in (40) and *je suis intéressé* as in (41), while it appears in L2 French as *j'aurais trop aimé* as in (42). In L1 English, willingness is expressed using *I wish I could*, *I would have*, and *I'd/would love to* as in (43). There is one token of the expression of deception in L1 French: it is realized as *c'est dommage*, and it is employed together with a gratitude expression to soften a direct refusal as in (44).

40. **Ça aurait été avec plaisir** mais je ne me sens pas encore prête à quitter ma ville (FL1-S3).

"I would have been pleased to accept but I am not yet ready to move."

41. **Je suis très intéressée** cependant je me vois obligée de décliner car pour ma vie de famille j'ai besoin de stabilité et je ne peux pas me permettre de changer la ville (FL1-S3).

"I am interested however I am compelled to decline [the offer] because I need stability for my family and I cannot afford to move."

42. **J'aurais trop aimé**, mais je ne peux pas accepter quand je suis encore à l'université. Par contre, merci encore (FL2-S3).

'I really would have loved to but I cannot accept [it] because I am still a university student. Anyways, thanks again."

43. ***I would love more than anything to accept the position*** b*ut I cannot* (EL1-S3).

44. Non merci, quand même **c'est dommage** (FL1-S3).

"No thanks anyways that's too bad."

The L1 French participants produced two greetings to support their refusals, namely, *bonne journée,* as in (45) and *au revoir,* as in (46). One L2 French learner used a marker of hesitation, before declining the offer of a ride by an unknown driver as in (47).

45. Merci bien, mais je prendrais un taxi, **bonne journée** (FL1-S2).

46. Non, merci. **Au revoir** (FL1-S2).

47. *Heu. Non merci!* (FL1-S2)

5. Discussion and conclusion

The goal of the study presented in this chapter was to answer the question how a group of intermediate L2 French learners decline offers and how their choices compare to those of L1 French speakers. It was found that the L2 French learners make use of direct refusals, indirect refusals, as well as adjuncts to refusals to produce offer refusal utterances.

At the level of direct refusals, the results show some similarities between the three groups. It was found that the L2 French learners mostly employ "no" and "expressions of inability" just like the L1 French speakers and the L1 English speakers. However, differences emerge regarding the linguistic realization of "inability expressions." It was found that the L2 French learners have a very limited repertoire of forms to express their inability to accept offers. They mostly use the construction *je ne peux pas* "I cannot." This result may be a case of pragmatic transfer, where the L2 French learners seem to transfer their L1 English behavior (I cannot) into L2 French. It may also be due to the fact that the L2 French learners in this study have had not yet acquired a wide range of expressions of inability to accept offers. Consequently, it would be very important to expose such a group of L2 French learners to other types of direct offer refusals. This may be done through reformulation activities in which the L2 French learners have to replace the construction *je ne peux pas* with different utterances such as those employed by L1 French speakers.

At the level of indirect refusals, the L2 French learners have some common ground with the L1 French speakers and the L1 English speakers. In line with the results of previous studies, it was found that the participants of the three groups use reasons more often than any other strategy in their refusal utterances. Differences emerge, however, in the linguistic realization of this pragmatic category. In the friend situation, for instance, it was found that the L1 English speakers mostly explain their refusals by indicating their discomfort in borrowing money from their friends, using a construction like "I am not comfortable accepting money from you." The examples of the L2 French learners seem to indicate a direct transfer of the commonly used realization type in L1 English into L2 French, resulting into L2 French constructions like *je ne suis pas confortable avec ceci*, *Je ne suis pas confortable de*, etc. It appears that the L2 French learners tested are not aware of "more appropriate" constructions such as *ça me gêne, je suis gêné de,* etc. found in the L1 French speakers' productions. In this regard, it would be very helpful to address these difficulties in formulating such offer refusals in L2 French. Another interesting finding in our study concerns the linguistic realization of dissuasion, another type of indirect refusal. **Table 3** shows that, although this strategy is the second most commonly employed by the three groups of participants, it is less used by the L2 French learners and it is framed in L2 French using quite different realization patterns.

With respect to adjuncts to refusals, similarities and differences were found regarding the preference the realization forms of speech acts such as thanks and expressions of positive opinion. While the participants of the three groups mostly prefer gratitude expressions to mitigate their offer refusals, it was also found that the L2 French learners produced constructions with some grammatical errors. These errors should be addressed when teaching them how to refuse offers appropriately. Overall, this study shows that an effective teaching and learning of refusal behavior in L2 French should take many different aspects into account: the source language of the French learners as well as the pragmatic and linguistic strategies that are employed by L1 French speakers in daily interactions.

This study has a number of limitations. First, the small-scale nature of the study, based on a corpus of only 12 L2 French learners, does not yield results that could be

generalized to a larger group of L2 French learners. This means that a larger-scale investigation is required to establish the strategies L2 French learners choose and the problems they are confronted with when refusing offers in the target language. Second, the study focused on offer refusals in only three situations. It is important to include more situations highlighting various levels of social distance and power distance as well as many different types of offers in order to have a better picture of offer refusal strategies in L2 French. Third: since the study carried out here is based on written data, it would be necessary to employ other types of data (e.g., role-play data and naturally occurring conversations) in forthcoming studies in order to establish how negotiations of offer-refusal exchanges are enacted by L2 French learners. Fourth, in order to understand the motivations behind the use of certain strategies in the target languages, it would also be necessary to tap into the perceptions and cultural representations or cultural schemas (cf. [6]) underlying refusals in Anglo-Canadian contexts and the way in which they influence the production of offer refusals in L2 French.

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Chapter 4

‘Transformative Pedagogy’ in Language Teacher Education

Patrick Farren

Abstract

‘Transformative language pedagogy’ (‘transformative pedagogy’) emerged from three systemically linked, qualitative studies carried out by the author in collaboration with educators at the National University of Ireland, Galway, Ireland, King’s College London, and Boston College, MA, and neighbouring, post-primary schools. The context for the studies is language teacher education. ‘Transformative pedagogy’ enhances the social-psychological model of autonomous language teaching and learning by underpinning it with an intercultural and moral-philosophical foundation. It supports the target language teacher in developing a more encompassing, professional identity that incorporates practitioner-researcher and leader. Researching practice requires justifying pedagogical decisions by testing that they are evidence informed and based on moral values and opening them to external scrutiny. An original model for ‘transformative research’ is outlined.

Keywords: autonomous language teaching and learning, ‘transformative pedagogy’, evidence-informed, moral values, practitioner-research, beliefs and attitudes, interdependence, social-interaction, metacognition, metalanguage, target language use, socio-affective factors, ‘transformative research’

1. Introduction

Traditionally, in Ireland, language teaching and learning—English, Irish, and modern foreign language teaching and learning (MFL)—have been driven mainly by external motivators, including passing summative examinations. Target language teaching and learning have been often misinterpreted as students’ reciting phrases and sentences that the teacher has provided, and success as students’ ability to regurgitate information in examinations. While target language awareness and cultural awareness have been key objectives of the common MFL syllabus for junior and senior cycles since 1988, in practice they have not been given the attention they warrant. Overall, the consequence has been an impoverished experience for students. With regard to teacher education, insufficient collaboration among educators has exposed student-teachers to the danger of contradictory counsels. These concerns inspired me to carry out a collaborative study with educators and student-teachers at the National University of Ireland, Galway (NUI Galway), and with post-primary school mentors and students in neighbouring schools. The study led to two further systemically linked studies at King’s College London and Boston College, MA.

This chapter focuses on the theoretical framework for a ‘transformative pedagogy’ that emerged from the three studies and that enhances the social-psychological model of autonomous language teaching and learning. ‘Transformative pedagogy’ supports

student-teachers and students in developing the capacity to accept responsibility for language teaching and learning linked to making use of the target language to express their meanings not only in the traditional and basic literacies of reading, writing, listening, and speaking but also in a range of 'new' literacies, including intercultural, critical, digital, media, and research literacies. It is underpinned by a critical and moral-philosophical foundation that supports students in developing their identity as whole persons as critical, intercultural language users with the capacity to make sense of their world informed by moral values, for example, equality and social justice.

'Transformative pedagogy' supports teachers in developing a more encompassing professional identity than specific target language teachers, as practitioner-researchers and leaders. It necessitates competency in a range of 'new' literacies and corresponding skills necessary to integrate them into practice. Bringing about transformation requires teachers to justify their pedagogical decisions and actions by testing that they are evidence informed and based on moral values and by leaving them open to external scrutiny.

I begin by clarifying the meanings of two linked concepts, pedagogy and transformation. Then, I outline factors that the literature has identified with autonomous language teaching and learning before examining key factors for 'transformative pedagogy'. I examine what the literature has to say about 'new' literacies, and teachers' professional identity linked to practitioner-researcher and language leader for whom decisions are evidence informed and based on democratic, moral values. I offer an example for a 'transformative pedagogy' in the context of teaching English language learners. Finally, I outline key stages in an original 'transformative research' model.

2. Pedagogy

Alexander [1] defines pedagogy as:

> *the act of teaching together with attendant discourse of educational theories, values, evidence and justifications. It is what one needs to know, and the skills one needs to command in order to make and justify the many different kinds of decisions of which teaching is constituted.*

As in this definition, 'transformative pedagogy' concerns substance and justification. It involves 'both the teaching act and its attendant discourse of ideas, values, and principles' [1]. Teaching is understood as a morally purposeful activity that is evidence informed, and autonomy is understood as a pre-requisite for morality.

'Transformative pedagogy' is set within an interpretive perspective. This perspective believes that the world can be understood only by those who are part of the ongoing action. The argument is that because of man's 'self-awareness and powers of language' he must be seen as different from any other creature or object and that what is needed, therefore, is an anthropomorphic model of people. This approach entails taking account of uniquely human attributes, for example, the capacity to monitor our performance, articulate our performances, and plan [2]. In the interpretive paradigm, theory emerges as meanings from people in particular situations and yields insights and understandings of peoples' behaviour [3].

3. Transformation

The concept of transformation linked to improvement has been referred to in the writing of several researchers. For example, Lewin [4] has referred to a

transformative cycle that includes 'action steps' aimed at bringing about change. Habermas [5] has argued that reason, in part through discourse ethics, has the potential to transform the world into a more just society. Winter [6] has argued that the alternating of theory and practice is what brings transformation in action research, and that the researcher must articulate the theoretical justification for actions and 'to question the bases for those justifications'. McNiff [7] has argued that in action research, 'theory informs practice, practice refines theory, in a continuous transformation', and has highlighted 'the need for democracy and justice' among participants to underpin the action research process.[1] Fuchs [8], arguably one of the greatest moral theologians of the twentieth century, has argued that right reason, 'recta ratio', supports human beings in making moral decisions. 'Transformative pedagogy' is aimed at bringing about improvement in language teaching and learning that is evidence informed, and based on democratic, moral values.

I referred earlier that 'transformative pedagogy' enhances autonomous language teaching and learning. It would be appropriate therefore, that I begin by examining the latter construct.

4. Autonomous language teaching and learning

Key factors examined are as follows:

- self-awareness
- interdependence
- socio-affective factors
- social interaction
- target language use
- metacognition and metalanguage

4.1 Self-awareness: ontological and epistemological beliefs

Little [9] has argued that teachers need to become aware of 'the assumptions, values and prejudices which determine their classroom behavior.' He claims that the development of teacher autonomy is a 'prerequisite' for the development of learner autonomy' [10]. Breen and Mann [11] suggest that autonomy is 'a complex challenge' that has limits but is worth seeking as an ideal. They draw implications from this for teachers and express them in terms of key attributes for autonomous teaching:

- Self-awareness: one's beliefs and assumptions about teaching and learning; the ability to reflect on action and relationships in the classroom;
- Belief in the capacity of each person to learn.

Teachers will first need to reflect on their teaching beliefs, attitudes, and assumptions before they can expect to create appropriate conditions that are likely to motivate learners. Black and Wiliam [12] have argued that more 'open moves' in

[1] In the National University of Ireland, Galway, study I made use of an action research approach.

which learners are involved in the negotiation of classroom contracts, are determined by the epistemological, psychological, and pedagogical beliefs of the teacher. Individual teachers' interpretations of the curriculum are reflected in the type of actions and interactions that take place in the classroom. A teacher's understanding about the nature of knowledge shapes the type of learning activities he offers. Key to a 'transformative pedagogy' would be teachers' beliefs and a range of other factors, including ontological, epistemological, and moral factors.

According to Taber [13], "The two aspects of 'philosophy' considered to underpin research paradigms are beliefs (or 'commitments') about the nature of the world (what kind of things exist in the world and what is their nature?), and so the nature of the phenomena studied in research; and beliefs about the nature and status of human knowledge, and so how we might come to hold knowledge."

In education, metaphysics and ontology refer to teachers' beliefs about what they understand is the 'reality' of teaching and learning. Ontological beliefs concern how teachers perceive themselves as beings in relation to others. A teacher's ontological beliefs might be, for example, respecting the dignity of the individual and personal responsibility for learning. Having clarified his beliefs, the teacher would endeavour to live these as epistemological beliefs in his teaching practice.

Epistemological beliefs are our beliefs about the nature of knowledge and knowing [14]. They are 'beliefs about the origin and acquisition of knowledge' [15]. According to Bryman and Bell [16], 'an epistemological issue concerns the question of what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline'. Research suggests that epistemological beliefs are important as they may influence strategy use, cognitive processing, etc. A teacher's personal epistemology characterises her set of beliefs about how learners come to know and how they learn and acquire knowledge that influences her teaching. 'Transformative pedagogy' argues that in addition to ontological and epistemological beliefs, pedagogical decisions need to be evidence informed and based on democratic, moral values that enable teachers to take a stance for a more just society.

4.2 Interdependence

Boud [17] argued that the notion of interdependence was central to the development of autonomy. Today, the term, self-directed learning, is understood to involve 'collaboration and interdependence' [18]. For example, Thomson [19] and Kohonen [20] refer to self-directed learning as learning in which learners take responsibility for their learning that includes a social dimension. Little [21] offers a helpful list that dispels the myth that autonomous learning means working on one's own:

- It is not limited to self-instruction and, therefore, not learning without a teacher.
- It does not mean that the teacher abdicates his responsibility and lets the learners get on with their work as best they can without help.
- It is not another teaching method.
- It is not a single behaviour.
- It is not a steady state achieved by learners.

He adds that independence should be 'balanced' by 'dependence' because our human condition is one of 'interdependence' and suggests that autonomous learning needs to be supported 'with expert help' [9]. Allwright [22], too, includes the

notion of interdependence in his definition: it is 'a constantly changing but at any time optimal state of equilibrium between maximal self-development and human interdependence'. In addition, Deci [23] dismisses the myth that 'you have to give up your autonomy … to be related to others'.

4.3 Socio-affective factors

'*Affect* refers to the emotion or feeling' [24]. For Trim [25], autonomous learning involves 'an adaptive ability, allowing learners to develop supportive structures within themselves'. Autonomy, therefore, 'should not be associated only with external organisational structures' but should involve the relation between the student and learning [26]. Developing one's psychological relation to learning means that the student is more likely to act out of intrinsic as opposed to extrinsic motivation. Kohonen [27] has argued that becoming 'an intercultural language user emphasises the central role of the affective development in foreign and second language education'. 'Transformative pedagogy', as we shall see, emphasises the intercultural dimension and by implication, the socio-affective domain.

According to Douglas [24]: 'Understanding how human beings feel and respond and believe and value is an exceedingly important aspect of a theory of second language acquisition'. Personality factors include self-esteem, which Coppersmith [28] has defined as 'the evaluation which individuals make and customarily maintain with regard to themselves'. Maslow [29] has described two kinds of self-esteem:

1. the need for respect from others that entails recognition, acceptance, status, and appreciation and

2. the need for self-respect that entails competence, confidence, mastery, achievement, independence, and freedom.

In the Irish context, *Charting our Education Future. White Paper* [30] articulates education philosophy. It highlights the importance for students to develop self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-reliance.

4.4 Social interaction

Pedagogy's purpose, according to Bruner [31], 'is to help the child understand better, more powerfully: this is fostered through discussion and collaboration'. There are two terms in the literature that I have found helpful to describe appropriate teacher-student interaction: 'pedagogical dialogue' [10] and 'dialogic teaching' [32]. For both Little and Alexander, the pedagogic process is intended to promote the capacity of students to express their meanings. According to Alexander [32], research shows that talk of a genuinely dialogic kind is indispensable to the development of thinking and understanding. This is supported by Dickson [33] who has argued that intake cannot be guaranteed without interaction and that teacher talk as the sole source of the target language in the classroom can present a danger.

In teacher education, interdependence should characterise the relationship between educators and student-teachers. Garrison and Anderson [34] have argued that 'the purpose of [a community of practice] is more than social interaction … The purpose of an educational community is invariably associated with intended cognitive outcomes.' Dialogue should support student-teachers in developing their psychological relation to the content and process of teaching, and by implication, the capacity to accept responsibility for making use of the target language in classroom interactions. In addition, in 'transformative pedagogy', as we shall see later,

dialogue should support student-teachers in developing their professional identity as practitioner-researchers and leaders.

4.5 Target language use

Social interaction implies language use. Target language use refers to production and reception of the target language on the part of teachers and students, that is, what they say, hear, read, write, and view. Littlewood [35] has argued that the goal of language learning is to help 'learners become independent from their teachers in their learning and use of language'. According to this argument, teaching should be geared towards students making increased use of the target language. Little [36] has argued for 'an understanding of language learner autonomy in which the development of learner autonomy and the growth of target language proficiency are not only mutually supporting but fully integrated with each other'. For this to happen, it would be essential that teachers and students make use of the target language as far as is feasible, in all aspects of teaching and learning. By implication, language teachers would need to have a high level of target language proficiency.

Hymes [37] conceptualised communicative competence as involving language use in social context, and this led the way for Canale and Swain to conceptualise competence in four stages:

1. Grammatical competence, that is, knowledge of lexical items, rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar, semantics, and phonology [38];

2. Socio-linguistic competence, that is, rules of language use in context;

3. Discourse competence, that is, organisation features of spoken and written texts that involve cohesion [39] and coherence [40];

4. Strategic competence, that is, the learners' capacity to communicate using (a) verbal and non-verbal strategies to compensate for any breakdown in communication or memory loss and (b) to enhance communication (e.g. slow speech) [41].

Long's interaction hypothesis holds that that 'comprehensible input' (language and concepts that are mostly understandable to the learner) 'is the result of modified interaction (modifications made by the native/proficient second language speaker to create comprehensible input)' [42, 43]. Authentic language input and social interaction are, therefore, essential. Research suggests that when learners are exposed to large amounts of comprehensible input they are engaged in meaning-making and learn to understand and retain what they hear and to use it to express their messages. Later, under 'transformative pedagogy', we shall see how intercultural competence complements communicative competence.

4.6 (Meta)cognition and metalanguage

Wenden [44] defines metacognitive knowledge as 'the stable, stateable, and sometimes fallible, knowledge learners acquire about themselves as learners and about the learning process' and as 'a rich knowledge base' that is necessary. According to Pritchard [45], it is 'the knowledge that an individual has about their own cognition, which can be used to consider and to control their cognitive processes'.

Bruner's notion of scaffolding is associated with Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development [27]. Bruner [46] has described scaffolding 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'. He has argued that when learners 'work collaboratively to solve problems they are most likely to exercise and further develop the "metalinguistic function" that Barnes [47] has argued, mediates between "school knowledge" and the "action knowledge" they bring with them to the classroom'. Barnes understands 'school knowledge' as 'the knowledge someone else presents to us' and 'action knowledge' as 'that view of the world in which our actions are based' [47]. Metalanguage enables students to make use of the target language as a thinking tool and therefore supports them in developing target language proficiency.

Deci [48] has argued that striving for competence and autonomy together leads towards ongoing learning and that interpersonal contexts are important in order that autonomy can develop. With the ingredients of:

a. understanding how to go about achieving goals,

b. feeling competent at the activities and tasks,

c. having support of social interaction, and

d. people will be able to set their own goals, develop their own standards, monitor their own progress, and attain goals.

Ridley [49] has defined reflection as 'cognitive processes of which the speaker/writer is potentially aware'. Involvement by student-teachers and students in refection would support them in developing the capacity to accept responsibility for teaching and learning.

O'Malley and Chamot [50] offer three categories of strategies that support autonomous learning, which are as follows:

1. Cognitive strategies (e.g. analysing, ordering and classifying material, note-taking, deducing, inferring, and summarising);

2. Metacognitive strategies, understood as reflecting on the learning process (e.g. planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning);

3. Socio-affective strategies relate to how learners interact with one another and control themselves in order to improve their learning.

5. 'Transformative pedagogy' and 'new' literacies

In this section, I examine factors for 'transformative pedagogy' that enhance autonomous language teaching and learning. They include a range of 'new' literacies, for example, intercultural, and factors that support language teachers in developing a more encompassing identity as practitioner-researchers and leaders. According to Mustakova-Possardt [51], moral consciousness includes taking action against the oppressive elements in one's life that are illuminated by that understanding. I argue that teacher education, through the socio-cultural context of the 'practicum', course content, and 'transformative pedagogy', should aim to support student teachers in developing a more encompassing professional identity as practitioner-researchers and leaders with moral consciousness.

Autonomy is understood as a pre-requisite for morality. 'Transformative pedagogy' builds on autonomous teaching by having it evidence informed and underpinned by moral values. In addition, it builds on autonomous language learning. For, not only does it support students in making use of the traditional and basic literacies of reading, writing, listening, and speaking to express their meanings but also it supports them in developing as critical, intercultural target language users whose interactions are based on moral values.

Next, I examine what the literature has to say about 'new' literacies. Then, I discuss factors that support teachers in developing a more encompassing professional identity than specific language teacher. After that, I offer an example for a 'transformative pedagogy' in the context of addressing English language learners' needs.

5.1 'New' literacies

Literacy development has traditionally focused on the skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. These are fundamental skills in language learning, and indeed in all learning. Modern definitions of literacy, however, include additional skills, including intercultural, digital, and media literacies.

There are two major frameworks for learning, teaching, and assessing foreign language skills: the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) [52], and the US defined scales of proficiency, that is, American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Proficiency Guidelines/Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) Skill Development Descriptions [53]. Both these European and US frameworks form the basis of major assessing and certification systems. ACTFL has developed five goal areas in language learning: (a) Communication, (b) Cultures, (c) Connections, (d) Comparisons, and (e) Communities. These areas connect the development of the basic linguistic skills with socio-cultural contexts, (meta)cognitive processes, and content that lead to learning activities that fulfil the following six elements of literacy offered by the National Council for Teaching English in the USA [54]:

1. Manage, analyse, and synthesise multiple streams of information.

2. Design and share information for global communities.

3. Build intentional cross-cultural connections and relationships with others.

4. Develop proficiency and fluency with the tools of technology.

5. Create, critique, analyse, and evaluate multimedia texts.

6. Attend to the ethical responsibilities required by complex environments.

The goal of language education in the modern era is 'to develop a linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place' [52]. In a plurilingualism approach,

> *...a person's experience of language in its cultural contexts expands from the language of the home to that of society at large and then to the language of other peoples, he/she does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact. [52]*

This suggests that language and literacy skills and strategies learnt in one language and area of the curriculum can be transferred to other languages and areas of the curriculum.

5.2 Intercultural literacy and socio-cultural context

Here, I clarify meanings of key concepts about culture, cultural identity, cultural diversity, interculturalism, and competence and make connections between these in the Irish context.

Geertz, cited in Boylan [55], has argued that culture is not a set of material manifestations (behaviour, literature, etc.) but rather the mindset shared within some community that produces these manifestations and weaves them into a recognisable whole. UNESCO [56, 57] offers examples of these manifestations: 'that set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of a society or social group, encompassing all the ways of being in that society; at a minimum, including art and literature, lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions, and beliefs'.

Mindset comes about as a result of interacting in one's community, for example, family, home language, and cultural community and one's other communities, including ethnic, religious, and professional communities. Cultural identity is the will we exert to resolve the 'contradiction and ambiguities' [58] that 'the inter-related sets of beliefs and values people have acquired through interacting with various communities…inevitably contain.' [55]. It should not be seen as static but as a dynamic way of being in the world that involves being open to other cultures and cultural identities. According to Hall, a particular mindset or cultural identity comes about as a result of 'where and how one positions oneself in some ever-expanding relational network' [59]. This suggests that students would first need to develop an understanding about how knowledge is constructed in their native, socio-cultural context. Understanding this narrative would support them in developing an openness to how meanings are constructed in other socio-cultural contexts, and in respecting the 'other'. On the other hand, it suggests that in addition to the traditional literacies, 'new' literacies should form part of any mandatory, integration programmes for new immigrants in order that they develop the capacity to communicate in the official language(s), to integrate, to develop appropriate socio-cultural knowledge and intercultural awareness, and to learn more about democratic, moral values.

Intercultural describes what happens when members of different cultural groups interact with one another, in person or through mediated forms. Competence refers to having knowledge, ability, or skill, to permit appropriate behaviour in context. According to UNESCO [57],

> *Competence includes cognitive (knowledge), functional (application of knowledge), personal (behaviour) and ethical (principles guiding behaviour) components, thus the capacity to know must be matched to the capacity to speak and act appropriately in context; ethics and consideration of human rights influence both speech and actions'.*

Byram [60] offers a framework for intercultural competence that 'transformative pedagogy' draws on. The framework consists of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Knowledge is organised into two categories:

1. knowledge of others and of social processes of social group (savoirs)

2. knowledge of self and of critical cultural awareness, which involves an ability to evaluate practices and products of one's own and others' cultures (savoirs' engager).

Skills are organised into two categories:

1. Skills to interpret and related (savoir comprendre)

2. Skills to discover and/or to interact (savoir apprendre/faire).

Intercultural attitudes are defined as relativizing self (one's values, beliefs, and behaviours within a larger perspective) and valuing others' values, beliefs, and behaviours ('savoir être').

These categories are helpful in clarifying the meanings of communicative competence and intercultural competence, and in highlighting the close relationship that exists between them. In 'transformative pedagogy', the teacher creates conditions that integrate these competences as appropriate.

According to Byram et al. [60],

> *developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching involves recognizing that the aims are: to give learners intercultural competence as well as linguistic competence; to prepare them for interaction with people of other cultures; to enable them to understand and accept people from other cultures as individuals with other distinctive perspectives, values and behaviours; and to help them to see that such interaction is an enriching experience. Thus, the 'intercultural dimension' in language teaching supports learners in avoiding stereotyping. Communication includes nonverbal behaviour, 'everything from use of sounds (paralanguage), movements (kinesics), space (proxemics), and time (chronemics), to many aspects of material culture (food, clothing, objects, visual design, architecture) and can be understood as the active aspect of culture.*

Kaikkonen [61] has argued that the 'most important goal ... is to help learners grow out of the shell of their mother tongue and their own culture'. Intercultural learning supports learners in achieving this goal because it 'focuses on the language user's personal and social identities and abilities. It emphasises the student's orientation to discourse as a language user relating meaningfully to other persons in different contexts'. Boylan [55] argues that the most effective way to create conditions that support cultural diversity is not to teach learners a list of typical features for any particular foreign countries, but rather to expose them to the experience of language and culture. This suggests that students should have ample opportunities to communicate with members of the target community, for example, in the context of school exchanges and online. Importantly, it suggests also that there is a need to encourage students in school to interact with persons who happen to come from different ethno-linguistic backgrounds as this supports intercultural learning. Intercultural dialogue reflects mutual respect, respect implies negotiating meanings, and negotiating meanings supports intercultural understanding, and by implication, target language learning. Equality and respect are examples of moral values on which 'transformative pedagogy' is based.

Language learning should be integrated with intercultural learning because,

> *Language teaching with an intercultural dimension continues to help learners acquire linguistic competence...But it also develops intercultural competence, i.e. their ability to ensure a shared understanding by people of different social identities. [57]*

'Intercultural competences complement human rights as a catalyst for promoting a culture of peaceful and harmonious coexistence' [57]. This is because,

> *Cultural diversity permits, and intercultural competences require, understanding one's own culture but also recognizing that each culture provides only one option among many possibilities. Cultural diversity requires, and intercultural competences permit, the ability to convey information to others about one's own culture through communication with them, as well as to interpret information about the other and his or her culture. [57]*

In the Irish context, The Education Act [62] states that students should experience an education that 'respects the diversity of values, beliefs, languages, and traditions', The Equal Status Act [63], and Equality Act [64] promote equality of opportunity and prohibit discrimination. The Intercultural Education Strategy 2010–2015 [65] highlights key goals for interculturalism:

1. Enable the adoption of a whole institution approach to create an intercultural learning environment.

2. Build the capacity of education providers to develop an intercultural learning environment.

3. Support students to become proficient in the language of instruction.

Sociocultural knowledge and intercultural awareness form an integral part of the new junior cycle MFL Specification (2017) [66] in Ireland. The European Language Portfolio [67] is referenced to the CEFR [52] and therefore offers an appropriate way to plan for and assess target language competence and intercultural competence. In addition, it supports formative assessment. In the NUI Galway study, I examined the impact of a version of the ELP, validated by CoE on teaching and learning.[2]

Like De Jong and Harper [68], I believe that knowledge and awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity should be made 'explicit goals' in teacher education programmes. I agree with Villegas and Lucas [69], who in presenting a conception of linguistically responsive teachers, highlight 'socio-cultural consciousness, affirming views of diversity, commitment, and skills for promoting change in schools; understanding of how learners construct knowledge; skills for learning about their learners; and the ability to use appropriate instructional approaches for diverse learners'. Dragićević Šešić & Dragojević [70] have suggested that intercultural literacy is an essential tool for modern life, parallel to the development of information literacy, or media literacy. Next, I examine key aspects of critical literacy and identify any significant links between it and media and digital literacies.

5.3 Critical literacy, media and digital literacies

Critical literacy means having the capacity to interpret texts, for example, in literature and the media, in a way that uncovers social constructs, such as power and injustice in human relationships. It assists persons in understanding and in adopting a moral stance to these concepts by questioning the attitudes, values, and beliefs embedded in written texts, visual applications, and spoken words. It is concerned with 'decoding the ideological dimensions of texts, institutions, social practices, and cultural forms… in order to reveal their selective interests' [71]. According to Anderson and Irvine [72], critical literacy is 'learning to read and write as part of

[2] For a full account, see my book, 'Transforming Language Teaching and Learning' (Pub. Peter Lang, 2018).

the process of becoming conscious of one's experience as historically constructed within specific power relations.'

The development of critical literacy skills involves the ability to understand, contextualise, analyse, and evaluate not only what one reads in a text but also what one reads in the world. 'Transformative pedagogy' supports teachers and students in making critical decisions that are evidence informed and based on moral values about how to transform the 'status quo'. Teachers are faced with questions about who constructs knowledge? What counts as knowledge? What is the context? On what basis did I come to make my decision? What is my responsibility? Human beings are understood as interdependent, moral beings with an 'innate' human right for dignity and respect.

Media literacy refers to different forms of media culture, ICT, and new media. For example:

> *Media representations allow viewers to see the world in some particular ways and not others. Audiences also compare media with their own experiences and make judgements about how realistic they are. Media representations can be seen as real in some ways but not in others: viewers may understand that what they are seeing is only imaginary and yet they still know it can explain reality. [73]*

Media literacy skills not only involve critical thinking but also skills in how to handle and communicate messages.

Regarding digital literacy, The American Library Association's digital-literacy force defines digital literacy as 'the ability to use information and communication technologies to find, evaluate, create, and communicate information, requiring both cognitive and technical skills' [74].

Critical, media, and digital literacies enable teachers and students to understand, contextualise, and evaluate information, and to create content and communicate information using a range of digital media platforms in a variety of appropriate contexts. In the Irish context, media literacy forms part of a short course in the new junior cycle programme. It would be expected that as students develop media and digital literacies, they would learn to integrate them into their language learning. In 'transformative pedagogy', moral values are understood as key in evaluating materials and relationships.

Next, I discuss factors that support teachers in developing their professional identity as practitioner-researchers and leaders. These factors include socio-cultural knowledge, social interaction/collaboration, and reason and moral values.

6. 'Transformative pedagogy' and language teacher professional identity

6.1 Teacher education

Singh and Richards [75] question the efficacy of language teacher education that has much to say about developing 'critical reflective practitioners' [76], and that is often designed in ways that are assumed will 'transform' student-teachers into what courses envisage. They claim that these assume that student-teachers are 'autonomous agents, able to take a reflexive stance towards their teaching, to look at their own practice critically', and they argue that from a socio-cultural and critical perspective, change in teacher identity is socially constructed. They call for more research to be carried out into 'the lived experiences of teachers' [75] in language teacher education. The three studies I carried out, examine 'the lived experiences'

of teachers and the impact of their interactions with educators in their particular socio-cultural contexts. Findings suggest that context, critical reflection, and interaction with educators and students, mediated student-teachers' socio-cultural beliefs and understandings about language teaching and learning, and supported them in developing their professional identity.

6.2 Social interaction/collaboration

Earlier, I examined social interaction as a factor in autonomous language teaching and learning. Discourses of professional identity draw upon social interaction at school where identity is negotiated and constructed and where 'learning [and by implication, teaching] is always in the process of becoming: a time of formation and transformation' [77]. Vygotsky [78] considers the social environment to be critical for learning. 'Transformative pedagogy' involves critical dialogue/collaboration between educators and student-teachers aimed at supporting them in developing the capacity to accept responsibility for their teaching linked to target language use and in making evidence-informed decisions based on moral values. According to Singh and Richards [75], language teacher education should be 'developmental oriented' and collaborative. Kogler [79] has argued that only 'radically dialogic processes' have the potential to free the interpreter from their 'own pre-determined, pre-understanding through an understanding of the other disclosed in the dialogic way… we learn to see ourselves with the eyes of the concrete other'. Identity construction highlights the dynamic and social nature of learning to teach, allowing teacher educators to focus student teachers' attention on how their practicum experiences inform their understandings of teaching [80]. Wenger [81] discusses identity construction as 'an experience' in terms of three modes of belonging: engagement, imagination and alignment. Engagement allows teachers to develop a 'lived sense of who they are' as they invest in their work and in their relations with others; imagination refers to how they see the world and their place in the world beyond their particular experience. Alignment allows them to connect with broader structures and allows the identity of a larger group to become part of the identity of the individual participants.

6.3 Reason and moral values

'Transformative pedagogy' supports teachers in developing their identity linked to bringing about transformation that is evidence informed and based on moral values. A pre-requisite for transformation is teachers' self-awareness that enables them to self-direct. We referred earlier that morality depends on autonomy. Habermas [5] has argued that reason, in part through discourse ethics, has the potential to transform the world into a more just society. Fuchs [82] too has argued that reason supports human beings in making moral decisions. For Fuchs, the moral law is understood as an agency for authentic freedom that protects and supports freedom and 'human flourishing'. He has argued that human beings are capable of 'recta ratio' (right reason), and that there exists a natural law, understood as an absolute law that underpins human nature, in that it is discernible by everyone through use of reason. In other words, there are certain moral truths that apply to all people. For Buzzelli and Johnston [83], 'morality constitutes that set of a person's beliefs and understanding which are evaluative in nature: that is, which distinguish, whether consciously or unconsciously, between what is right or wrong, good and bad'.

Freire defines praxis as 'reflection and action directed at the structures to be transformed' [84]. He believed that praxis enabled oppressed people to acquire a critical awareness of their condition and struggle to bring about freedom. 'Transformative pedagogy' involves praxis that involves practitioner-researchers

and leaders in their particular socio-cultural context, working to develop self- and socio-cultural awareness, and collaborating to transform any teaching and learning inequalities, any social inequalities, and/or any organisation or system inequalities they identify, in ways that are evidence informed and based on moral values.

6.4 Professional identity: language practitioner-researcher, and language leader

There are several terms in the literature used to describe the identity of language teacher, for example, critical practitioner, critical inquirer, and practitioner-researcher. According to these, the teacher's voice speaks from practice about practice, and builds knowledge of practice from the bottom up. Cochran-Smith and Lytle [85] have argued that practitioner-researchers 'work in inquiry communities to examine their assumptions, develop local knowledge, by posing questions and gathering data and work for social justice by using inquiry to ensure educational opportunity, access, and equity for all learners'. For them, inquiry as stance has four central dimensions:

1. a perspective on knowledge that rejects the formal knowledge-practical knowledge dualism and puts forward a conception of local knowledge in global contexts;

2. an expanded view of practice as the interplay of teaching, learning, and leading, as well as an expanded view of who counts as a practitioner;

3. an understanding of practitioner communities as the primary medium or mechanism for enacting inquiry as stance as a theory of action;

4. the position that the overarching purpose of practitioner inquiry is to provide education for a more just and democratic society' [85].

They argue that generating knowledge is a 'pedagogic act that is constructed in the context of use, intimately connected to the knower, and, although relevant to immediate situations, inevitably a process of theorising' [85].

Below, I briefly discuss what the literature has to say in the context of transformative language leader that are relevant to 'transformative pedagogy' and 'transformative research'.

6.5 Transformative language leader

The literature suggests that there is a relationship between moral values and leadership. For example, with regard to social justice, it identifies three complementary aspects: distributive, participative [85, 86], and relational [87]. The distributive aspect concerns equity in the distribution and accessing of education regarding its benefits and outcomes. The participative aspect concerns the capacity and opportunity to participate in making decisions, both at macro and micro levels. The relational aspect refers to recognition of and respect for social and cultural difference. Leadership, by implication, would involve taking cognizance of these interlinked aspects in the context of taking decisions.

Below, I outline a few examples for what leadership based on social justice can look like. Attention must be given not only to the social and organisational, but also to the personal, as social justice issues are enacted in 'embodied relationships' [88]. By implication, school leadership would involve creating conditions that support staff members as well as students in developing an attitude of openness towards one another, and a respect for one another's languages and cultures. According to Raffo

et al. [89], the strength of the 'embodied relationships' argument becomes clear when we consider that 'the relationship between poverty and education is unlikely to be disturbed unless fundamental issues of power and interest, advantage and disadvantage, are addressed'. Maguire [90] has argued that a way for schools to address poverty in the context of the school community is for them to take steps to ensure that children who suffer poverty are not disadvantaged by in-school practices and policies.

McGregor Burns [91] defined a transformational leader as one who 'looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs and engages the full person of the follower'. According to Bass [92], transformational leaders are judged by their impact on followers in the areas of trust, admiration and respect. Leithwood [93] developed seven dimensions to transformational leaders:

- building school vision and establishing goals;
- creating a productive school culture;
- providing intellectual stimulation;
- offering individualised support;
- modelling best practices and important organisational values;
- demonstrating high-performance expectations; and
- developing structures to foster participation in school decisions.

These dimensions align to the *Advanced Standards for Quality* [94] in the UK: and are regarded as research and practitioner-based quality practices essential to achieving improved student performance and organisational effectiveness.

There are several implications that emerge from the above. Leaders need to have critical and moral consciousness with the capacity and courage to critique existing social, political, and power relations that influence school life. Villegas and Lucas [95] present a conception of linguistically responsive teachers that is relevant to language leaders. Qualities include 'socio-cultural consciousness, affirming views of diversity, commitment and skills for promoting change in schools, understanding of how learners construct knowledge, skills for learning about their learners and the ability to use appropriate instructional approaches for diverse learners'.

It is important that all teachers accept responsibility for addressing special educational needs, including those of English language learners (ELLs). It is a moral issue. Below, I examine a 'transformative pedagogy' in the context of ELL.

7. 'Transformative pedagogy' and teaching English language learners

The Eurydice Report [96] identified three issues that need addressing in European teacher education: the critical importance of teaching the language of instruction, recognition of mother tongues of learners from diverse language backgrounds as a potential resource, and the promotion of interculturalism. Moore has argued that:

> *We understand and experience our world through the symbols of language and so our understandings of that world and, perhaps, our sense of possibilities within it, are permanently and unavoidably filtered through those discourses. [97]*

There are three types of literacy: functional, cultural, and critical. Villegas and Lucas [95] have argued that teacher education needs to create conditions that support the development of socio-cultural consciousness, and critical literacy informed by moral consciousness. It is important that in addition, functional and cultural literacies are understood and integrated into mainstream teaching and learning. McLaren [71] defines functional literacy as decoding and encoding skills, and cultural literacy as being about 'educating [teacher] and learners to be ...the bearers of certain meanings, values, and views' (e.g. writing a response to a question set by a history teacher). Lucas and Grinberg [98] have argued that 'The connection between language and schooling has special significance for English language learners (ELLs) who are often marginalised and underestimated'. 'Transformative pedagogy' has a key part in supporting teachers and students in developing as critical, intercultural citizens with the capacity to interact and express their meanings in English and by implication, to gain appropriate employment, and to contribute to the common good based on democratic, moral values.

Teachers need to value all students, linguistic diversity, and social justice in school and wider society [99], develop an awareness of the connection between language, culture, and identity, and of the socio-political dimension of language use and language education [100]. In addition, teachers need to be aware of their language use [101, 102]. In order that teachers can offer support students, particularly ELLs, they will need to have sufficient knowledge of the structure of English and of what is involved in second language learning, and to understand differences between conversational and academic English language use, for, as Cummins [103] tells us, ELLs take several years longer to develop academic English than conversational English.

One of the three studies, referred to in the Introduction, was one I carried out at the Lynch School of Education, Boston, MA. In that context, I widened my research beyond MFL to include Secondary English teaching methodology, and the Teaching English Language Learners (TELL) programme. While carrying out the study I learnt that a ban had been placed on bilingual education in Massachusetts as a result of a referendum held there in 2002. To support ELLs, Professor Maria Brisk made an evidence-informed decision based on the moral value of social justice, to establish the Teaching English Language Learners (TELL) certificate programme. The programme has now become a mandatory qualification for teacher recognition across Massachusetts.

7.1 'Transformative pedagogy' and 'transformative research'

From the studies I carried out, I suggest the following original, 'transformative research' model for use by practitioner-researchers, including those in mainstream subject areas. Key stages are as follows:

- Identify a focus for study based on an issue, preferably in collaboration with colleagues.
- Reflect individually, and then, in turn, articulate your ontological and epistemological beliefs to one another.
- Test one another's beliefs against universal, democratic, and moral values and make any necessary adjustments to your stated beliefs.
- Draw out implications of this 'testing' discussion for future decisions.
- Make collaborative decisions and implement an action plan aimed at transforming the situation, for example, integrating 'new' literacies into teaching and learning, addressing needs of ELLs, supporting equity.

- Collect data as appropriate.
- Analyse data.
- Interpret data and critically evaluate the impact of pedagogical and/other educational decisions and actions in a collaborative way, using (a) critical reasoning, (b) evidence informed, and (c) moral values, as key criteria.
- Demonstrate how the study has contributed in a positive way to transforming pedagogy/other educational process(es) in the classroom and/or school communities, and/or contributed to developing students' capacity to understand what being in the world means.
- Verify claims to any new knowledge by opening the study to external scrutiny.

8. Conclusion

'Transformative pedagogy' supports target language teachers in developing a more encompassing professional identity as practitioner-researchers and leaders in the school and wider community. It enhances the social-psychological model of autonomous language teaching and learning by underpinning it with a critical, intercultural and moral-philosophical basis. I examined factors for autonomous language teaching and learning and those for a 'transformative pedagogy' that involve a range of 'new' literacies in addition to reading, writing, listening, speaking, and oral-aural communication.

'Transformative pedagogy' gears teaching towards learners and learning. Learners are understood as whole persons with an identity as critical and intercultural target language users for whom interactions are informed by moral values.

An original model for 'transformative research' is shown and is aimed at supporting practitioner-researchers and leaders in general and not only language teachers in becoming more self-aware, critical, collaborative, and morally conscious educators. Doing this implies having the capacity and courage to take a moral stance for all students, not least those who are marginalised, and helping them to improve their life chances and their understandings about what being in the world means.

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Chapter 5

Multidimensional Networks for Functional Diversity in Higher Education: The Case of Second Language Education

Mari Carmen Campoy-Cubillo

Abstract

This chapter provides a theoretical approach to the multidimensional relationship of the student with functional diversity with his/her own educational and socio-cultural context. Inclusion is a key issue in a foreign language classroom where the ability to communicate is of paramount importance. Students with different special needs are bound to find challenges in those language skills that pose problems related to their functional diversity. In order to address these challenges, higher education institutions need to organize multidimensional networks that pay attention to the different stages, events, and situations of the educational process. Furthermore, the ability to communicate that students with functional diversity develop in the foreign language classroom may become an instrumental competence that will become useful for other subjects as well as to respond to daily life challenges. The theoretical model proposed here acknowledges that there are two paradigms that coalesce into a defined educational model. On the one hand, the syntagmatic paradigm ensures that subjects offered in the educational programs are designed bearing in mind the needs of students with functional diversity and are flexible enough to accommodate those needs. On the other hand, the organizational paradigm relates the needs of the students and their teachers to institutional services and protocols.

Keywords: functional diversity (FD), higher education (HE), English language teaching (ELT), foreign language learning (FLL), knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs), curriculum adaptations, technology-enabled assessment (TEA)

1. Introduction

In their seminal paper, Romañach and Lobato [1] clearly state the reasons behind using and advocating for the term "functional diversity" (FD) in their study:

> *It is known that words or terms are associated with ideas and concepts and that these connotations are not something random, but represent culturally accepted values of the object or organism named. These values are conveyed over time using words as a vehicle. In time, if we wish to change ideas or values, we will have no alternative other than changing the words that support and give life to them.*

These authors thus defend the use of the term "functional diversity" instead of pejorative terms such as "disability" or "handicap." In the educational arena, we should be especially sensitive not only with the way we employ terms but also with how our idea of what they represent is implemented in the educational environment. Terms like "disability," meaning "less able," point to the lack of ability of a person and the lack of ability of a student in our class. "Functional diversity," on the other hand, indicates "diverse ways of doing things."

Throughout this chapter, I understand diversity and its implementation in education as the fact of acknowledging and including many possible ways of being and doing things. This understanding includes both people and institutions. In higher education (HE), there are two basic levels of implementation: one is between the students and their teachers and the different institutional units that influence the quality of his/her education (such as diversity support units), and the other is within the closest circle of friends/classmates and teachers with whom the student relates during a course of study and along the years in a higher education institution on a daily basis. I call the first level the organizational paradigm and the second level the syntagmatic paradigm. The main aim of this chapter is to analyze how the relationship between both paradigms is necessary to develop a functional diversity model that is able to recognize that students with diversity also have different needs depending on the courses and degrees they take.

Teachers involved in teaching students with functional diversity often feel alone in the process; sometimes one of the paradigms works, while the other does not provide sufficient support. This is the reason why multidimensional networks for functional diversity have to be organized in a way that both paradigms are integrated into one another and respond to each other.

1.1 Multidimensional networks in second language education

In the field of foreign language teaching, working with functional diversity tends to be more complicated than it is in other fields because we deal with all the aspects of communication by simply dealing, for instance, with the four main language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking), and this is done in a language different to the mother tongue. Language teaching implies awareness of different communicative contexts, the appropriateness of a message in such contexts, and evaluating (nonverbal and verbal) reactions, to name some examples of issues considered in a communicative approach to language learning. Moreover, the language class is no longer a one-way class but rather a participative event where communication among participants is essential.

How does this affect students with functional diversity? Let us consider a few examples. Students with sensory FD (auditory, visual) will need adaptations in those parts of language learning related to listening (clarity, volume, etc.) and seeing (reading, situation awareness, etc.). Students with physical FD affecting speech production will need adaptations in the speaking components of the language class, while FD affecting, for instance, the loss or limitation of movement in hands/arms may affect writing. Students with FD affecting social interaction (such as Asperger syndrome) will need adaptations for group work, among others.

Given the peculiarities and complexities of the language teaching context, it is easy to realize that students with functional diversity of any type will always need some adaptation in the foreign and second language learning class. For the foreign language teacher in higher education institutions, trying to implement adaptations is a very demanding mission. A lot of support is needed to develop effective proposals that can be transferred to similar language teaching situations. For this reason, if we want to make the educational system work regarding functional diversity

for language learning and teaching, we need to oil the wheels of a dynamic model, and we should have a clear picture of what has been done and what remains to be done if the system is to operate effectively. The theoretical approach presented here contributes to the development of an organized multidimensional framework that may aid teachers to identify how to tackle FD issues in the classroom and outside the classroom. This framework should be part of the teacher training curriculum, and in fact teachers of English as a foreign language already identified the lack of this type of training as a gap in their continuing professional development [2, 3].

The TALE project in their needs analysis report ([2], p. 38), informs readers that assessing learners with special needs is reported as the area where teachers feel less confident among all the reported areas where teachers indicate their confidence regarding assessment and is later identified ([2], p. 39) as the area where training needs are higher. In [3], pp. 12–13, a similar statement is made regarding training in dyslexia for teachers. Most teachers (94.4%) felt they needed more information on the language teaching methods and inclusive practices that may be effective for dyslexic learners, thus evidencing an important demand for professional development opportunities in dyslexia.

The theoretical proposal developed in this chapter is thus meant to make a contribution in the organization of second language teacher education and how it should be planned and systematized in educational institutions, specifically at a university level.

In this chapter, I will focus on the needs of students who enroll for degrees in foreign languages. The chapter includes an interview to a teacher of English with visual diversity. The interest of this interview is twofold: this is a teacher who is at the same time also a student since she is preparing for her competitive national exam to become a state employee. Thus, her dual perspective will give us insights in both directions, teaching and learning.

2. Methodology

This chapter combines a theoretical proposal with an interview to a person with visual diversity. The theoretical proposal deals with the organization of educational agents to provide students with functional diversity with adequate and accessible educational models and tools. The interview is used to exemplify a case of a student with functional diversity in a foreign language context and at the same time serve as a way to ascertain how each stage in the theoretical proposal is related to the real situation of our interview subject. Our subject is a female teacher with visual diversity who is also a student for the competitive exams to become a state teacher.

The subject was contacted and in an informal meeting was asked to participate in an interview to talk about her experience as a person with visual diversity in the field of foreign language teaching. In the meeting it was suggested that her view in both sides of the learning/teaching spectrum was of special interest for the interview, but no further information was given regarding the content of her answers. A semi-structured interview (see Appendix) was carried out through WhatsApp, in which the interviewer set up a general structure of the main questions to be asked and the areas covered in the questions. A WhatsApp format was deemed as adequate since it would allow the interviewee to take her time for the answer and respond the questions in a safe, non-threatening atmosphere. The participant was at home, and the interviewer was not physically present so the anxiety that may be present in a face-to-face interview was eliminated. She could freely decide on what to talk about in each question, how much to say, and how to say it.

Throughout the interview, the interviewer elicited information in the form of open questions in a conversational tone and ensured flexibility in the way the subject addressed the different questions. Both questions and answers were submitted using the audio option in WhatsApp messages. The interview was then transcribed and analyzed to determine how the answers related to the theoretical proposal.

3. The organizational paradigm of functional diversity in higher education

The organizational paradigm analyzes the institutional services and protocols developed in higher education institutions. In order to be effective, such services and protocols need to be interconnected and should reach the students and their teachers. There are three dimensions in the organizational paradigm: *discursive*, *performative*, and *material*. The discursive dimension designs and pays attention to the way in which language is used throughout the institution to foster respect toward all types of diversity. This discursive dimension should be reflected in policies [4], statutory documents, institutional forms and documents, internal and external communication strategies, exam calls, grant calls, and online/classroom material. The performative dimension is concerned with the actions that institutions take to react to situations, events, or contingencies related with functional diversity. The material dimension includes staff, financial support for architectural and space adaptations, and financial support for accessible and adapted materials that are used to ensure quality education for all.

I will exemplify the discursive dimension with a real situation. Two of my best qualified students did not know anything about their rights as students with functional diversity because they did not associate themselves with the term "disabled" which is used by the university. Both students have different rare illnesses and have never identified themselves as "disabled" because, they told me, "there is nothing wrong with us, we are smart, we just have this illness and we sometimes miss a class or an exam." Again, term connotations are important, and the students missed grant opportunities because of this. They were not even aware of the fact that they could ask for adaptations. The other problem in this case is that if the student does not find out about university policies or the institution is not able to inform in a way that reaches all individuals, the services are lost for some students. For this reason, the discursive dimension is important and needs constant revising.

Questions 1 and 4 in the interview (see Appendix for full answers to the questions) are good examples for the performative (and discursive) dimension. The interviewee reflects on work environment situations she went through:

> *Q1. (...) I had a good curriculum and was not questioned about my visual diversity, but there were many untold prejudices, unfinished sentences...like "if something happened to you..."*
>
> *Q4. (...) when I talked to the head of the school and administration departments, and they really did not understand my situation very well, did not have much information about how to proceed.*
>
> *(...) I was sent to a school with no lift and many stairs. But the headmaster made me go up the stairs, he gave me no other choice (...) I was new there, and I did not want to make any trouble...even if I could have placed a denounce I did not. And in those times, I could have been placing a denounce on a daily basis. (...) this person, he even*

> *recommended that I checked that the school I would chose in the future was ready for me. He told me: "You need to understand we are not used to people like you."*

As we can see in the response to the questions, the full picture of functional diversity has not yet been elucidated. Administration and other teaching staff know what functional diversity is but do not always know how to react to situations that call for action. This is because, in this case, the job interviewers and staff have not been trained to understand and deal with the needs of people with visual diversity. In the first place, phrases like "if something happened to you..." or "people like you" show that there is a lack of information regarding the rights of people with functional diversity. They also denote lack of tact and prejudices; it is assumed that people with functional diversity will cause problems. Secondly, in the case of the second school, a natural solution would have been to find a classroom or space in the ground floor that was more accessible or at least discuss the options with the teacher. Inaction is not a good performative behavior example.

The material dimension belongs both to the organizational and the syntagmatic paradigm. At an organizational level, it implies financing an organization of support units, new technology units, and their staff, which we discuss in the paragraphs below. It also means financing architectural adaptations when new spaces are created. And finally, it entails to monitor the design of accessible information and provide the tools and training necessary to create and update accessible information.

Universities may have different services and departments that orchestrate the needs and demands of students with functional diversity. The organizational paradigm will analyze the institutional resources and support systems. At a macrostructural level, higher education institutions will have to consider specific types of diversity and their implications in the educational system. This entails establishing policies and guidelines, among which we may have:

- Functional diversity awareness
- University guidelines for functional diversity
- General curricular adaptations
- Accessibility guidelines and technological support
- Diversity support units

Functional diversity awareness relates to the idea that both the institution needs to be aware of the needs of students with functional diversity and the students need to be informed and aware of institutional services and their implications. For both sides, this implies knowing which are the degrees' basic requirements, teaching methods, and expected outcomes and whether these are accessible or not for a particular group of students. This is important because many times students miss opportunities due to lack of information when informative channels are not working or not considering their needs. A student with dyslexia, for instance, may find it hard to read a grant call if the text is written in a color combination or letter font that is illegible for them.

Diversity support units are an essential point of convergence in dealing with functional diversity in higher education. These units are the starting point for students, who need to access the unit and be interviewed so that they are informed

about university support options and so that an overall strategy in their educational development may be outlined. Diversity support units can have diversity advisors. These advisors act as links between the student and other university departments, funding application services, or housing services. They will support the students when asking for adjustments in learning, tutorials, exams, and other assessment methods. These advisors may help teachers by providing further information on possible adjustments in their subjects. For example, the foreign language teacher may be advised to provide the student with dyslexia with class notes that use an adequate letter font (such as Arial, Verdana or Dyslexie) or may recommend the teacher to give permission to record lectures in order to make it easier for the students to take their notes.

Another common feature that most higher education institutions have is the provision of university/institutional (online) guidelines [5, 6] for functional diversity. Support units and sometimes other university teams of experts are in charge of creating and distributing these guides to the community. In this sense, the organizational paradigm should generate specific guidelines for the most frequent functional diversity types or each type of functional diversity that are addressed to all academic agencies in the institution. These guidelines can also be field-specific and be addressed, for example, to work placements or science labs (see, for instance, [7, 8]). In the case of institutional guidelines, we are still at the organizational level where information is provided regarding a group of individuals with a specific functional diversity which may be related to a particular university practice. The guidelines are the first level of information and may contain recommendations for general curricular adaptations.

Curricular adaptations are the different types of modifications and accommodations which allow students equal opportunity to obtain access to education, results, benefits, and different levels of achievement based on diversity requirements. At an institutional level, there needs to be general adaptation criteria that all departments can agree on and follow. General adaptations that are provided by most institutions regardless of the degree are, for example, extensions of time, letter size adaptations, or (class)rooms with special characteristics.

Among curricular adaptations, exam adaptations (or adaptations of any assessment method) are a main concern among students with functional diversity because this is the phase in which they are evaluated and may demonstrate achievement. It is also a time of concern because it is in exam situations where anxiety may result in lower achievement or where inadequate adaptations may lead to unfair assessment. García-Pastor and Miller [9] show the experiences of learners who stutter (LWS) in their process of learning a foreign language. Their study reveals that these learners scored significantly higher in foreign language anxiety than the control group and that the contrast was even higher in speaking situations. Thus, speaking anxiety needs to be considered for this particular group of students, even more so in evaluative situations ([9], p. 174). Evaluative situations are those where students need to show what they know in front of their peers and/or teacher. An oral foreign language exam would thus be a situation that may require adaptations for LWS.

Diversity support units are those units or departments that provide academic support to members of the academic community with special educational needs. In order to be assisted by these units, usually students need to register in a program. This will entitle him/her to have individual meetings with the support unit where his/her needs are listened to and analyzed in order to design a specific plan of action. For example, a student with dyslexia (a condition that makes it difficult to read and spell) attends the support unit interviews, and a plan of action is taken.

Students' teachers are contacted and informed about the students' needs, and they will be given general recommendations. In the case of dyslexia, it can be something like: "Work Guidelines: Expansion of exam response time. We recommend to focus the correction of the tests on the response content, since there may be misspellings." This is a general recommendation for any student with dyslexia in any degree of study. It should be born in mind that each case of student with diversity is unique; even in cases with the same condition, students may be influenced by other environmental factors that may influence their learning rhythms and paths.

Diversity units evaluate each individual case before giving their recommendations. The recommendation would reach the teacher, and it is the teacher's responsibility to take the recommendation into consideration. The support unit will assist both the learner and the teacher with any requests they may have. The above recommendation regarding dyslexia can be enough for students taking, for instance, an engineering degree. But it can be very limited for foreign language subjects. The students with dyslexia have to deal not only with reading and writing problems in their own language but also when they need to read and write in the foreign language, thus causing more added difficulties. Those teachers who have spelling as an assessment criterion will have to consider specific adaptations.

Another relevant institutional asset is to have an effective technological support unit. This unit may be decisive to help with assistive technology in order to make not only institutional but also learning and teaching materials accessible. Assistive technology officers may guide students with diversity when they have specific technological requirements or could provide technological resources and tools that are helpful for them. They may help students activate the voice-over option in documents, for instance. Technological support officers will also assist teachers in their creation of accessible materials. A key term in this area is technology-enabled assessment (TEA) or the use of technology to design assessment conditions and tools that are adequate and accessible for all students [10].

As can be inferred from the above discussion, the organizational paradigm of functional diversity in HE has a complex articulation. It is for this reason that evaluating and assessing this paradigm should be common practice to ensure that the paradigm is effective and that new requirements will be met in the future. The model followed by [11] illustrates the use of a template for assessing diversity practices in HE where each practice and its aims are evaluated considering the target group, stakeholders involved, and the organizational process of each practice. They also value the accessibility of information regarding this practice, the timeframe during which it develops, whether it is possible to transfer this practice, and its potential to be applied and transferred to other target groups and institutions. An organizational paradigm of functional diversity in HE needs to be assessed, but it also needs to reach the syntagmatic paradigm, and it needs to feed from syntagmatic feedback. Not only that, it would be advisable that HE gets some feedback regarding the performance of students with diversity in the previous educational level (secondary school and others), and also to find a way to support these students in their transition to university (see the TIDE Project as an example for this transition monitoring: https://project-tide.eu/). **Figure 1** below summarizes the key ideas in the organizational paradigm.

The organizational paradigm shows the hierarchical relationship between different institutional levels. It has two main foci of sustenance: functional diversity support and technological support. From the institutional policies to the specific recommendations, adaptations, and technology-enabled accessibility, there must be a constant awareness of the principles behind the HE institution directions on diversity.

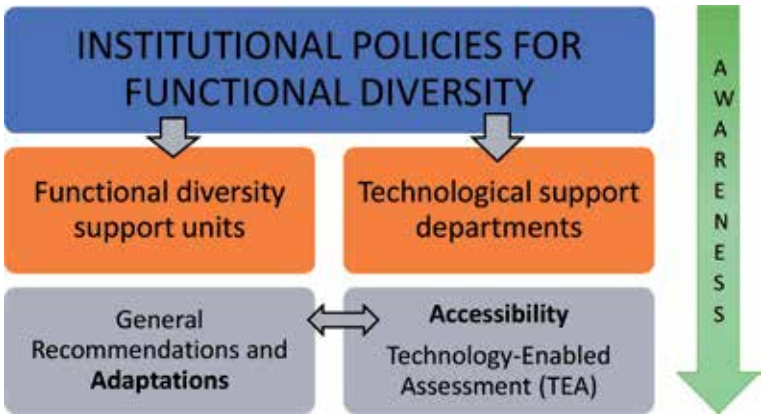

Figure 1.
The organizational paradigm of functional diversity.

4. The syntagmatic paradigm of functional diversity in higher education

The syntagmatic paradigm pays attention to the relationship between students with functional diversity, their peers, and their teachers. It also pays attention to research and research-derived tools that analyze how to deal with specific diversity types in a particular field of study or in certain subjects that require in-depth analysis for the provision of effective education regarding functional diversity types. For the syntagmatic paradigm, I will focus solely on issues related to foreign language learning. Within the syntagmatic paradigm, I will distinguish two main areas of work:

a. The study of one or several types of functional diversity in relation to language learning.

b. The other is the study of *one foreign language learning skill* and how to adapt that skill to the different possible functional diversity types or to an individual FD.

The first area is necessary to understand how a student with functional diversity will develop his or her knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) in the language learning classroom. This understanding is of paramount importance for teachers to be able to choose a particular teaching method and to be able to adapt their subject and materials when necessary. The research and resources we will include in this section regarding KSAs are particularly relevant in relation to continuing professional development of the language teacher working with FD. An example of the first area (A) is Kormos [12], who studies the second language learning processes of students with specific learning difficulties (SpLDs). The book investigates relevant aspects within SLA including the effect of affective factors on learners' KSAs and how to identify SpLDs in another language. Teachers who are unaware of how SpLDs are reflected in the students' KSAs will undoubtedly benefit from reading this book, since unawareness on SpLDs may easily lead to misunderstandings and unfair assessment on the part of the teacher. Two full chapters are devoted to the teaching and assessment of second language skills for students with specific learning difficulties.

The work of Nijakowska [13] clearly belongs to this category and focuses on one type of functional diversity. Hers is a book devoted to the study of dyslexia and language teaching. Specifically, Chapters 3 and 5 deal with dyslexia and foreign

language learning and teaching, while Chapter 6 provides samples of activities to exemplify theory in action.

European projects on dyslexia, like CalDys2 (http://www.caldys2.eu/node/104), DysTEFL, DysTEFL2 (http://dystefl2.uni.lodz.pl/), TIDE (https://project-tide.eu/), and Dyslang (https://www.bdadyslexia.org.uk/about/projects/dyslang), are educational initiatives that yield practical proposals for the classroom based on years of team research and practice. These projects and related research also provide teacher guidance and sometimes training programs for teachers [14].

The second area focuses on one particular language skill and how this skill is understood and practiced by one functional diversity type. Analyzing the needs of SWFD in relation to language skills is useful to envisage in which skill the students with functional diversity (SWFD) will function in a different way. Broadly speaking, foreign language courses usually include practice in the four main language skills: reading, speaking, writing, and listening. In this sense, Kormos [12] also falls into the second area, since it focuses on reading skills. Kosak-Babuder et al. [15] also deal with reading skills and dyslexia. They base their study on the assumption that one of the special arrangements in testing contexts is to allow dyslexic students to listen to the text while they read, a hypothesis that the results of their study supports. These authors examined the effect of read-aloud and its impact on comprehension on the part of students with dyslexia and compared results with a control group with no reported dyslexia. They contrasted the results for different modes of test administration for reading comprehension tasks (read only, read-aloud, listen only). Administration modes did not seem to influence students with no reported dyslexia, while the results for students with dyslexia were significantly better when following the read-aloud protocol. The study hence demonstrates that this adaptation should be recommended for type of task and students with functional diversity (SWFD).

Mortimore and Crozier [16] report that note-taking skills are more demanding for students with dyslexia than the skill of reading, since these skills imply both listening and writing. The higher the educational level, the more demanding these skills are, since the input becomes more complex. As explained in Nijakowska [14], note-taking skills also require a lot of concentration on the part of the student for a long period of time and demand being able to remember details. Other SWFD find listening and related skills particularly challenging. Such is the case of the student in our appendix. Listening skills for a student with visual diversity have a great level of difficulty. As the student in our interview points out (question 8), it is impossible for them to read and write at the same time:

> *Q8. (...) About the listening part of the exam. You know that when you complete a listening test, you have to answer a number of questions that you can read while you listen. I cannot do that, I have to either listen or get the voice over read for me, but not both things at a time. Therefore, I cannot visualize the questions in the listening as other people do (...)*

Ideally, students may read the listening questions while listening and decide to take notes for one question or another at the same time. However, a student who is blind requires the computer to read the questions for her/him and will not be able to use this strategy. Not being able to read while listening will also demand a higher level of concentration to remember the questions while the audio is played, since they will not have the opportunity to listen to the questions again until the audio text for the listening is over.

As suggested elsewhere [17, 18], listening test administration procedures may determine the adequacy of a listening practice, and this is even more important for

SWFD. Foreign language test administration procedures as well as task administration procedures need to include SWFD in their design phase. In practicing listening, administration includes not only checking that the audio has a good quality and adequate speed as well as clear diction but also designing the way in which students have to answer the listening task, that is, question type and sequencing and pauses and amounts of audio text to be listened before answering each or all the questions. It also includes the number of times that an audio will be listened in order to perform the task.

Thus, in a listening task the sequencing and timing of questions need to be aligned with a specific type of FD. One possible course of action is to fragment the listening task into a number of recognizable sequences (episodes distinguished in the listening event as a whole). Instead of listening to the full text and then answer the questions, the SWFD may listen to each sequence and answer the questions for that sequence. This would also apply for the test question mentioned in the interview where the student is asked to summarize the whole listening. The audio text may be divided into smaller units to facilitate note-taking for the SWFD. In this regard, a relevant issue in foreign language test or task administration is the means of administration: paper or digital formats. Generally speaking, digital testing or TEA offers possible task and test administration procedures that may include adaptations for different SWFD by providing different access means. One of the advantages of digital educational contexts is that they facilitate multimodal environments in which different communicative modes—visual, audio, written, video, etc.—may be used as the means of access in a given task, and tasks can be accommodated to specific needs [19–21].

So far, we have seen FD examples related to the skills of writing, reading, and listening. For other SWFD, social skills, which are more directly related to speaking skills, may pose certain problems. This is the case of students with Asperger [22] because they have problems with social interactions. Situations where students face stress or anxiety, such as cases of dysarthria [23], stuttering [9], or students with depression, are instances where the practice of oral skills need to be revised. In some cases, like dysarthria or stuttering, analyzing the specific condition of the student may lead to contemplate different options of task or test administration, design specific tutorial sessions, or use digital environments to facilitate the practice of spoken skills. In the case of students with Asperger, teachers will have to bear in mind how these students interact. For example, they usually start interaction in ways that are awkward for other students and in a not very effective way [24, 25], and they also want others to follow their rules and share their preferences, interests, or achievements. This knowledge should be used by the teachers, and it will help them with classroom management and the way tasks are organized so that students with Asperger may participate in classroom activities as any other student in the group.

Other considerations for students with Asperger are that these students should not be grouped with peers that may cause them distress, fear, agitation, or anxiety. As an example, a recommendation [22] is that they should not be paired with those classmates that are usually perceived as the leaders or those that are strongly interested in sports due to a lack of similar interests.

A different case is that of SWFD for whom the foreign language is a third language and for whom the visual input and written input may be more relevant than audio-based information. Such is the case of students deaf and hard-of-hearing persons [26, 27]. Innovative research in this field is, for example, the work of Ewa Domagala-Zysk and her development of surdoglottodidactics—a science of teaching and learning a foreign language by DHH (deaf and hard-of-hearing persons) individuals—which has shaped the nature of learning and teaching strategies

implemented in English as foreign language classes for deaf and hard-of-hearing students in Poland. Other researchers [27] pay attention to the deaf professional and develop teaching proposals for students with auditive FD that are an aid to integrate them in their future professional activities. This proposal works with English for special purpose students who are deaf and develops materials in the area of film production with the idea of preparing them to communicate with foreign peers in their future work environments and to promote their future professional advancement.

Working with students with FD in the language classroom fosters the development of instrumental competences [28]. These are the competences that have an instrumental or enabling function, that is, they make something possible by developing the cognitive, methodological, technological, and linguistic skills to do it. While linguistic skills are instrumental by definition, in the case of functional diversity, they have a second instrumental level that has an inclusive value. The foreign language class is a scenario where students with FD can develop important instrumental skills that they can apply in other situations outside the classroom. This is why the combination of language learning and FD is so important. In addition, the importance given to instrumental competences by employers has a direct impact on the labor insertion of people with FD.

For example, for students with Asperger, work in group in the foreign language classroom may include guidelines on how to behave in a particular situation. This will develop the student's social skills and give them tools and strategies to manage specific situations in the real world. Another example can be the use of new technologies by students with visual diversity in the language classroom. Since they will need to make use of adequate technological tools and skills to respond to classroom tasks, the instrumental technological competence will be developed. In addition, the teachers and institutions need to consider which are the essential technological tools students with visual diversity may need and how these tools may assist them in their future working environment. An institution may have specific budget to cater for technological tools aimed at students with FD, while an academic department may decide to foster the use of specific technology that may be useful to the student with visual diversity, for instance, in the foreign language class. The department may evaluate and consider how the technological competences developed in the use of a specific tool may be useful to the class as a whole and/or to the student with FD in particular.

We have seen how different approaches to teaching FL to SWFD in the syntagmatic paradigm include paying attention to FD types, to how SWFD function in the process of learning specific skills, and on how these considerations may help teachers design more effective teaching and testing strategies for their students.

In the syntagmatic paradigm, the role of other agents in implementing adaptations is important. One is the figure of area/department coordinator for FD, who will need to design specific plans of action for teaching SWFD that all the members of the department should agree to follow. SWFD may also be assigned FD tutors who may assist them in the whole educational process in the HE institution. A teacher coordinator for each course should also supervise that methods used by teachers in the same course follow similar or the same principles so that no contradictory ideas will cause any problem. Finally, the role of student peers as task facilitators may prove to be an essential aid in the integration of SWFD. These students may act as tutors, or they may help, for instance, as scribes in helping note-taking processes or in cases where having another student write for you is easier for the SWFD (e.g., cases of students with physical functional diversity who cannot easily write). They may also act as readers to facilitate a specific reading purpose. In **Figure 2** below, I summarize the key issues in the syntagmatic paradigm.

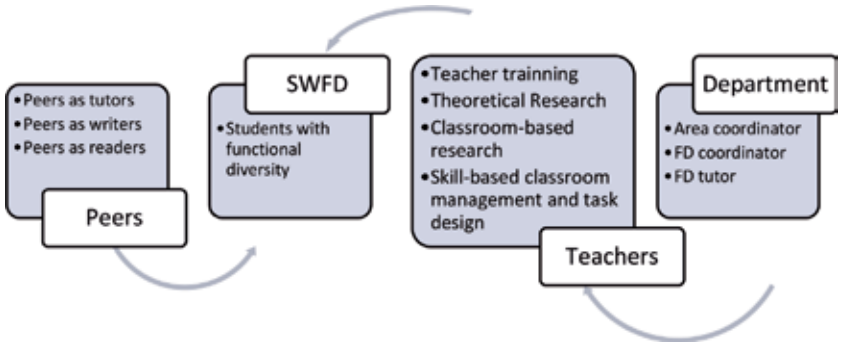

Figure 2.
The syntagmatic paradigm of functional diversity.

As illustrated in the figure, in the syntagmatic paradigm for a SWFD to develop his/her foreign language skills, peers, tutors, teachers, and coordinators need to interact and share their practices. Lack of coordination would entail problems and misunderstandings in the SWFD daily experience. Lack of teacher training in FD is perhaps the most urgent need in HE. Even though many professionals may be interested in FD and devote time to read informed materials, there is a general lack of coordination in a departmental organization and procedures toward integration of SWFD, and the teacher is usually left to make their own decisions in their classrooms.

5. Multidimensional networks for functional diversity in higher education

While the organizational and the syntagmatic paradigms are sometimes self-sufficient, a connection between both paradigms in what I will call multidimensional networks for functional diversity should be a requisite in FD. The different agents involved in the process should communicate and evaluate each other's progress and proposals. In the previous section, I mentioned how the teacher may be left to take their own decisions as to how they manage SWFD or which adaptations they finally implement in their subjects. Communication procedures at a multidimensional level would mean that the institution should foster those actions oriented toward teacher training not only on a general level (which is important) but also on a specific field of study level where adaptations can be more detailed and can be specified more clearly in relation to specific subjects. In order to do so, it is essential to support research in FD and HE. It is also necessary to facilitate research results and to promote the transferability of good practices. Tutors and teachers should also be informed about the institutional policies on FD so they can provide their students with the information they need in a timely manner. When institutional proposals are not working or are seen as not useful, it is those tutors and teachers who should report specific problems to higher institutional levels for revision.

The problems that SWFD may face in a HE context may be very similar to those found later on in their working practice. Some questions in the interview shown in the appendix reflect miscommunication problems between the syntagmatic and organizational paradigms. I will now comment on the interview questions.

Question 2 relates to how the majority of teachers both in private and public institutions are not prepared to consider the needs of SWFD. In preparing for her competitive exam, the student in the interview could not find any preparation school or academy able to provide her, for example, with technology-enabled materials and training that could have facilitated and improved her preparation for the

exam. The student also reports that she is unaware of any state exam preparation resources. These resources, whenever they exist, must be publicized, and SWFD should be informed of their existence on registering for the exam.

Question 3 poses an interesting challenge: the student is eager to learn and get a good training and registers for courses, but then what is supposed to be an innovative, ITC-based instruction ends up being a problem for her due to the lack of adaptation of the most frequently used tools used in FL environments, such as Moodle. Again, it seems to be the case that adaptations are only considered in exam situations, and even in those situations, they tend to be general. The challenge that is now starting to be taken on by some researchers is to study FD and analyze specific needs to adapt ITC tools.

Question 4 has been commented on in the body of this chapter. It shows examples of professional experiences that a teacher with FD may have to overcome. As explained before, there is a lack of staff training for adapting professional environments that are friendlier and more aware of the needs of people with FD.

Question 5 points in the direction of a lack of knowledge on research related to test adaptations. This is particularly significative on the part of the student. She is asking for general adaptations, but she is also trying to explain her needs, her specific needs. One important aspect of adaptations is to inform the student with time enough before the test. A SWFD cannot be left to imagine how the test will be. They should be informed about test format and about the accepted adaptations well ahead of the exam time. This is particularly important because when one prepares for a test, one prepares for a specific format and means of administration. Not having this information in advance may lead to a less effective student performance. In question 6, the student indicates that she had an interview with the examiners a few days before, but this is clearly a very short span of time to manage the information they may give her in preparation for the exam. It is obviously also a short time for the examiners to decide on how to design specific adaptations based on the report of the student.

Question 7 addresses the issue of social integration. The student expresses her concern with the examiners' full appreciation of her abilities and fears that a marginalized vision of her FD may affect the evaluation of her performance in the oral part of the exam. This is an issue that is affecting the student's preparation for the exam, though assessment criteria are probably neutral enough to impede personal evaluation from permeating into the final grade. Perhaps publication of detailed assessment criteria would avoid this situation. At present, the mark percentage for each part of the exam is publicized.

Questions 7 and 8 talk about the listening part of the exam the interviewee is about to take and the worries the student has regarding its administration. The official call for the examination explains that the listening is based on a C2 level audio document and states that the following tasks will be carried out:

a. Response to general and/or detailed questions that the selection committee raises

b. Summary of the information contained in the audio (approximately 200 words), as determined by the selection committee

The call states that the audio document will be between 5 and 6 min long and will be played twice. The duration of this part will have a maximum time of 50 min. The value of this part of the exam is 40% of the total percentage.

The length of the audio (5–6 min) seems to be too long for a student with visual diversity, and the student will not know whether the audio will be stopped in the

middle to allow her to take notes as needed, or whether it will be simply played more times as she requests.

> *Q8. About the listening part of the exam. You know that when you complete a listening test, you have to answer a number of questions that you can read while you listen. I cannot do that, I have to either listen or get the voice over read for me, but not both things at a time. Therefore, I cannot visualize the questions in the listening as other people do, so I have asked to have the audio played more times to compensate for this...I hope to meet the board of examiners before the day of the exam so that I can explain myself better or answer their questions regarding this matter.*

It seems to me that these decisions should not be left so much to what the student imagines that could be made, though her opinion is of course very important. What matters, though, is that examiners and the administration should already possess enough information on FD to provide the student with adequate options, instead of leaving that burden on the student alone. The issue of pausing or not for the summary of the audio information is also a problematic question for the student, who cannot prepare for a specific option in advance.

Finally, question 9 is a good reflection on how the focus on the abilities of SWFD and professionals with FD may contribute to the development of good practices based on their experience:

> *Q9. I tell them that if I make a mistake while I write, they can tell me. We learn from mistakes. So, I take advantage of this to teach them that if one makes a mistake, you just rectify and that's it, there is nothing wrong about that.*

In the case of this teacher, she takes advantage of her FD to teach students about attitudes in relation to making mistakes and about behaving properly and acting in an ethical way.

6. Concluding remarks

A multidimensional network for functional diversity in HE is based on the principle of cooperation and evaluation among the different agents of the process, both at the organizational and the syntagmatic paradigm levels. In this sense, we should remember that important actions and beliefs for implementing good practices in FD include:

- Support units have a role in organizing and informing FD tutors and coordinators on a general level.
- Departments and academic coordinators need to design protocols to support good practices in their field of study.
- Syntagmatic support from peers and teachers, where teacher training needs to be supported and fostered by the institution.
- Teacher training needs to be based on theoretical research, classroom research, and classroom management experiences. The three of them are a cycle of constant feedback for good practices.
- Focusing on language skills and their constructs is a good organizational principle for FL teaching in a diversity context.

Research calls for action [2, 3] in the training of language teachers for FD teaching and assessment. Considering the difficulties discussed throughout this chapter regarding good FD practices, designing multidimensional networks is vital. The benefits are twofold in working with students with FD in the language class. While developing a first level of instrumentality in linguistic competences, students are also dealing with a second level of instrumentality whenever the foreign language class gives them clues, tools, and strategies that deal with other instrumental general competences, which are highly valued by employers.

As stated in the introduction, the language learning context is an ideal arena where FD may find its own expression; it is a place for innovation where we can develop new ideas on how to communicate and how to foster new ways of understanding communication from a FD perspective.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix: interview to a teacher/student of English with visual diversity

Question 1: Why did you decide to take the national competitive exam to become a language teacher?

I come from a family of teachers, and that was something I always felt curious about. First, I started looking for other types of job as a translator. I started job interviews around the country, and I had a good curriculum and was not questioned about my visual diversity, but there were many untold prejudices, unfinished sentences...like "if something happened to you...." But since I always liked teaching languages, I made the decision to get a job as a teacher, and here I am.

Before that, even before the first job interviews, I considered working for the Spanish Association for Blind People (ONCE) selling coupons, which would give me a job quite easily, and that would allow me to be independent. However, at that moment, from a psychological point of view, I wanted to do something else in my life, invest time in the things that I like, and I decided to take the hard path, get trained as a teacher, study more, even though I knew it would take me many more years to get a good job. But I did not want to have an easy money kind of job, I wanted to feel proud of what I did, do something that I like better, even if it meant working harder and longer to get that job.

Question 2: What kind of institutional help did you get from the state administration?

Well, I have not received any help to prepare for my exam. When I took the first exam chance, I was still able to see using Telelupa (a kind of TV that augments images in a screen, even if the reading is slower, and the wider letters you use, the narrower field of text vision you have...so you take a long time to answer). And I had to manage myself, I got no other help. I went to the private school were everybody goes to prepare for the exam, and I got prepared there. Same as now.

To be honest, if there is any help from the administration to get oneself prepared for the exam, I do not know about it.

Question 3: What kind of help do you get at work to prepare for the exam or for any training courses?

During the years I have been studying on my own and I have been training myself. The problem is that nearly no learning platform is accessible, so I am very limited when I have to follow the different new platforms, and the screen reader is just not enough. I went to a Moodle course recently, but I had to give up because it was impossible for me to follow it. And I love technology, I always have. If that was made accessible…wow…that would be just great! It would open so many doors for me, but right now I cannot update my training since all courses follow the newest ICT platforms, and they are simply not accessible.

Question 4: Does your school help you to develop your job as a teacher of English?

During my training period as a language teacher, I have found schools that were not accessible and which had no lifts from one floor to another. And the school itself was not accessible, it was not easy to reach the school.

I did not use a wheelchair when I started to work. At that time, I still used crutches. One year, I had this situation, let me see if I can manage to explain it. You know on Fridays we have to go to the school headquarters, and for that I had to take a train since the headquarters were 50 km away from the school where I worked. I could not drive and it was also really difficult for me to get a train. And when I talked to the head of the school and the administration departments, and they did not really understand my situation very well, did not have much information about how to proceed. But after a lot of talking, they finally decided that I would do a different complementary task at home and would be supervised, and that really made things a lot easier.

Then, I think it was the following year, I was sent to a school with no lift and many stairs. But the headmaster made me go up the stairs, he gave me no other choice. But I was starting, I was new there, and I did not want to make any trouble… even if I could have placed a denounce I did not. And in those times, I could have been placing a denounce on a daily basis. I got a lot of help from my colleagues. But this person, he even recommended that I checked that the school I would chose in the future was ready for me. He told me: "You need to understand we are not used to people like you."

A few years ago, I was sent to a school outside my hometown. Since I do not drive, I need to rent a flat when I get sent to a place just 20 min away from home. I went working, and on the first day I found there was an access ramp, but that does not mean it is easy to go up the ramp, they may be too vertical and thus hard to go up the ramp. But then the rest of the building was not accessible, and, for instance, in order to reach my classroom, I had to cross a patio, there were many huge glass panels along a corridor…but I cannot see, so I would not know where those were. Finally, I got a solution from the administration and got sent to a different school. But in that moment, I did not even contemplate legal complaint. I think I simply do not have the energy to be complaining and fighting all the time.

This year, there was an administration mistake, and even if I got many points and had the right to choose a better place, in the list for the place allocation, I was assigned a village 1 h away from home. So, my colleagues helped me a lot with the situation, and I had to go to the administration again to complain and get a solution, I would have needed a personal assistant if I had to go to that place, so in the end it was a relief. But again, it took me a lot of time and effort to get it solved.

Question 5: In the competitive exam, do you know which types of adaptations will you get before entering for the exam? Who informs you about the type of adaptations for your exam?

When I have to take an exam, I have to say it to Social Welfare because they are the ones that have to process the adaptations that I need for the exam. For that, I make a list with the needs that I have, the adaptations that I need. Actually, it is not about what adaptations I will be granted but about what I really need. They process it and sign it. There are of course a number of laws for adaptations that correspond according to the file number we have, and Social Welfare follow these laws to grant or not to grant, but with that I have not had any problem at all.

Question 6: When you register for the competitive exam, do you have any interview with the test givers? Or is there any questionnaire or something similar where you can state your needs and worries?

When I register for the official competitive exam, you know, this is the third time, well,...I remember I had a meeting like a couple of days before the exam with the test givers. I met them personally, and I could give them all the information I wanted to provide.

Question 7: What part of the exam worries you most?

Which part of the test is the one that worries me the most? I worry about all the parts! Look, on the one hand, I'm very insecure about myself. And on the other hand, I hope that the examiners do not have prejudices with my disability, whether we like it or not, that happens sometimes. Then of course, I'm trying not to...that my intervention in the competitive exam diverts the attention of the examiners to what I am doing and not to how I am...and that brings me to my head, gives me a lot of anxiety....and I am really overwhelmed with that, I feel so anxious about it.

And then there is the listening...the famous listening. One of my biggest problems is that I have very little concentration, and it is not that I do not understand it, but that I have a hard time concentrating. So, this task is difficult for me.

Question 8: You said that you may ask for adaptations. For the competitive exam that you are soon taking, which adaptations did you ask for?

I have asked to have a computer so that I can write my exam and also to prepare and defend the curriculum and didactic unit. Perhaps they could read the framework descriptors for me, this is another part of the exam, or they could digitalize that part of the exam for me so that I can read it. Apart from that I have asked to take my headphones with me because the voice-over would be quite annoying for the rest of the people in the room, so this way I can listen quietly and not interfere.

Then also, there should be no images, tables, or graphics in the exam texts because I cannot do anything with them.

Now, regarding the timing, they have a look at your file and decide on the time adaptation. I have an extra hour extension for each exam hour.

Regarding the computer they told me I cannot use my own since I could cheat, I mean, copy things, form the documents in my computer. So, they have given me a computer to practice with and take to the exam. It should be as similar as possible as the one I use. But the one they have provided is an older computer, and I will

have to use an obsolete system unable to update the tools I use and adapt myself to a less efficient computer and tools than the ones I usually work with. But well, I will adapt anyway.

About the listening part of the exam. You know that when you complete a listening test, you have to answer a number of questions that you can read while you listen. I cannot do that, I have to either listen or get the voice-over read for me, but not both things at a time. Therefore, I cannot visualize the questions in the listening as other people do, so I have asked to have the audio played more times to compensate for this…I hope to meet the board of examiners before the day of the exam so that I can explain myself better or answer their questions regarding this matter.

Question 9: What is different about learning and teaching a language after losing your sight? Which abilities have you developed?

All my process since I started studying till now as a teacher, there have been many changes. First, I could see well, then less, then I did not see enough to read and write and did all simply what I could. I was then 19, sometimes they recorded books for me, sometimes my parents read for me things like the history of the world. That was secondary school. Then when I decided to study a degree, I was then about 30, and I used lenses, I had to magnify the screen. In the computer I had to enlarge the screen so the reading process was really slow. Two years later when I decided to take the competitive exams, it was not a good experience because the reading speed was not enough, and it was not coherent due to the reading method. When I started teaching, I still used magnifying lenses for the screen.

Now when I am in class, I simply explain the students how things work for me, and there has never been a problem. It is very clear for me that for learning or teaching a language, we do not need sight. I am aware that my students do see and they do not have to do things without seeing, because they do see. Well, I try to adapt to that situation of difference. On the other hand, that makes me feel safe because the fact of telling them this is what happens to me, I need this or that from you…well I take advantage of that on the pedagogical side. For instance, in the first day of class, I tell them that since I have to get to know them and recognize them by their voice, if they do not participate in class, they get no points, so they do participate a lot, which is really good. And in 3 or 4 days, I already know them all.

The truth is I am very happy about this reality, we get to have a close relationship, they are a bit more than students, we share many things and have a good time in class. So, I tell them to help me identify a page in a book. And I tell them that if I make a mistake while I write, they can tell me. We learn from mistakes. So, I take advantage of this to teach them that if one makes a mistake, you just rectify and that' s it; there is nothing wrong about that. I transcribe nearly everything with the computer, and it gets projected on the whiteboard, and they can read and take notes, and I tell them that if I make a mistake, I do not feel embarrassed, I rectify and I tell them that they can let me know if there is any spelling mistake. I think that plays in my favor.

There is also the issue of cheating in exams, I think some of my students do cheat, they use their mobiles and copy things. But I do my job and they have to do theirs. But since I know them a lot and make them write a lot, I know who has the level and who does not. It is a matter of ethics and they have to learn that too.

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Chapter 6

Rethinking the Role of Research in Pre-service Training of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language: Case of the University Teacher-Training College in Burundi

Marie-Immaculée Ndayimirije and Rachel Nsimire Bigawa

Abstract

Teachers of EFL in under-resourced countries often find themselves confronted with teaching and learning issues that cannot always find timely and sustainable solutions within the wealth of language knowledge acquired through academic lectures, or in the kind of responses offered by means of in-service training programs. In Burundi, the tradition has long been for teachers to look to the Ministry of Education for answers to curriculum implementation challenges, especially in the case of new reforms. This paper argues that such an attitude can be transformed among teachers of English at secondary school level if initial teacher-training courses promote reflective teaching and equip them with classroom research skills as part of the training process. The authors take a critical look at the pre-service teacher education practice in the university teacher-training college "Ecole Normale Supérieure" in Burundi. They suggest improvements that can help the College bridge the gaps in the current training practices in order to better prepare teachers for active participation in their professional development.

Keywords: Burundi, EFL teachers, pre-service training practices, research and reflective skills, professional development

1. Introduction

Over time, countries around the world have continuously taken steps to adjust their national English language teaching (ELT) policies to the growing status of English as a world language. Depending on the setting, the trend has generally shifted between English becoming one among the instructional mediums, upgrading ELT through an integration of communicative language teaching and increased diplomatic ties with countries and organizations within the English speaking zones. These characteristics have all marked the Burundi English language policy of the last decade, especially subsequently to Burundi's entry into the East African Community (EAC) in 2007. With English being voted one of the Community's official languages (in parallel to French and Swahili), not only has the English language gained momentum, but also ELT has become an even greater curricular priority in

the country, challenging material designers and teachers to regularly adjust content selection and classroom practices to the new communication-in-English perspectives. These developments require that teachers be enabled to rely on research skills and reflective thinking, if they are to cope with their changing situation.

In the immediacy of the situation, the Government's action was directed toward promoting the English language through various mechanisms. The salient ones to mention here were an expansion of ELT in the formal system of education (Law No/121/100, Nov. 30, 2005); a deliberate reference in the political discourse to the importance of learning English for Burundians (e.g., the President's speech in Ngozi, April 2009); and an introduction in the country of native-speaker broadcasting media such as the BBC or VOA.

On the side of the population, the response was equally positive, as this can be evidenced through the emergence of all-English schools in the country (*Kings*, *Montessori International School*, *Gitega International Academy*, etc.) as well as the growing number of informal English language institutions (*English Language Centre*, *English Language Solutions*, *Burundi English Teachers' Forum,* etc.). Increased enrolments in university English language departments are a further sign of the renewed interest in the English language. A quick look at the student enrolments at the University College from 2016/17 to 2018/19 can illustrate this phenomenon.

Table 1 shows regular higher numbers of students (around 400 per year) in the entire bachelor level of the English Studies Unit over (the last) 3 consecutive academic years, when compared to the French Studies Unit (around 320) and the History Unit (around 280). The same trend is observed at the master's level, since in the respective Units for English, French, and Swahili-Kirundi, there are 40, 22, and 14 students (2018/19) and 30, 27, and 26 students (2019/20) in total. This is suggestive of the priority given to English as the admissions here are made in strict adherence with institutional policy regarding intake size. Under the understanding that student orientation is flexible, the contents of this table can confirm the rising interest in

	2016/17	**2017/18**	**2018/19**
Study unit 1: English			
BA1 (BA = bachelor, year 1)	148	127	136
BA2 (BA = bachelor, year 2)	129	139	121
BA3 (BA = bachelor, year 3)	138	128	146
Total	415	394	403
Study unit 2: French			
BA1	140	109	121
BA2	100	122	122
BA3	69	98	109
Total	309	329	352
Study unit 3: History			
BA1	123	73	97
BA2	93	115	72
BA3	70	89	109
Total	286	277	278

Source: The College Admissions Office (June 2019).

Table 1.
Recent student enrolments in the Department of Languages and Human Sciences at the College.

English as a subject of study in the College. This evolution of the status of English has imposed new reforms in the education system in order to provide for the changes they required, both in terms of teaching/learning materials and ELT pedagogies.

Considering that previous reforms have generally come with new demands on teachers and learners, it is important that the pace (of reform) be matched with adequate actions to enable their successful implementation. A few things, however, point to limited success in the execution of these particular reforms. For example, the training of teachers has remained constrained both qualitatively and quantitatively [1, 2]. Equally, the subsequent changes, which were needed at the teacher-training institution level to accompany the reforms, have, if not been neglected, then taken time to be achieved.

Although the Ministry of Education has organized a set of teacher training sessions, the results are still mitigated, in the light of ongoing internal adjustments to the system (e.g., the latest decision to space out the learning of foreign languages at the basic level: Decree No. 100/078, May 22, 2019). Problems related to funding have, in turn, impeded full coverage of all teachers in need of in-service training and full supply of school materials, especially as the 2015 disputed elections developed into a prolonged political crisis, leading to the International Community withdrawing their financial aid (52% until 2015) to the Government.

Against this background, ELT teachers are generally not self-reliant in front of teaching problems, even when they have a university level education. Although no significant studies have sought to understand the underpinnings of such behavior in the country, the gaps observed in classroom research skills in the local teacher education programs may be used to offer a tentative explanation. Overall, the courses at the pre-service level continue to be geared toward helping the prospective secondary school teachers acquire as much competence as possible in various English language components and teaching methodologies. Despite some innovative move to insert new courses designed to provide student teachers with some life general skills (entrepreneurship, computing, study skills, and civic education), little is done to equip them with the awareness and skills necessary to investigate problems that arise during program implementation. As such, they are poorly equipped for professional development. While this may appear to be the phenomenon in many other countries around the world [3, 4], it is more a feature of centrally run systems of education where "content uniformity" is emphasized in connection with national examination purposes.

On the other hand, trainers need to convince themselves that secondary school teaching does not have to be divorced from the inherent need to understand better one's own teaching through structured investigations. Without this, flexibility can hardly find its way in lesson planning. It is true that the professional context in Burundi secondary education does not require from teachers a demonstration of research abilities for their professional advancement; but this situation cannot possibly be used to overlook the role that research literacy can play in their teaching efficiency. Just as we, as teacher trainers, believe that second language learning is a more successful process when it is organized and principled, we should equally engage ourselves in promoting training models that can offer those we train options in the ways to understand better, hence improve their own teaching. The idea commonly held in Burundi that secondary school teachers are expected to execute the program is one that may be "softly" challenged through the teachers' engagement in reflective teaching.

A rethinking of the role of research calls for attention in Burundi because teachers of English develop in a context where, as students, they are prone to gaps in research and reflective teaching; yet these weaknesses from initial teacher training have limited opportunity of being tackled through prospects of professional development programs like in-service teacher-training (INSET). Teacher trainers have also shown their limitations in their contribution to the professional needs of teachers [5, 6].

The authors' own experiences as both former curriculum developers and secondary school teachers can provide witness of that: first, quality wise, INSET is solely based on short-time training sessions in the form of seminars and workshops initiated and run by curriculum designers—pedagogic advisers as they are labeled in Burundi. These advisers themselves have no solid background training either in curriculum design and material evaluation or in advanced research skills. This is because there is no university department specializing in curriculum development in the country. Pedagogic advisers are thus recruited from among the teachers, including novice ones. Since there is no plan for their professional development, their expertise in understanding the complexity of foreign language classroom processes and finding genuine ways of addressing the numerous questions they pose is then arguably flawed [2, 5]. It should also be noted that INSET is generally limited in its teacher coverage capacity [7] due to financial constraints.

Second, and with regard to planning, INSET in Burundi is a mechanism totally monitored by central decision making, with the pedagogic advisers and other education officials (from Directorates and Inspectorates) taking the upper hand in setting the agendas of the trainings. The activities—also pre-determined by the pedagogic advisers—have been known to revolve around the presentation of new materials or instructional approaches, as this continues to be observed in the induction of basic education teachers focused on the spacing out of foreign languages in primary education (which began with September 2019).

Such a situation, therefore, imposes a reorientation of the teaching models within the teacher-training institutions, as a potentially promising avenue for medium- and long-term solutions to the lack of both interest and research initiatives among EFL teachers in Burundi in general. The goal would be to enable prospective teachers to become more inquisitive, perhaps even critical about their teaching, hence take a more active part in addressing the issues and challenges faced in their own teaching environments. That is the essence of reflection in the present context.

This paper proposes to examine the benefits to EFL teachers in the secondary schools of Burundi when pre-service training programs care to balance the provision of language and pedagogical preparation with reasonable exposure to classroom research and reflection that are consciously teacher-initiated. It contends that the research component is not sufficiently valued at the undergraduate level. It is, if not ignored in the course schemes and content delivery, then minimized in the trainers' general teaching discourse, including during the teaching practicum. The discussion draws on the training practices at the university teacher-training college "*Ecole Normale Supérieure*"—hereafter labeled "The College"—more specifically within the English Studies Unit where the authors work as teacher trainers.

Through a reflexive approach, they draw on their own experiences, observations, and interpretations of the provisions available for teacher research skills in the College training model to advocate for a deliberate and consensual integration of this component in the English Studies Unit's course schemes. The reflections are focused on the students and trainers in the Language Department at the College, knowing that they have a bearing on the secondary school teachers of English and the curriculum designers at the bureau for secondary (*basic* and *post-basic* in the new terminology) school material development.

After a summary presentation of the recent developments in the Burundi education system and their impact on ELT, the chapter discusses the rationale for teacher-trainers at the authors' college to equip EFL teachers with reflective and research skills. It closes with suggestions for improvements that engage the institution, the teacher trainers, as well as the student trainees in a change of attitudes likely to revive the research component at the College.

2. Recent developments in the education system and implications for ELT and teacher training

2.1 New developments

It is not easy to identify and describe the wealth of recent developments in the education sector in Burundi within the scope of this chapter, considering both their depth and width, and that the changes and initiatives have been ongoing since 2006. This situation can be attributed to the regular shifts in political decisions (e.g., Decree-Law100/251, Oct. 3, 2011; Decree-Law 100/38, February 16, 2016) about either having one ministry (which regroups primary, secondary and tertiary education) or two ministries (through a separation between the ministry of basic and post-basic education and the ministry of Tertiary Education and Scientific Research–currently the case in Burundi). We propose to summarize the major developments in the ELT area along the pedagogical, structural, and social levels.

2.1.1 Pedagogical level

2.1.1.1 ELT extension and volume revision

Under this component, it is worth pointing out the revision of the weekly allocated teaching periods of English as a school subject and the mandated measure to teach this language through the entire education system. As illustration, the ministry authority's measure (Decision No. 610/1187, 25 Aug. 2005) to increase its weight in the curriculum led to the time for English in the language section of upper secondary school rising from 6 to 10 weekly sessions. There followed a progressive replacement of all the existing textbooks with new ones that advocate contents presumed to be more relevant to the learners' (contemporary) needs and using innovative teaching techniques (Decree No. 100/130, May 23, 2014). Topics of current interest such as those related to the environment, human rights, HIV/AIDS, entrepreneurial activities, gender issues, and inclusive education were subsequently given a place of choice in the new materials and used as a base for designing classroom learning activities.

A similar trend observed in non-English departments at tertiary education level resulted in a systematic increase in the volumes of area-specific English courses, coupled with an extension of ELT in these departments from the first year to the entire bachelor level. In the English-catering units, the efforts were essentially orientated toward revising the course schemes with a view to consolidating student knowledge of English (at the time, ELT began at secondary level schooling) through more provision for competence in the areas of language structure, pronunciation, and macro skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).

Such a decision might have been partly influenced by the communication-in-English goal that underlies much of the new country policy on English. It may also derive from the failure of teacher-training programs to achieve two things: (1) realize the critical relationship between teaching and research (2) highlight through course planning and pedagogic reflections/events (such as workshops) the role of deliberately motivated inquiry into one's instructional practices in the betterment of communication competence at any teaching level.

2.1.1.2 Recent adjustments in initial teacher-training course schemes

The first adjustments, focusing on improving the quality of teacher education programs at the tertiary level, had to wait until late 2019 to be initiated. A 5-day workshop was organized (from September 23 to 27, 2019) to this end, which

regrouped three trainers (in the case of English) of whom two were from the university of Burundi's Institute for Applied Pedagogy and one from the author's own College—who was one of us. The purpose was to harmonize all course schemes, based on the idea that both these public institutions are endowed with the responsibility to train secondary school teachers.

The official instruction to immediately launch their implementation with the new academic year (October 14, 2019), even though the schemes were not yet adopted, is however likely to not only impact their effectiveness, but also cause frustration among teacher trainers who depend on genuine consultation and coherence of the reforms for their efficient support to them. Changes in secondary school education reverberate to teacher education programs. Therefore, it is necessary that trainers and reformers are in agreement about the process of change. This plays on our understanding of how to shape and adjust our multifaceted roles as instructors of the specific disciplines (EFL here), teacher trainers, practicum supervisors, and mentors of the same.

2.1.1.3 Changes in methodology

A new pedagogy was introduced in secondary school ELT programs, which was described as focused on the learner's integration of language and content resources through active participatory and group work techniques. The guiding principle was to organize the teaching along the competency-based model of education, at least in theory. In addition, a strong recommendation was made to apply communicative language teaching in ELT, even though it was a new approach for a great number of teachers, and despite its poor illustration in the teaching manuals [7].

The authors' view is twofold: first, this methodology—which seems very close to the task-based approach—has not been translated into comprehensive teaching guidelines for the teachers, leading to implementation difficulties likely to require optional solutions to be sought either by the individual teachers or then through INSET. Second, an important change was the step to move away from teaching practice that lays emphasis on the transmission of highly theoretically oriented input. In addition, group work was highlighted as an innovation which may arguably be seen as the critical technique for promoting the learners' active participation.

A barrier in the way of the expected changes may be expected: unless teachers' initial training incorporated reflection and classroom research elements, it is most likely that these changes will not be satisfactorily implemented. Thus, the risk of teachers reproducing the same teaching models that were used prior to the reforms is likely. The point being made here is that regardless of the study level where rote teaching/learning occurs, it develops anti-reflective and anti-analytical attitudes that may for a long time affect teachers' performance in the exercise of their profession. Some aspects of this practice appear to be still haunting teacher trainers and student teachers, and it is imperative that the issue be brought to the forefront of educational reform, if reflective teaching and research skills are to be achieved in the College training model.

2.1.1.4 Considerations from curriculum development

In efforts geared toward presenting the new secondary education reforms to the 3rd-year students and the teaching staff at the College, the curriculum development team, through a question-answer forum (April 2016 and January 2018), recognized lags between the launch of the new teaching materials and a set of provisions necessary for the qualitative implementation of the innovative ideas underpinning them. These included the shortage of textbooks, insufficiency of qualified teachers, and

the scarcity of resources for INSET. It was further indicated that the government was working hard to address the issues still at stake. Reference here was made to the process whereby teacher-training institutions aimed at secondary education would be obliged to adapt their training curricula to the teachers' needs created by the reforms under discussion.

2.1.1.5 Considerations from secondary school practicing teachers

In an evaluative school visit organized and steered by the College Quality Assurance Directorate in February 2019, we (the authors) together with trainer colleagues from all College departments collected very similar complaints from teachers in relation to problems concerning the implementation of the new secondary school curricula. The schools visited were selected based on a number of criteria such as "urban" versus "rural," "ordinary school" versus "excellence school," and "public" versus "private," and they were differently located (Ngozi Province in the North, Gitega Province in the Centre, and Muramvya Province in the West). A later visit in April 2019 to schools with the same characteristics in the capital city Bujumbura yielded similar negative feelings from the teachers about the implementation of the reforms.

Specifically concerning the teaching of English, recurrent concerns were expressed about the nonavailability of textbooks, lack of audio materials and equipment, some texts being linguistically sophisticated, the learning points being shallow, and the teaching procedures being superficially explained. They also reported lack of clarity over the implementation of the communicative approach in their classrooms. Much of the reported information corroborates the issues raised by primary school teachers about their new English teaching materials gradually released and revised between 2006 and 2013 [5, 7].

The gaps between the reforms and their implementation were blamed by the teachers interviewed for resulting in low English proficiency of secondary school leavers. It has to be pointed out that tertiary institutions generally have to confront the very low language proficiencies of newly recruited student teachers. This is especially frustrating for teacher trainers within the English Studies Unit at the College who complain about encountering communication difficulties with their learners upon entry into Standard 7. According to these teacher trainers, the difficulties are due to the prevailing use of audiolingual teaching methods in Standards 1–7 [7].

Perhaps even more critical were the teachers' apprehension about the added value of the new materials in improving the teaching and learning of English, if compared with their previous materials. In the end, all these findings were shared with different stakeholders in a 2-day workshop organized by the College (May 2019) in collaboration with the ministries in charge of education.

Overall, the above teachers' considerations are a sign that secondary school teachers of English experience teaching difficulties some of which could be tackled through a recourse to a problem-solving process that encourages research and reflection by the teachers themselves, both individually and collaboratively. It is necessary that such a process be part of their pre-service preparation.

2.1.1.6 Opportunity for the acquisition and practice of research and reflection

An important lesson from the workshop proceedings in the context of the present chapter is that the situation of secondary school English teachers in 2019 does not seem any better than it was up until mid-2017. They do not feel confident about the reforms. Having "voiced" their queries to those in authority—namely

their former trainers—and having limited reflective skills, there is little incentive for teachers to search for answers to implementation problems. Their preference may be to rely on outside sources, which does not promote reform ideas. The teacher trainers, on their part, may be tempted to perpetuate the same old training model, for two possible reasons. They may argue that (1) they are not concerned with the issues raised and (2) they were not properly informed about the expected changes and outcomes. Further influence may come from the fact that the new training scheme lays no solid emphasis on the research component. It is the authors' wish that the proposal made to include a 45-hour course, that is, "teacher research in the EFL classroom" in the bachelor 3 course scheme will be accepted at the adoption stage.

A quick presentation of its details in the scheme may give the reader some idea about its underlying intentions (**Table 2**).

A close look at the goals and contents still suggests a dominantly theory-oriented course, even if there can be optimism that the course instructor will draw on personal ingenuity to add a practical component.

2.1.2 Structural level

In connection to the restructuring of the educational system, there has been a reorganization of the primary and secondary education stages into what came to be known as the basic and post-basic levels with respective durations of 9 years and 3–4 years (the 4-year length applies to pupils preparing to teach from Standard 1 to Standard 6 of the basic level—ex primary education level). At the end of basic education (Standard 9), pupils are generally aged 13–14 years. Those who pass the national examination for this stage move up to the post-basic level, which itself

Processes	Parameters	Description
Design	Course title	Teacher research in the ELT classroom (45 hours)
	General goal	To understand the contribution of teacher-initiated classroom research in the context of TEFL
	Specific objectives	Students should be able to: • identify and define the types of classroom research available for the EFL teacher • discuss the rationale and processes of teacher-led classroom research in the EFL context • appraise the potential contributions and challenges of each form of research • suggest potential teacher-classroom research areas and work out related relevant research approach and tool(s)
	Prerequisites	Introduction to study skills, pedagogy, and educational psychology courses
	Course organization	Lecturing: 30 hours; practical work: 15 hours
	Course contents	The course introduces students to the field of teacher research in the EFL classroom. It explores the rationale and importance of research skills in the (pre-service) training of EFL teachers. It provides insights about the central role of teacher self-initiated research in understanding and improving his/her teaching performance. It creates an opportunity to discuss the status of research in the EFL teaching practice in Burundi and to have a first experience in thinking out an overall approach to investigate an identified teaching/learning issue, using a relevant instrument constructed to that end.

Table 2.
Summary details of the newly proposed course on research.

closes with another national examination. At the end of post-basic education, such an examination determines who proceeds into tertiary education or may go into active life in jobs presumably related to their study areas.

Tertiary education, for its part, has been enhanced through an extension from the bachelor level followed by the master level, then up to the doctorate level (hence the acronym BMD) since 2015 along the Bologna framework (Decree-Law No. 100/05-06 January, 2015). Practically, however, most university faculties are still grappling with sustaining the master level courses, due to the shortage of resources and qualified teachers in most study fields in the country, including at the College. The master level program with an EFL specialization was launched in April 2018. The first generation is into their first month of the second year, having encountered practical difficulties, as mentioned above.

2.1.3 Social level

Under this component, it is worth mentioning the efforts made by the government to provide free primary education, a measure that triggered unprecedented efforts to expand the existing school infrastructures. The impact has seen increasingly crowded classes at all stages of education [6], with teachers unprepared to work in the new conditions. The lack of textbooks that followed led to learners fighting hard to benefit from their lessons.

At the higher learning level, the government decision to issue contracted scholarships in the form of refundable credits did not satisfy the students and parents in particular. In a context of tough living conditions driven by almost 5 years of international economic sanctions, the measure entails that students find it hard to cope with school attendance and day-long concentration. As the College has no student accommodation service, this adds to hardship during their studies. It should be pointed out that the general work trend is for all departments to ensure that the timetable is fully filled from Monday to Friday, with the possibility for an extension to Saturday. All this suggests difficulty for both teachers and students to find free time that they could use to read extensively in order to supplement their lectures or work efficiently on any assignments or projects that may demand some research element.

2.2 Impact on the profession

Although many of the developments can be commended for their renewed impetus for ELT in Burundi, their negative impact on the provision of quality education cannot be ignored. At the basic and post-basic levels, some of the adverse effects are (1) a relentless shortage in the provision of textbooks and other teaching/learning materials; (2) class management issues; (3) the recruitment of untrained teachers; (4) increased workload for teachers (up to 30 sessions at pre-tertiary levels especially those of English and French); and (5) increased competitiveness (within the EAC subregion, e.g.), the local contexts in Burundi schools are presently not conducive to learner and teacher efficiency in their respective endeavors.

Together with the policy of free primary education, the expansion of schooling has resulted in unqualified teachers being recruited, some practicing teachers being relocated, and the classrooms being overcrowded. It can be hypothesized that the facilities and teachers within higher education institutions will increasingly be impacted, which will not be without consequences on the already waning quality of teacher training. This makes it necessary for teacher-training institutions to provide for prospective teachers' reflective and classroom research knowledge and skills alongside other pedagogic concerns. It will help them better cope with the challenges faced at secondary school level.

2.3 Institutional responsibility

The above picture depicts a working environment in which the English language teacher in Burundi can expect to confront many problems in the daily exercise of his/her profession, whether at secondary or at tertiary education level. With a focus on the situation at the College, for example, it has to be recognized that the inadequate support to the implementation of the BMD system itself constitutes an additional hindering factor. The institution continues to encounter a poor provision of important resources for advanced learning, such as certified teachers (especially in the English Studies Unit), modern reference materials, internet connectivity on campuses, and laboratory facilities. This makes it uneasy to break away from theory-oriented teaching. In turn, the heavy workloads for teachers and departmental heads since 2016 (Decision No. 100/38, February 2016) do not favor the feasibility of sustainable curricular and methodological reviews.

However, the students' will to improve their own learning strategies and the trainers' initiatives to push for more reflective teaching and learning of their assigned teaching subjects are also affected. With students so constrained physically and psychologically, teachers are prone to professional strain with an impact on the promotion of reflective skills. Notably, organizing successful collaborative and cooperative forms of learning for students becomes a challenge. This then limits their ability to assess the intellectual and academic contributions of assignments that require students to work on their own away from the lecture room, even if the task involves some research skills.

More and more, there is a feeling that the ministries in charge of education need to appraise the implementation of the reforms in consultation with teacher trainers who are not only knowledgeable about what constitutes quality education, but also aware of the efficacy of teacher research. This move could help the relevant stakeholders take informed decisions on the way forward in tackling the diversity of issues affecting the Burundi education system at present time. In this way, ELT as an educational area of importance would find a voice that speaks for it, hopefully with the prospect of a serious consideration to rethink the place that the research component should have in our teacher-training practices. This would prevent a risk of the government's efforts achieving what some may call an impact too often evaluated by the counting of classrooms and heads, rather than by appraising curricula, instructional materials, teacher efficiency, assessment practices, and improvements outcomes [8]. It cannot be ruled out that this reference is likely to have resonance in much of the public discourse around education in Burundi today.

3. Rationale for the research element in an EFL pre-service training program

3.1 Research relevance

It is believed that teachers who are active in doing research at their school are likely to show greater ability to study, evaluate, and assess their teaching pedagogies and practices (e.g., see [9]). As such, they are often in a better position to change and improve their ways of teaching, based on its critical understanding. Research then, in its both narrow and wide form, is thought to be a significant contribution toward the professional development of teachers, which in return can have a positive impact on students' learning and success. Decision makers and educational institutions should then work in tandem to provide adequate backing for the

research component by allocating specific budgets to this area, especially if the Ministry of Education or the teacher education institution has a research component officially attached to them.

But teachers often wish to see that there are practical steps being taken to encourage them into doing research. Teacher training institutions, like the College in this paper, need to show that necessary research facilities are put in place, and that sound resources, project funding, teaching practicum questions, management, and leadership are true institutional concerns. At country level, policies and funding must exist, which support and enable institutions to be competitive and individuals to advance in their careers.

Actions can start from something as simple as looking into the educational needs of teachers, and using the teachers' own inputs in planning how to provide for the identified needs (e.g., see [10]). The next step would be modernizing their knowledge, which can be done by offering teachers further training and other professional development programs. Currently, language teaching is enriched in a number of ways, for example, through the use of ICTs; and teachers of EFL need to be further equipped with ICT skills so that they can explore this avenue as an additional learning mechanism for improving both their teaching and research skills.

Another step worth taking should be awareness raising about optional ways of researching one's teaching. Nowadays, the research activity is conceived of as more effective the more it is done collaboratively [11]. EFL teachers should then be trained, and their school managers immersed in how to constructively work with their counterparts on projects that involve conducting research, regardless of how big or small their projects may be. They should also be encouraged to build up partnerships both within their schools and in their educational zones so that they can rely on one another to boost their development as professionals.

At the authors' College, for example, teachers are working toward constructing partnerships with English-speaking universities in the subregion as well as in Europe and America. The East African Community Inter-university Council and the Department Heads at the College have been called upon to engage more actively in university networking. There is hope that the initiative will bring new insights into the institution's vision of its educational mission. This demands that concrete actions be taken to encourage research projects through the provision of moral, academic, and financial support to those who initiate them. A general wish for many teachers is to reach a stage whereby they are able to share their experiential knowledge, concerns training practices, skills, and perceptions about teacher training; networking seems to offer itself as an important avenue on the way to achieving this goal. If there may be scrutiny in the present chapter about the training practices at the College, there is also an underlying intention on the part of the authors to share their experiences with the world outside Burundi in the hope for constructive feedback in the wider literature.

3.2 The status of research at the College

3.2.1 The mission

In principle, research is an important component of the threefold mission of the College (Law Nr 1/22; December 2011). Namely, it is academic, scientific, and pedagogic. Details about the scientific dimension hold that "[...] the institution has the duty of promoting research in line with providing quality education. It is the duty of the institutional Research Department to coordinate and facilitate all research initiatives undertaken in relation to education and teacher-training." In alignment with its inherent mission, the department also facilitates and organizes library use and access.

According to the Research Department Head, the lack of a proper budget from the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research constitutes a serious handicap to the achievement of the goal of modernizing the library as promised in line with BMD requirements. This affects negatively the possibility of [post-graduate] students and teachers accessing input from the wide literature on scientific and educational research approaches and connected results and findings. These could well be about studies of interest to their own profession. Lack of funding then impedes the realization by full-time teachers of important research projects from which they and their students could further their learning—including formal research in general. It is perhaps needless to point out that these conditions hamper the educational status of the College, the visibility of its senior teacher researchers, and the teachers' own interest in promoting the research component in their teaching.

In spite of these restraints, however, and in compliance with the College's research mission, a few research-oriented activities may be tried out profitably by both students and trainers in an effort to offer students' opportunities to enhance their reflective skills or familiarize with the practice of research. What we suggest is to devise simple tasks around problems or situations that have been described in the students' practicum reports, or in particular courses (ELT methodology; language testing, etc.), or still, in works available in the College library. Student trainees could then explore the range of options proposed in tackling the problems through different techniques, activities, class management, teacher/learner roles, and so on.

The next step would be to assess the relevance of the options proposed if they were applied to varying teaching situations found in Burundi including their own classes at the College (large classes, early morning or afternoon classes, low level classes such as Bachelor level year 1, basic level year 1, etc.). Care should be taken by the teacher trainer to emphasize more the expression of optional views than the reaching of a consensus, so as to encourage more analytical interactions among the student trainees. With time, these kinds of analyses and the discussions they generate could possibly increase students' awareness of and sensitivity to teaching as a worth researching and a researchable activity. Alternatively, they can do the same tasks, based on the content (problem statements, literature reviews, findings, and recommendations) of dissertations written by the College's own students in the system that preceded the BMD change, since these works are all stored in the library, and mostly unused.

3.2.2 Education enhancement of College full-time teachers

The rationale in the literature [3] for continuing teacher development is powerfully inspiring about its positive impact on the nurturing of reflective practices in the teachers. It may get even more powerful if the idea is added and stressed that teacher trainers of secondary school teachers, in their turn, need to encounter worthwhile experiences of research that they can transmit or draw on for the practical training component. This is said because until recently, teachers of English were "the poor relation" of the government's further-education scheme, despite the country's move to promote ELT. Although the situation can be said to be improving, the slowness in reversing the situation is jeopardizing both the inherent institution's plan to ensure the professionalism of its full-time teachers and the operationalization of the master and doctorate components of the BMD reform. Only when full-time teachers are skilled as teacher researchers will they be able to deliver reflective teaching and feel at ease in disseminating knowledge related to classroom and teacher research [12].

3.3 An overview of teacher education structure and content at the College

Students who join the College have a range of backgrounds from their basic schools. For example, those oriented in the English Studies Unit may have graduated in different study streams such as the scientific section, the literary, the economic, and the pedagogic ones. Once at the College, students in the different College departments (there are five of them, including our own: the Department of Languages and Human Sciences) start to be considered prospective teachers of their respective subjects in secondary education. In the 3-year Bachelor degree program, students are mostly trained in knowing how to teach various subjects (including English) at lower and upper secondary school levels—basic and post-basic levels nowadays.

It is worth recalling that the structure and content of their education program follow the concept of pedagogical content knowledge [12], which integrates the content knowledge of a specific subject and the pedagogical knowledge for teaching that particular subject. At present, this is done along the BMD Bologna model (3–2–3 years of study).

More specifically for EFL prospective teachers, pedagogical content knowledge essentially draws on a blend of English language content and English language teaching pedagogy. The aim is to offer student trainees an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction. This also includes a 1-month-period teaching practicum in the first semester of the third year as well as the design of a teacher training report in which trainees give a brief account of their training experiences, including their achievements, encountered challenges, and the attempted solutions. The following summary offers a brief overview of the situation at present:

Table 3 shows competence-building subjects as having the highest priority, and that there is hardly any course title with a connection to classroom research. If research skills are to be acquired and practiced then, either the teachers have to

Teaching/learning block	Location at bachelor (bac) level	Estimated volume in hours
1. Linguistic description of English (grammar, morphology, general and English linguistics, syntax, etc.)	Bac 1, Bac 2, Bac 3	350, 235, 90
Language skills (listening, speaking, etc.)	Bac 1, Bac 2, Bac 3	180, 180, 150
2. Literatures (Anglo-American literary genres, etc.)	Bac 1, Bac 2	180,195
3. Educational psychology (general pedagogy, learning psychology, etc.)	Bac 3	120
4. EFL classroom methodology	Bac 2, Bac 3	60, 45
ELT theories	Bac 2	90
5. ELT classroom application (lesson simulations/microteaching and practicum)	Bac 3	105
6. Professional skills (course design and materials evaluation, EFL testing)	Bac 3	90
7. Teacher ethics and school management	Bac 3	60
8. General life skills [entrepreneurship, computing, library skills (introduction to research), sociology, Swahili and French, etc.]	Bac 1, Bac 2	90, 90

Table 3.
Key components of the current bachelor level study schemes.

reinvent the course with the risk of not fitting into the students' expectations or they will have to wait until the new course scheme for Bachelor 3 is adopted with its "teacher research in the EFL classroom" component.

It may be necessary to clarify that prior to the practicum, students go through a preparatory period in which they do teaching simulations. These practical training activities are all planned to begin after the full coverage of courses that offer pre-requisite knowledge applicable to teaching practice in local secondary schools, for example, Learning Psychology, Child and Adolescent Psychology and Formulation of Pedagogical Objectives.

In an assessment meeting focused on the 2019 teaching practicum (mid-January to mid February 2019), trainers in the English Studies Unit agreed that an urgent update of such knowledge was required for Burundi teacher training institutions. This should include not only strong training in knowing what to teach, but also a critical research component about the contents taught in such institutions. This preoccupation must have partly inspired the review of the course schemes held in late September 2019 (Section 2.1.1).

3.3.1 Theoretical induction of student trainees

At pre-service level, student trainees are introduced to research through a 30-hour introductory course on research (*Introduction to Research*), usually offered as soon as they begin the first semester of their three-year bachelor's degree course. This timing is intended to help them get familiar with library use, for it may be their first real and guided encounter with this kind of facility as learners. In the main, what the course offers is theoretical exposure to basic resources within a university library, how to find them and search information from them, and how to use them for either purposes of supplementing their lectures or doing their practical assignments. With the recent review of curriculum schemes, it was proposed to include "study skills" and "the value of research in academic success" to the contents proposed for this course.

A few observations may be made, which are of interest to the reader. First, this course is limited in scope (30 hours), making it impossible to engage learners in real, and meaningful practice work. Second, the learners are freshmen who are newly recruited from secondary school graduates, thus struggling to adjust to the new system of teaching and evaluating at the tertiary level. Those in the English Studies Unit have the additional challenge of adjusting to the all-English instruction being encountered for the first time. Looked at closely, these are all elements that may run counter to the learners' effective understanding of the importance of the course. But there is also the tendency to view this course as a low priority subject, in the light of the habit to allocate its teaching to junior teachers, even as the department has more highly qualified teachers who can take better care of it.

On the whole, while the course is both necessary and important to them as freshmen, it can be scrutinized for being theory-dominated, most probably due to the insufficient time that it is allotted (30 hours). How much it contributes to their overall understanding of how to conduct structured research may be questionable, especially given somewhat demeaning perceptions around it from all sides. It should be boosted with a practical component that is aimed at implementing some of the ideas learned in kinds of tasks suggested above (Section 3.2.1) and administered in coherence with the goals of the BMD framework.

3.3.2 Practical preparation through teaching simulations and practicum

The descriptions hereafter of the processes involved in the practical preparation of student trainees are given in order to help the reader assess the limited space

given to the research and reflection-oriented interactions in the achievement of the activities surrounding the practicum.

Students in their last year of study (third year in current system and fifth year in the previous system) are provided with classroom teaching preparation, which begins with them delivering two lesson simulations to a group of peers. Each lesson takes place under the guidance of a different full-time lecturer. The process gradually brings the trainees to view themselves as teachers through both their own teaching and that of their peers, which they are invited to observe and critique afterward, with expectations of objective enriching feedback on aspects of interest.

As the lesson progresses, the trainer also checks the written plan for features that may additionally need addressing during the plenary session. Officially, this session is planned to last 30–45 min at the most, whereas it covers all lessons of the day (5–6 lessons), leading to some aspects of the trainees' performances being either superficially addressed or just ignored. This points to the little importance it holds in the training scheme. Some trainers choose to tactfully cut short the individual simulations in order to increase the time for plenary discussions. A further organizational weakness is the lack of a formal guide document for trainees to use in their roles as observers and inspire their focus in favor of shaping their lessons and formulating their queries. The time span for simulations is estimated at 45 hours, after which the trainees start their full-month practicum, with a weekly load of 8–10 sessions in secondary schools.

A recent improvement to this activity was to reduce the number of trainees assigned to a single supervisor from as many as possible previously to between 10 and 12 at present for the simulations and to between 5 and 6 for the practicum. It was thought that observing a trainee's performance intensively should give trainers a chance to appraise his/her work more objectively. The trainee on his/her part would have a chance to learn more extensively about the profession. The general wish among teachers to have even smaller groups is hampered by the large number of trainees (e.g., 148 in 2017–2018 and 136 in 2018–2019). Whereas objectivity in student assessment may indeed be facilitated, the extent to which trainees are taught to be introspective remains hampered by the difficulty to organize reasonable analytical interactions after a set of simulations is covered. The timetable, together with normal teaching that trainers have to continue delivering in the other class levels (Bachelors 1 and 2, Master), does not offer conducive timing for such provision.

A step to finding a solution has been to extend the practicum to schools far away from the College and to recruit outside trainers from among the teachers within the host schools. The follow up of individual trainees, when the training takes place away from Bujumbura (the capital city), usually happens through an interaction of the visiting team with the school administration, with a focus on whether the trainees are being facilitated in their job, and if they are behaving responsibly. There is some anxiety here over possible flaws in the quality of supervision being offered, especially with regard to the risk of outside trainers not actually reporting regularly.

On the whole, it can be argued that these simulations are necessary for the prospective teachers to practice teaching lessons from textbooks that they are very likely to use after their graduation. What they do not equip the students with presently, however, is preparedness and sufficient opportunities to explain certain teaching decisions or strategies observed, while they were delivering their lesson to their peers or to the real learners in real basic education classrooms. This would increase their abilities to monitor not just their learners' behaviors, but also their own while at the same time comparing their own understanding with the opinions and perceptions of their peers and trainer(s). Because trainees do not expect to go through this additional aspect of the exercise, it has been observed that they are

generally reluctant to clarify their actions off hand. In a way, it is a missed opportunity in their acquisition of reflective teaching. When they are informed about such an expectation prior to their lessons, however, many have attempted to offer explanations. This should be encouraged.

The question, therefore, remains as to the way in which these two critical activities can contribute to trainee awareness and practice of teacher research, and there is a need for suggestions. On the understanding that there is a void in the College training model about the provision for skills in teacher research and critical understanding of classroom situations, the teaching practicum and other related activities must be exploited not only in the sense of developing students' competences in teaching particular types of lessons—for this seems the major goal so far—but also in a manner that creates a sense of research, that is, willingness to inquire what happens and deal with it professionally.

With the help of their trainers, students must be led to carry out deliberate and purposeful reflection about their experiences in both the preparatory and closing stages of the practicum. Such reflections need a formal framework in the study scheme, so that there is time and a venue planned for their organization; they have two advantages: (1) they have the potential of adding meaning to their practicum in that trainees can, at the end of the practicum, compare what they did as individuals with what their counterparts did in their situations (e.g., in terms of classroom procedures) and (2) they can form a point of departure for the contents of their prospective (practicum) written report. Without them, there is a risk of the practical component of teacher training being confined to the mechanical completion of an assigned teaching period (on the student's part) and an evaluation of the lessons observed for grading purposes (on the part of the trainers). Implicitly, this means that students and trainers become inadvertent accomplices in a process that somewhat strays off the goal of the pre-service training College mission.

3.3.3 Practicum evaluative views from the trainers at the College

It is the custom for College trainers in each study Unit (Languages, Natural Sciences, Humanities, etc.) to meet and discuss the progress of the practicum half way through its running. Another meeting may follow at the completion of the practicum. Usually, the meetings offer a time to share on the trainers' own feedbacks, as well as feedbacks from school Heads and class Masters in the visited schools, and to discuss the management of special trainee cases when the need arises (e.g., tardiness, absenteeism, no or casual lesson planning, etc.).

So far, trainers in the College English Studies Unit have expressed optimistic views about the trainees' acquisition of requisite competences to teach English in secondary schools in Burundi. They, however, recognize that trainees require greater opportunities for developing reflective skills.

In an evaluative workshop headed by the Office of Quality Assurance at the College (April 2019) and involving all College Departments, the participants recognized the advantages of discourse during simulations and practicum, which is focused on real teaching actions and facts, claiming that it supports the development of subject-related language and reflection [9]. In other words, there has been acknowledgment of trainees' communication skills integrating a research element. One cannot fail to note here that, like in the study Units' meetings, the current narrative is one that emphasizes achievements based on pedagogical and content-knowledge, but with little or no reference to the research and reflection dimensions.

The implication for any review of the teaching-training schemes should be for trainers to rethink their roles in dealing with the practicum-based teaching activities in an effort to bring the research element to the fore. In this light, there is need

to gather consensus around task design/selection, adjusting both time allocation and use, as well as developing handy mechanisms of sharing some important insights between the trainers and the trainees before, during, and even after completion of the activities. Tutorial is an avenue that may offer a mechanism; but we [the trainers] must guard against "monopolizing" the talk under the assumption that the trainees are there "to learn how to teach." There is, of course, some truth in it but we need to perceive that such an attitude infringes upon their reflective abilities. There is need to allow trainees to *voice* their analyses because without it, neither the supervisors nor the trainees' peers can appreciate their understanding of (ELT) teaching options and develop as potential teacher researchers.

3.4 Trainers' suggestions for institutional improvement

3.4.1 Time allocation

When research-oriented tasks are assigned, it is important to give students adequate time to both work on the tasks and do presentations on them. In this light, the 8-hour nonstop teaching (from 8:00 am to 6:00 pm) and continuous evaluation systems need rethinking as well. With regard to the pre-teaching simulations, the time problem is finding a solution in the decision taken by individual lecturers to dedicate themselves and prolong the plenary discussion until matters of interest get covered. However, it is important that the desired time increase be triggered by clear understanding and guidelines about how it can be profitably be used to cater for cultivating interest for the research component during the plenary session. This would not only facilitate, but also benefit learning to trainers with less experience of teacher research. As a step in the recognition that time matters to achieve the research-related objective, all new time allocations should be integrated into the general activity programming and influence the design of the academic calendar.

3.4.2 Interpreting what happens in a lesson

What, in this context, should naturally trigger reflective skills on the part of student trainees as they try to label the skills and the nature of issues raised in plenary sessions. Examples may involve aspects such as clarity and achievability of the lesson objective; mastery of presented item(s); comprehensibility of input (techniques for presentation and practice); opportunities for and quality of learner output/language use; speed of delivery; distribution of learner participation; teacher communication ability; language model; teacher facilitation of learning; variety in activities; and time and discipline/classroom management.

The point needs to be made here that these features should essentially be used by the trainers at the College to assess the lessons observed and draw attention to trainees who may not be able to grasp their existence, quality, and effect in particular lessons. The suggestion here may be to introduce them comprehensively to the trainees and follow them up with authentic observation in real classes in expectancy of a presentation or discussion forum such as the tutorials referred to above. This awareness should form the base for their introspection and reflection once they are engaged in a process of self-evaluation. The importance of getting the message across that student trainees should concentrate their attention on the lesson features, rather than on the particular teacher cannot be overstated. Because past experience has revealed that secondary school teachers are apprehensive about being observed while in action, they could be observed at the College itself and at the University of Burundi, since the two institutions work in close partnership.

3.4.3 A guide document with focus features

Focus features would comprise some of the elements mentioned in the previous section, and they would be entered into a comprehensive document to guide the trainees' observation and focus. Having clarified those features, and possibly illustrated them (e.g., with reference to trainer's own teaching as much as possible), the point is to be emphasized that trainees must, while observing, keep alert to *what* happens during the lessons and complete their grid discretely so as not to interfere with the lesson.

Trainees must further be encouraged to gear their thinking toward understanding and commenting on why they think something happens. In this way, the tendency to only ask questions and expect "the answer" may slowly change. Together with the trainer(s), they can be directed to avenues in terms of strategies, techniques, and so on that were used (or not used; or could have been used) in addressing some of the instructional issues that arose in the lessons observed. Shaping the trainees' behavior as observers and completing a simple observation grid are an important step on the way to bringing the research and reflective elements closer to pre-service training practice. Implicitly, trainees are acquiring the skills that will serve their lesson investigation purposes, whether in relation to themselves' or to someone else's teaching.

3.4.4 Consultation initiatives

In the process of the trainer-trainee collaboration, guidance seems to always occur following the teacher's observation of the lessons. The trainees almost never take the initiative to elicit it, even when they feel unconfident. It is an attitude that must be discouraged as well. Trainers should explain to their trainees the shortcomings of taking unnecessary risks in "isolating" themselves, in their blind hope that the trainer will not turn up that day.

Most of all, the trainers should "invite" their trainees and avail themselves for consultations—which should be two-sided. An occasional reminder that they are "apprentices" in a complex job could reverse their isolationist behavior. How this relates to developing research and reflective skills in the trainees is through the trainees being deliberately made aware of the benefits of collaboration. It is difficult to think of effective teacher research that does not rest on the participation and contribution of a third party; even in action research, teachers often rely on colleagues who may observe or participate in the research process. What this means is that as we may train our students for research, we will do them better service if we work on other aspects (social, ethical, etc.) that influence its success.

3.4.5 Diary keeping

An idea being implemented successfully is a weekly requirement for trainees to keep a diary of one most "comfortable" lesson and one most "difficult" lesson, with an outline of their tentative reasons and prospective solutions. The intention is to push for more trainee efforts toward self-observation and comprehension of classroom happenings in terms of interactions, reactions, mood, processes, and so on. This can serve as a starting point for the kind of teaching discourse oriented toward action research in the language classroom. The approach equally teaches them about the crucial importance of recording information, an important procedure in the process of research, even when it applies to the self. It therefore constitutes a relevant exercise for reflexive evaluation that should find its right place in the pre-service training of EFL teachers at the College.

3.4.6 A shift of emphasis to teacher reflection and teacher research

Reading, thinking, and commenting about EFL teaching practices should acquaint trainees with lesson appraisal while also developing their reflective skills. For the trainer on the other hand, the implication will be a need to provide relevant input on the communication skills appropriate in such a context. How to approach the meanings of appraisal comments in the perspective of gaining deeper understanding of EFL teaching should also be entered into the discourse. It should facilitate their understanding of the same discourse when it is encountered in any readings or discussions accessed for professional development purposes. If trainees realize that reflective teaching is possible and that it is contributing positive results, there can be optimism that they will start their teaching career better equipped to put this awareness to the service of their own teaching.

3.4.7 TEFL-related readings integrated with oral presentations

With regard to long-term professional development, the idea is much supported that trainees should be encouraged to read and discuss more about TEFL to supplement their lecture inputs [11]. It is the trainers' duty to also ensure that they give them assignments that require classroom presentations—related to TEFL practice in the Burundi context in as much as possible.

Trainees (and trainers) at the College also need to take advantage of the opportunities offered by the BMD instructional organization scheme (in its practical work component) and the university libraries in Bujumbura to widen their practical understanding of the EFL field. The commitment to involve oneself in research begins with an introspection in own approaches, thus creating the desire to learn how else to proceed in an effort to improve one's classroom teaching performance [9]. While still at the College, we both must espouse the ideal of promoting research through reflective instructional models in our institution before we can export it beyond.

4. Ingredients for a revival of research in pre-service training of EFL teachers at the College

4.1 Trainer morale

The situation is well known that, in many educational settings involving EFL, successful teaching of English is hampered by the very unfavorable conditions in which the teaching and learning take place [4]. While finger pointing generally targets "untrained" teachers, it is worth noting that such conditions have the capacity to demoralize the "trained" teachers and the teacher trainers into giving up any efforts to take initiatives in the sense of enhancing their instructional systems.

With reference to the context in Burundi, constraining measures taken against the civil servants in the fallout of the 2015 sociopolitical turmoil have generally created an unprecedented mood of disbelief, especially in the work category of teachers. Added to the teacher trainers in higher education institutions struggling to access the desired level of education (Master, then Doctorate), the consequence may be a vicious circle in which problems of quality in formal training may filter down into the system, producing "qualified" teachers, but who are not resourceful once in their schools [5].

Drawing on the situation at the College, it is a fact that the lack of library resources and recurrent failures in the Internet connection and long working days

are seriously impeding the efficiency of teachers in relation to their own research plans. If this should be prolonged, it may be expected that their commitment to research will subside, thereby weakening their research abilities.

4.2 Highlighting professional development

This paper shares the definition of *professional development* as "The sum total of formal and informal learning experiences throughout one's career from pre-service teacher education to retirement" [13]. Under this understanding, it is important for pre-service teacher trainers to make it clear to their student trainees that completing a course of study does not imply knowing all that there is to know about the craft. The teaching discourse must clarify for them the advantages associated with sharing one's own knowledge on one hand, and morally subscribing to ongoing learning. Rational guidance would care to indicate to the trainees some channels through which the said advantages can be encountered, for example, in both formal instructional opportunities (short courses, seminars, and workshops) and informal encounters (interactions with teacher colleagues, conferences, readings, English teaching clubs, the Internet [11], to name but a few).

No matter how necessary pre-service training for teachers is, it cannot be expected to prepare teachers for all the challenges that they will possibly face throughout their careers. Within the field of ELT, *teacher professional development* has become a central topic because it is in the interest of the profession to ensure that those who are involved in its practice should act according to the highest standards.

Traditionally, professional development has been focused on offering training, practice, and feedback, without adequate time and follow-up support. Keeping in mind that the classroom is a versatile, hence dynamic environment, it makes sense for teacher-training institutions to integrate in their programs a component that prepares future teachers to deal with classroom eventualities and unfolding events with professionalism. In the College context, for example, notions of classroom and teacher research should be of great help, especially if they are presented and developed in a framework, which seeks to promote the rationale for professional development.

One of the roles of teacher professional development is to provide a context through which teachers can continue to make improvements and to assist in "maintaining the interest, creativity, and enthusiasm in their profession" [14]. Although there can be reasons to justify lack or limited provision of professional developments to teachers [6], there should equally be rational understanding of teachers' dissatisfaction when they are deprived of opportunities to grow in their jobs as professionals. In cultural settings such as in Burundi, changing attitudes and addressing the needs of the teaching profession are government priorities.

There are three commonly proposed approaches to ELT professional development: (1) a top-down approach where a school or an institution determines the professional development needs and then provides training to take care of those needs—which is the one prevailing in Burundi; (2) a bottom-up approach that is driven completely by a teacher him/herself; and (3) an interactive approach where the institution and the teachers collaborate with each other in identifying needs of both and then provide professional development opportunities to meet the identified needs. All three approaches have of course their strengths and weaknesses; but in contexts where administration departments encourage consultations, cooperation, and initiative, an approach of the third type is both convenient and possible. It has strong assets as a mechanism that can be fruitful in driving new ideas and innovation forward in addition to encouraging cooperation and initiative within teachers and learners. It can serve as a source of inspiration for the College.

It is acknowledged that teaching is a life-long learning activity in which professional practitioners expect to share with others on their teaching strategies as well as on their possible difficulties as a source of learning [15]. It is only logical that teachers should be given the time to engage with life-long learning, as this provides them with regular improvement, which will extend its benefits to their learners.

The practice at the College in Burundi is to propose INSET for teachers in the form of semester courses, workshops, or seminars focusing on pedagogical or methodological issues, though these are not always specifically tailored to the needs of ELT teachers in basic and post-basic schools. These most generally fall into the first category, i.e., the top-down approach in the sense that it is the College or its donors (foreign cooperation usually) who sponsor such trainings and determine the professional needs, rather than teachers themselves.

Beside these gaps in the INSET programs for EFL teachers, there is the paucity of funding of professional development programs. In fact, such professional development plans are generally sponsored by external donors rather than the institution itself. With the withdrawal of the international donors' financial support following the 2015 political crisis, most professional programs have stopped or are under-funded.

4.3 Need for improved perceptions of research

Teachers' and students' perceptions of research and reflective skills can improve if the importance of research in pre-service training is deliberately stated and made clear to them. First, it is a process that equips teachers and other education practitioners with the skills necessary for identifying what the problem is in a given school, a class, a textbook, a course, and then knowing how to address that problem systematically [16]. Second, it serves as an opportunity for teachers as educators to self-evaluate their own teaching practices [15]. Third, involvement in personal research allows teachers to make a change in their pedagogical practices that will have a positive impact upon teaching and learning [12]. Lastly, research is a great form of improving teachers' life-long learning and of continuing professional development [17].

Despite these positive effects upon classroom teaching and learning, however, a number of studies have reported some factors that prevent teachers from doing research [17]. The most frequently cited include crowded teaching timetables, heavy teaching workloads, insufficient research training and lack of research skills [15], lack of financial support, and limited time to do research [18]. The authors agree that the majority of the factors cited often constitute the primary challenges and concerns faced by teacher trainers at the College who aspire to undertake research, be it for quality teaching-related purposes, or their own professional advancement.

Beside factors like the lack of research knowledge, insufficient research training programs for teachers to enhance and develop their research skills, together with lack of quality reference materials may prevent teachers (and teacher trainers themselves) from doing research. It is then only logical that these challenges faced by teachers in general and EFL teachers, in particular, should be heard and addressed by education authorities so as to increase teacher participation in research.

4.4 Stating the importance of research in pre-service training

Although there is a ministry of higher education and scientific research, research-oriented programs related to pre-service teacher education are almost nonexistent in Burundi despite stakeholders' awareness of the importance of

research in the professional development of teachers. The general sentiment among student teachers and teacher trainers is that research seems to be the "lost mission" of the College, since teaching has almost become its only *de facto* mission. Developing reflective skills also seems to be an undervalued aspect of learning in the education system. If perceptions around training in research methodology may be low, it is chiefly due to the negative influence of (1) teaching programs being mostly focused on examinations, (2) acute shortages of teaching and learning materials, and (3) lack of trained and experienced teachers. Because of these limitations, students graduate ignorant of any sound research techniques to apply to their own teaching situations in case of need. This hampers the College mission to produce competent and resourceful teachers.

4.5 Changing attitudes

Traditionally, teacher training has prepared future teachers for the role of imparting knowledge during their teaching career. Although communicative language teaching has revolutionized beliefs around the roles of the teacher [19, 20], there are contexts with still strongly held beliefs in the role of the teacher as an "instructor and knowledge controller," and Burundi may be cited as an example. This mentality is also frequently known to be favorable to the use of centrally produced curricula, usually also cultivating a "fidelity" attitude toward their implementation [20]. Such mentalities are binding and anti-reflective for the teachers who feel that they must implement the curriculum to the letter for their professional security. In essence, this is an attitude most likely to constitute a psychological barrier to the teachers' will and need for change, as curriculum coverage and success in examinations may be their accountability standards. As such, the situation leaves them little or no place for research and self-reflection about their teaching.

This then poses a problem of acceptance of the role of *teacher-as-researcher* by the teachers themselves, and it seems to spring from conservative educational systems, which may unconsciously nurture teachers' own resistance to educational change and innovation [21]. Such a tendency is not remote to many among Burundi teachers, including in tertiary education, as was observed through the set of sit-ins and strikes, which followed the BMD proclamation (2013/2014).

Teacher as researcher should be another role that the teacher plays, as it is obvious that research skills may broaden a teacher's perspectives in his/her teaching and learning context. The authors hold that it takes teachers to be trained in both reflective teaching and research skills to understand the benefits to their professional growth. They also claim that research skills integrated with content knowledge-based instruction can offer a system of preparing teachers for research without necessarily viewing themselves as researchers at that stage of their training process. It should be when they are engaged in real teaching and encounter teaching problems that they may make recourse to their professional knowledge and reflective abilities, and if they succeed in solving the problems, they will feel motivated to continue to look into themselves for solutions to new arising teaching matters. In the process, they may take steps to share their strategies with other teachers in their schools. This is likely to have an influence on them.

5. Conclusion

In their efforts to put up with requirements from readjustments in EFL policies around the world, teachers aspire to access professional development in addition to

acquiring basic competencies and language proficiencies that go with their profession. This paper has argued in favor of equipping teachers of English in secondary schools in Burundi with reflective and research skills. These skills should be used to help them understand and evaluate their teaching practices, as a contribution to both their classroom efficiency and professional growth, especially when they are confronted with changes created by new educational reforms. The authors have taken a position that supports the search for a more sustainable mechanism to achieve this goal in the Burundi setting. The suggestion made covers two dimensions: one is to provide exposure to those skills at the pre-service training stage. The other dimension is a call for the trainers in higher teacher education institutions to emphasize the research component both in the practical activities attached to their practical training schemes as well as in their everyday teaching discourse. The College is invited to rethink the place of the research component in the course schemes with a view to accomplishing its mandate of preparing future teachers of English who have relevant abilities to enhance ELT in the country. Practical suggestions based on how to induce reflection and research have been made to guide the College trainers to this end.

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Chapter 7

Trends in Usage-Based and Pragmatic Language Processing and Learning: A Bibliometric Analysis on Psycholinguistics and Second-Language Acquisition Studies

Xiaoming Jiang

Abstract

This chapter provides bibliometric analyses of novel trends in the research toward pragmatic aspects of language processing and learning in the studies of psycholinguistics and second-language acquisition. Growing interests in the relevant themes are shown with the analysis of the *co-occurrence of keywords* in a common literature and the *bibliographic coupling* between literatures. The emergence of novel experimental methodologies, including the application of neuroimaging and machine learning approaches to the psycholinguistic research, provides new opportunities of looking into the pragmatic aspects of language acquisition and invites new empirical research to validate the theories and extend the boundaries of second-language acquisition research in the real-world setting.

Keywords: usage-based, pragmatics, psycholinguistics, second-language learning, second-language acquisition, bibliometric analysis, systematic review

1. Introduction

Language is communicated with a purpose. As active users of language, we are intrigued in how lexical choices can be used to represent our minds and bodies; how our mother tongue can shape our learning processes; and how linguistic expressions benefit our social interactions with others. These questions naturally fall inside the issue of the processing and the acquisition of language in the real-world setting (or the usage-based and pragmatic processing and learning). On one hand, in the history of psycholinguistics, only a very small group of studies has these relevant focuses. The empirical evidence and theoretical frameworks for language use in *real-world* scenarios are scarce. Most asked questions regarding how linguistic expressions are processed [1, 2]. Few addressed issues regarding *who* uses these expressions, and *under what context* and *for what purpose* are these expressions chosen. On the other hand, a growing need is foreseen in the field of

second-language acquisition studies to combine the theories of L2 acquisition and psycholinguistic paradigm that is developed or adapted to examine the teaching and learning of a second language in the *real-world* scenarios and to give a higher emphasis to the study of acquisition of pragmatic knowledge in another language. This chapter takes an initiative to provide a quantitative bibliometric analysis on the latest trend in the theme of functional, usage-based, and pragmatic language processing and learning in psycholinguistics and second-language acquisition studies. These trends are partly formed by the successful validation of experimental paradigms and the rapid development of interdisciplinary methods to track the neurocognitive underpinnings related to one's language behavior and will contribute to a greater understanding of how the language is understood, produced, and picked up in the socio-communicative settings.

2. Bibliometric analysis

According to the principle of the bibliometric analysis, a co-occurrence analysis based on keywords shows the frequency of the keywords that emerge in one article at the same time and how strong the emergences are [3]. The core themes of a research field can be identified by analyzing the links between keywords and by pointing out the most frequently occurred keywords in the field. We aim to use the *co-occurrence* analysis based on keywords to understand the evolution of main research themes related to the functional and the usage-based language processing and learning in the field of psycholinguistics and second-language acquisition [4]. To explore the relationship between research contexts and knowledge structure underlying the publication, the bibliographic coupling analysis has been employed between related studies that share at least one bibliographic coupling of cited reference. The more citations two publications share, a stronger bibliographic coupling strength between two publications is indicated, suggesting a similarity between the topics and knowledge. The novelty of the bibliometric coupling is that it finds the related research works, groups them into clusters, and builds a bibliometric network based on strength they connect with each other. Here this method demonstrates the *core document* (strongly and frequently coupled documents) and the *core clusters* representing the connections to this core document, among the publications relevant to the pragmatic and usage-based language processing and learning.

The first purpose of this chapter is to address the bibliometric trend of psycholinguistic studies on pragmatic and usage-based language processing. Research articles were selected from the Web of Science Core Collection database with the search function TS = ((‘psycholinguistics’ AND ‘usage’) OR (‘psycholinguistics’ AND ‘function’) OR (‘psycholinguistics’ AND ‘pragmatics’)). The search function resulted in 95 key articles that cover publication years from 2010 to 2019 (by September 14, 2020). The second purpose is to make a bibliometric analysis on the second-language (L2) language acquisition studies that focused on usage-based and pragmatic language acquisition. Searching within the same database with the search function TS = ((‘second-language acquisition’ AND ‘usage’) OR (‘second-language acquisition’ AND ‘function’) OR (‘second-language acquisition’ AND ‘pragmatics’) OR (‘L2 acquisition’ AND ‘usage’) OR (‘L2 acquisition’ AND ‘function’) OR (‘L2 acquisition’ AND ‘pragmatics’)) revealed 601 key articles that cover publications within the 10 years (by January 11, 2020).

All articles were collected in the Science Citation Index Expanded (SCI-EXPANDED), the Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), and Arts & Humanities Citation Index (A & HCI) databases. All analyses were performed in BibExcel (Version 2016-02-20 [5]), and network results were visualized in VOSviewer (Version 1.6.13).

2.1 Frequency distribution

The number of publications regarding the topics that bridge psycholinguistics and pragmatics/function/usage has generally grown between 2014 and 2018. The articles were published in altogether 73 journals indexed in the Web of Science Core. The top five journals that have mostly accepted articles with the topic of pragmatics, and the functional and the usage-based language processing in the field of psycholinguistics during the 10 years are: Frontiers in Psychology (Psychology), Journal of Pragmatics (Linguistics), Language (Linguistics), Cognition (Psychology/Linguistics), Slovo a Slovesnost (Linguistics) following a decreasing order. Another eight journals received at least two publications are Psychological Science (Psychology), PLoS One (Comprehensive), Language Sciences (Linguistics), Language Leaning (Linguistics), Journal of English for Academic Purposes (Linguistics), Clinical Linguistics & Phonetics (Linguistics), Revista Signos (Linguistics), and Annual Review of Applied Linguistics (Linguistics). These journals are mainly psychology or linguistics-specialized, or more comprehensive journals, highlighting the cross-disciplinary efforts in publishing articles related to the pragmatic and usage-based language processing. The topics that connect second-language acquisition and pragmatics/function/usage have grown since 2011. These articles were published in 198 different journals with a wide coverage of various focuses. The top five journals that accepted most articles (at least 20) are Second Language Research, Journal of Pragmatics, Frontiers in Psychology, Modern Language Journal, and Language Learning following a descending order. Journals that published at least 10 articles with this topic are System, Applied Psycholinguistics, Lingua, Studies in Second Language Acquisition, Bilingualism: Language and Cognition, International Journal of Bilingualism, Foreign Language Annals, Linguistic Approaches to Bilingualism, IRAL: International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, and International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism. Journals that published between five and nine articles include Applied Linguistics, Language Teaching Research, PLoS One, Hispania: A Journal Devoted to the Teaching of Spanish and Portuguese, Intercultural Pragmatics, Applied Linguistics Review, Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, Recall, Cognition, Journal of Neurolinguistics, Language Teaching, Computer Assisted Language Learning, Language Sciences, Canadian Modern Language Review: Revue Canadienne des Langues Vivantes, Journal of Psycholinguistic Research, Journal of Phonetics, Brain and Language, Topics in Cognitive Science, and Language Acquisition. These journals are reputable sources that receive empirical studies or systematic reviews and specialize in psychology, second-language acquisition, bilingualism, language teaching and education, pragmatics, and even cognitive science/cognitive neuroscience, suggesting that the second-language acquisition studies on usage-based and pragmatic language processing/learning receive a strong interdisciplinary attention and impact.

Altogether 232 authors published articles relevant to the topic of psycholinguistics and the pragmatic/usage-based language processing. The top eight researchers authored at least two of the publications during the last 10 years. They are Professors Valerie L. Shalin (Psychology), Stefan Th. Gries (Linguistics), Matthew Haigh (Psychology), Edward Gibson (Brain and Cognitive Sciences), Lewis Bott (Psychology), Bruce Derwing (Linguistics), John M. Tomlinson, Jr. (Psychology), and Nick Ellis (Psychology). The authors were affiliated in institutions of 22 countries. The countries that mostly published these articles (at least five) as the first author were the United States (33), followed by Spain (9), England (8), Canada (7), France (6), Germany (6), and Italy (5), suggesting that North-American English, Spanish, French, German, and Italian were the mostly interested languages in these publications. Topics relevant to the second-language acquisition

and pragmatic/usage-based language learning were contributed by 1418 unique authors. The top contributors who authored at least four publications during the past 10 years are Professors Bardovi-Harlig Kathleen (Linguistics), Saito Kazuya (Linguistics), Roumyana Slabakova (Linguistics), Ellis Nick (Psychology), Emanuel Bylund (Psychology & Linguistics), Antonella Sorace (Linguistics), Jason Rothman (Psychology), Silvina Montrul (Linguistics), and Ping Li (Psychology & Linguistics). Authors from 48 countries contributed to the publication. The most productive countries (at least 10 articles) as the first author were the United States (211), England (45), China (34), Germany (33), Canada (33), Netherlands (20), Australia (19), France (19), Italy (15), Sweden (13), Belgium (12), Japan (12), and Korea (10), suggesting that the topics relevant to the pragmatic and usage-based language learning were interested by research groups with expertise in linguistics and/or psychology, and the languages of interest were more various. Besides the Indo-European languages such as English, German, French, and Italian, the East-Asian languages, in particular, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean, are the popular languages of research.

The keywords that appeared at least five times among target publications in the topic of psycholinguistics and pragmatic and usage-based language processing highlighted the following related themes [Language (17), Comprehension (11), Psycholinguistics (10), Speech (8), Speakers (7), Acquisition (6), Information (5), Context (5), and Perception (5)] and methodology [Eye-movements (5) and Children (5)]. In the topic of usage-based and pragmatic language learning, the keywords that occurred at least 10 times among target publications represented the themes highlighting Second Language Acquisition (76) and L2 Acquisition (15), Bilingualism (56), Language Acquisition (23), Spanish (20), Pragmatics (17), Study Abroad (15), Language, (14), Working Memory (14), Second Language (13), English (13), Vocabulary (13), Second Language Learning (12), German (10), Interlanguage Pragmatics (10), and fMRI (10). The comparison of the keywords between these two topics clearly indicates a distinct trend of research interest and methodology of use in the field psycholinguistics and the field of second-language acquisition studies. These trends can be summarized as follows: The former group of studies is interested in comprehension, speaking, and developmental aspects of language and predominantly relying on the online behavioral measurements. The latter group relies more on the neuroscientific methods and focuses on the learning aspects of language and bilingualism.

2.2 Co-occurrence analysis based on keywords

2.2.1 Pragmatic and usage-based language processing

The co-occurrence analysis conducted on psycholinguistic studies on pragmatic and usage-based language processing revealed nine clusters of 73 keywords (with minimum cluster size set as 5) in total that mutually appear in a pair of target articles over all records based on the search function (see **Figure 1**). The clusters were ranked in a descending order based on their size and strength of connections. These clusters reflect what readers may rely on to search for the interested articles in the field of psycholinguistic research toward the functional, usage-based and pragmatic language processing (see **Table 1** for the list of key words per cluster). The first cluster reflects the trend in examining the processing of patterns and formulaic language usages in L1 and L2 speakers. The second cluster reflects the trend in investigating the usage and representation of formulaic expressions in discourse and conversation and discusses the relevant capacity and cognitive process such as perspective-taking processes. The third cluster reflects the focus on syntactic processing and Broca's area, in sentence comprehension, the ambiguity

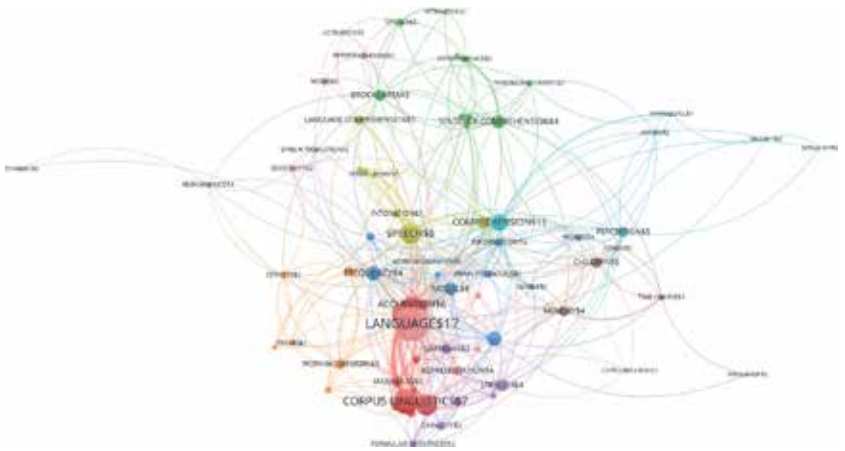

Figure 1.
*Co-occurrence map of keywords (*n = *73) over publications relevant to psycholinguistic studies on usage-based and pragmatic language processing. Nodes reflect keywords, and the size of the nodes represents their frequencies. Ties reflect the relationships between keywords, and the thicknesses represent the strengths of the relationships. Clusters of keywords are color coded and are shown in details in* ***Table 1****.*

and interference during language production and their relation with fluid intelligence, interference, and perspective taking. The fourth cluster reflects the trend of using neurocognitive indices (brain potentials and eye-movements) and modeling approach in lexical decision and recognition paradigms. The fifth cluster suggests the trend of focusing on intonation and speech, highlighting indirect languages such as sarcasm and verbal irony and the contextual impact during comprehension. The sixth cluster shows the trends in speech production and the dynamics of activation of representations during the process. The seventh cluster highlights the trend of investigating the cognitive processes (such as categorization, access to the knowledge, perception, and comprehension) in autistic individuals. The eight cluster shows an independent trend of looking at idiom comprehension, the deficits of it, and its relation with working memory. The last cluster reflects some trend focusing on developmental psycholinguistic research.

2.2.2 Pragmatic and usage-based language learning

The co-occurrence analysis conducted on second-language acquisition studies on the pragmatic and usage-based language learning revealed 14 clusters of 296 keywords in total (with minimum cluster size set to 10) that mutually appear in at least a pair of target articles over a consecutive number of records (see **Figure 2** and **Table 2**). The first cluster reveals a strong trend represented by a group of empirical studies on speech and phonological learning with cognitive neuroscience approaches. These approaches included but were not limited to the functional neuroimaging, the eye-tracking, and the recording of other online linguistic behaviors. In this trend, multiple cognitive processes were tapped, and individuals with particular sensory deprivation (e.g., deaf), cognitive impairments (e.g., specific language impairment), or neurodevelopmental disorders (e.g., dyslexia) were included as target populations of testings. The second cluster shows a trend of examining the processing different linguistic aspects (such as morphosyntactic, lexical, gestural, pragmatic, referential, and so on). Under the usage-based framework in both adult and second-language acquisition. The third cluster uniquely represents the trend of investigating the second-language acquisition of various functional and discourse markers, for instance, the usage of definiteness and

Cluster number	Keywords	Cluster number	Keywords
1	2nd-language speakers	4	Model
1	Lexical bundles	4	Eye-movements
1	List	4	Information
1	Patterns	5	Intonation
1	Sequences	5	Sarcasm
1	Formulaic language	5	Speaker
1	Attention	5	Verbal irony
1	Acquisition	5	Language comprehension
1	Corpus linguistics	5	Word recognition
1	Speakers	5	Context
1	Psycholinguistics	5	Speech
2	Formulaic sequences	6	Activation
2	Capacity	6	Dynamics
2	Discourse	6	Representations
2	Grammar	6	Sensitivity
2	Perspective	6	Speech production
2	Usage	6	Word
2	Conversation	6	Performance
2	English	7	Autism
2	Representation	7	Categorization
2	Language	7	Evolution
3	Attraction	7	Knowledge
3	Cognitive control	7	Models
3	Fluid intelligence	7	Perception
3	Interference	7	Comprehension
3	Language production	8	Deficits
3	Perspective-taking	8	Errors
3	Working-memory capacity	8	Idiom comprehension
3	Brocas area	8	Mind
3	Syntax	8	Working-memory
3	Sentence comprehension	8	Individual-differences
4	Brain potentials	9	Adults
4	Gender	9	Translation
4	Lexical decision	9	Time-course
4	Recognition	9	Memory
4	Words	9	Children
4	Frequency		

Table 1.
Clusters and the list of keywords in the co-occurrence analysis of publications relevant to psycholinguistic studies on usage-based and pragmatic language processing. Clusters are visualized in the co-occurrence map in ***Figure 1****.*

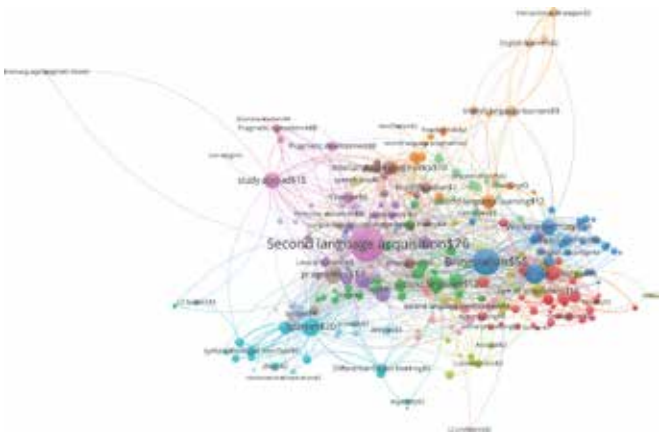

Figure 2.
*Co-occurrence map of keywords (*n = *298) over publications relevant to second-language acquisition studies on usage-based and pragmatic language learning. Nodes reflect keywords, and the size of the nodes represents their frequencies. Ties reflect the relationships between keywords, and the thicknesses represent the strengths of the relationships. Clusters of keywords are color coded and are shown in details in* ***Table 2****.*

specificity, conversational and scalar implicature, functional words, and mood. The fourth cluster reveals a trend of examining the association of individual's cognitive control or executive function abilities (including switching, inhibition, attentional monitoring, and working memory) and other related processes with second-language acquisition. The fifth cluster shows a trend of analyzing the role of instructional and learning strategies in second-language acquisition of pragmatic functions in educational and cultural settings. The sixth cluster reveals a latest trend of studying bilingual language processing and reading with functional and structural neuroimaging techniques, focusing on cross-linguistic comparisons that involve Mandarin. The seventh cluster emphasizes the studies on the interface of syntax and pragmatics and the interface of syntax and discourse, with a target language Spanish and heritage languages. The eighth cluster represents a trend of determining the structure of pragmatic competence and characterizing the role of pragmatic capacities in social interaction and adaptation. The ninth cluster represents the studies on the pragmatic acquisition (e.g., speech act) with English as a second language as a testing case. The 10th cluster focuses on the dynamic interplay between the second language and the first language, emphasizing how the acquisition of a second language may interfere or cause the loss of the capacity of using the first language. The 11th cluster mainly deals with the visual language acquisition, including the sign language and the spatial language. The learning of other syntax-related functions is discussed under the usage-based language acquisition framework in the rest of the clusters (e.g., the topics of null subject, of formulaic sequences, and of word order).

2.3 Bibliographic coupling based on citing reference

2.3.1 Pragmatic and usage-based language processing

Among 95 articles relevant to the study of psycholinguistic studies on pragmatic and usage-based language processing between 2010 and 2019, 80 shared citing references. According to the shared citations, the articles were clustered into seven groups, with the minimum number of citations per cluster equals to five (see **Figure 3** and **Table 3**). The first group of research focuses on the psycholinguistic experiments on pragmatic functions. The topics includ irony, presupposition,

Cluster number	Keywords	Cluster number	Keywords
1	Anxiety	5	Lexical development
1	Attention	5	Literacy
1	Cerebellum	5	Methods
1	Children	5	Modification
1	Cochlear implants	5	Oral language
1	Cognitive processes	5	Requests
1	Consolidation	5	Role play
1	Deaf	5	Scaffolding
1	Declarative memory	5	Second-language learning
1	Development	5	Second-language pragmatics
1	Dyslexia	5	Situation-bound utterances
1	Eye-tracking	5	Sociocultural theory
1	Fast mapping	5	Teacher talk
1	fMRI	5	Usage-based models
1	Functional connectivity	6	Age of acquisition
1	Functional magnetic resonance imaging	6	Arousal
1	Gender	6	Bilingual
1	Gene expression	6	Classroom
1	Hemodynamic response	6	Cognitive processing
1	L2	6	Concreteness
1	Language	6	Convolutional neural networks
1	Language evolution	6	Cross-linguistic influence
1	Learning	6	Dominance
1	Memory	6	DTI
1	Methodology	6	EEG
1	Neuroimaging	6	Embodied cognition
1	Novelty	6	Emotion
1	Online processing	6	Eye movements
1	Phonological awareness	6	Familiarity
1	Procedural	6	Imageability
1	Procedural memory	6	Longitudinal study
1	Pronoun	6	Mandarin
1	SLI	6	MRI
1	Specific language impairment	6	Neuroplasticity
1	Speech perception	6	Reading
1	Speech production	6	Second-language processing
1	Word learning	6	Word association
1	Reaction time	6	Working memory capacity
2	Acquisition	7	Boundary tones

Cluster number	Keywords	Cluster number	Keywords
2	Adult L2 acquisition	7	Clitic left dislocation
2	Anaphora resolution	7	Clitics
2	Aspect	7	Differential Object Marking
2	Categorization	7	Dislocations
2	Child L2 acquisition	7	Ergativity
2	Cognates	7	Heritage speakers
2	Corpus	7	Incomplete acquisition
2	Critical period hypothesis	7	Information structure
2	Dummy auxiliaries	7	Interface hypothesis
2	Dutch	7	L2 learners
2	Exposure	7	L2 Spanish
2	Frequency	7	Language contact
2	German	7	Lexical semantics
2	Gesture	7	Polysemy
2	Grammar	7	Prosodic transfer
2	Input	7	Spanish
2	Interfaces	7	Syntax-discourse interface
2	Interlanguage	7	Syntax-semantics interface
2	Intonation	7	Topicalization
2	L1 transfer	8	Arabic
2	Language aptitude	8	Code-switching
2	Language control	8	Comprehension
2	Learner varieties	8	Hebrew
2	Lexicon	8	Interlanguage pragmatics
2	Linguistic input	8	L2 pragmatic competence
2	Morphosyntax	8	L2 pragmatics
2	Pragmatics	8	Lexical processing
2	Processing	8	Longitudinal research
2	Reference	8	Mixed methods
2	Second language	8	Multilingualism
2	SLA	8	Pragmatic awareness
2	Usage-based	8	Production
2	Usage-based theory	8	Recognition
2	Vocabulary	8	Social interaction
2	Written corrective feedback	8	Sociocultural adaptation
3	Articles	8	Vocabulary learning
3	Awareness	8	Pragmatic routines
3	Cognition	9	Chinese
3	Computer-assisted language learning (CALL)	9	Chinese learners of English

Cluster number	Keywords	Cluster number	Keywords
3	Conversational implicature	9	Conventional expressions
3	Definiteness	9	Discourse markers
3	Determiners	9	English as a foreign language
3	English	9	Interlanguage pragmatic development
3	English articles	9	L2 proficiency
3	Explicit instruction	9	Pragmatic competence
3	Focus	9	Pragmatic development
3	French	9	Request
3	Function words	9	Second-language acquisition
3	Globalization	9	Speech act
3	Identity	9	Study abroad
3	Individual differences	9	Task design
3	Irish English	10	Bilingual development
3	L2 acquisition	10	Construction Grammar
3	Lexical bundles	10	Corpus analysis
3	'Like'	10	Cross-linguistic influence
3	Longitudinal	10	Dynamic systems
3	Prosody	10	dynamic systems theory
3	Scalar implicatures	10	L1 attrition
3	Second-language acquisition (SLA)	10	Language attrition
3	Second-language interaction	10	Language balance
3	Sociolinguistics	10	Late bilinguals
3	Spanish subjunctive	10	Second-language development
3	Specificity	10	Usage-based approach
3	Usage-based linguistics	10	Usage-based perspective
3	Variation	10	Language dominance
3	Phonology	11	Assessment
3	Pragmatic markers	11	Child second-language acquisition
3	Pronunciation	11	EFL
4	Artificial language	11	ESL
4	Attention network test	11	Japanese
4	Attentional monitoring	11	Language impairment
4	Basal ganglia	11	Linguistic relativity
4	Bilingual advantage	11	Motion events
4	Bilingualism	11	Narratives
4	Cognitive control	11	Path
4	Epilepsy	11	Sign language
4	Executive control	11	Spatial language

Cluster number	Keywords	Cluster number	Keywords
4	Executive function	12	Discourse
4	Executive functions	12	Foreign language instruction
4	Form-function mapping	12	Implicit learning
4	French liaison	12	Interface
4	Immersion	12	Morphology
4	Inhibition	12	Null subjects
4	Language acquisition	12	Sequential bilingualism
4	Language development	12	Statistical learning
4	Language proficiency	12	Syntax
4	Language switching	12	Syntax-pragmatics interface
4	Language usage	12	Universal grammar
4	Linguistics	13	Academic writing
4	Phonological short-term memory	13	Collocations
4	Recasts	13	Corpus linguistics
4	Second-language acquisition	13	Formulaic sequences
4	Switching	13	Grammatical development
4	Theory of mind	13	Interlanguage development
4	Verbal working memory	13	Noticing
4	Working memory	13	Phraseology
5	Materials	13	Proficiency
5	Chunking	13	Proficiency level
5	Classroom discourse	13	Speech acts
5	Conversation analysis	14	Acculturation
5	Corrective feedback	14	Biliteracy
5	English as a second language	14	Catalan
5	English language learners	14	Education
5	English learners	14	Estonian
5	Explicit knowledge	14	Language ideologies
5	Formulaic language	14	Language policy
5	Game-based learning	14	Morphological awareness
5	Instructional interaction	14	Transfer
5	Instructional strategies	14	Word order

Table 2.
Clusters and the list of keywords in the co-occurrence analysis of publications relevant to second-language acquisition studies on usage-based and pragmatic language learning. Clusters are visualized in the co-occurrence map in ***Figure 2****.*

speech acts, contextual effects, facial expressions, speech acts, communicative norms, discourse particles, indirect speech, and affective meanings. The second group of research concerns the pragmatics-syntax interface and the involvement of cognitive changes in pragmatic processing. The topics includ counterfactual conditionals, indefiniteness, referential informativeness, morphological marking for

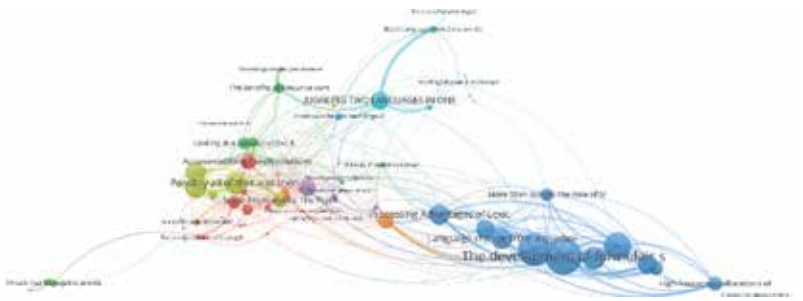

Figure 3.
*Bibliographic coupling network map for articles with shared citations (*n = *80), relevant to the psycholinguistic literature on pragmatic and usage-based language processing. Nodes represent the title of the articles, and the size of the nodes represents the number of citations in that article that co-occur in another article. Ties reflect the relationships between keywords, and the thicknesses represent the number of the shared citations. Clusters of articles are color coded and are shown in details in* ***Table 3****.*

pragmatics-syntax interface, autism, Parkinson's disease, mild cognitive impairment, executive control training, selective attention, and theory-of-mind. The third group of research concerns conventional expressions and formulaic languages, which includ the topics such as frequency of lexical use and second-language learning. The fourth group of research discusses the flexibility in pragmatic inferences and the relevant topics includ the scalar inferences and counterfactual inferences. The fifth group of research concerns the individual differences in syntactic and pragmatic processing, such as the working memory constraints on syntactic islands and semantic comprehension, and pragmatic strategy in syntactic attachment. The sixth group of research focuses on bilingualism, which covers the topics including code-switching, cross-modal linguistic transfer, phonological processing, and the consequence of bilingualism. The last group of research discusses communicative and pragmatic function of lexical meanings. The topics includ the noun-noun compounds, polysemy, sublexical constituents, and negation.

2.3.2 Pragmatic and usage-based language learning

Among 601 articles relevant to the study on second-language acquisition between 2010 and 2019, 571 shared citing references. According to the shared citations, the articles were clustered into eight groups, with the minimum number of citations per cluster sets to 10 (**Figure 4** and **Table 4**). The first research group highlights the empirical studies on factors that affect different aspects of second-language acquisition in children or young adults, with many involving a comparison between the first-language and the second-language acquisition. The second group of research highlights the acquisition of lexical and grammatical aspects of language in L2, distinguishing the role of domain-general (e.g., the cognitive constraint on frequency learning) and domain-specific factors (e.g., the knowledge of linguistic register) in second-language acquisition. The third group concerns the effectiveness of various instructional strategies (e.g., virtual learning environment) and the perception of teaching strategies (e.g., corrective feedback) in the acquisition of pragmatic competencies. The fourth group concerns the development of pragmatic strategies in L2, for instance, the use of speech acts (such as apology request and refusal acts), prosodic strategies, conversational implicature, quotative marking, and conventional expressions. The fifth group concerns the syntax-pragmatics interface during second-language acquisition. Some special themes are discussed, which include the null and overt subject, wh-question, co-reference and anaphora, and left dislocation. The sixth group of research uniquely focuses on the cognitive

Cluster number	Title of the article
1	A strong link between verbal and emoji-based irony: How the brain processes ironic emojis during language comprehension
1	Accommodating presuppositions is inappropriate in implausible contexts
1	Ancient Greek awareness of child language acquisition
1	Are ironic acts deliberate?
1	Beyond mechanistic interaction: value-based constraints on meaning in language
1	Co(n)textual supports in the discursive use of phraseological units
1	Cognitive adequacy in a dialogic functional discourse grammar
1	Facial expressions and speech acts: experimental evidences on the role of the upper face as an illocutionary force indicating device in language comprehension
1	Identifying seekers and suppliers in social media communities to support crisis coordination
1	Misleading health consumers through violations of communicative norms: a case study of online diabetes education
1	Pragmatic choice in conversation
1	Procedural meaning and Spanish discourse particles: an experimental approach
1	Rationales for indirect speech: the theory of the strategic speaker
1	Robots that say no affective symbol grounding and the case of intent interpretations
1	Sentinels of breach: lexical choice as a measure of urgency in social media
1	Sources of history for a psychology of verbal communication
1	The impact of foreign accent on irony interpretation
2	Acoustic marking of prominence: how do preadolescent speakers with and without high-functioning autism mark contrast in an interactive task?
2	Approximation to the semantics of counterfactuals
2	Experimental investigations of weak definite and weak indefinite noun phrases
2	Looking at a contrast object before speaking boosts referential informativeness but is not essential
2	Pragmatic comprehension deficit in Parkinson's disease
2	Processing complex pseudo-words in mild cognitive impairment: the interaction of preserved morphological rule knowledge with compromised cognitive ability
2	Psychological essentialist reasoning and perspective taking during reading: a donkey is not a zebra, but a plate can be a clock
2	Seeking the -ational in derivational morphology
2	Sensitivity to speaker control in the online comprehension of conditional tips and promises: an eye-tracking study
2	Sources of variability relevant to the cognitive sociolinguist, and corpus—as well as psycholinguistic methods and notions to handle them
2	The benefits of executive control training and the implications for language processing
2	The communicative significance of primary and secondary accents
2	The director task: a test of theory-of-mind use or selective attention?
2	Threats may be negative promises (but warnings are more than negative tips)
2	Tolerant, classical, strict
3	Binomials in Russian speech: semantic types and objective and subjective frequency

Cluster number	Title of the article
3	Conventional expressions: investigating pragmatics and processing
3	Formulaic language and second language acquisition: zipf and the phrasal teddy bear
3	High-frequency collocations of nouns in research articles across eight disciplines
3	Investigating academic phraseology through combinations of very frequent words: a methodological exploration
3	Language change from a psycholinguistic perspective: the long-term effects of frequency on language processing
3	More than words: the role of multiword sequences in language learning and use
3	Processing advantages of lexical bundles: evidence from self-paced reading and sentence recall tasks
3	The development of formulaic sequences in first and second language writing Investigating effects of frequency, association, and native norm
3	The effectiveness of focused instruction of formulaic sequences in augmenting L2 learners' academic writing skills: a quantitative research study
3	Usage-based linguistics and the magic number four
3	What do we (think we) know about formulaic language? An evaluation of the current state of play
4	Authorship attribution, constructed languages, and the psycholinguistics of individual variation
4	Competition and symmetry in an artificial word learning task
4	Eye Movement Evidence for Context-Sensitive Derivation of Scalar Inferences
4	Free choice permission and the counterfactuals of pragmatics
4	Intonation and pragmatic enrichment: how intonation constrains ad hoc scalar inferences
4	Letter and symbol identification: no evidence for letter-specific crowding mechanisms
4	No delay for some inferences
4	Possibly all of that and then some: scalar implicatures are understood in two steps
4	Scalar implicatures: the psychological reality of scales
4	Two languages, two minds: flexible cognitive processing driven by language of operation
5	A test of the relation between working-memory capacity and syntactic island effects
5	Agreement processes in English and Spanish: a completion study
5	Attachment preference in auditory German sentences: individual differences and pragmatic strategy
5	Detection of speech errors in the speech of others: an ERP study
5	Neurolinguistics: subject, history, methods
5	Simulating cross-language priming with a dynamic computational model of the lexicon
5	Specific language impairment: markers into semantic and pragmatic areas in Spanish-speaking children
5	The effect of word predictability on reading time is logarithmic
5	Which noun phrases is the verb supposed to agree with? Object agreement in American English
5	Working memory predicts semantic comprehension in dichotic listening in older adults

Cluster number	Title of the article
6	Adaptation of the bilingual aphasia test (BAT) to Sardinian: clinical and social implications
6	Calling for interdisciplinary approaches to the study of Spanglish and its linguistic manifestations
6	Code-switching in multilinguals with dementia: patterns across speech contexts
6	Cross-modal bilingualism: language contact as evidence of linguistic transfer in sign bilingual education
6	Familiarity, comprehension and use of Indian English only L1 Indian English speakers' psycholinguistic judgments and interview responses
6	Good language-switchers are good task-switchers: evidence from Spanish-English and Mandarin-English bilinguals
6	Juggling two languages in one mind: what bilinguals tell us about language processing and its consequences for cognition
6	Morphosyntactic annotation of CHILDES transcripts
6	Multilingualism and multicompetence: a conceptual view
6	The nature of the phonological processing in French dyslexic children: evidence for the phonological syllable and linguistic features' role in silent reading and speech discrimination
7	Noun-noun compounds for fictive food products: experimenting in the borderzone of semantics and pragmatics
7	Optimization models of natural communication
7	Polysemy and word meaning: an account of lexical meaning for different kinds of content words
7	Statistical measures for usage-based linguistics
7	SyllabO plus: a new tool to study sublexical phenomena in spoken Quebec French
7	The good, the not good, and the not beautiful: on the non-obligatoriness of suppression following negation

Table 3.
Clusters and title of articles in the bibliographic coupling analysis on the psycholinguistic literature on pragmatic and usage-based language processing. Clusters are visualized in the bibliographic coupling network map in ***Figure 3****.*

advantage (especially in the executive function) and the neural consequences of bilingualism, with the aid of neuroimaging techniques. The seventh group aims to examine the factors that affect the second-language acquisition and the first-language attrition in the aspects of syntactic, prosodic, and pragmatic skills (e.g., the age of acquisition, the richness of language input, and the neurocognitive constraints). The last group is devoted to the research on the processing of discourse and pragmatic marker (e.g., the usage of article, scalar implicature, and presupposition) in second-language learner.

3. Summary and future direction

The bibliometric review shows a growing trend of research interest in the function, usage, and pragmatics of language in the field of psycholinguistics and in the field of second-language acquisition. These trends indicate that the existing

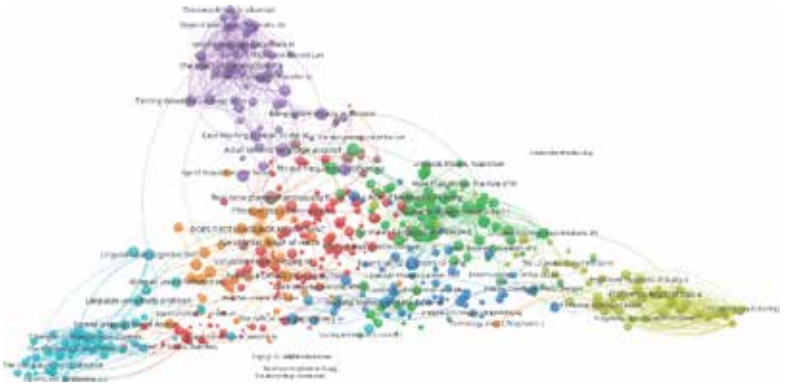

Figure 4.
*Bibliographic coupling network map for articles with shared citations (*n = *571), relevant to the second-language acquisition literature on pragmatic and usage-based language learning. Clusters of articles are color coded and are shown in details in* ***Table 4****.*

Cluster number	Title of the represented articles
1	Variability in the learning of complex morphophonology
1	Can L2-English influence L1-German? The case of post-vocalic /r/
1	A formalist perspective on language acquisition
1	Multicompetence and native speaker variation in clausal packaging in Japanese
1	Abstracting grammar from social-cognitive foundations: a developmental sketch of learning
1	Individual differences in child English second language acquisition: comparing child-internal and child-external factors
1	Asymmetrical interlingual influence in the production of Spanish and English laterals as a result of competing activation in bilingual language processing
1	Tracking learners' progress: adopting a dual 'corpus cum experimental data' approach
1	Learned attention effects in L2 temporal reference: the first hour and the next eight semesters
1	Effects of input properties, vocabulary size, and L1 on the development of third person singular -s in child L2 English
2	Phrase frequency, proficiency and grammaticality interact in non-native processing: Implications for theories of SLA
2	Second language construction learning: investigating domain-specific adaptation in advanced L2 production
2	A usage-based approach to preposition placement in English as a second language
2	Cognitive linguistics and the second language classroom
2	The role of multiword building blocks in explaining L1-L2 differences
2	L2 negation constructions at work
2	Formulaic language and second language acquisition: zipf and the phrasal teddy bear
2	Explicit knowledge and processes from a usage-based perspective: the developmental trajectory of an instructed L2 learner
2	Frequency of input and L2 collocational processing a comparison of congruent and incongruent collocations

Cluster number	Title of the represented articles
2	Frequency effects on first and second language compositional phrase comprehension and production
3	Essentials of a theory of language cognition
3	The role of working memory in processing L2 input: insights from eye-tracking
3	Working memory and the observed effectiveness of recasts on different L2 outcome measures
3	The relationship between L2 instruction, exposure, and the L2 acquisition of a syntax-discourse property in L2 Spanish
3	Experience effects on the development of late second language learners' oral proficiency
3	A corpus-driven study of second-person pronoun variation in L2 French synchronous computer-mediated communication
3	Corrective feedback and the role of implicit sequence-learning ability in L2 online performance
3	ERPs recorded during early second language exposure predict syntactic learning
3	Exploratory research on second language practice distribution: an aptitude x treatment interaction
3	Reinvestigating the noticing function of output
4	The relative effects of explicit and implicit form-focused instruction on the development of L2 pragmatic competence
4	Expanding the circle to learner English: investigating quotative marking in a German student community
4	High-level requests: a study of long residency L2 users of English and French and native speakers
4	Improving Chinese EFL teachers' English requests: does study abroad help?
4	Environmental influence on language acquisition: comparing second and foreign language acquisition of Swedish
4	News from the pragmatics classroom: contrasting the inductive and the deductive approach in the teaching of pragmatic competence
4	Testing of second language pragmatics: past and future
4	Proficiency, length of stay, and intensity of interaction, and the acquisition of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics
4	Second language acquisition of Spanish service industry requests in an immersion context
4	The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 pragmatics: an eight month investigation
5	Adult second language acquisition A selective overview with a focus on the learner linguistic system
5	Bilingualism effects in Basque subject pronoun expression
5	The relevance of first language attrition to theories of bilingual development
5	Embedded wh-questions in L2 English in India inversion as a main clause phenomenon
5	The effect of construction frequency and native transfer on second language knowledge of the syntax-discourse interface
5	Pinning down the concept of interface in bilingualism
5	Left dislocation in near-native French
5	Case marking in Hindi as the weaker language

Cluster number	Title of the represented articles
5	Second language acquisition of pragmatic inferences: evidence from the French c'est-cleft
5	Transfer and proficiency effects in L2 processing of subject anaphora
6	Changes in white-matter connectivity in late second language learners: evidence from diffusion tensor imaging
6	Linguistic and cognitive skills in Sardinian-Italian bilingual children
6	Better early or late? Examining the influence of age of exposure and language proficiency on executive function in early and late bilinguals
6	Language use affects proficiency in Italian-Spanish bilinguals irrespective of age of second language acquisition
6	Language interference and inhibition in early and late successive bilingualism
6	Second language lexical development and cognitive control: a longitudinal fMRI study
6	Bilingual lexical selection as a dynamic process: evidence from Arabic-French bilinguals
6	Degree of multilingualism, code-switching and intensity of target language contact predict pragma-linguistic awareness in an English as a foreign language context
6	The efficiency of attentional networks in early and late bilinguals: the role of age of acquisition
6	Language exposure induced neuroplasticity in the bilingual brain: a follow-up fMRI study
7	Does first language maintenance hamper nativelikeness in a second language? A study of ultimate attainment in early bilinguals
7	Bidirectional lexical interaction in late immersed Mandarin-English bilinguals
7	The role of age of acquisition in late second language oral proficiency attainment
7	Age of onset, length of residence, language aptitude, and ultimate L2 attainment in three linguistic domains
7	Effects of input training on second language syntactic representation entrenchment
7	The storage and composition of inflected forms in adult-learned second language: a study of the influence of length of residence, age of arrival, sex, and other factors
7	Inflectional morphology in bilingual language processing: an age-of-acquisition study
7	Language use across international contexts: shaping the minds of L2 speakers
7	Proficiency and working memory based explanations for nonnative speakers' sensitivity to agreement in sentence processing
7	The critical period hypothesis in second language acquisition: a statistical critique and a reanalysis
8	Real-time grammar processing by native and non-native speakers: constructions unique to the second language
8	Definite discourse-new reference in L1 and L2: the case of L2 Mandarin
8	The role of presuppositionality in the second language acquisition of English articles
8	Processing of scalar inferences by Mandarin learners of English: an online measure
8	Definite discourse-new reference in L1 and L2: a study of bridging in Mandarin, Korean, and English
8	Identifiability and accessibility in learning definite article usages: a quasi-experimental study with Japanese learners of English
8	Teaching the English article system: definiteness and specificity in linguistically-informed instruction

Cluster number	Title of the represented articles
8	Revisiting fluctuations in L2 article choice in L1-Korean L2-English learners
8	How much do Cantonese ESL learners know about the English article system?
8	The non-generic use of the definite article the in writing by Turkish learners of English

Table 4.
Clusters and title of articles in the bibliographic coupling analysis on the second-language acquisition literature on pragmatic and usage-based language learning. Clusters are visualized in the bibliographic coupling network map for ***Figure 4****. Given large numbers of article, only articles that weighed top 10 in each cluster were listed. The articles were ranked in a descending order according to their weights in a cluster.*

investigation of language communication and acquisition in real world is still in its infancy and invites further empirical and theoretical contributions. The frequency distribution clearly shows the leading contributors and the journals most attracted to the relevant topic. The co-occurrence and the bibliometric coupling analysis demonstrate that researchers are most interested in the processing of various interpersonal and socio-pragmatic functions in L1 and L2 speakers in the field of psycholinguistics, as well as factors underlying L2 acquisition from children to adults, and the impact of the cognitive and neurodevelopmental impairments in the field of second-language acquisition.

One important direction is to combine the real-time neurophysiological recordings (such as eye-tracking, EEGs and fMRI) with the psycholinguistic paradigms for investigating the real-world language use to reveal the neurocognitive architecture underlying pragmatic language processing and those underlying language acquisition (e.g., [6, 7] for some reviews). The use of virtual reality to create naturalistic scenarios will be a good complementary approach to test the impact of real-world social interaction on one's language processing and learning [8]. Of special interests is the testing of linguistic phenomena that can be addressed by different categories of communicative functions, such as indirectness (e.g., [9]), presupposition (e.g., [10]), speech/communicative acts (e.g., [11, 12]), and politeness (e.g., [13–15]), among many others, on both well-represented, dominant languages and under-represented, marginalized languages (e.g., east-Asian languages such as Chinese, Japanese, and Korean and their dialects) and on one's own and unfamiliar languages [16–20]. These topics are seldomly addressed in psycholinguistic literatures, and the experimental paradigms adapted to address these topics are rare in the second-language acquisition literatures. New computational approaches such as machine learning and computational modeling will provide a solution to the classification of different types of communicative functions in L1 with higher accuracy. However, whether such approaches can reveal the novel feature in the classification of communicative functions in L2 is still an unaddressed question. The capacity of classifying communicative categories in one's second language with the model built in one's mother tongue, and the vice versa, is promising to reveal if the mental representation underlying pragmatic functions is shared or distinct between L1 and L2. Other fascinating lines of research are to enhance the understanding of the individual differences in the processing of pragmatic language that is endorsed by professional, political, or cultural background of the language users [21, 22], and the atypical processing that may be revealed by testing individuals with pragmatic impairments or variations (including but not limited to neurodevelopmental and neurodegenerative disordered individuals). With the aid of multimodal approaches to build intelligent recognition system, the profiling for one's pragmatic language ability is likely to provide a novel way to predict or diagnose individuals with special clinical status [23]. It is still unknown how learning a second language can affect

one's pragmatic language ability in those who suffer from certain clinical status. These new possibilities, combined with what has been indicated from the bibliometric review, will make significant contributions to reveal a new trend in developing new psycholinguistic paradigms for studying the mechanisms underlying the usage-based and pragmatic language processing.

Our bibliometric method may be limited in the coverage of literatures given that the literature search was only focused on the published articles in the databases of Web of Science where the journals of these publications are indexed. The nonjournal works such as books, dissertations, and conference papers can also contribute to the latest development in the shift towards pragmatic and usage-based language processing and learning in the relevant fields and could be incorporated for judging the impact of the research. The findings from the present analysis also await verifications from other citation tracking databases, such as Google Scholar, PubMed, and PsycInfo. Despite such limits, the bibliometric analysis provides evidence-based descriptions, comparisons, and visualizations of research output [24] and proposes a promising research avenue at the interface of psychological science, language science, and educational science. In particular, the network analysis and the visualization of the network structure for co-occurring keywords and for co-citing articles somehow serve as the tools to monitor the subject collaboration and to identify the cross-cluster research efforts of high performance and high impacts in the field of psycholinguistics and the field of second-language acquisitions (**Figures 1**–**4**). These emerging discoveries and trends invite more dedicated and interdisciplinary research outputs to address the arising issues of the functional, usage-based, and pragmatic language processing and learning in the field of psycholinguistics and second-language acquisition studies.

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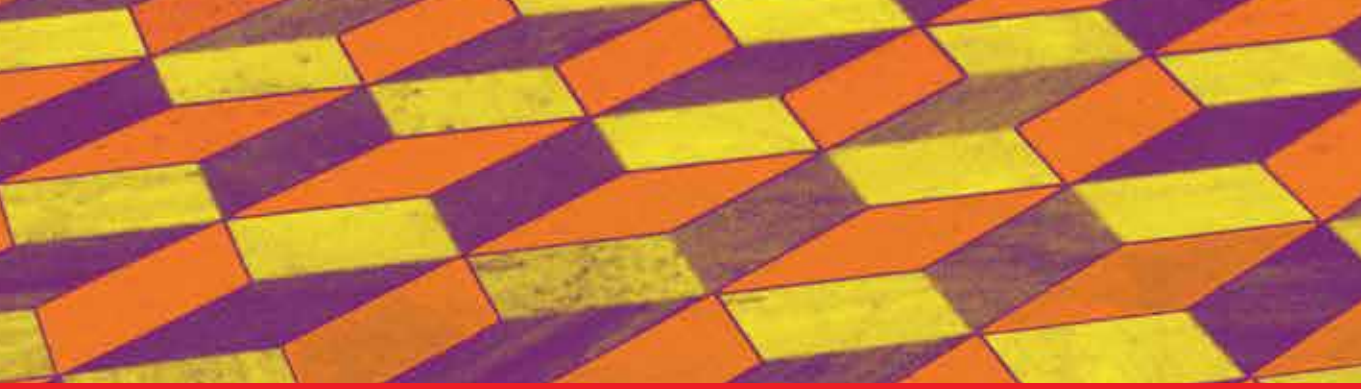

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This volume presents a collection of current research on pedagogies, practices and perspectives in the field of second language acquisition. It brings together different aspects of learning, teaching and researching a second language with chapters covering a range of topics from emotional communication, pragmatic competence, transformative pedagogy, inclusion, reflective teaching and innovative research methodologies. The authors address a global audience to offer insights into contemporary theories, research, policies and practices in second language acquisition. This collection of work is aimed at students, teachers and researchers wishing to reflect on current developments and identify potential research directions.

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