



THE UNIVERSITY *of* EDINBURGH

This thesis has been submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for a postgraduate degree (e.g. PhD, MPhil, DClinPsychol) at the University of Edinburgh. Please note the following terms and conditions of use:

This work is protected by copyright and other intellectual property rights, which are retained by the thesis author, unless otherwise stated.

A copy can be downloaded for personal non-commercial research or study, without prior permission or charge.

This thesis cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission in writing from the author.

The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the author.

When referring to this work, full bibliographic details including the author, title, awarding institution and date of the thesis must be given.

Portuguese as a Foreign Language within the Context of the Exchange
Programme for Undergraduate Students in Brazil: a proposal for language-in-
education policy and curriculum guidelines informed by critical and
intercultural perspectives

Michele Saraiva Carilo

Doctor of Philosophy
The University of Edinburgh

2017

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the processes of curriculum development and curriculum enactment for Portuguese as a Foreign Language (PFL) courses within the context of the Exchange Programme for Undergraduate Students (PEC-G) in Brazil. The following overarching research question guided the investigation: what shapes and informs curriculum development for the PFL courses which are offered by Brazilian public universities for PEC-G students? The following sub-questions were also addressed: (1) what are the key goals to be achieved by such PFL courses? (2) to what extent do syllabi, pedagogical materials and teaching reflect the curriculum within this context? and (3) to what extent does institutional support influence the processes of structuring and/or re-structuring these PFL courses?

The research design was informed by Constructivist Grounded Theory (CGT). Nine PFL programme co-ordinators and ten teachers, representing seven of the twelve PFL programmes in Brazil, participated in in-depth semi-structured interviews. Fine-grained analysis involved inductive, deductive and abductive analysis of the interview data. The findings revealed that the examination for the Certificate of Proficiency in Brazilian Portuguese (CELPE-BRAS) – which is mainly based on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) – had been used as the supporting, main or only guidelines for PFL curriculum development and enactment within the seven PFL courses for PEC-G students that were investigated.

The present study contributes to the existing literature on PFL policy, curriculum development and pedagogy by exploring the notions of language, language use, competence and culture which have been promoted by the PFL courses for PEC-G students. Informed by Freire's conscientização and intercultural perspectives on foreign language education, this thesis recommends revisiting those notions in order to provide the PEC-G students with an education in PFL that moves beyond the preparation for the CELPE-BRAS examination. By making such recommendation, this thesis seeks to encourage the development and enactment of language-in-education policies and curriculum guidelines for PFL within the PEC-G context which promote language and culture as meaning-making processes for the advancement of cosmopolitan citizenship and of transformative social agency towards social justice.

RESUMO

O presente estudo investigou os processos de desenvolvimento e implementação de currículos de Português como Língua Estrangeira (PLE) nos cursos que são oferecidos aos participantes do Programa de Estudantes-Convênio de Graduação (PEC-G). Essa investigação foi guiada pela seguinte questão norteadora: o que (in)forma o desenvolvimento curricular para cursos de PLE que são oferecidos aos estudantes PEC-G pelas universidades públicas brasileiras? As seguintes questões secundárias também serviram como ponto de partida para esse estudo: (1) quais são os principais objetivos a serem atingidos por esses cursos de PLE? (2) até que ponto os programas de estudo, os materiais pedagógicos e o ensino propriamente dito refletem os objetivos estabelecidos no currículo de tais cursos de PLE? e (3) até que ponto o apoio institucional influencia nos processos de (re)estruturação desses cursos de PLE?

A pesquisa foi desenvolvida com base na vertente construtivista da Teoria Fundamentada nos Dados (TFD). Nove coordenadores e dez professores, representando sete dos doze programas de PLE que, em 2015, ofereceram cursos para estudantes PEC-G, participaram de entrevistas em profundidade semiestruturadas. A análise meticulosa das entrevistas deu-se a partir de indução, dedução e abdução. Os achados da pesquisa revelaram que o exame do Certificado de Proficiência em Língua Portuguesa para Estrangeiros (CELPE-BRAS) – que se baseia principalmente nas abordagens comunicativas de ensino e aprendizado de língua estrangeira a partir do desempenho de tarefas – tem sido utilizado como orientações curriculares para o desenvolvimento e implementação de currículo de PLE nos sete programas investigados por esse estudo.

Ao investigar as noções de língua, linguagem, competência e cultura que têm sido estabelecidas e promovidas pelos cursos de PLE para estudantes PEC-G, esse estudo contribui com a atual bibliografia acerca de políticas educacionais para o ensino de língua, de desenvolvimento curricular e de abordagens pedagógicas no contexto de PLE. Informada pelo conceito freiriano de conscientização e pelas perspectivas interculturais para educação de língua estrangeira, essa tese recomenda que aquelas noções sejam revisadas para que se possa proporcionar aos estudantes PEC-G cursos de PLE que vão além da preparação para o exame CELPE-BRAS. A partir dessas recomendações, essa tese tem por objetivo encorajar o desenvolvimento e a implementação de políticas para a educação de língua e de orientações curriculares para PLE no contexto do PEC-G que promovam língua e cultura como processos de criação de sentido para o avanço da cidadania cosmopolita e do protagonismo social em busca de justiça social.

DECLARATION

I declare that the work presented in this document is the original work of the author and that it has not been submitted for any other degree or professional qualification.

Michele Saraiva Carilo

Date:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work would not have been possible without the financial support of the Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education Personnel (CAPES Foundation) through the Full PhD Science without Borders Programme.

I am grateful to many people whose support was equally important for the development of this thesis. First and foremost, I thank my PhD supervisors, Dr. Pauline Sangster, Dr. Maria Dasli and Dr. Mike Jess for their commitment and guidance throughout this project. I also thank the academic and administrative staff, especially Lorraine Denholm, as well as my fellow PhD students and the 2014-2016 doctoral student representatives team with whom I had the pleasure to work at Moray House.

Further thanks must go to the participants who generously agreed to be interviewed for this study and to the PEC-G students who have been my inspiration for this project.

I am forever grateful to my mum, my brother and my friends whose love and support shortened the distance between Brazil and Scotland. I also thank my new friends Alice and Sue whose friendship made Edinburgh feel like home.

Lastly, I thank Eder, the best fellow PhD student and husband I could ever wish to have by my side during this long journey. Thank you for the everyday encouragement, partnership and, above all, love.

Table of Content

ABSTRACT	i
RESUMO	ii
DECLARATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
ACRONYMS	viii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background	1
1.1.1. Personal Interest.....	1
1.1.2. Current debates regarding education in PFL.....	2
1.2. Structure of the thesis	4
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	6
2.1. Introduction	6
2.2. Policy making and enactment.....	7
2.2.1. Education Policy	8
2.2.2. Education Policy making.....	9
2.2.3. Policy Enactment	13
2.3. Language Policy and Language-in-education Policy	16
2.3.1. Language.....	16
2.3.2. Language-in-education policy	25
2.4. Foreign Language Education and Intercultural Communication.....	30
2.4.1. Foreign Language Education	31
2.4.2. Intercultural Communication and Foreign Language Education	38
2.4.3. Intercultural Communication and Intercultural Teaching and Learning ...	41
2.4.4. Critical Pedagogies for Intercultural Citizenship	47
2.4.5. Cosmopolitanism	52
2.5. Curriculum Development and Enactment for Foreign Language Education ..	58
2.5.1. Curriculum Development: Planning and Implementation.....	58
2.5.2. Foreign Language Curriculum Development.....	63
2.6. Summary.....	72
CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH CONTEXT	74
3.1. Introduction	74
3.2. Exchange Programme for Undergraduate Students	74
3.3. Certificate of Proficiency in Brazilian Portuguese.....	76

3.3.1. CELPE-BRAS and its influence on the PFL area	76
3.4. Programmes of Portuguese as a Foreign Language in Brazil	84
3.5. Summary.....	87
CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY	89
4.1. Introduction	89
4.2. Research Design.....	89
4.2.1. Constructivist Grounded Theory.....	90
4.3. Sampling	94
4.3.1. Participants	96
4.4. Ethical Issues	101
4.4.1. Informed Consent, Privacy, and Disclosure.....	102
4.4.2. Translation	104
4.5. Data Gathering and Analysis Methods	104
4.5.1. Document gathering and analysis	105
4.5.2. Documentary analysis.....	106
4.5.3. Interviews	107
4.6. Data Management.....	115
4.7. Research Quality.....	116
4.7.1. Validation and Trustworthiness	116
4.7.2. Reflexivity	118
4.8. Summary.....	121
CHAPTER 5 FINDINGS	122
5.1. Introduction	122
5.2. CELPE-BRAS shaping the curriculum for PFL courses for PEC-G students	123
5.2.1. CELPE-BRAS as the main guidelines for curriculum development	124
5.2.2. CELPE-BRAS as the only guidelines for curriculum development.....	130
5.2.3. CELPE-BRAS as supporting guidelines for curriculum development ...	134
5.3. The influence of CELPE-BRAS on the processes of curriculum enactment	138
5.3.1. The syllabus reflecting the established pedagogical goals	138
5.3.2. The selected and/or developed materials reflecting pedagogical goals	151
5.4. The institutional support and the role of PFL within the university.....	175
5.4.1. The co-ordinators' perspectives on organisational support.....	175
5.4.2. The teachers' perspectives on developmental support.....	180
5.5. Summary.....	188
CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	189

6.1. Introduction	189
6.2. What shapes and informs curriculum development for PFL courses for PEC-G students.....	189
6.2.1. Key pedagogical goals and how they are reflected by the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum	192
6.2.2. The extent to which institutional support influence in the processes of structuring and/or re-structuring the PFL programmes.....	198
6.3. Proposal for a theoretical shift	204
6.3.1. Critical and Intercultural Perspectives for Foreign Language Education	205
6.3.2. Implications of a theoretical shift	209
6.3.3. Summary	218
6.4. Contribution to knowledge, Limitations and Further Research	220
6.4.1. Contribution to knowledge.....	220
6.4.2. Limitations.....	222
6.4.3. Further Research	223
BIBLIOGRAPHY	225
APPENDICES	248
Appendix 1 Sample of the written element of the CELPE-BRAS examination ...	248
Appendix 2 Sample of the provoking elements of the CELPE-BRAS examination	251
Appendix 3 Description of the levels of proficiency according to CELPE-BRAS	254
Appendix 4 Content of the recruiting email	255
(PFL co-ordinators)	255
Appendix 5 Content of the recruiting email	256
(PFL teachers)	256
Appendix 6 Information Sheet and Consent Forms	257
Appendix 7 Interview Guides.....	260
Appendix 8 Summary of the Interview Guides.....	262
(PFL co-ordinators)	262
Appendix 9 Sample of Interaction Guide for the oral element of the CELPE-BRAS examination.....	263

ACRONYMS

BPSL	Brazilian Portuguese as a Second Language
CASQDAS	Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software
CELPE-BRAS	Certificate of Proficiency in Brazilian Portuguese
CGT	Constructivist Grounded Theory
CLA	Communicative Language Ability
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CP	Critical Pedagogy
GT	Grounded Theory
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
IC	Intercultural Communication
ICP	Intercultural Communication Pedagogy
ICC	Intercultural Communicative Competence
IP	Intercultural Pedagogy
PBL	Project-based Learning
PCNs	Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais (National Curricular Guidelines)
PEC-G	Exchange Programme for Undergraduate Students
PFL	Portuguese as a Foreign Language
PMT	Portuguese as a Mother Tongue
TBLT	Task-based Language Teaching

LIST OF TABLES

<i>Table 2.1 Twenty principles of language teaching (Nation and Macalister, 2010).....</i>	<i>65</i>
<i>Table 3.1 Percentage of PEC-G students per continent from 2000 to 2016.....</i>	<i>75</i>
<i>Table 3.2 The structure of the CELPE-BRAS examination.....</i>	<i>79</i>
<i>Table 3.3 List of the Academic Publications about CELPE-BRAS.....</i>	<i>83</i>
<i>Table 3.4 Universities which offered PFL for PEC-G students in 2015.....</i>	<i>84</i>
<i>Table 3.5 PEC-G students' allocation to PFL courses and UG courses.....</i>	<i>86</i>
<i>Table 4.1 Comparison between traditional GT and evolved GT (Mills et al, 2006).....</i>	<i>91</i>
<i>Table 4.2 PFL Programme Co-ordinators Information.....</i>	<i>98</i>
<i>Table 4.3 PFL Programme Teachers' Information.....</i>	<i>100</i>
<i>Table 4.4 Brazilian Policy Documents and Curriculum Guidelines related to Language.....</i>	<i>105</i>
<i>Table 4.5 Documentary Analysis Framework.....</i>	<i>106</i>
<i>Table 4.6 Information of Pilot Participants.....</i>	<i>109</i>
<i>Table 4.7 Summary of Interviews with Co-ordinators.....</i>	<i>110</i>
<i>Table 4.8 Summary of Interviews with Teachers.....</i>	<i>112</i>
<i>Table 5:1 – Universities' representatives.....</i>	<i>122</i>
<i>Table 6.1. Summary of the findings.....</i>	<i>202</i>

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 2.1 Model for Curriculum Design (Nation and Macalister, 2010)</i>	64
<i>Figure 4.1 Design Frame</i>	93

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

This study investigates the processes of curriculum development and enactment for Portuguese as a Foreign Language (PFL) courses within the context of the Exchange Programme for Undergraduate Students (PEC-G) in Brazil. In doing so, this thesis aims to contribute to the existing debate regarding the development of language-in-education policy and curriculum guidelines for education in PFL. This study is expected to instigate and encourage PFL teachers and researchers to rethink the theoretical assumptions that currently inform those PFL courses in order to move education in PFL from communicative perspectives towards critically- and interculturality-based pedagogies.

As briefly discussed in the following sections, the motivation to develop this research project was twofold:

- (1) my personal interest in the topic that emerged from my teaching experience within the context of PEC-G; and
- (2) the lack of empirical studies which focus on (a) PFL courses for PEC-G students in a national level; and/or (b) theoretical perspectives for education in PFL which are unrelated to those that inform the examination for the Certificate of Proficiency in Brazilian Portuguese (CELPE-BRAS).

1.1.1. Personal Interest

From 2008 to 2012, as a PFL teacher at a Brazilian federal university, I had the opportunity to work with hundreds of international undergraduate and postgraduate students. The international students within the context of PEC-G, in contrast to those who participated in other academic mobility programmes, were required to have a CELPE-BRAS before initiating their undergraduate studies in Brazil. Within that particular university, the PEC-G students attended a 500-hours PFL course, from March to October, which prioritised their preparation for the CELPE-BRAS examination.

During the same period, as a research assistant, I developed several research projects that focused on education in PFL for the international students at the university. Those projects allowed me to compare the PFL course for PEC-G students

to the PFL courses for non-PEC-G students that the university offered. My practice and research enabled me to realise that the CELPE-BRAS examination influenced the development of the PFL courses at that university, especially the ones which were attended by the PEC-G students. Given that the development of those PFL courses had not been regulated by any official policy or curriculum guidelines, I started to wonder how the PFL courses which were offered by other universities had been developed. The fact that there were, at least, a dozen public universities in Brazil that offered PFL courses for PEC-G students, and no empirical studies regarding the process of curriculum development and enactment for those courses, encouraged me to investigate further the topic in a national level.

1.1.2. Current debates regarding education in PFL

The process of curriculum development for foreign language education is a 'work in progress' which is usually informed by many external factors, such as language and language-in-education policies, textbooks and examinations (Apple, 2004; Barnett, 2000; Gray, 2010). The theoretical, ideological and political perspectives that contribute to the conceptualisation of language, language use, competence and culture might influence curriculum development and, consequently, teaching and learning (Nation and Macalister, 2010). In this sense, political instruments, such as the CELPE-BRAS examination, can be used to promote, as well as implement, the advancement of language abilities which are perceived as socially, culturally, and/or economically aspired (Liddicoat, 2013).

Kramsch (2009) argues that foreign language education needs to go beyond teaching measurable goals if relevant, meaningful and transformative language-learning experiences are desired. However, empirical studies that are related to education in PFL tend to recommend the use of the communicative- and task-based theoretical perspectives which inform the CELPE-BRAS examination as guidelines for curriculum development and teaching (see Bastos, 2016; Castro, 2006; Escarpinete and Costa, 2014; Fernandes, 2009; Kraemer, 2012; Mittelstadt, 2013, 2015; Reis and Durão, 2015). Those studies support the argument of Mickan (2013) in terms of the influence that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) still have on foreign language education.

Zoppi-Fontana and Diniz (2008) argue that CELPE-BRAS, as a policy and a proficiency examination, represents, to a certain extent, the decolonisation of the

Brazilian variety of Portuguese. Moreover, as guidelines for curriculum development and enactment, it represents an instrument through which the national and international circulation and promotion of PFL can be managed (ibid). Despite acknowledging the importance of the CELPE-BRAS examination in certifying proficiency in PFL and in representing an official language policy for PFL, the theoretical perspectives that inform the examination are outdated and do not reflect current research in foreign language education.

For that reason, in this thesis, the perspectives that inform CELPE-BRAS are critically reviewed and challenged in order to address the theoretical and pedagogical gaps between education in PFL and foreign language education. Informed by theoretical underpinnings related to (a) policy making and enactment; (b) language policy and language-in-education policy; (c) foreign language education, critical pedagogy and intercultural communication pedagogy; and (d) curriculum development and enactment for foreign language education, this study was guided by the following overarching question:

- What shapes and informs curriculum development for PFL courses which are offered by Brazilian public universities for PEC-G students?

Alongside this overarching research question, the following subsidiary research questions also guided this study:

- What are the key goals to be achieved by such PFL courses within this context?
- To what extent do syllabi, pedagogical materials, and teaching reflect the curriculum within this context?
- To what extent does institutional support influence the processes of structuring and/or re-structuring these PFL courses?

In order to answer these questions, every stage of this qualitative study was informed by Constructivist Grounded Theory (CGT). Nine PFL programme co-ordinators, representing seven of the twelve PFL programmes where the PEC-G students attended PFL courses in 2015, were recruited through purposive sampling to participate in extended, in-depth semi-structured tailored individual interviews. Initial interview data encouraged the recruitment, through theoretical sampling, of a second group of participants which comprised ten PFL teachers whose knowledge and involvement with the context of PEC-G had been emphasised by the PFL co-

ordinators. The ten PFL teachers also participated in extended, in-depth semi-structured tailored individual interviews. The main findings that were originated from the interview data confirmed that CELPE-BRAS influenced the development and enactment of curriculum for PFL courses within the PEC-G context.

1.2. Structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters and begins with this chapter, Chapter 1, which provides an introduction to the study. Chapter 2 contains a review of the relevant literature and is divided into four main sections. Section 2.2 reviews the relationship between the phenomena of globalisation, policy borrowing and academic research and the worldwide standardisation of the processes of education policymaking and policy enactment. Section 2.3 further builds on the discussion of policymaking and policy enactment by emphasising the connection between language and language-in-education policy and the construction of dominant notions of language, culture, identity and society. Section 2.4 focuses on foreign language education by drawing a theoretical path from CLT- and TBLT-shaped teaching and learning to critically- and interculturality-informed pedagogy. Section 2.5 connects the previous sections by relating policy and theories to the development and enactment of curriculum for foreign language education.

Chapter 3 presents the context in which this study took place and is divided into four main sections. Section 3.2 introduces the main characteristics of the PEC-G. Section 3.3 focuses on CELPE-BRAS by reviewing relevant literature and official documents related to the theoretical perspectives on which it is based and a detailed description of its format is provided. Section 3.4 outlines the main characteristics of the language programmes in the twelve Brazilian public universities within which the PEC-G students were placed in 2015 to study PFL. Section 3.5 summarises the chapter and connects the research context with the literature which has been reviewed in earlier sections; the prioritisation of theoretical perspectives within the field of foreign language education, which are not current, is discussed, and the chapter concludes with the research questions.

Chapter 4 outlines the methods and methodological considerations which informed the development of this research project and is divided into six main sections. Section 4.2 provides a rationale for the approach that determined the overall research design, namely CGT. Section 4.3 outlines and justifies the sampling strategies and the

procedures by which the two sets of participants were recruited, and an account is given of the criteria which informed sampling decisions. Section 4.4 discusses ethical issues with regard to informed consent, privacy, disclosure, and translation. Section 4.5 presents the methods for data gathering, which involved in-depth semi-structured interviews, and a detailed account of the planning, execution and fine-grained inductive, deductive and abductive analysis of the data is provided. Section 4.6 describes the strategies adopted for data storage and for reference management. In Section 4.7, an outline of and a justification for the strategies which were used to increase research quality – validation, trustworthiness, and reflexivity – is provided.

Chapter 5, which is divided into three main sections, presents the findings that derived from the interviews with the nine PFL co-ordinators and ten PFL teachers who participated in this study. Section 5.2 outlines the major findings concerning what influences, shapes and/or informs the process of curriculum development for PFL courses within the context of PEC-G. Section 5.3 focuses on the findings regarding the role of CELPE-BRAS in the process of curriculum enactment and how certain notions of language, language use, competence and culture can be promoted through the PFL courses for PEC-G students. In Section 5.4, attention turns to the findings related to the co-ordinators' and teachers' perceptions on institutional support and how such support can affect the PFL programmes at the universities.

Chapter 6, the Discussion chapter, is divided into four main sections. Section 6.2 provides answers to the research questions and considers the role of Portuguese within the universities' internationalisation agendas with regard to CELPE-BRAS' influence on the processes of curriculum development and enactment. In Section 6.3, there is a recommendation that the communicative-based notions of language, language use, competence and culture should be revisited and considered through the lens of Critical Pedagogy and Intercultural Communication Pedagogy. Possible implications of such theoretical shift for the development of PFL courses for PEC-G students are then considered. Section 6.4 presents the theoretical and methodological contributions to knowledge which are provided by this study, reflects upon the limitations of this small-scale qualitative study, and suggests further research which could usefully be conducted.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews the theoretical foundations which inform the present study. The review draws a path which intertwines the following areas of enquiry: (a) policy making and enactment; (b) language policy and language-in-education policy; (c) foreign language education and intercultural communication; and (d) curriculum development and enactment for foreign language education.

In Section 2.2, Ball, Maguire and Braun's (2012) definition of education policy is presented so a comparison between purposes for policy making and processes of enactment can be established. According to Ball (1998, 2001) and Ozga and Jones (2006) several phenomena, such as globalisation, policy borrowing, and academic research, contribute to the development of similar educational policies worldwide. These similarities are argued to reflect a standardisation process rather than a representation of specificities within different contexts (Fullan, 2007; Nudzor, 2009). Furthermore, practitioners' participation in policymaking can be limited to policy enactment, which means, interpreting, contextualising and putting in practice predetermined policies. Being left out from decision-making processes may affect practitioners' sense of engagement in enacting policies in which they cannot recognise their own realities and needs (Hargreaves, 2009; Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009).

In Section 2.3, the discussion about policy is taken further by emphasising language issues and their influence in language-in-education policy. Three concepts of language – language as system, language as discourse, and language as ideology – are reviewed in terms of how they interact with each other (Chomsky, 1965; Gnerre, 1991; Halliday, 1973; Hymes, 1972, 1974; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Language can become a means through which notions of society, identity, and culture are constructed. Language planning and policy, in turn, establish and/or promote such constructions as criteria for those to whom citizenship is granted (Appiah, 2006b, 2006a; Bagno, 2007; Guilherme, 2006). Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) and Liddicoat (2013) argue that language-in-education policies, which are intertwined with language planning and policy, tend to enforce the development of language abilities which are

perceived as socially, culturally, and economically desired by local and global contexts.

In Section 2.4, foreign language education is presented in terms of globalisation and internationalisation agendas within education systems. Communicative Language Teaching and Task-based Language Teaching have their contribution and limitations discussed (Breen and Candlin, 1980; Canale, 1983; Canale and Swain, 1980; Nunan, 1991, 2004; Widdowson, 1989). Reconceptualised notions of competence (intercultural communication competence), awareness (critical cultural awareness) and idealised speaker (intercultural speaker) are reviewed regarding their relationship with foreign language education (Byram, 1997, 2008; Guilherme, 2006, 2012; Kramsch, 2005). Inspired by the concept of *conscientização*, criticality and interculturality contribute to foreign language education and the development of intercultural citizenship (Freire, 1973, 1987, 2005; Giroux, 2003, 2006; Guilherme, 2012). Furthermore, Guilherme's (2014) and Kramsch's (2009, 2011) viewpoints concerning interculturality propose, respectively, foreign language education for cosmopolitan citizenship and development of multilingual subject's symbolic competence.

In Section 2.5, curriculum development is discussed considering its relationship with social contexts in which it is enacted (Barnett, 2009; Moore, 2000). By reviewing Eisner's (1990) distinction between the intended curriculum and the operational curriculum, the role of the teacher, who interprets and moderates different dimensions of curriculum, is highlighted. The influence of Communicative Language Teaching in developing curriculum for foreign language education is reviewed through Mikan's (2013) perspectives and exemplified by current Brazilian guidelines. Richards (2001a, 2001b) proposes a dimensional framework, which is adaptable and open to contextualised interpretations, on which course development can be based. It is also argued that textbooks and proficiency examinations can shape decisions concerning syllabus design, which may directly affect foreign language practitioners' curriculum enactment.

2.2. Policy making and enactment

This section reviews different perspectives concerning how education policymaking and enactment affect society due to the political and ideological purposes that are established by those involved in such processes (Ball, 1990, 1998, 2013; Ward and

Eden, 2009). Three distinct, yet potentially concomitant, phenomena – globalisation, policy borrowing, and academic research – have their roles in decision-making processes related to policy making discussed and reviewed (Ball, 1998, 2001, Ozga and Jones, 2006). Considering the generalisation of the content that is proposed by policymakers worldwide, local specificities seem to be dismissed alongside those involved with policy enactment within those contexts. This top-down approach, it is argued, enlarges the gap between policymakers' and practitioners' viewpoints; moreover, it may demand extra efforts from practitioners to (re)contextualise policies in order to achieve broader and more diverse representation (Ball, Maguire and Braun, 2012; Fullan, 2007; Nudzor, 2009).

2.2.1. Education Policy

Education policy represents a set of validated values defining what counts as education (Ball, 1990). Shared by certain existing social classes and/or projected as standards expected from an ideal society, these values are usually connected to interests regarding domination and power. In this sense, education policies are instruments through which the state controls and/or moulds the lives of individuals and therefore must be treated as political and ideological acts (Ward and Eden, 2009). Policies are said to be rhetorically built to devalue the present situation, since they are future-oriented, a project to develop what a specific society needs according to policymakers (Ball, 2013). However, new policies rarely bring current policies to an end as they overlap and tend to keep a sense of change and continuity.

These limited, yet plausible, ways of seeing policy focus on a normative analysis of policy as a final result, a unilateral government response to some sort of social need for change. Ball, Maguire and Braun (2012) argue that 'the meaning of policy itself is frequently just taken for granted' and/or defined superficially as an attempt to "solve a problem" (p. 9). This misconception fails to recognise all the influences, moments and agents involved in the different processes of policy making and enactment. By considering education policy as 'texts and "things" (legislations and national strategies) but also as 'discursive processes', opportunities and constraints for both writing and interpreting such documents can be recognised (ibid). The main issues discussed in following sections are (a) what and who inform and shape the processes of policy making; and (b) how are these policies enacted and by whom.

2.2.2. Education Policy making

According to Ball (1998), every decision about educational reform is related to two policy agendas. 'The first aims to tie education more closely to national economic interests, while the second involves a decoupling of education from direct state control' (p. 125). Although those agendas can seem to oppose each other, they work together on the development of basic and generic policies. National policy might present requirements concerning education in a way that appears to be encouraging autonomy to educational institutions in applying those requirements. As an example of such practice, Brazilian policy documents for Primary School Levels state that:

An educational proposal must aim to promote quality in education to all students. The quality in education that society needs is represented by the possibility of an education system which provides educational practices fitting the social, political, economic, and cultural reality of Brazil. Also, students' interests and motivations should be considered so that essential learning can take place in order to develop autonomous and critical citizens. (Brasil, 1997, p. 27)

The citation presents as objectives of the education system the development of human capital; promotion of citizenship through national identity; and a sense of equality. It over-simplifies the importance of quality in education to develop citizens by not problematising the many sociocultural, political and economic Brazilian contexts. Relying on similar rhetoric and generalisations, several education policy documents suggest social matters to be addressed by schools without actually proposing strategies for practice (Ball, 1999). Claiming to have the needs of society in mind when recommending goals for education to be achieved through autonomous practice, policymakers may exonerate themselves from the responsibility for dealing with certain issues without being accused of failing to address them. Who decides on society's needs, and who selects which needs should be mentioned in education policy documents, are vaguely or not at all revealed.

Ball (1990) convincingly argues that the complexity of plural and/or large societies cannot be fully represented in one national education policy document, since these policies used to be shaped by decisions only regarding the needs of labour market to produce human capital. In other words, the government is not independent from the influences of the private sector. Local, national, and international markets seem to have more and more power over the development of education policies (ibid). Consequently, it might be difficult to distinguish between policies proposed by

opposing parties in the same country or by different state-nations. These similarities in educational policies that are developed worldwide have been eloquently attributed to various phenomena, three of which are relevant to this study due to the contexts that were investigated (see Chapters 3 and 4): (1) globalisation; (2) policy borrowing; and (3) academic research (Ball, 1998, 2001; Ozga and Jones, 2006).

2.2.2.1. Globalisation

Globalisation is problematised by Delanty (2000) and seen as a 'field of tensions in which cultures are more exposed to each other' (p. 85). It is believed that this scenario 'simply facilitates intercivilizational encounters'; moreover, it is argued that people play the role of agents, creating globalisation and therefore generating such encounters (ibid). Not all cultures participate equally in these encounters. The uneven power relation between geopolitical units, usually based on degrees of democracy and/or capitalism, helps to define the dynamics of domination existing in agreements within and outside states. Sociocultural political and economic realities may influence, and/or be influenced by, globalising trends. Since education is one of these realities, the nature and extent of the effects of global factors in national policies are justly questioned (Dale, 2007).

'The "globalisation thesis" can be used to explain almost anything and everything and is ubiquitous in current policy documents' (Ball, 1998, p. 120). By foregrounding education policies, globalisation provides policymakers with the perfect excuse to reshape education systems. This reshaping might be perceived to be a mandatory action in order to foster citizens able to fit the new requirements of society (Ball, 1998). It is convincingly argued that individuals may require much more than the perspective of knowledge that is presented by policymakers (Ozga and Jones, 2006). Ball (2001) optimistically believes that globalisation does not destroy local contexts, but, rather, invades them by creating new collaboratively-constructed cultural identities. However, the influence of globalisation in education policy making might be seen as a way of blurring distinctions between global and local contexts by evidencing and valuing characteristics of the dominant contexts (Ozga and Lingard, 2007). Considering each of these compelling viewpoints, the section which follows discusses some possible outcomes of the policy borrowing processes.

2.2.2.2. Education Policy Borrowing

Education policy borrowing involves 'the appropriation of identifiable aspects of another country's policy solutions, including ways of implementing and administering them' (Halpin and Troyna, 1995, p. 304). This process is said to be facilitated by globalisation and general information exchanges among policymakers; moreover, it should consider the intrinsic political and ideological characteristics of the education systems that are involved to increase the likelihood of success (Halpin and Troyna, 1995). This argument, however, fails to address two issues which are especially relevant to this thesis. First, education policy borrowing can occur *within* education systems, and thus be an *internal* policy borrowing process, which is often the situation in large countries such as Brazil, where individual states have some autonomy to develop their own policies. Second, it suggests that every country has a homogeneous education system whose intrinsic characteristics are shared by all the contexts forming it. Ball (2001) defines the process of policy making as follows:

[A] process of bricolage; a matter of borrowing and copying bits and pieces of ideas from elsewhere, drawing upon and amending locally tried-and-tested approaches, cannibalising theories, research, trends and fashions, and not infrequently a flailing around for anything at all that looks as though it might work (p. 30).

This perspective presents the process of policy making as a selection of popular solutions regardless of the problem. Policy borrowing may go beyond the process of importing solutions; it can also import problems. Freire (1973, 1979a, 1979b) sensibly opposes such a practice in Brazil for its submissive position towards education policies from dominant countries. By importing formulae, rather than ideas or possibilities, solutions and problems from elsewhere are transplanted from one society into another. Such borrowed solutions are 'neither generated by a critical analysis of the context itself, nor adequately adapted to the context, [and they thus] prove inoperative and unfruitful' (Freire, 1973, p. 13). Research into what problems exist in a particular context is one way to promote the development of potentially well-contextualised education policies. However, the impartiality of the relationship between research and policy making is questioned (Byrne and Ozga, 2008). It is to this relationship and its possible consequences that the following section turns.

2.2.2.3. Relationship between research and education policy

Whitty (2006) suggests that we should distinguish between “education research” – referring to the whole field – and “educational research” – ‘research for work that is consciously geared towards improving policy and practice’ (p. 173). The question about what kind of relationship research and policy have, and what kind of relationship they should have, is relevant for governments seeking ‘guidance from research in shaping “evidence-based” or “evidence-informed” policies’ (Byrne and Ozga, 2008, p. 377). What counts as evidence and the kinds of autonomy that researchers have are questions which are worthy of investigation (Byrne and Ozga, 2008). In other words, does research inform policy or is research tailored to justify decisions that have already been made? Do policy makers consider the different issues explored by researchers and the diverse contexts in which research takes place or do they purposely select certain aspects which fit their own agendas?

The definition and understanding of research also influences its relationship with education policy. This relationship is effectively conceptualised as (a) instrumental, which proposes a more linear, problem-solving approach; (b) interactive or enlightenment, which relies on networking of different socio-political groups; and (c) tactical, which limits research to a predetermined policy position (Byrne and Ozga, 2008). It is argued that most of educational research conducted by universities tends to be prioritised (Ozga and Jones, 2006). In Brazil, for example, academic educational research is considered a fairly new field (Mainardes and Gandin, 2013).

Including practitioners in the discussions prior to writing policy documents might promote a sense of democratic participation; however, that does not necessarily mean that practitioners are involved as much as they could/should be (Fávero, Horta and Frigotto, 1992; Cury, 1996). Researchers, in this scenario, seem to have a double task: to present policy-makers’ decisions as well as to convince practitioners to adopt them. As presented in Chapter 4, participants in the current research study represented, simultaneously, both groups, researchers and teachers. For this reason, the next section discusses practitioners’ participation in the policymaking process, which is usually restricted to implementation, and how they enact such policies by (re)writing and (re)contextualising them.

2.2.3. Policy Enactment

Dissonant viewpoints between policymakers and practitioners are attributed to incorrect assumptions made by the former regarding the realities of the latter (Nudzor, 2009). Considering researchers' perspectives to be more relevant than practitioners' for education policymaking may greatly influence practitioners' engagement with policies' orientations (Fullan, 2007). This highlights the need for practitioners to participate in and have their perspectives taken into consideration during the policymaking processes and be included in the discussion, rather than simply being informed about predetermined decisions. As important agents of the policymaking processes, policymakers' and educational researchers' possible roles are briefly discussed in Section 2.2. This section, however, focuses on the role of practitioners, whose participation and stances are central for this thesis.

Studies regarding policy being put into practice characterise implementation as a top-down process which is linear and conceptually indistinguishable from one context to another (Ball, Maguire and Braun, 2012). These approaches view 'all policies and all schools and all teachers in the same way' and therefore they do not recognise 'the different cultures, histories, traditions and communities of practice that co-exist in schools' (Ball et al., 2012, p. 10-11). By focusing on decontextualised implementation, this homogenised portrait does not capture the complexity of how different policies are worked out in diverse contexts by several actors. Enacting, rather than implementing, is the way education policy gets 'diversely and repeatedly contested and/or subject to different "interpretations" within institutions and classrooms' by practitioners (Ball et al., 2012, p. 9). It is in schools where teachers and other practitioners can make sense of policies; it is in schools where the dynamism and the complexity of policy enactment contrast with the linearity and the homogeneity policy implementation suggests.

Since policy is done by and for teachers, not only are teachers actors in the process of policymaking and enactment but they are also subjects to and objects of policy (Ball et al., 2012). Despite being portrayed inaccurately as idealised homogeneous practitioners who have been produced by some education policies, groups of teachers have different goals and agendas which may or may not be in harmony with one another or with policies (Nudzor, 2009). By processes of (re)contextualisation, that is adapting policies to the contexts where they are being enacted, practitioners have the difficult job of combining vague and, at times, ambiguous and/or competing policies (Ball et al., 2012). Thus, policy enactors, perhaps even more than policymakers, have

to compromise so that the diverse contexts within the schools where policies are enacted can be represented. The representation of such diverse contexts is fundamental for just as they create a portrait of idealised teachers, education policies can also create idealised contexts.

In order to highlight the importance of context, an insightful framework for policy enactment, developed by Ball et al. (2012), suggests that there are four contextual dimensions which must be taken into consideration individually and in relation to one another. These are the four overlapping and interconnected contextual dimensions:

- (a) situated contexts, which refer to locally and historically related aspects;
- (b) professional cultures, which are concerned with teachers' values and commitments;
- (c) material contexts, which are represented by physical aspects of a school; and
- (d) external contexts.

Based on, but not limited to, those contextual dimensions, practitioners can make sense of education policies by processes of interpretation – 'engaging with the languages of policy' – and translation – 'closer to the languages of practice' (Ball et al., 2012, p. 42). While interpretation requires reading, retrospectively and prospectively decoding when considering the institution's contextual dimensions, translating involves taking a hybrid space, a position between policy and practice. These two distinctive, yet intertwined, actions enact education policies in 'many moments, in various sites, in diverse forms, in many combinations and interplays' (Ball et al., 2012, p. 64).

As an attempt to investigate and identify different roles and actions performed by practitioners who are involved with policy enactment through processes of interpretation and translation, eight distinct policy actors or positions are described as follows:

- (1) narrators are in charge of interpreting, selecting and enforcing meanings, that is, they filter, explain policy to colleagues, and announce what must, can and cannot be done;
- (2) entrepreneurs or policy advocates rework and recombine several aspects of different policies making sure that others, who identify with policy ideas and are invested in enacting them, can engage in developing a critical movement towards change;

- (3) outsiders are individuals who do not develop their practice inside the school but contribute to processes of enactment by sharing their interpretation of policies;
- (4) transactors can be either responsible for policy accountability and monitoring or supporting and facilitating. The first kind is seen to be a time-consuming focus-diverting role based on low trust whereas the second kind is perceived to be a collective effort to engage the school community in interpreting policy to create support;
- (5) enthusiasts or policy models simultaneously translate and enact policy through their practice;
- (6) translators usually organise and produce events, processes and institutional texts of policy for others;
- (7) critics present a counterdiscourse to those of enthusiasts and translators by problematizing policy and/or its interpretation and therefore resisting to policy enactment;
- (8) receivers, mostly represented by newly-qualified teachers, look for more experienced teachers' guidance and rely on the other actors' interpretation and translation of policy (Ball, Maguire and Braun, 2012).

These categories of actors are not intended to determine or to limit practitioners' roles because, as enactors, their roles might combine many aspects to suit the multidimensionality of policy enactment. This multidimensionality of change in practice needs consideration during policy enactment, which means prioritising 'material change, change in teaching approaches, and change of beliefs' (Fullan, 2007, p. 30). Resistance and/or lack of commitment to imposed policies and changes might emerge (Hargreaves, 2009; Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009). Nevertheless, engagement can be achieved when meaning is shared through collective authorship regarding education policy.

This first section of the Literature Review Chapter has provided a discussion about education policymaking and enactment in terms of how such processes may affect society due to political and ideological purposes that are established by governmental agendas. Three key phenomena – globalisation, policy borrowing, and academic research – and the perceived influence that they have in the generalisation of policy content worldwide have been reviewed. Focusing on the importance of taking local contexts into consideration, practitioners' efforts in concomitantly (re)contextualising

general and, at times, opposite, policies have been presented as alternatives to achieve broader and more diverse representation. The following section narrows the discussion regarding policy making and enactment by reviewing literature on language and language-in-education policies.

2.3. Language Policy and Language-in-education Policy

This section begins by reviewing different definitions of language – language as system, language as discourse, and language as ideology – in order to reflect upon notions of competence (Chomsky, 1965; Halliday, 1973; Hymes, 1974; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Political and ideological perspectives of language and competence can be used as instruments to establish and/or promote idealised and homogeneous conceptions of society, identity, citizenship, and culture (Appiah, 2006a, 2006b; Bagno, 2007; Guilherme, 2006; Jackson, 2013; Kramsch, 2013; Osler and Starkey 2005; Risager, 2007). The role played by processes of language planning and language policy are reviewed in terms of their use as mechanisms through which certain language varieties are granted the status of official and/or standard while others are rejected (Baldauf, Jr., 2008; Lo Bianco, 2001; Spolsky, 2004; Tollefson, 1981). The section also provides a discussion on the influence of globalisation and internationalisation in language-in-education policies and the development of an under-represented monolingual education system by focusing on certain languages and/or language varieties which are perceived as socially, culturally, and economically desired (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997; Liddicoat, 2013; Spolsky, 2004).

2.3.1. Language

Language can be defined in many ways, depending on the objective of those seeking and/or offering such definitions. For understanding language and its relevance for language education, which is discussed further in Sections 2.3.2 and 2.4, three conceptual viewpoints are highlighted: language as system; language as discourse; and language as ideology (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Considering language as system, ‘an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community who knows its language perfectly’ is argued to be the set for performance to reflect competence (Chomsky, 1965, p. 3). The distinction made between ‘competence’ (the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of his language) and ‘performance’ (the actual use of

language in concrete situations) aims to discover the mental reality behind the actual behaviour (Chomsky, 1965, p. 4). Nevertheless, for portraying a homogeneous speech community and an artificial idealised speaker-hearer rather than a language user, Kumaravadivelu, (2006) argues that Chomsky's theory of linguistic competence is a theory of 'grammatical competence' (p. 6). The main objective is to understand language as a mechanism and not as a communicative instrument for social interaction.

Language as discourse goes beyond language as system by treating language as a vehicle for communication (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Discourse can be defined as follows:

[A]n instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning (e.g., words, structures, cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and given audience/interlocutor (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000, p. 4).

Emphasising a contextualised use of language can add a communicative aspect to Chomsky's theory or reject it completely. Halliday (1973) rejects the focus on decontextualised units of grammatical structures which are internal to the learner. By defining language as 'meaning potential, as sets of options in meaning that are available to the speaker-hearer in social contexts', language becomes a means through which one can function socially (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 8). From this functional perspective, 'the multiplicity of social uses of language' is represented by 'highly abstract linguistic reflexes' called "macrofunctions" (Halliday, 1973, p. 36).

These macrofunctions are clarified as follows:

The *ideational function* represents the individual's meaning potential and relates to the expression and experience of the concepts, processes, and objects governing the physical and natural phenomena of the world around. The *interpersonal function* deals with the individual's personal relationships with people. The *textual function* refers to the linguistic realisations of the ideational and interpersonal functions enabling the individual to construct coherent texts, spoken or written (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 8, italics in original).

For Halliday (1973), the interplay of these functions produces language communication and it is through this interplay that language can have its meaning potential achieved. It is clear that this viewpoint sees language use to be intrinsically

connected to a sociocultural setting. Thus, 'meaning potential is defined not in terms of the mind but in terms of the culture; not as what the speaker knows, but as what he can do' (Halliday, 1973, p. 52). Unlike Halliday, Hymes (1964, 1972) attempts to expand Chomsky's notion of competence rather than replace it by proposing ethnographies of communication and re-conceptualising communicative competence as a combination of both knowledge, or grammatical competence, and ability for use, or sociolinguistic competence. Interrelated factors, which vary from culture to culture, are identified as the basis for establishing the rules of language use in a given context. Hymes (1974) uses an acronym, SPEAKING, to describe these flexible factors, which are fundamental for the development of tasks for the CELPE-BRAS examination (see Chapter 3), as follows:

- **s**etting and scene: place and time in which a certain speech act occurs;
- **p**articipants: speakers and hearers and their respective roles during a speech act;
- **e**nds: established or unestablished purposes, goals, and outcomes aimed by participants;
- **a**ct sequence: form, order, and content of utterances;
- **k**ey: clues defining the tone, manner, or spirit of utterances;
- **i**nstrumentalities: forms or channels and styles or code of speech;
- **n**orms: rules or conventions of interactions and the participants' actions and reactions;
- **g**enre: the kind or category of communication event.

It is possible to understand how both Halliday and Hymes, use Chomsky's theory to propose, respectively, a new perspective and an expanded perspective. Nevertheless, it is rightly argued that neither of their viewpoints critically adds an ideological aspect to the definition of language (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). The concept of language as ideology echoes 'the ideologically grounded perceptions and practices of language use that are shaped and reshaped by dominant institutional forces, historical processes, and vested interests' (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 13). In other words, language, and consequently meaning, can be defined through power relations. Criticality towards sociological analysis of power and its connection to language is proposed in order to 'explore how power may operate rather than demonstrate its

existence' (Pennycook, 2001, p. 93). Thus, language as ideology 'goes way beyond the confines of systemic and discursal features of language, and locates it as a site for power and domination', a vehicle through which certain vested interests can be imposed (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 16).

Language as ideology can also be connected to the idea of acceptance and rejection of certain language varieties, since members within a given context, even when belonging to the same speech community, contribute to the community's linguistic diversity and hybridity (Gnerre, 1991). Language can be a means through which groups are included or excluded from society, since notions of society itself, alongside identity, culture, and citizenship, can be developed in relation to concepts of language (Appiah, 2006a, 2006b; Bagno, 2007; Guilherme, Pureza, Silva and Santos, 2006; Guilherme, 2006; Jackson, 2013; Kramsch, 2013; Risager, 2007). The following sections present a discussion concerning how language planning and language policy can be used as some of the mechanisms through which language becomes an instrument for establishing and promoting an idealised homogeneous definition of society.

2.3.1.1. Identity, Culture, Society, and Citizenship

If 'to be human is to engage in relationships with others and with the world', passivity must not take place; otherwise, changes will not be made in a critical and just way (Freire, 1973, p. 3). Silenced, rather than silent, societies can be persuaded to believe that they have a voice by echoing dominant classes' values (Freire, 1985). In some cases, in Brazil for instance, as argued by Freire (1973), dominant classes themselves are silenced by imperialist perspectives which they believe, or are convinced to believe, to represent their own values.

[T]he point of reference for the majority of Brazilian intellectuals was Brazil as an object of European or North American thought. As a rule, they thought about Brazil from a non-Brazilian point of view; our cultural development was judged according to criteria and perspectives in which Brazil itself constituted a foreign element (p. 39).

What Freire (1985, p. 72) calls a 'culture of silence' creates the perfect environment for domination to take place and the only way to resist it is by understanding it and recognising whose cultures establish the dominant voices. The task of recognising such voices is neither easy nor straightforward, since their propagation might not

happen in an obvious way. Brookfield (2005) argues that, by the process of hegemony, 'we learn to embrace enthusiastically a system of beliefs and practices that end up harming us and working to support the interests of others who have power over us' (p. 94). A system of ideas is systematically and, especially, ideologically built, altered, and presented so that the interests of a particular group of people can be imposed on others in a way that seems natural and neutral.

Holliday (2012) contends that efforts to portray society as a homogenised entity by creating a national culture and a national identity are ideologically-driven projects developed to suit different political ideologies and agendas. Such ideologies and agendas become hegemony when everyday decisions and judgments are based on the dominant ideas – which are usually reinforced by mass media and infiltrate the entire society (Brookfield, 2005). Standards, with which members of a certain society must comply to be considered citizens, are created and/or enforced by nation-states through a set of political, social, cultural, and economic apparatuses. Osler and Starkey (2005, p. 9) argue that, as a 'site of political struggle', citizenship is (a) a status – the relationship between the citizens and the state; (b) a feeling – a sense of belonging and/or identification to a group of citizens; and (c) a practice – an awareness of oneself as an active individual living in society. This argument suggests that citizenship has three mutually reinforcing dimensions which are, to a certain extent, subject to the state and to actions that promote equality, fairness, and inclusiveness.

Citizenship, in this sense, cannot be self-granted but it is earned through compliance; moreover, citizenship, as described by Delanty (2000, p. 23) 'is reduced to a formalistic relationship to the state', that is, a false sense of belonging to a national community whose members allegedly share the same sociocultural values, rights, and duties. Despite recognising the importance of exercising citizenship via democratic participation in the public discussion of society, Appiah (2006a) presents a relevant argument regarding the role of language in this matter. According to Appiah (2006a), language is one of the instruments through which citizenship can be exercised; however, language can also be used as a mechanism for exclusion through which citizenship is denied.

The concept of language is usually connected, even if implicitly, to the concept of citizenship and both of them, in turn, can be linked, according to Guilherme (2007), to 'notions of nationality in political thought and, consequently, they have also been

presented in educational policies' (p. 72). Despite being called a 'fiction', a symbol, 'a story people tell themselves' about their origin, the sense of nationality, alongside perspectives regarding citizenship, education, and language, contributes to the establishment of the structure of the nation-state (Giroux and McLaren, 1994, p. 225; Guilherme, 2007). Although globalisation has helped to deconstruct the hegemony of a nation-state in granting citizenship to members of society, language still plays a crucial role in this matter.

Shohamy (2006) argues that language is still used to 'create membership, to demonstrate inclusion and exclusion, to determine loyalty or patriotism, to show economic status, and classification of people's identities' (p. xv). Moreover, the promotion of particular languages or varieties, established as national languages or standard varieties, over others may undermine possibilities of linguistic choices and/or encourage adaptations for those whose languages or varieties differ from the idealised ones (Noels, Yashima and Zhang, 2012). Such linguistic choices can be limited, negotiable or simply imposed, depending on the socio-political context in which language planning actions and/or language policies take place (García, 2012). The following sections discuss briefly how social identities and citizenship can be shaped, legitimised, and promoted through language planning and language policy. This reflection is important for our understanding of decisions that are specifically related to language-in-education policies which tend to validate political agendas concerning language through education systems. This theme will be returned to in Section 2.3.2.

2.3.1.2. Language Planning

Language planning can be defined as 'deliberate, future-oriented systematic change of language code', traditionally undertaken by governments in a top-down approach which aims to promulgate language policies containing goals to be achieved by the society in its entirety (Baldauf, Jr., 2008, p. 19; Jernudd and Nekvapil, 2012). Language planning can be characterised as conscious efforts 'to affect the structure and function of language varieties' (Tollefson, 1981, p. 338). That is, formulation and implementation of plans intending to take official actions to change specific aspects of language use through a 'nationalist project' (Wright, 2012, p. 63). When a certain language or variety is established as official by the nation-state or other institutions of power, a sense of neutrality might also be presented (Edwards, 2012; Gnerre, 1991).

Nevertheless, all those definitions hitherto presented state that decisions related to language planning are not neutral. On the contrary, they are part of a political agenda, which can be broader or purely linguistic, with clear objectives for the language code(s) being used in a specific context.

Standard languages, despite preceding nation-states, have been claimed as national languages as a way for nation-states to control people's languages and cultures while inside a certain territory (Lo Bianco, 2001). As previously mentioned, one of the prerequisites to having citizenship granted is to be part of the group of individuals whose language(s) or variety(ies) correspond to the official one(s). For Spolsky (2004, p. 10), since 'language and other varieties are made up of a conventionally-agreed set of choices of linguistic units', noncompliance is common for members of a speech community who share more than language practices; they also share beliefs, values, and ideologies. Thus, different speech communities might attribute their own levels of prestige to the varieties that are used by their members. However, official language planning has the power to stigmatise languages and varieties which occur naturally in several contexts.

Bagno (2007) argues that the languages and varieties which are officially prioritised 'are partial (literally and figuratively)', they represent the 'tip of an iceberg' whereas language itself is 'an enormous iceberg constantly floating' (p. 9). This comparison clearly suggests that only a small portion of what people use as language is actually recognised and valued by society. The urge to standardise and control language is motivated by 'a belief in correctness, that there is a correct and desirable form of language, distinct from normal practice' (Spolsky, 2004, p. 27). This process enforces a particular set of norms which can encourage others to adapt their own linguistic behaviours to particular ways; otherwise, members of speech communities which are considered ideal can potentially exercise power over those whose languages or varieties are seen as nonstandard (Liddicoat and Baldauf, Jr, 2008).

In complex and diverse contexts, such as those selected for this research (see Chapters 3 and 4), it is important to adapt national language planning to local realities. Considering that 'no macro-level policy is transmitted directly and unmodified to a local context', language planning that is created locally may generate local ownership, one of many fundamental elements for determining failure or success (Liddicoat and Baldauf, Jr, 2008, p. 11). Just because language planning is locally developed and implemented it does not necessarily mean that it is less nationalist and normative. As

Liddicoat (2013) rightly highlights, language planning means intervening in the linguistic practices of a society with the main objective of influencing them. This intervention can occur in the following four core areas:

- (1) status planning which is the selection of language(s) and variety(ies) to perform particular functions in a society;
- (2) corpus planning which is the standardisation and codification of a language;
- (3) prestige or image planning which is the promotion of ways in which particular language or language varieties are perceived and valued by a community; and
- (4) language-in-education or acquisition planning which represents decisions regarding teaching and learning of languages (Liddicoat, 2013).

Such interventions or language planning are formalised through language policies which are discussed in the next section.

2.3.1.3. Language Policy

Considered a particular area of language planning, language policy can be generally defined as an official action taken by the government which might affect language structure and use (Tollefson, 1981). The language policy of a certain speech community has three distinct components: (a) language practices, recognised varieties of use to specific communicative functions; (b) language beliefs or ideology about its use, assigned values to certain varieties over others; and (c) language intervention, planning or management, efforts by some members of the community to change or influence language practice of others (Spolsky, 2004; 2012). As previously clarified, language policy is intrinsically linked to a specific and/or broader political agenda and therefore its development is ideologically motivated. Language policy is related to power and it can be used as an official apparatus through which interests of certain groups are represented, thus reproducing inequality within the larger society (Tollefson and Tsui, 2004).

Language policy, as a 'form of state disciplinary power', is rightly argued to be one of the main mechanisms by which citizenship is granted or denied (Tollefson, 1993, p. 92). Establishing a certain speech community's language as national language, for example, can reduce language's role to a symbol of commonality amongst members of an entire society (Sonntag, 1995). This may diminish access to basic rights of members from other speech communities where the national language is not

recognised or prioritised (Wringe, 1996). Three types of countries are socially and ethnolinguistically defined: (1) homogeneous countries, where linguistic minorities are perceived to be small and geographically and/or socially marginalised; (2) dyadic (or triadic) countries, where two or three ethnolinguistic groups equally share power and representation; and (3) mosaic societies or multi-ethnic states (Spolsky, 2004). Since the contexts that were investigated were located in Brazil, which is considered implicitly to be a homogeneous country by official language and language-in-education policy documents, the first type is the most relevant for this thesis.

Liddicoat (2013) argues that through language policies, an idealised notion of a linguistically homogeneous country can be achieved when language plays the 'central role in the construction of nations as imagined communities by providing an important reference point for an index of national identity' (p. 5). This is apparent in the Constitution of Brazil (1988) which states that the Portuguese Language is the only official language in the entire national territory. Although the document notes that Braille and the Brazilian Sign Language are accepted as official languages, members of speech communities where exclusively indigenous, additional, and/or foreign languages are used for language practices are at a clear disadvantage when accessing legal, civil, and sociocultural rights. Citizenship, in this case, is achieved by a portion of the population whose linguistic abilities and language variety correspond to the variety that has been chosen as representative, as national language.

Education, one of the most important rights and claimed to be a constitutional right of all, is also part of the services guaranteed by the state; however, Portuguese is the language to be used in municipal, state, and federal public schools in the national territory (Brasil, 1988). Defining a certain language as the official language for educational purposes combines political and language ideologies into a broad framework of beliefs regarding sociocultural and political aspects (Liddicoat, 2013). This combination of ideologies may be implemented through teaching the language(s) which is/are established as official (as national, as shared by a society) as the sole means of instruction. The next sections discuss the way language-in-education policies shape language education by operating in different dimensions and how such policies can limit or expand sociocultural and linguistic access and participation.

2.3.2. Language-in-education policy

As discussed in Section 2.2, policy documents are more critically analysed when distinguished as ideological texts and as discourses; however, this distinction must be made while taking into consideration the interrelation of these two formats (Ball, 1990). As a text, policy is a contextualised piece of documentation which shapes and is shaped by relationships of power and inequality, whereas, as a discourse, policy combines its linguistic nature – ‘little d’ – and its interaction with multiple sociocultural practices – ‘big D’ (Liddicoat, 2013, p. 11). Language planning and policy and education have an intertwined relationship, since education plays two roles: ‘the object of work in language planning and policy and also the mechanism through which language planning and policy goals are achieved’ (Liddicoat, 2013, p. 5-6). In other words, language-in-education policies can be used to promote and implement the development of language abilities which are perceived as socially, culturally, and economically desired.

Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) define the ideal articulations, that language-in-education policies might enforce, by describing the following dimensions on which such policies focus:

- (a) access: which languages are to be studied and at which levels;
- (b) personnel: teacher recruitment, professional development and standards;
- (c) curriculum and community: what is to be taught and how, including desired outcomes and assessment instruments;
- (d) methods and materials: prescriptions of methodology and set of texts;
- (e) resourcing: decisions about levels of funding allocated to languages in an education system; and
- (f) evaluation: how the impact and effectiveness of such policies will be measured.

School is the most important domain for language policy, since it is through the education system that mastery of a selected official national standardised language is expected to be acquired (Spolsky, 2004). In countries such as Brazil, where a single language is constitutionally established as a medium of instruction, this language clause does not necessarily reflect the linguistic homogeneity of the country. On the contrary, it can be an ‘evidence that at one time the issue of language policy was of sufficient salience or political relevance’ so this monolingual model had to be made constitutionally established (Spolsky, 2004, p. 59). The main issue in promoting a

monolingual education system is inequality and lack of representation of varieties which differ from the one(s) that is/are considered standard.

Spolsky (1986) argues that being educated in official standard language(s) and/or variety(ies) is as much of a right as expecting one's own language(s) and/or variety(ies) to be acknowledged and respected by the education system. Nevertheless, it is a mistake to assume that widely-spoken languages are used as means of instruction, since over '2.3 billion people lack access to education in their first language' (Walter and Benson, 2012, p. 282). The absence of certain languages and/or varieties from education systems, especially when these under- or unrepresented varieties are stigmatised, may contribute to the cycle of exclusion by promoting 'linguistic prejudice' (Bagno, 2007, p. 12). This term neatly captures the discrimination suffered by members of society whose languages or varieties are not the idealised Portuguese variety that is promoted by Brazilian language-in-education policies. The Brazilian Constitution states that Portuguese is the national language so that Brazilian citizens can exercise their legal, social, cultural, and civil rights; however, Brazilian language-in-education policies seem to promote monolingualism as linguistic homogeneity (Bagno, 2007; Brasil, 1988).

Decisions regarding language in education do not take only linguistic issues into account; rather, they reflect the political, sociocultural, and economic realities in which languages are used (Shohamy, 2006). Especially, but not exclusively, in complex contexts, the construction of language-in-education policies prioritises issues which are worthy of attention and upon which actions can be taken (Liddicoat, 2013). Some matters are included and, consequently, become objects of action through language-in-education policies, whereas other matters are unrepresented by official documents. If selecting certain issues to be part of language-in-education policies is an ideological and political act, excluding other issues also seems to be an ideological and political choice.

Decisions regarding the medium of instruction are usually justified with pedagogical rationales; however, language-in-education policies are not developed out of a context, thus, socio-political forces influence policymakers and can shape their choices (Tollefson and Tsui, 2004). Brazilian language-in-education policies are exclusively applied to Primary and Secondary School Levels. Moreover, they establish Portuguese as the sole language of instruction, prioritise certain Portuguese varieties as the standard for Portuguese as Mother Tongue (PMT) curricula, and

suggest, implicitly or explicitly, Spanish and English as part of foreign language curricula (Brasil, 1997a, 1997b, 1998, 2000, 2006a, 2006b, 2006c). Such decisions are justified without being problematised properly, since these documents present general pedagogical and sociocultural rationales for their linguistic choices. Socio-political and cultural issues, especially those related to globalisation, are used to support some of the linguistic choices that are presented by the documents.

Given that policies mostly reflect the interests of social groups who dominate the state policymaking apparatus, language-in-education policies play an important role by revealing, through their development and enactment processes, the complexity of ethnolinguistic and social relations amongst those struggling for political and economic power (Tollefson and Tsui, 2004). Despite assuming a discourse which ensures equal educational opportunity, language-in-education policies, especially in liberal democratic states, are said to be 'paying lip-service to equality and opportunity' (Tollefson and Tsui, 2004, p. 286). This argument clearly illustrates the reality found in the contexts that were investigated by this research, since, in Brazil, language-in-education policies do not even mention the possibility of having Portuguese as a Foreign Language (PFL) as a medium of instruction in public educational institutions.

Walter and Benson (2012, p. 285) argue that 'dominant languages serve mainly to perpetuate educational and economic inequality'; moreover, it cannot be expected to be in the interest of all policymakers to develop language-in-education policies which actually improve education equally. Through language education, however, schools can challenge the status quo and promote awareness that non-dominant linguistic groups' languages can be used effectively to increase social participation (Walter and Benson 2012). The next section briefly discusses the relationship between language education and the phenomena of globalisation and internationalisation.

2.3.2.1. Language Education and the influences of Globalisation and Internationalisation

Byram (2008) argues that national education systems have three fundamental functions: (a) 'to create the human capital required in a country's economy'; (b) 'to develop a sense of national identity'; and (c) 'to promote equality or at least a sense of social inclusion' (p. 5). As discussed in Section 2.3.1.1, language and citizenship are strongly connected to notions of nationality and therefore this connection is frequently explicit in language-in-education policies through the use of idealised concepts as an attempt to consolidate the hegemony of the nation-state (Guilherme,

2007). Although it is possible to argue that the nation-state's hegemony concerning decisions regarding language-in-education policies has been challenged by numerous phenomena (such as globalisation and internationalisation), it seems inaccurate to assume that policymakers have lost control over language education.

As further discussed in Chapter 5, the contexts that were investigated in this study have been strongly influenced by institutional internationalisation agendas for the past few years. Language-in-education policies developed for the Brazilian education system, however, barely mention the influence of globalisation in their pedagogical and sociocultural choices and do not mention internationalisation at all; a situation that can be explained by the fact that such policies are supposed to regulate exclusively Primary and Secondary School Levels (Brasil, 1997b, 2000, 2006b). Internationalisation is said to be changing the scenario within higher education, whereas globalisation changes the scenario of internationalisation; yet, both phenomena are frequently perceived to be interchangeable, since it is difficult to define clearly what internationalisation is (Knight, 2004).

Both levels of internationalisation, institutional and national/sector, are said to be important; the national/sector level influences internationalisation through numerous initiatives (such as policy and funding) but it is at the institutional level that the process of internationalisation actually takes place (Knight, 2004). In this sense, defining internationalisation appears difficult because of its complexity and its flexibility according to the contexts where it occurs. Knight (2004) proposes a working definition of internationalisation as an attempt to make it generic enough to make sense in different sociocultural contexts and education systems. Internationalisation is defined as 'the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education' (Knight, 2004, p. 11).

Despite being the most cited definition, Knight's concept is arguably problematic because it assumes that universities used to have a national or local agenda and omits the level of integration desired (Maringe, Foskett and Woodfield, 2013). From this perspective, internationalisation is 'a value creation process, driven by forces of globalisation, through which universities seek to create greater global value to their constituencies' (Maringe et al., 2013, p. 11). This definition clearly seeks a closer relationship with globalisation without using both terms interchangeably. Maringe et al (2013) suggest that expected benefits and unanticipated consequences are strongly related to internationalisation. The values that are highlighted are 'strategic

and symbolic', knowledge or 'social and intellectual capital', 'cultural integration', and 'global market'; conversely, the risks are "brain drain", 'dominance of western hegemony', 'commodification of higher education', and 'perceived erosion of quality' (Maringe et al., 2013, p. 16).

The role of language education in internationalisation is important for facilitating this global integration of cultures and ideas. Two main concerns are addressed in terms of language education and its role in the processes of internationalisation: (1) the isolation of students sent to universities abroad as part of national or institutional internationalisation agenda; and (2) the implementation of English as language for Higher Education in countries where English is not the national language (Byram, 2012; Kerklaan, Moreira and Boersma, 2008; Soler-Carbonell and Gallego-Balsà, 2016). As discussed in Chapter 5, for the universities where this research took place, maintaining Portuguese as medium of instruction is part of the internationalisation agenda, at least for now; however, this decision may create a dilemma for the universities in terms of receiving international students.

In order to achieve their internationalisation goals, many universities transform their programmes and change their medium of instruction to English (Kerklaan, Moreira and Boersma, 2008). Some Nordic countries have already been debating the effect suffered by society in general by language-related transitions which are happening in academia (Soler-Carbonell and Gallego-Balsà, 2016). These concerns seem justifiable, since it is difficult to predict whether national languages can maintain their roles in Higher Education contexts or they will be overtaken by English. Although controversial for being simultaneously the language of imperialism and the language for human rights and intercultural exchanges, English dominates foreign language curricula throughout the world (Guilherme, 2007).

Byram (2008) believes that language-in-education policies promoting diversity in non-anglophone countries 'run against the trend' and therefore may have their development or enactment compromised (p. 11). In the case of Brazil, language-in-education policies developed to Primary and Secondary School Levels encourage diversity regarding foreign language education when this is feasible, but English and Spanish are recommended more frequently (Brasil, 1998, 2000). The lack of official language-in-education policies for Higher Education, even for institutions that are managed by Federal Government, allows each university to make their own decisions and develop their own policies regarding this matter. Institutional initiatives, combined

with the decision to maintain Portuguese as medium of instruction in Brazilian public universities, are part of the internationalisation agendas within the context that was investigated, and details are presented and discussed in Chapter 5.

This section has reviewed definitions of language – language as system, language as discourse, and language as ideology – to reflect upon notions of competence. Since perspectives of language and competence can be used as instruments to establish and/or promote idealised and homogeneous conceptions of society, identity, citizenship, and culture, processes of language planning and language policy play a key role as mechanisms through which these viewpoints are made official. The section has also provided a discussion regarding the influence of globalisation and internationalisation in language-in-education policies and the implementation of education systems which focus on prioritising certain languages and/or language varieties while excluding others. The following section reviews a broad range of perspectives concerning foreign language education and theoretical perspectives applied to it.

2.4. Foreign Language Education and Intercultural Communication

This section provides a comprehensive review of the literature regarding foreign language and the various sociocultural and linguistic perspectives which are intrinsically connected to pedagogies for foreign language education. The section begins with a brief discussion concerning different viewpoints and approaches through which foreign language teaching has been established. Communicative Language Teaching and Task-based Language Teaching are reviewed considering their contributions – such as the notion of communicative competence which focus on language as system and discourse and the development of a framework for pedagogical sequence – and limitations – such as their understanding of authenticity in terms of texts and the idealisation of the native speaker – to the field (Breen and Candlin, 1980; Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Hymes, 1972; Nunan, 1991, 2004).

2.4.1. Foreign Language Education

Foreign language education, like national education systems in general, also relies on socio-political and economic contexts to decide upon its priorities. As previously discussed in Section 2.3.2.1, globalisation and internationalisation have changed the focus of language-in-education policies (Byram, 2008, 2012a; Guilherme, 2007; Kerklaan, Moreira and Boersma, 2008; Soler-Carbonell and Gallego-Balsà, 2016). Since translating literature, as a form of high culture of great civilisations, was no longer enough in a globalised world, being able to prepare foreign language learners to communicate and interact with people from other countries became a common item in political agendas (Lo Bianco, 2001; Weber, 1999; Wringe, 1996). Learning languages, becoming ‘a plurilingual “language person” with a range of competences to different levels in different languages’ is convincingly argued to be the key focus of language teaching (Byram, 2008, p. 17).

Considering foreign language education beyond measurable goals, all language-learning experiences are said to be ‘lived more or less meaningfully and can be more or less transformative’ regardless of how successful or unsuccessful one’s performance might be considered (Kramsch, 2009, p. 4). Moreover, definitions of success in terms of language learning, which are usually claimed by educational institutions, may promise to offer access to meaningful language skills (ibid). It is not my intention to release schools from their responsibility; however, if language-in-education policies only briefly, if at all, discuss content and assessment issues considering practitioners’ perspectives, who decides which skills are meaningful?

The tradition of ‘memorising grammar structures and rules prioritising, almost exclusively, reading and writing in a decontextualised way’ as goals for foreign language education is reviewed by Brazilian language-in-education policies (Brasil, 2000, p. 26). This significant critical position seeks to justify the introduction of ‘sociocultural aspects’ and the importance of diversifying possible interpretations and meanings (Brasil, 2000, p. 28). Nevertheless, as a reference for the entire public education system, the documents overgeneralise important concepts, such as language, communication, interaction and culture. Also, they fail to recognise the influence of foreign language education in the development of local, national and global citizenship, which is discussed further in Section 2.3.1.1.

Without these purposes in mind, foreign language is just a communication tool and education and foreign language education may become an act of ‘teaching knowledge

of the grammatical system of another language and/or the skills of using it to transfer information to “bridge an information gap” (Byram, 2008, p. 23-4; Kramsch, 1986). This reality refers us back to the question regarding who decides what is meaningful and what is not for foreign language education. Whose needs are being answered by limiting learning and teaching opportunities? The following section briefly discusses different aspects related to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which is applied to foreign language education in order to review its strengths and its limitations. This review is important as it allows us to understand fully the contexts that were investigated (see Chapters 3 and 4) and some of the findings that are discussed in Chapters 5 and 6.

2.4.1.1. Communicative Language Teaching

As previously mentioned in Section 2.3.1, language can be defined as system, as discourse, and as ideology (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). As system, language competence refers to ‘the speaker-hearers’ knowledge of his language’ (Chomsky, 1965, p. 4). This theory has been criticised and called ‘grammatical competence’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 6) for focusing on ‘knowledge of a system of rules, of parameters or principles, configurations in mind for which language simply serves as evidence’ (Widdowson, 1989, p. 129). Aiming to challenge Chomsky’s focus on grammar, the definition of competence has subsequently been expanded. Communicative competence is now defined as ‘the capabilities of a person’ as it is strongly ‘dependent upon both (tacit) *knowledge* and (ability for) *use*’ (Hymes, 1972, p. 282, italics in original).

In order to support the role of communicative competence in language learning, an important distinction between language usage and language use is made as follows:

The first of these is the citation of words and sentences as manifestations of the language system, and the second is the way the system is realised for normal communicative purposes. Knowing a language is often taken to mean having knowledge of correct usage but this knowledge is of little utility on its own: it has to be complemented by a knowledge of appropriate use. A knowledge of use must of necessity include a knowledge of usage but the reverse is not the case: it is possible for someone to have learned a large number of sentence patterns and a large number of words which can fit into them without knowing how they are put to communicative use (Widdowson, 1978, p. 18-19).

Acquiring communicative competence is considered to be the ultimate goal in language learning, that is, 'to interpret, whether this is made overt in talking or corresponding or whether it remains covert as a psychological activity underlying the ability to say, listen, write and read' (Widdowson, 1978, p. 67). Also, considering language as both system and discourse, communicative competence can be divided into four components: (1) grammatical competence; (2) sociolinguistic competence; (3) discourse competence; and (4) strategic competence (Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). These interpretations of Hymes' definition of communicative competence does not prioritise knowledge over use or vice-versa; however, they do not have similar purposes. Widdowson (1978) suggests that any language teaching as communication involves teaching both language use and usage. Canale and Swain (1980), in turn, propose a comprehensive theoretical framework designed for teaching and testing based on the understanding of language as both, system and discourse.

Despite being the first ones to have provided a framework of language competence for pedagogical purposes, Canale and Swain's claims regarding the framework's applicability have been rightly challenged. The framework's applicability to testing is questioned in terms of its validity and reliability in measuring one's second language communication skills (Bachman, 1990). Main concerns are related to how the four competences that were included in this framework – grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic – conceptually overlap and the interdependencies amongst them, which are claimed to be apparent, are not clear (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Although criticised, Canale and Swain's model offers insights which took the discussion about communicative competence further (see Bachman, 1990; Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell, 1995; Cook, 1993; Shohamy, Donitsa-schmidt and Ferman, 1996).

Kumaravadivelu (2006) notes that shaping pedagogical approaches to be applied to foreign language teaching is a common thread that connects these notions of communicative competence. Incorporating communicative functions into syllabi for foreign language education moves teaching and learning towards CLT. For being considered a 'prototypical example of a learner-centred pedagogy', CLT is not supposed to be final or a 'monolithic entity', that is, different interpretations alongside a set of theoretical principles are commonly accepted and implemented (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 117). In other words, CLT does not offer a straightforward

recipe to be followed, since every educational setting where foreign language education takes place is a different context. Moreover, every person who is involved in a common classroom may represent a different context her/himself.

According to Breen and Candlin (1980, p. 98), CLT must 'exploit the classroom for what it can realistically offer' in terms of learning opportunities without creating an artificial communicative situation, since the classroom itself is considered to be an authentic social environment. The foreign language classroom becomes a place where 'language is a means of conveying ideas and information as well as a tool for expressing personal needs, beliefs, and desires' (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 129). It cannot be assumed, though, that the classroom is the only environment where learners access the target language. CLT often neglects the sociocultural backgrounds of those involved in interaction because it focuses on the roles that are played and the behaviours that are conveyed by learners and teachers (Buttjes, 1990). The effectiveness in developing communicative competence through such communicative situations, interactions and role-plays, which are based on information sharing and meaning negotiation, can certainly be challenged.

CLT, despite being widely criticised, offers a point of departure for the development of many different approaches, models and frameworks (see Bachman, 1990; Cook, 1993; Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell, 1995). Amongst which, the most influential regarding foreign language education is Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Nunan, 1991, 2004). It is believed that communicative tasks are important components in terms of adding authenticity to interactions and learning experiences in foreign language classrooms (Nunan, 1991). The next section briefly discusses the role of TBLT in foreign language education – especially its impact and influence on the Brazilian Educational System and on the contexts that were investigated.

2.4.1.2. Task-based Language Teaching

Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) is characterised by the following features:

- a) an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language;
- b) the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation;
- c) the provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself;

- d) an enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning;
- e) an attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom (Nunan, 1991, p. 279)

The pedagogical practice of content selection that is based on learners' needs was subsequently added to the list of characteristics attributed to TBLT (Nunan, 2004). Considering 'real world or target tasks' and 'pedagogical tasks' as opportunities for language use which occur outside and inside the classroom, respectively, is an attempt to narrow the possibility of defining *task*, since consensus regarding the definition of task has understandably never been achieved (Nunan, 2004, p. 1; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Despite being helpful, this distinction is general, broad, and unrelated to language education. A framework for the development of pedagogical tasks applied to TBLT is, then, presented as the a four-step procedure: (a) identify target task; (b) provide model; (c) identify enabling skill; and (d) devise pedagogic task (Nunan, 1991). This framework is revised and further expanded to the following six-step procedure for a pedagogical sequence:

Step 1: Schema building – providing exercises to introduce the topic, set the context, and introduce key vocabulary and expressions to be used later;

Step 2: Controlled practice – encouraging students to use given vocabulary, structures and functions of the target language;

Step 3: Authentic listening practice – enabling students to listen to texts involving native speakers so authentic models are provided;

Step 4: Focus on linguistic elements – taking part in a sequence of exercises focusing on linguistic resources to be used later;

Step 5: Provide freer practice – working in pairs/groups in an information gap role play, so students can combine recently and previously learned repertoire;

Step 6: Introduce the pedagogical task – collaboratively acting upon the task itself (Nunan, 2004).

Alongside this framework, a set of communicative and sociocultural goals is proposed as a way to facilitate and improve the relationship that learners progressively develop with language (Nunan, 2004). CLT and TBLT are broadly adopted as theoretical perspectives which inform guidelines and frameworks for the curriculum development of foreign language education (see Brasil, 2000, 2006a; 2006b; Council of Europe, 2001). Nevertheless, what is presented as procedural recommendations can easily be perceived to be an attempt to standardise and limit classroom interactions in the target language. Frameworks and guidelines can be as well-conceived as possible

within a communicative agenda; however, the development of communicative competence cannot be guaranteed (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). In order to discuss further how CLT and TBLT can influence theoretical constructs and expectations for foreign language education, the following sections briefly review two key points for this research: the presumption of authenticity regarding pedagogical materials and communicative competence that is related to idealised native speaker.

2.4.1.3. Pedagogical Materials and Authenticity

Attempting to facilitate the process of authentic communication, a TBLT framework claims to enable the development of communicative activities which represent 'a kind of "half-way house" between language exercises and pedagogical tasks' (Nunan, 2004, p. 24). Authenticity is defined as any sort of spoken and written material which is produced for communication purposes rather than for language teaching (Canale and Swain, 1980; Nunan, 2004). Another notion of authenticity is concerned with texts, learners' interpretations of these texts, tasks and the classroom social situation (Breen, 1989). This perspective rightly questions the authenticity that is granted to texts because their purposes are not pedagogical; however, by suggesting a focus on learners' interpretations, every text becomes potentially authentic (*ibid*). In this sense, each learner's interpretation is perceived to be capable of authenticating any texts and it is in the classroom that authenticity takes place. This "everything-is-possible" notion of authenticity does not respond to the question regarding criteria for developing and/or choosing pedagogical materials to be used in foreign language education contexts.

Texts which are traditionally considered to be authentic and are incorporated into textbooks and/or used to develop institutional materials usually belong to 'inner circle', that is, 'originated from hegemonic cultures' (Kachru, 1992, 1997, 2006; MacDonald, Badger and Dasli, 2006, p. 254). As previously discussed in Section 2.3.2, prioritising certain varieties of a language as the standard confers the status of authority to those who share such varieties. In terms of foreign language education, this authority is usually claimed by and/or granted to native speakers. It is important to clarify that this status of authority is not claimed by and/or given to all native speakers, but only to a 'minority of people who have the power to impose it' and declare themselves custodians of the standardised varieties (Widdowson, 1994, p. 379). Limiting

ownership of a certain language to native speakers is justifiably claimed to lead to *language poverty* (MacDonald et al., 2006, p. 254, italics in original).

2.4.1.4. Native Speakers and Authenticity

Foreign language education can be one of the contexts through and within which as many varieties as possible of languages and cultures should be studied. If 'success in international communication' is sought, learners should be encouraged to feel a sense of ownership towards the foreign language being studied (Meyer, 1990, p. 137). Nevertheless, CLT and TBLT advocate certain native speakers' varieties as those to be considered as the standard and therefore those speakers can become models whose communicative skills should be mimicked by foreign language learners (Kramersch, 1997, Kramersch and Sullivan, 1996). Through tasks portraying native speakers as homogeneous speech communities, foreign language learners and educational settings might be perceived to be successful as long as they become homogeneous. The notions of communicative competence and authenticity are closely related to learners' ability to emulate native speakers and have their performances granted the status of native-speaker like (Canale and Swain, 1980).

This mistakenly assumed linguistic superiority attributed to native speakers can easily reach foreign language teachers as well. It has been claimed that governmental and private agencies have hired native speakers over better qualified non-native speakers, as foreign language teachers, to offer language authenticity to students (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Kramersch (1997) strongly criticises the privileged position which native speakers are afforded through the use of CLT and TBLT. This view that students should have their 'unique multilingual perspective on the foreign language' disregarded in order to 'emulate the idealised monolingual native speaker' is convincingly questioned (Kramersch, 1997, p. 360). Furthermore, the notion of the *native speaker* is challenged as an 'imaginary construct – a canonically literate monolingual middle-class member of a largely fictional national community', since it does not correspond to reality (Kramersch, 1997, p. 363).

Despite having its status justifiably questioned, the idealised native speaker can still be presented as a model, particularly when 'governments and cultural institutes of native speaker countries' invest in promoting such image in order to maintain the status quo (Byram, 2008, p. 10). Considering the notion of native speaker in its numerous limitations, foreign language learners should not be encouraged to become

an 'almost' version of something which is limited. When focusing on sociocultural competence, the native speaker as a model becomes especially problematic as a result of the impracticability of expecting learners to be familiar with every particular native speaker's sociolinguistic behaviour in every particular context (Byram, 2008). Perceiving foreign language learners as social actors in a place between their own meanings and contexts and those of native speakers, the use of the term *intercultural speaker* is proposed in order to capture a redefined competence that is labelled intercultural competence (Byram, 1997, 2008).

This section has reviewed relevant literature regarding foreign language education and the key perspectives related to CLT and TBLT. Notions of authenticity regarding texts to be used as pedagogical materials and the native speaker to be taken as a model of communicative competence have been discussed in terms of the lack of sociocultural and linguistic representations that such patterns may impose. The following sections review the main contributions of intercultural communication to foreign language education in order to suggest that some of its principles could usefully be applied to the contexts that were investigated in this study.

2.4.2. Intercultural Communication and Foreign Language Education

This section provides a discussion about intercultural communication within foreign language education. The section reviews key characteristics of the relationship between language and culture, as well as the concept of languaculture, and the unbreakable connection they should have in foreign language teaching (Agar, 1994; Byram, 2011; Byram and Kramsch, 2008; Risager, 2007).

2.4.2.1. The Relationship between Language and Culture

Byram (1990, p. 17) states that 'language and culture teaching must be clearly linked'; however, the separation of language and culture is evident in some pedagogic materials, such as textbooks. This division becomes obvious when culture is treated as additional information that is printed on the back pages at the end of chapters. One of the difficulties of teaching language as culture lies in the social and historical dependency that people's understanding of culture holds (Byram and Kramsch, 2008). By teaching language in a way that 'approaches language as both a personal and a cultural/historical event' individual experiences and viewpoints might be placed within a broader sociocultural and historical framework (Byram and Kramsch, 2008, p. 21). In other words, adding other languages and cultures to one's repertoire

expands the range of possibilities that one has to interpret one's reality and that of others.

2.4.2.1.1. Foreign Languages

Signifying and re-signifying language and contexts imply a combination of foreign language learners' sociocultural background and that of others. Defining language as a mediator, its use can be seen as a 'ticket to "membership" into a cultural enclave' (Fantini, 2012, p. 264). Although this perception attests to the intertwining between language and culture, it does not characterise their relationship as equally and mutually beneficial. This conception limits language as a means to an end and reduces culture to nationality, disregarding diversity within cultural groups. By decoupling language and culture from notions of nationality, language can be defined as a symbolic system amongst many others through which individuals apprehend themselves and the contexts around them (Kramsch, 2006a, 2006b, 2009).

Using another language, in that sense, means using an 'alternative signifying practice that orients the body-in-the-mind to alternative ways of perceiving, thinking, remembering the past, and imagining the future' (Kramsch, 2009, p.188). Kramsch (2009) argues that 'each language we speak adds its unique dimension to our signifying self' (p. 188). The combination of those dimensions helps the individuals to position themselves as multilingual subjects who understand cultural memories evoked by different symbolic systems (Kramsch and Whiteside, 2008). This definition emphasises the role that is played by the different sociocultural backgrounds which are ideally understood, respected and shared by those involved in an intercultural interaction.

2.4.2.1.2. Foreign Cultures

The possibility of defining culture at all, in times when the world grows more global and more separated simultaneously, is rightly questioned; however, the so-called High Culture (e.g. literature and arts) cannot be considered as a sole representation (Kramsch, 2003). Holliday (2011), echoing Williams' (1958) notion of ordinary culture, argues that culture, which is socially constructed, is everywhere and the boundaries that are built to distinguish one culture from another can be developed by us or established for us by governments, education systems, or any other influential groups. Avoiding an essentialist view of culture, through which individuals' behaviours are defined and constrained by the cultures in which they live but to which they do not necessarily belong, helps de-constructing stereotypes (Holliday, 2011). Suggesting a non-essentialist view of culture, however, seems easier said than done, since national

or ethnic cultures, which are constructed to suit ideological agendas, are usually perceived to be natural concepts – as some of the findings of this study revealed (see Chapter 5).

Seen as a ‘problematic term’, the concept of culture usually imposes an obstacle and ‘creates understandings of difference’ contradicting the ideals of culture as a common place that is advocated for foreign language education (Phipps and Gonzalez, 2004, p.68). This critique seems to be formulated in accordance to postmodernist theories which understand culture as an abstraction, a mere ideological concept that is built to simplify social and geographic differences (House, 2008). Street (1993, p. 25, italics in original) offers an interesting perspective by suggesting that ‘*Culture is a verb*’ and, thus, should not be seen as an stable entity but as ‘a process of meaning making and contest’. This idea of constant movement concurs with Holliday’s non-essentialist vision and efforts to avoid or, rather, challenge naturalisation of power influencing people’s perceptions of their cultures and those of others. In other words, culture is a dynamic discursive process which is constantly being defined and redefined and cannot be considered as an isolated occurrence. Its meaning depends on who interprets it and from which sociocultural historical stance.

2.4.2.1.3. Languaculture

Agar (1994) conceptualised languaculture as the combination of language and culture focusing on semantic and pragmatic variability of languacultures in native-native and/or native-non-native verbal interactions. Risager (2007) builds further on Agar’s concept and reconceptualises languaculture as the ‘study of the various kinds of meaning carried and produced by language’ (p. 170). Furthermore, Risager (2007) argues that a language that is used by a certain group, either as a national language or not, is not inevitably connected to a set of beliefs, values and behaviours or a specific culture. A language in use receives contributions from languacultures of other languages. Byram (2011) argues that this perspective is too complex for teaching purposes; however, learners systematically acquire a way of developing ‘intercultural competences by concentrating on the relationships between their own languaculture and one other’ (p. 88). Also, competences which can be transferred to other, yet unknown, languacultures are developed. Despite its complexity, this interplay between languacultures will be, eventually, experienced during language use (Byram, 2011).

The relationship between language and culture is analysed by Risager (2006, 2007) from a three-dimensional perspective – rather than Agar’s one-dimensional concept:

- a) linguistic practice or sociological perspective which focuses on the oral and written interaction in situations knit together in ever-changing social networks;
- b) linguistic resource or psychological perspective which focuses on the socially constituted knowledge of language, developed as part of the biography of the subject; and
- c) linguistic system which focuses on a construct, or, in other words, a family of historically and discursively constructed notions (Risager, 2007, p.168-9).

This three-dimensional perspective focuses on how the grammar of a language might be analysed and described without having the obligation to establish a relationship with a cultural context. Languaculture is a discursive construction, that is, ‘it may be placed on a continuum ranging from a minimalist description to a maximalist description’ (Risager, 2007, p.173).

Considering Risager’s interrelated loci for languaculture, the inseparability of language and culture is, to a certain extent, challenged. Some cultures can be detached from a specific language but language is always bound to languaculture. Díaz (2013) contributes to the definition by stating that ‘*languaculture* in all its dimensions is characterised as both relatively constant and relatively variable’ (p. 30, italics in original). Relative constancy is maintained by linguistic aspects, while social, individual and situational aspects of communication represent the relative variability. Mainly based on Risager’s sociological and psychological perspectives regarding language and culture for foreign language teaching, Byram (2012, p. 8) argues that ‘language and cultural awareness thus include social and self-analyses’, that is, reflection regarding the relationship between languages, culture, and identities. Building on this view, the following section discusses how languages and cultures are intertwined in the process of constructing possibilities for foreign language education.

2.4.3. Intercultural Communication and Intercultural Teaching and Learning

This section reviews Intercultural Communication (IC) for intercultural teaching and learning regarding the interdisciplinary potential of this field in developing studies about how people communicate with each other across multiple boundaries – such

as geographical, social, cultural, linguistic, ethnical and gender (Jackson, 2013; Kramsch, 2001, p. 201). The notion of intercultural communicative competence, focusing on critical cultural awareness, is presented as an alternative to CLT communicative competence. However, this concept is also challenged, despite its remarkable contributions, due to its idealised contexts for applicability – which is limited to geographical boundaries (Byram, 1997; Hoff, 2014; Kramsch, 2005). Critical cultural awareness is further discussed with regard to its role in building the ability of individuals to communicate and interact across national and international cultures (Byram, 2008; Guilherme, 2006, 2012; Phipps, 2003; Wilkinson, 2012).

The definition of IC depends on several elements, such as the different areas of research and the understanding of key elements (e.g. language, culture and communication). IC within the field of foreign language education can be defined as ‘an interdisciplinary field of research that studies how people understand each other across group boundaries of various sorts’ (Kramsch, 2001, p. 201). Although it might be assumed that such people belong to different countries and speak different languages, the boundaries can be related to class, gender, ethnicity. Jackson (2013) helpfully captures these ideas by offering the following definition:

[I]ntercultural communication refers to interpersonal communication between individuals or groups who are affiliated with different cultural groups and/or have been socialised in different cultural (and, in most cases linguistic) environments. This includes such cultural differences as age, class, gender, ethnicity, language, race, nationality and physical/mental ability (p. 44).

This definition suggests that IC moves beyond the mere action of exchanging and/or sharing information and the superficial concept of cultural membership, which reduces language and culture to nationality and/or ethnicity. Nevertheless, it still views people as passive carriers of their culture – since people are seen as individuals who have been ‘socialised’ into culture.

In language teaching, an intercultural perspective implies the transformational engagement of the learner with the act of learning (Liddicoat and Scarino, 2013). This engagement enables the learner to confront and/or transform existing ways of perceiving and acting upon the world. This confrontation happens when individuals who participate in an intercultural encounter cannot rely on their own patterns of behaviour, values and beliefs to reach their communication purposes (Weber, 1999). By constructing collaboratively their culture in the discourse, confrontation and

transformation are resolved and, ideally, all participants in the intercultural encounter feel understood, respected and supported. A commonly shared meaning can be negotiated until a new culture, or an inter-culture emerges. Being interculturally competent means to have the ability to replicate this procedure through a mindful and critical analysis of all languacultures that are in action during an intercultural encounter.

2.4.3.1. Intercultural Communication Competence

Considering traditional concepts regarding communication competence, foreign language education and IC, Byram (1997) conceptualises Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) as a set of qualities which are required of those involved in an IC event. Attitudes, knowledge and skills are perceived to be components of ICC. These components are complemented by the 'values one holds because of one's belonging to a number of social groups, values which are part of one's belonging to a given society' (Byram, Nichols and Stevens, 2001, p. 5). Five factors, or *savoirs*, are conceptualised individually and in relation to each other as follows:

- (1) Intercultural Attitudes: attitudes of curiosity and openness, of readiness to suspend disbelief and judgement with respect to one's own and others' meanings, beliefs, and behaviours;
- (2) Intercultural Knowledge: knowledge on which individuals can rely during an intercultural interaction divided into (a) knowledge about the social groups and their cultures in one's own in one's interlocutor's country; and, (b) knowledge of the interactional process at individual and societal levels;
- (3) Intercultural Skills of interpreting and relating: previously acquired knowledge and the ability one has in using this knowledge to draw conclusions between one's own culture and others';
- (4) Skills of discovery and interaction: ability to recognise significant phenomena in a foreign environment and to elicit their meanings and connotations and their relationship with other phenomena;
- (5) Critical cultural awareness/political education: ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one's own and one's interlocutor's countries and cultures (Byram, 1997).

Attitudes and knowledge do not have linear cause-effect relationship between them. The skills of discovery and interaction are more likely to operate and less likely to cause psychological stress if attitudes of openness and curiosity are in place. Knowledge, in turn, is connected to skills of interpreting and relating, since existing knowledge is accessed so that a specific context can be interpret and/or understood.

The skills of discovery and interaction are ‘the means of augmenting and refining knowledge about the other and knowing how to respond to specific features of interaction with a particular individual’ (Byram, 1997, p. 37). The four intercultural interaction aspects of Byram’s model – knowledge, attitudes, skills of interpreting and relating, and skills of discovery and interaction – can be acquired through non-educational mediated experiences. Nevertheless, foreign language teaching is the setting from which issues related to those four aspects, alongside general education, political education and critical cultural awareness, arise (Byram, 1997).

For the purpose of this thesis, Byram’s fifth factor, *savoir s’engager*, is the most relevant, since its objectives are related to critical awareness and political education. Gagel’s (1994) concept of political education (*politische Bildung*) strongly influences Byram’s construction of *savoir s’engager*. Focusing on ‘behaviour and an evaluative orientation in which it is intended to raise awareness of, or transmit, the characteristics of “correct” behaviour in public political life’, education is seen as the place where the development of democratic citizenship should be prioritised (Byram, 2008, p. 158). Despite its importance and relevance, Gagel’s notion of *politische Bildung* does not mention language or foreign language education. However, considering its potential, Byram (2008) develops Gagel’s concept to establish a relationship between ‘political education and/or education for democratic citizenship and language education’ (p. 158). The next section further discusses Byram’s fifth *savoir* and its central role in constructing ICC.

2.4.3.2. Critical Cultural Awareness

Critical cultural awareness is defined as ‘the ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives and products in one’s own and other cultures and countries’ (Byram, 1997, p. 53). According to Byram (2008), by acquiring critical cultural awareness, foreign language learners become aware of the cultural apparatus which shapes, consciously and unconsciously, their viewpoints and the way they perceive and evaluate the perspectives of others. This awareness enables learners to realise that an agreement between divergent ideologies and/or culturally-determined stances is not always possible. In other words, learners who have critical cultural awareness should be able to see and act upon their own ideologies critically from their own standpoints and the standpoints of others.

Despite its undeniable contribution to foreign language education, Byram's construction of intercultural communicative competence and critical cultural awareness is highly criticised for its overoptimistic expectations of a 'harmonious fusion of worldviews' (Hoff, 2014, p. 511). Specific contexts for applicability are still seen as those 'beyond national borders, especially when sojourning abroad' rather than a context in which one interacts with individuals from different cultural backgrounds within one's own national territory (Kramsch, 2005, p. 551). Ideally, the conversation should be focusing on 'multiculturalism' which removes the national nature of culture by expanding it towards sociocultural aspects, such as religion, ethnicity, class, gender (ibid). This viewpoint is shared by Giroux who, in an interview conducted by Guilherme, after being asked about the development of intercultural competencies as the capacity to communicate and interact across national and international cultures, provided the following response:

I think that the question of intercultural competencies has to be understood within a broader notion of literacy linked to both the acquisition of agency and the ability to recognise that matters of difference are inextricably tied to issues of respect, tolerance, dialogue and our responsibility to others. Multicultural literacy as a discursive intervention is an essential step towards not only a broader notion of self-representation, but also a more global notion of agency and democracy (Guilherme, 2006, p. 172).

For Guilherme (2012), intercultural experience and intercultural competence are not equivalent, since 'there is no single model of intercultural competence that fits every intercultural experience' (p. 357). This distinction clarifies that different intercultural experiences require, as well as foster, different intercultural competences. Intercultural experiences can potentially become opportunities to enrich personal and collective intercultural competence. For that, certain principles and strategies need to be developed to inform and encourage the pursuit of 'multiculturalism, interculturality, and intercultural dialogue' (ibid). In educational settings, this endeavour calls for the reconceptualisation of teaching approaches and syllabi to support the development of students' intercultural competences in the journey towards becoming intercultural speakers (Díaz, 2013). The next section discusses the concept of intercultural speaker as an alternative to the idealised native speaker proposed as a model to foreign language learners.

2.4.3.3. Intercultural Speaker

Byram (1997) introduces 'the concept of "intercultural speaker" to describe interlocutors who are involved in intercultural communication and interaction' (p. 32, inverted commas in the original). The intercultural speaker is presented in contrast to the idealised native speaker, who is broadly portrayed as a model for foreign language learners by CLT and TBLT (see Sections 2.4.1.1 and 2.4.1.2). The native speaker is rightly said to represent a particular sociocultural context and a particular variety of language and therefore modelling such a standardised entity limits the non-native speaker to being an incomplete individual, a close version of a native speaker (Byram, 2008). By representing an alternative interactional position, the intercultural speaker challenges the traditional non-native speaker/native speaker pattern. The intercultural speaker is someone with the ability to interact with people from other contexts, speaking other languages, and/or belonging to other cultural groups (Byram, Nichols and Stevens, 2001).

The intercultural speaker is said to have the ability to understand and accept perspectives and perceptions about the world which are different from the one(s) with which s/he is familiar in order to mediate them consciously (Byram, 2008). Also, whether part of the interaction or not, the intercultural speaker needs to develop the ability to see how different cultures can relate to each other, to negotiate their meanings, and to play the role of an intercultural mediator between people socialised into those cultures (ibid). In other words, the intercultural speaker is a negotiator and a mediator who acts interculturally, someone who has the ability to access the degree of ICC required for a particular intercultural interaction.

The intercultural speaker needs the linguistic aspects of intercultural competence to be defined as ICC if mediation between two languacultures is desired. This competence cannot be compared to that of native speakers. Wilkinson (2012) argues that the goal of the intercultural speaker is not to achieve perfection in the foreign language, which seems to be the goal when an idealised native speaker is presented as model, but to act critically and reflectively inside her/his own linguistic and cultural contexts and those of others. The intercultural speaker, despite the term, is also the intercultural listener, reader and writer, and, for that reason, should be called *intercultural mediator* (Wilkinson, 2012). Thus, it is not the terminology chosen by Byram that generates criticism and calls for revision, but his definitions.

Phipps (2003) sees Byram's view of intercultural speaker's identity and agency to be idealised. The concern to escape from the imposed model of an idealised native speaker may have contributed to the idea of keeping one's own cultural viewpoints when becoming an intercultural speaker. It is argued that 'this "empty space" of the intercultural speaker' reduces the role language plays in marking identities (Phipps, 2003, p. 9, inverted commas in the original). Furthermore, 'learners' preconceived opinions and cultural biases must be brought out in the open so they can be consciously examined and challenged'; otherwise intercultural interactions may maintain, or even generate, cultural stereotypes and prejudices (Hoff, 2014, p. 512).

Disregarding the transformative effects that language learning can have on the learners' identity-development processes means denying learners the opportunity to change the way they perceive themselves and others. In terms of language education, encouraging the development of an intercultural speaker is not enough; rather, the development of 'interculturally critical beings' is proposed (Phipps and Gonzalez, 2004b, p. 91). In order to discuss this criticality, which should be encouraged in foreign language education, the following sections review key concepts related to critical pedagogies and their application in developing critical intercultural citizenship.

2.4.4. Critical Pedagogies for Intercultural Citizenship

This section reviews Freire's notion of *conscientização* and his contributions to the discussion and development of the field related to critical pedagogies (Freire, 1973, 1979, 1987, 2005; Guilherme, 2012). Critical interculturality is presented as an important ally to language pedagogies since power relations within society may be disrupted, decentralised and re-contextualised in order to shape new identities, values, and ideologies (Kramsch, 2005; Lu and Corbett, 2012). Critical interculturality facilitates and supports empowerment and emancipation, and democratic and intercultural citizenship, which involves competences of citizenship and competences of intercultural communication (Guilherme, 2002).

As previously discussed in Section 2.2.1, decisions that involve education are always ideologically related and/or motivated; thus, they shall not be seen as neutral. Intercultural Pedagogy (IP) aims to intervene in society, to make individual and societal constraints more transparent so that those constraints can be questioned and, hopefully, resolved (Borrelli, 1990). In other words, IP must be conceptualised within society rather than outside it, it must reflect its criticality rather than its

endurance. Giroux (2006) emphasises the importance of pedagogy recognising that education involves intervention so that the conditioned situations of society are not seen as determined. This kind of pedagogical intervention intends to disrupt dominant systems of meaning to create a new and renewed sense of agency, alongside a critical subversion of dominant power. It is through agency that power becomes productively re-signified and rearranged (Giroux, 2003). Freire's seminal work on critical education and its contributions for the development of critical pedagogies are presented and discussed in the following sections.

2.4.4.1. Freire's Pedagogy of the Oppressed and *Conscientização*

Freire (1987) proposes a reflection on the processes of humanisation and dehumanisation by equating them in terms of possibility and contrasting them in terms of power relations. While humanisation is seen to be people's natural path or vocation, dehumanisation is a process that can only happen by having certain groups' humanisation denied and/or stolen through injustice and oppression rather than a natural course of life. Dehumanisation is a 'distortion of the vocation of becoming more fully human [which causes] the oppressed to struggle against the oppressor' (Freire, 2005, p. 44). The reflection on their oppression and the action of seeking their own liberation are critical interventions, which must take place through dialogue rather than be given and/or imposed. For Freire, the motivation, as well as the understanding that the oppressed must fight for their own liberation, is 'a result of their own *conscientização*' (Freire, 2005, p. 67).

Conscientização, or critical consciousness, is neither a straightforward nor easily-developed process. Freire's definition of *conscientização* identifies both individual and collective efforts to achieve its development:

Conscientização represents the development of the awakening of critical awareness. It will not appear as a natural by-product of even major economic changes, but must grow out of critical educational efforts based on favourable historical conditions (Freire, 1973, p. 19, italics in original).

Conscientização, as any other process, does not go from non-existing to full-developed; thus, it was divided into four levels:

- (1) semi-intransitive consciousness on which perception is limited and people see themselves incapable to change their socioeconomic position;
- (2) transitive consciousness on which perception is still limited but people to see themselves as permeable to change;
- (3) naïve transitivity on which over-simplification of problems and people's capacity for dialogue is weak and susceptible to misinterpretation; and
- (4) critically transitive consciousness, real depth in the interpretation of problems and responsibility is refused to be transferred, since passive position tend to be rejected (Freire, 1973).

'The less critical capacity a group possesses, the more ingenuously it treats problems and the more superficially it discusses subjects' (Freire, 1973, p. 38). It seems fundamental that, in order to feel encouraged to develop their critical consciousness, individuals need to rely on a critical education as an instrument of liberation rather than a so-called neutral education which domesticates to oppress. An educational system in which individuals form themselves, as mentioned before, depends on dialogue and decision-making including those whose *conscientização* has not yet developed to a critical level. As Freire (1973, 1979, 1987, 2005) incisively argues only dialogue, which entails critical thinking, can generate critical thinking.

2.4.4.2. Critical Pedagogies for Intercultural Citizenship Education

Guilherme (2012) argues that Critical Pedagogy (CP) can embody several definitions, since many different foci can be adopted. CP sees teaching as part of the learning process as a dialectical and dialogical (re)production of knowledge in which 'the "situatedness" of the individual in place and time' and their multiple layers may facilitate empowerment or oppression (Guilherme, 2012, p. 359-60). Freire's concepts of pedagogy of the oppressed and *conscientização* clearly influence this perspective on CP, since learners are not placed in a position of inertia. Conversely, learners are in the centre of their educational processes by acknowledging and valuing their individual and collective identities.

Freire's work has recognisably provided ground-breaking ideas for the theorisation of CP. By establishing dialogue as the central component for transformative education, Freire encouraged continued reflection to take place through communication within CP contexts (Nainby, Warren and Bollinger, 2003). This dialogue breaks the traditional teacher-student relationship as well as the relationship one has with his/her

place in the world. These desired teacher-student dynamics cannot follow the 'banking' models of education, in which teachers 'deposit' unproblematised content, that preserves the status quo, and 'withdraw' passive relationships between students' understanding of the world (Freire, 1973, p. 37, 1985, 1992).

'A critical *interculturality* aims to decentre, reconceptualise and lay new existential, epistemological, and sociological foundations for equitable institutions and environment' (Guilherme and Dietz, 2015, p. 7, italics in original). These processes of decentralisation and reconceptualisation address explicitly and/or disturb taken-for-granted relations of power and, consequently, societal structures. For Giroux (2006, p.31), 'critical pedagogy attempts to understand how power works through the production, distribution, and consumption of knowledge'. Thus, by educating students to become critical agents, CP enables both learning and social changes. Those changes, according to Freire's principles, should be able to provide social justice, freedom and equality alongside a more democratic project for society. For the purpose of this thesis, the following sections focus on the contributions of CP to foreign language education and the development of an intercultural citizenship.

2.4.4.3. Criticality within Language and Intercultural Communication Pedagogy
'Language and culture are important elements to consider in critical pedagogy' especially considering their participation in relations of power and in shaping identities (Guilherme, 2012, p. 360). Furthermore, intercultural education has been influencing, and influenced by, CP within language education contexts. Freire's notion of *conscientização* justifiably demands political responsibility from educators and education. For Guilherme (2012), Freire's concept of *conscientização*, or critical consciousness, goes beyond Byram's concept of critical awareness because it 'includes the purpose of informed and committed agency towards social justice' (Guilherme, 2012, p. 362). The awareness of agency is rightly said to encourage changes and the development of 'multicultural citizenship agency' (ibid).

Exercising *conscientização* means to challenge one's own identity in terms of languages, cultures and citizenship. Thus, interculturality, when approached through CP, may promote transformative changes of identity and citizenship. For Kramsch (2005, p. 552), IP must consider students' 'culturally diverse representations, interpretations, expectations, memories, identifications'. What Kramsch seems to be proposing is the construction of communities in which experiences are the bonding

elements. Content rises from those experiences which are shared through the target language while (re)producing cultures. By addressing different cultural backgrounds from students' experiences, critically- and interculturality-informed language education can enable learners to (re)negotiate their identities. Moreover, they can reflect critically on and reshape their ideologies and values (Lu and Corbett, 2012).

However, these perspectives fail to acknowledge that such reflection and reshaping do not affect exclusively one's ideological and value system; rather, one's perspectives concerning the ideologies and values of others may also be altered. Critical citizenship education encourages language learners to problematise dominant hegemonies, which are often perceived as unproblematic, as well as their issues and those of others so both positions, oppressed and oppressor, are questioned (Guilherme, 2002). The role of criticality and interculturality in language education is to facilitate and to support empowerment, emancipation and democratic and intercultural citizenship.

2.4.4.4. Intercultural Citizenship

Guilherme (2002) proposes guidelines for applying a critical approach to foreign cultures which are divided into five dimensions: (a) interaction between Self and Other; (b) cultural; (c) educational; (d) political; and (e) ethical. Focusing on the political dimension, its role in foreign language/culture education is twofold: it should operate 'within the curriculum, by engaging in cultural politics' and 'add to a broader political component, namely education for democratic citizenship' (Guilherme, 2002, p. 154-5). Based on Guilherme's guidelines, that encourage critically- and interculturality-informed language education and the development of citizenship that represents these multiple identities, Byram (2008) develops the concept of intercultural citizenship, which focuses on competences rather than identities. Intercultural citizenship is defined as the combination of 'language education with political education' which aims to focus on certain competences that people need 'in order to be able to act sensibly in and across political entities, at whatever level' (Byram, 2008, p. 157).

Intercultural citizenship involves both the competences of citizenship and the competences of intercultural communication. The role of education is to break the tendency of individuals to remain in the comfort and safety of their sociocultural groups by preparing them to resist such an inclination. Education for intercultural

citizenship 'deliberately facilitates or creates experiences where qualities of being intercultural are developed' (Byram, 2008, p. 187). The political dimension is interpreted in terms of negotiation between individuals from different groups in order to agree upon a common purpose. An intercultural citizen aims to combine a sense of belonging with the promotion of political activity by identifying and acting with individuals from different languacultures. Byram's conceptualisation of language education for intercultural citizenship is only slightly different from the notion of intercultural speaker. Although his contribution is important, the following sections discuss Guilherme's and Kramersch's perspectives, which move beyond interculturality towards cosmopolitanism.

2.4.5. Cosmopolitanism

This section reviews relevant viewpoints regarding cosmopolitanism in order to establish a relationship between cosmopolitan citizenship and education (Guilherme, 2006; Starkey and Osler, 2003). Multilingual and multicultural perspectives within foreign language education are discussed with regard to their notions of symbolic system, symbolic competence and the sociocultural role of the multilingual subject (Kramersch, 2009, 2011).

According to Appiah (1997), cosmopolitanism can be defined as a sentiment rather than an ideology. The fundamental tenet of cosmopolitanism is that 'the freedom to create oneself requires a range of socially transmitted options from which to invent what we have come to call our identities' (Appiah, 1997, p. 625). Individuals are provided with predetermined collective identities and language(s) which must be questioned, reshaped, changed, improved and/or shared in order to build new ones. Delanty (2000) defines cosmopolitanism in terms of four distinct categories: (a) legal; (b) political; (c) cultural; and (d) civic. However, issues related to citizenship are intertwined within them rather than being limited to some. Hence, 'citizenship and nationality have today become separated' and cosmopolitan citizenship refers to 'new possibilities for participation and rights' within and across borders (Delanty, 2000, p. 53).

It is important to emphasise that national and cosmopolitan citizenship overlap, that is, individuals do not exercise one at the expense of the other, since citizenship is not a 'monolithic structure with clearly separate levels of identification' (Guilherme, 2012, p. 364). Focusing on citizenship and the difference between migration and mobility,

Guilherme (2014), echoing Beck (2002), defines deficit cosmopolitanism and elite cosmopolitanism as follows:

The first, intrinsic to the contemporary nature of the nation-state, lies in the multicultural fringes of society, generally restricted to the lower socioeconomic levels, which are only recognised by a monocultural state to the extent that they are expected to go through transitory bilingualism in order to reach monolingualism and to keep their multicultural irreconcilable spaces apart, designating two spaces, the private and the public. The second, extrinsic to the nation-state, lies in the upper socioeconomic levels of society, where multilingualism is the goal and the dialogue between cultures is possible and, therefore, intercultural competencies are valued, regardless of how they are achieved, as long as they are strategically effective. (p. 58)

Two contexts in which the sense of cosmopolitanism could be equally felt by different socioeconomic and languacultural groups are presented; however, deficit cosmopolitanism limits multilingualism/multiculturalism whereas elite cosmopolitanism grants a birth-right-like citizenship. Different or even opposite viewpoints regarding citizenship can provoke these tensions and conflicts. Starkey and Osler (2003) propose a reconceptualisation of education for citizenship as an attempt to recognise and build on rather than denying multiplicity and cosmopolitanism.

2.4.5.1. Education for Cosmopolitan Citizenship

Considering the increasing connection between multilingual and multicultural communities in the world, language learning and citizenship can offer an arena where learners might reflect on and develop new, complex identities while articulating them with understandings of citizenship. These processes are defined as 'education for cosmopolitan citizenship' (Starkey, 2007, p. 60). The main goal of education for cosmopolitan citizenship is to advance the development of critical and confident citizens who will be keen to 'work to achieve peace, human rights, and democracy within the local community and at global level' (Starkey and Osler, 2003, p. 246). Starkey and Osler identified the following characteristics as key for cosmopolitan citizens:

- accepting personal responsibility and recognising the importance of civic commitment;
- working collaboratively to solve problems and achieve a just, peaceful and democratic community;

- respecting diversity between people, according to gender, ethnicity and culture;
- recognising that their own worldview is shaped by personal and societal history and by cultural tradition;
- respecting the cultural heritage and protecting the environment;
- promoting solidarity and equity at national and international levels (Adapted from UNESCO, 1995, cited in Starkey and Osler, 2003, p. 246-7).

According to those characteristics, school needs to provide opportunities in which the promotion, the understanding and the acceptance of multiple identities can be explored. For Giroux, multicultural literacy, which greatly contributes to the development of multiple identities, needs to be addressed through ‘discursive intervention’ to broaden a sense of self-representation, local and global, alongside agency and democracy (Guilherme, 2006, p. 172). Expanding the sense of self-representation, agency and democracy must resist any attempts of homogenisation or ethnocentrism regarding the scope of those multiple identities. Education for cosmopolitan citizenship is responsible for ‘promoting a shared identity, the appreciation of diversity, the respect for difference, the pride in one’s identifications and the commitment to taking actions in the interest of the weaker members of our communities’ (Guilherme, 2007, p. 82).

It is through language that those multiple experiences and identities are individually and collectively connected. Nevertheless, for that to happen, language policies and language-in-education policies, as discussed in Section 2.3.2, need to reflect the multilingual and multicultural realities of the education system. Recognising the multicultural composition of society based upon a ‘multicultural representation supported by institutions that equitably reflect the multicultural fabric of society’ means enabling possibilities for citizens to play their roles interculturally (Guilherme, 2014, p. 58). It is important to point out that multicultural and multilingual communities do not need to have their cosmopolitan citizenship granted through formal policies. However, it is through official recognition that practices of inclusion might take place broadly and gradually.

2.4.5.2. Multilingual Perspectives of Foreign Language Education

Multilingual reality needs language educators who consider the ‘three main dimensions of the multilingual subject: symbolic self, symbolic action, symbolic

competence' (Kramersch, 2009, p. 188). Language is defined as 'symbolic system' and it is subcategorised into 'symbolic representation', 'symbolic action' and 'symbolic power' (Kramersch, 2009, 2011). It is important to emphasise that, unlike the terminology used so far to describe individuals (e.g. speaker, citizen), the subject is a 'symbolic entity' (Kramersch, 2006b). As such, the subject needs to be consciously constructed throughout natural and social frameworks which can both build it and destroy it. The concepts (re)defined and discussed by Kramersch have the objective to position this multilingual subject into a 'third place' where the symbolic competence can be used and developed.

According to Kramersch (2009, 2011), the self that is participating in intercultural communication is a symbolic self. This symbolic self is formed by 'symbolic systems like language as well as by systems of thought and their symbolic power' (Kramersch, 2011, p. 354). This rather idealised construction of the self actually seems to denote the liberation from limited and/or predetermined aspects once used as sources for identity-building. In other words:

This is not to say that there is no such thing as proud membership in a national community or in communities of practice, but the value attached to something bigger than yourself has moved away from the nation-state and from multiple and changing communities to the very foundation of our symbolic self and its survival: our culture is now subjectivity and historicity, and is constructed and upheld by stories we tell and the various discourses that give meaning to our lives (Kramersch, 2011, p. 356).

This self, who may or may not agree to the outcome of negotiations that are made during intercultural interactions, acknowledges, understands, accepts and respects the symbolic order of another language and the symbolic self of other multilingual subjects. Nevertheless, this symbolic self does not merely agree upon other's symbolic order to be accepted; rather, it 'retains an outsidersness that enables it to play with various objective and subjective meanings' (Kramersch, 2009, p. 189). As a symbolic system, language both creates and shapes the subject. This subject becomes a multilingual subject who is created and shaped by more than one symbolic system.

As a discourse, the symbolic system can be simultaneously symbolic representation, symbolic action and symbolic power (Kramersch, 2011). Distance and global communication technologies are rightly said to create a false sense of equality in

intercultural interactions (ibid). Despite the easier access to the same, or at least similar, sociocultural content, interpretations and references are still different and difficult to foresee. Thus, it is necessary to recognise and understand, more than ever, 'the uptakes, the intertextualities, the orders of indexicality of words and images and their multiple timescales' (Kramsch, 2011, p. 359). For that reason, the multilingual subject needs to assume a different position and learn language as a living form, which is 'experienced and remembered bodily, with a relation to an Other that is mediated by symbolic forms' (Kramsch, 2009, p. 192).

This "different position" is called 'third place' and it is conceptualised as a position in language which is constantly defined by the multilingual subject (Kramsh, 1993, 2006b, 2009). The third place is an 'embodied, socially and culturally inflected place, a place filled with memories of other languages, fantasies of other identities' (Kramsch, 2006b, p. 98). By using 'the intersection of multiple native and target cultures', each learner's third place should make different sense at different times (Kramsch, 1993, p. 257). In other words, the third place was originally conceptualised to remove the focus of language education from traditional dichotomies, such as L1/L2, NS/NNS, Self/Other, in order to focus on the relation of each pole itself. The third place was envisaged as a 'symbolic place', as 'multiple, always subject to change and to the tensions and even conflicts that come from being "in between"' (Kramsch, 2009, p. 200).

Nevertheless, Kramsch realised that the third place needed to be reframed, especially because of globalisation and therefore she perceived the third place to be as follows:

- became too static for a relational state of mind, too smug for a decentred subject that has to navigate several symbolic systems and their cultural and historical boundaries;
- depends on a first and second place that no longer can be reified in country of origin and a host country;
- can be easily romanticised as a hybrid position contributing to the host country's ideology of cultural diversity; and
- often ignores the symbolic nature of the multilingual subject as a signifying self and social actor (Kramsch, 2009, p. 200).

Kramsch's criticism of her model acknowledges that the original concept of third place does not meet the dynamism and the diversity of current intercultural interactions. Metaphors like the third place try to transform into a place what is, in fact, a 'process of positioning the self both inside and outside the discourse of others' (Kramsch, 2011,

p. 358). Hence, symbolic competence is conceptualised as a dimension of the multilingual subject and adds a symbolic frame, previously called third place, to the already known notion of ICC. The symbolic competence defines the multilingual subject alongside other symbolic dimensions. It creates an appropriate position for the multilingual subject within and across the symbolic systems which this subject can use (Kramersch, 2009, 2011). The following characteristics define what it means to have symbolic competence necessary to become a multilingual subject:

- an ability to understand the symbolic value of symbolic forms and the different cultural memories evoked by different symbolic systems;
- an ability to draw on the semiotic diversity afforded by multiple languages to reframe ways of seeing familiar events, create alternative realities, and find an appropriate subject position 'between languages', so to speak; and
- an ability to look both at and through language and to understand the challenges to the autonomy and integrity of the subject that come from unitary ideologies and a totalising networked culture (Kramersch, 2009, p. 201).

The multilingual subject is expected to have a complete relationship with different symbolic systems and those with whom intercultural interactions are shared. The multilingual subject's relationship with the symbolic system implies manipulation, interpretation and making and conveying meaning in order to occupy an appropriate and favourable position. This subject position defines one's participation and ability to secure for oneself the symbolic power between the symbolic systems that are involved in the intercultural interaction.

This second section of the Literature Review Chapter has provided a comprehensive discussion concerning foreign language to reflect upon how notions of language, culture, society, identity, citizenship and competence are established, promoted and/or erased by processes of language-in-education policymaking and enactment. Contributions and limitations that are attributed to CLT and TBLT have been reviewed to justify the reasons why their applicability can be seen as either still valid or completely obsolete by those involved in research about foreign language education and/or teaching foreign languages. Given language and culture's unbreakable connection to foreign language education, the concept of languaculture has been presented and reviewed under the perspectives of IC and critical cultural awareness for intercultural teaching and learning. Considering Freire's notion of *conscientização*, criticality and interculturality within the context of foreign language education have been discussed in terms of their potential to facilitate and support disruption in societal

relations of power. Multilingual and multicultural perspectives within foreign language education have been reviewed with regard to their notions of symbolic system, symbolic competence, and the sociocultural role of the multilingual subject in the development of cosmopolitan citizenship.

In order to clarify the relationship between such theoretical perspectives, that were reviewed and discussed in Section 2.4, and the mechanisms which may or may not adopt these viewpoints, the following section reviews relevant literature on curriculum development and enactment for foreign language education.

2.5. Curriculum Development and Enactment for Foreign Language Education

This section provides key characteristics to develop a curriculum – such as the presentation of a plan that goes beyond content and consideration of the context(s) in which it will be enacted (Barnett, 2000, 2009; Kelly, 2009; Marsh, 2004). Focusing on the differences between intended or planned curriculum and operational or official curriculum, the processes of planning and enacting curriculum are reviewed with regard to the level of participation and representation of those involved in such stages (Eisner, 1990; Fullan, 2008; Moore, 2000; Ricardo, 2013).

2.5.1. Curriculum Development: Planning and Implementation

Marsh (2004) cogently argues that attempts to define curriculum has a tendency to consider only a few of its numerous characteristics. This argument is effectively captured through the presentation of six traditionally adopted definitions of curriculum and their main flaws. It is argued that any definition is problematic and/or incomplete; however, some definitions of the term are able to offer helpful viewpoints (Marsh, 2004). A curriculum can be broadly defined as an ‘educational project for producing a set of subjectivities’ (Barnett, 2000, p. 258). It can also be a ‘pedagogic vehicle for effecting changes in human beings through particular kinds of encounter with knowledge’ (Barnett, 2009, p. 429). As suggested by Marsh (2004), those definitions do not cover the entirety of the curriculum but they provide the sense that the development of a curriculum is a “work in progress”.

For Kelly (2009), because there are many definitions of curriculum being constantly offered, it seems to be more important to define curriculum in terms of what it does

not mean rather than what it does. A significant issue for this thesis, which is discussed in Chapters 5, is the fact that the terms 'curriculum' and 'syllabus' are used interchangeably and some participants clearly viewed them as synonymous. Equating a curriculum to a syllabus limits their planning and development by covering only one dimension: content (Kelly, 2009). Barnett (2009) suggests that all of the different dimensions of a curriculum should be educationally justifiable and democratically problematised so that the curriculum can be more than a mere explanation or presentation of a content table or list. Regardless of how a curriculum is defined, its main purpose is to present a plan of what and how specific kinds of knowledge can be taught (ibid).

Attempts to define curriculum without considering the social context in which it is applied can result in a set of fixed characteristics (Kirst and Walker, 1971). An educational curriculum cannot be disconnected from its social contexts because 'the curriculum is social' (Moore, 2000, p. 19). Moore (2000) argues that a curriculum can neither be neutral nor a result of changes in specific theory. Rather, a curriculum must be a designed project, a well-thought out product of debates around social changes. Those social changes influence the educational learning process so that its transformational nature can be conditioned towards the kind of individual changes that society needs (Moore, 2000). Despite its focus on the social dimension, this definition fails to acknowledge the different transformational roles that stakeholders who are involved in the educational process can play in changing the curriculum (Ricardo, 2013; Rojo, 2000).

Eisner (1990) helpfully distinguishes the 'intended curriculum' from the 'operational curriculum' as follows (italics added):

The *intended* curriculum results in plans and materials and textbooks and worksheets that are prepared, often outside of the school site, to control the focus and content of teaching. The intended curriculum is written; it has aims and objectives; it usually prescribes or suggests a sequence of activities and is often subject to external examination. It is the formal and public course study for which students, teachers, and schools, in one way or another, are held accountable. The *operational* curriculum is the result of how teachers mediate the intended curriculum. No curriculum teaches itself, and how teachers interpret what they receive is crucial to the kind of education students receive and the kind of growth teachers have an opportunity to experience (p. 63).

This distinction is important because it highlights the role that teachers play in interpreting and moderating the different dimensions of a curriculum both outside and inside the classroom. The teacher is compared to the conductor of an orchestra whose score is the intended curriculum; however, the orchestra – the group of students – is conducted to play their individual scores at their own pace, achieving a sort of dissonant harmony – the operational curriculum (Eisner, 1990). In other words, individuality and heterogeneity are encouraged rather than suppressed.

Like Eisner, Kelly (2009) presents two different curricula: the planned or official curriculum – that is documented via syllabus or prospectuses; and the received or actual curriculum – the classroom context. This distinction differs from that of Eisner because it acknowledges other dimensions of teachers' participation. Kelly argues that teachers might consciously or unconsciously act upon the planned curriculum, which means, they might make adjustments according to the reality that they experience and/or because they critically disagree with what the planned curriculum proposes and change it (Kelly, 2009). The importance of this distinction is to clarify that there is no single definition of curriculum which can cover its wholeness. Thus, to adopt one definition of curriculum over others is an ideological decision which might confine and restrict educational opportunities (Kelly, 2009).

2.5.1.1. Curriculum Planning or Intended Curriculum

Barnett (2000) argues that a curriculum needs to be placed within wider social and global contexts. Consequently, 'the curriculum is likely to be influenced by many external factors [and] shaped by national bodies, by the power of market and by interests of the academic community' (Barnett, 2000, p. 256-7). It seems reasonable to understand those influences to be ideologically-biased decisions which are made by powerful political-socioeconomic sectors of society. Interconnections involving ideology, curriculum and education policy need to be examined critically so that questions regarding the extent to which official knowledge represents ideological configurations of the dominant interests in a society can begin to be problematised (Apple, 2004).

Apple convincingly argues that 'educational institutions provide one of the major mechanisms through which power is maintained and challenged' (Apple, 2008, p. 25). Many countries opt for particular curriculum frameworks in order to maintain explicitly or implicitly the status quo, while other countries take a more experimental or

innovative stance (Marsh, 2004). According to Marsh, considering a curriculum framework as a 'group of related subjects or themes which fit together according to a predetermined set of criteria', might provide 'a structure for designing subjects and a rationale and policy context for subsequent curriculum development' (Marsh, 2004, p. 19). It seems reasonable to suggest that curriculum frameworks can offer an organising system and controlling mechanism for the curriculum development process.

The Brazilian National Curricular Guidelines (Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais – PCNs), for instance, propose a combination of 'students' participation' and 'teachers' intervention' so that 'specific content can be learned to facilitate the development of capabilities required for individual growth' (Brasil, 1997, p. 33). Despite the numerous different contexts in which such guidelines must be enacted, the documents provide standardised lists of educational goals, teaching areas and social themes around which content is taught in order to develop those capabilities. Apple (2008) strongly suggests that attempts to standardise guidelines, frameworks or patterns for curriculum development and/or reform may not be appropriate because writing such proposals is regularly controversial.

Criteria selected to provide these standards can be used as a political apparatus through which certain concepts of knowledge are favoured and established as socially valued (Apple, 2008; Kelly, 2009). Planning a curriculum based on sets of targets or goals is perceived to be a way of reducing education to a 'scientific activity' and limiting practitioners' and students' individualities to mouldable minds and behaviours (Kelly, 2009, p. 71). Excluding from the decision-making processes those involved in the enactment processes might widen the gap between theory and practice and, in this case, between planned curriculum and actual curriculum.

2.5.1.2. Curriculum Implementation and Enacted Curriculum

Scholars have argued that adopting a curriculum does not mean implementing it (Marsh, 2004). Although the processes of planning and developing a curriculum are important, the act of implementing it is what brings the plan into the classroom practices. However, implementation does not and should not indicate that teachers will simply transfer what is planned in the curriculum into their classrooms in a linear fashion. The main problem with implementation, as has been discussed earlier with regard to policy enactment, is attributed to the teachers' exclusion from the

development process, which might result in a lack of commitment to enactment (Bascia, Carr-Harris, Fine-Meyer and Zurzolo, 2014; Fullan, 2008; Marsh, 2004). Being excluded, or barely included, in curriculum development means that teachers must learn how to use the curriculum before being able to act upon it. In other words, 'if teachers participate in the decision-making process, implementation should be greatly strengthened' (Fullan, 2008, p. 117).

The role that is played by teachers is critical in the constitution of classroom practices, since they are not neutral actors implementing a given curriculum (Gandana and Parr, 2013). These writers have argued, and the findings of this thesis support such arguments, that the 'moment by moment decisions that teachers make in their everyday practice cannot be detached' from their personal and social backgrounds (Gandana and Parr, 2013, p. 230). Marsh argues convincingly that to achieve a democratic classroom, students' participation is also fundamental for the curriculum enactment process (Marsh, 2004). However, even if they are excluded from the decision-making process, students bring to the classroom their different backgrounds and, consequently, 'transform the taught curriculum' by (re)interpreting it (Marsh, 2004, p. 167). The enacted curriculum reflects the different voices which, combined, interconnect classroom realities with broader contexts. Hence, when adapting or changing the planned curriculum, teachers cannot expect to be designing a final version, a written or imagined script which will be literally replicated inside the classroom.

The gap between the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum is helpfully addressed by contrasting two viewpoints: an integrity perspective and an actor-oriented perspective (Penuel, Phillips and Harris, 2014). The integrity perspective, which has been a dominant perspective for many years, aims to measure 'the extent to which teachers' uses of curriculum adhere to a model specified ahead of time by actors outside the classroom' (Penuel et. al., 2014, p. 753). This outsider's perspective of curriculum enactment does not expect fidelity regarding the intended curriculum; however, it does assume that, through proper guidance, teachers' 'enactment of materials in the classroom' should agree with the intended curriculum (Penuel et. al., 2014, p. 754). The main objective of this perspective seems to focus on quantifying curriculum implementation with different degrees of integrity rather than problematising the exclusion of teachers from decision-making processes.

An actor-oriented perspective aims to conceptualise and analyse implementation through a contrasting approach so that ‘interpreting the significance of activities and events within the flow of ongoing classroom activity’ can be emphasised (Penuel et. al, 2014, p. 755). Learners’ sociocultural backgrounds and classroom contexts are important sources of knowledge; thus, this insider perspective focuses on teachers’ rationales for curriculum enactment (Penuel et. al, 2014). In contrast to an integrity perspective, an actor-oriented perspective values teachers’ decision-making processes based on the diverse contexts in which the curriculum is enacted.

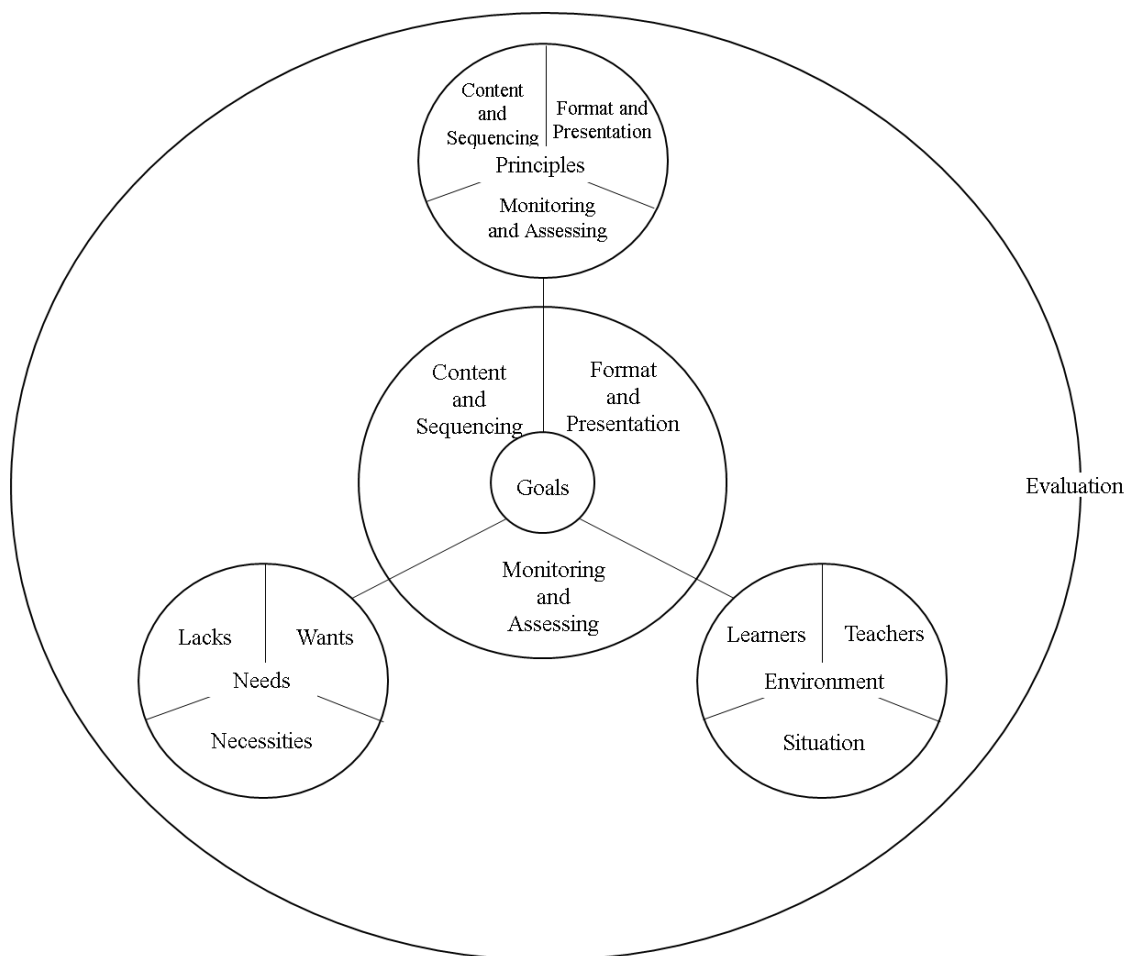
This section has provided a discussion regarding the processes of planning and enacting curriculum and the level of participation and representation of those involved in these stages. The following section deepens the discussions by reviewing literature on foreign language curriculum development.

2.5.2. Foreign Language Curriculum Development

This section reviews different perspectives regarding the development of curriculum for foreign language education. The section begins by providing a model of curriculum design which focuses on goals – related to content and sequencing; format and presentation; and monitoring and assessing – and their relationship with the environment and needs of those who participate in the enactment (Nation and Macalister, 2010; Richards, 2001a). Pedagogical perspectives – such as CLT and TBLT – and external elements – such as textbooks and proficiency examinations – are reviewed in terms of their influence on the processes of foreign language curriculum development and syllabus design (Gray, 2010; Lewkowicz, 2000; Nunan, 2004; Rajaei Nia, Abbaspour and Zare, 2012).

As a specific aspect of the general educational processes of curriculum development, language curriculum development aims to address various issues related to what knowledge, skills and values students should learn, what experiences should be provided and how the processes of teaching and learning can be managed (Richards, 2001b). Nation and Macalister (2010) argue that curriculum design, when seen as a sort of writing, can be analysed as a process and therefore sub-processes must be developed and different set of elements must be considered. In order to establish this set of elements, Nation and Macalister (2010) propose a model that is represented in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 Model for Curriculum Design (Nation and Macalister, 2010)



The model's inner circle represents the syllabus and having 'goals' in the centre aims to encourage reflection upon the importance to establish general, yet clear, goals for a language course regarding what needs to be taught and how (Nation and Macalister, 2010). Nation and Macalister (2010) also argue that such goals must be related to three key processes: (1) content and sequencing; (2) format and presentation; and (3) monitoring and assessing. These processes are also related to the outer circles, which represent the curriculum; however, they are strongly interconnected to the principles circle. Twenty principles of language teaching are divided into these three key processes, which are represented in the 'goals' circle, as presented in Table 2.1

Table 2.1 Twenty principles of language teaching (Nation and Macalister, 2010)

Content and Sequencing	Format and Presentation	Monitoring and Assessment
<u>Frequency</u> : provide the best possible coverage of language in use through the inclusion of items that occur frequently	<u>Motivation</u> : learners should be interested and excited about learning the language and value this learning	<u>Ongoing needs and environment analysis</u> : the selection, ordering, presentation, and assessment of the material in a language course should be based on a continuing careful consideration of the learners and their needs, the teaching conditions, and the time and resources available.
<u>Strategies and autonomy</u> : train learners in how to learn a language and how to monitor and be aware of their learning	<u>Four strands</u> : include a roughly even balance of meaning-focused input, language-focused learning, meaning-focused output and fluency activities	
<u>Spaced retrieval</u> : providing learners with spaced, repeated opportunities to retrieve and give attention to wanted items in various contexts	<u>Comprehensible input</u> : provide substantial quantities of interesting comprehensible receptive activity in both listening and reading	
<u>Language system</u> : focus on the generalisable features of the language	<u>Fluency</u> : provide activities aimed at increasing the fluency of already known language receptively and productively	
<u>Keep moving forward</u> : cover useful language item, skills and strategies	<u>Output</u> : push learners to produce language in various spoken and written discourse types	<u>Feedback</u> : learners should receive helpful feedback which will allow them to improve the quality of their language use.
<u>Teachability</u> : take into account the most favourable sequencing of these items and learners' readiness to learn them	<u>Deliberate learning</u> : include language-focused learning regarding the sound system, spelling, vocabulary, grammar and discourse areas	
<u>Learning burden</u> : help learners to use previous knowledge effectively	<u>Time on task</u> : spend as much time as possible on using and focusing on the second language	
<u>Interference</u> : sequence items in order to make them provide positive effect on each other for learning so that interference effects can be avoided	<u>Depth of processing</u> : learners should deeply process the item to be learnt <u>Integrative motivation</u> : learners should be encouraged to have positive attitudes to the language, its users, the teacher's skills and their own chance of success in learning the language <u>Learning style</u> : provide learners with opportunities to use the materials in ways that suit their individuality	

The first group of principles is concerned with the content of a language course and the order in which language items will be presented during the course whereas the second group focuses on learning and the third group deals with monitoring, assessing and, to a certain extent, evaluation (Nation and Macalister, 2010). The importance that Nation and Macalister (2010) attribute to the 'goals' circle and the three set of principles seems to be related to their position amongst the outer circles (see Figure 2.1). The goals that are established to the development of a certain curriculum can be rightly assumed to be intertwined to the factors which form the 'environment' and the 'needs' circles.

Richards (2001a) argues that language curriculum development, as a comprehensive process, can be defined as follows:

It includes the processes that are used to determine the needs of a group of learners, to develop aims or objectives for a programme to address those needs, to determine an appropriate syllabus, course structure, teaching methods, and to carry out an evaluation of the language programme that results from these processes (p. 2).

Reaching some sort of consensus regarding the needs of a group seems to be the challenging aspect of this definition, since different students are bound to have different needs even when the group has a collective goal. It is important to rely on learners' needs, which are frequently equated with their performance, as a starting point rather than limiting a language curriculum to what learners will be able to do after a certain time (Richards, 2001a). This emphasis on needs, combined with the influence of CLT, calls for changes in the approaches to language curriculum development in which communication begins to be seen as 'the organising principle for teaching' (Richards, 2001a, p. 36). Regarding the multidimensional aspect of educational change, which has been discussed in Section 2.2.2, it is important to understand that when change occurs in one element of a system, the other elements are affected. Considering learners' needs and contexts for learning, 'planning learning outcomes, course organisation, selecting and preparing teaching materials, providing for effective teaching, and evaluation [as parts of] a network of interacting systems' are, or should be, influenced by any individual change (Richards, 2001a, p. 41).

Despite the introduction of more current approaches, as discussed in Section 2.4.4, CLT still has a significant influence on language education (Mickan, 2013). Mickan (2013) describes the advantages and disadvantages of several types of curricula. The task-based curriculum encourages negotiation through the use of language to perform various tasks with palpable outcomes; however, it fails to escape the tradition of 'measurement of language development in terms of grammatical structures' (Mickan, 2013, p. 21). The genre-based curriculum aims to develop students' skills in analysing and recognising purposes and generic patterns of different texts, but it is rightly criticised for 'teaching genres as predictable and normative social discourses'. (Mickan, 2013, p. 22). Given that texts are 'embedded in social practices', the text-based curriculum focuses on the social purposes of language use, which means that it prioritises the understanding of 'what is going on in a context and how language is integral to what is taking place' (Mickan, 2013, p. 22-3).

Understanding these three types of curricula is important for this thesis because, alongside the CLT and TBLT, they strongly influence several aspects and stages of curriculum development in the contexts that were investigated (see Chapters 5). Current guidelines in Brazil highlight outdated goals for foreign language curriculum development, so new documents need to be developed (Brasil, 2014a). It is argued that communicative competence can only be achieved if other abilities – such as distinguishing linguistic varieties, selecting appropriate vocabulary and understanding expressions – reflect the sociocultural context in which the foreign language is both used and developed (Brasil, 2000). Inadequacy of curriculum models and development persist because new goals; new technologies; new approaches; new learners' profiles; and different levels of practitioners' and researchers' commitment are important elements which need to be considered (Mickan, 2013).

There are different dimensions that are involved in the development of a course and/or materials; moreover, objectives which are established for a programme often require interpretation and/or adaptation (Richards, 2001a). Richards (2001a) proposes the following dimensions of course development:

- developing a course rationale: short description of the reasons, beliefs, values, and goals underpinning the course;
- describing entry and exit levels: identification of performance or proficiency levels in terms of bands or points so that a description of expected abilities for each stage can be drawn;
- choosing course content: reflection of the planners' perspectives regarding language, language use, and language learning alongside purposeful organised essential language elements;
- sequencing course content: decisions concerning breadth and depth of content and its distribution throughout the course;
- planning the course content (syllabus and instructional blocks): organisation of the course structure into a syllabus and self-contained learning sequence;
- preparing the scope and sequence plan: description of the blocks (modules or units), their contents, and time required for each one to be taught.

In light of the contexts within which the data were gathered for this study (see Chapter 3 and 4), planning the course content in terms of syllabus and instructional blocks organisation will be the focus of the following sections. The influence of textbooks and proficiency examinations on syllabus design is further discussed as a stage of the foreign language curriculum enactment process.

2.5.2.1. Syllabus Design

As previously discussed, 'syllabus design is one aspect of curriculum development but it is not identical with it' (Richards, 2001a, p. 2). While the literature, as has been noted, tends to use the terms 'syllabus' and 'curriculum' interchangeably, according to Nunan (1988, p. 9) 'a syllabus is a statement of content'. A syllabus, in language education, can be generally defined as a description or specification of the linguistic content of a course which lists what should be taught and in what order (Rajaei Nia, Abbaspour and Zare, 2012; Richards, 2001b; Wait, 1990). A syllabus can also be defined as an outline of the aims, objectives and outcomes of a programme and each of these elements should explicitly contain the following:

- the aims of the programme which state its (social) purposes;
- the objectives which describe learners' participation in social practices;
- the outcomes which are based on objectives. These should specify learners' participation and progression in a structured programme – what language practices learners will be able to take part in by the end of a programme or unit of work (amended from Mickan, 2013, p. 45-6).

It is important to highlight that those aims, objectives and outcomes should be practical, realistic and well specified. Nevertheless, such specifications can be written by designers who do not have the task to enact them as practitioners, since the syllabus might be externally determined – as is the case with a national curriculum, for example (Mickan, 2013). An internally-designed syllabus, as is the case within the contexts which were investigated in this study is argued to offer more autonomy to teachers in terms of adherence to guidelines; however, a set of goals that are guided by the curriculum should be shared by teachers and learners (ibid). More specifically, a language syllabus can be divided or categorised into different types depending on the focus.

Wilkins (1976) draws a distinction between an analytic syllabus and a synthetic syllabus. An analytic syllabus is organised around the purposes for learning a certain language and the performance that is required to achieve such purposes, whereas a synthetic syllabus arranges parts of language to be taught separately and accumulatively (Wilkins, 1976). Nunan (1988) conceptualises two different types of syllabi: a *product-oriented* syllabus, which focuses on the knowledge and skills that are acquired by learners as a result of instruction; and a *process-oriented* syllabus, which emphasises the learning experiences. A helpful parallel is made between those two sets of syllabi. Synthetic and product-oriented syllabi are both determined as

structural and situational, while analytical and process-oriented syllabi are considered tasked-based, procedural, negotiated and content-based (Rajaei Nia et al., 2012). Positive and negative aspects of each syllabus category and subcategory are listed by these authors in order to discuss the rationale behind syllabus designers' selection criteria (ibid).

As further discussed in Chapter 5, the merits and drawbacks related to a task-based syllabus are particularly relevant for this thesis. Taking into consideration the discussion regarding tasks (see Section 2.4.1.2), it is claimed that a task-based syllabus offers the realisation of CLT by analysing learners' needs (Nunan, 2004). However, learners' real-life needs might limit the use of language as a tool through which learners have their specific, rather than their general, communicative needs met (Rajaei Nia et al., 2012). 'An "organic" model of acquisition remains an essentially simple account of a very complex process' (Wait, 1990, p. 75). In other words, the goal of having learners eventually recognising recurrence of grammatical and functional items, and using them in diverse contexts, might not happen as effortlessly and naturally as expected.

Nunan (2004, p. 25) rightly argues that 'one of the potential problems with a task-based programme is that it may consist of a seemingly random collection of tasks with nothing to tie them together'. In terms of syllabus, it is proposed that tasks be grouped into topics or themes around macro- and micro-functions and grammatical elements which are to be covered by the programme (Nunan, 2004). Many instructional materials, especially textbooks, offer a predetermined organisation of topics and themes to assist syllabus design, depending on the focus of programmes; however, those suggestions should not be used literally and uncritically (Richards, 2001c). The final sections of this chapter discuss briefly how textbooks and proficiency examinations can influence language syllabus design by dictating general aims and objectives.

2.5.2.2. Textbooks and Syllabus Design

Instructional materials, mainly course books or textbooks, 'serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in classroom' (Richards, 2001c, p. 251). The textbook is said to provide a general structure regarding the information about the language and culture being taught and therefore 'very few lessons are conducted without opening the textbook' (Byram,

Esarte-Sarries, Taylor and Allatt, 1990, p. 112). Richards (2001c) suggests that without such materials much of the language teaching around the world would not be possible. Despite the exaggeration and generalisation of his statement, the role played by these materials is extremely important to facilitate language education. Nevertheless, their influence is not wholly positive, especially when the authority of such materials remains unchallenged (Forman, 2014). This tendency simply to accept the textbooks' linguistic and sociocultural elements of the target language as accurate representations is justifiably criticised for legitimising specific types of knowledge and promoting unilateral stereotypes and ideologies (Canale, 2016; Forman, 2014).

Textbooks can be seen as 'educational tools to be evaluated in terms of "fitness for purpose", often against normative checklists designed to identify their methodological, task and thematic appropriateness for the contexts in which they are to be used' (Gray, 2010, p.2). Furthermore, Gray (2010) rightly problematises the viability of the global textbook, a product which is grounded on the assumption that "one size fits all" disregarding social, geographical and educational diversity in the contexts of use (p. 3). Gray (2010) argues that considering every representational practice as essentially cultural allows us to perceive the ways in which language is conveyed purposefully to promote particular discourses to specific audiences. Textbooks tend to address culture in a selective way in which representation satisfies those who consume such materials and therefore cultural and social diversity might be silenced and/or absent.

Although textbook users should not be seen as passive readers, teachers can easily be tempted or told to go 'through the three volumes of the textbook topic by topic' (Byram et al., 1990, p. 112). One of the reasons for this is attributed to teachers' sense of ownership, or lack of it, towards the materials and the target languages and cultures (Widdowson, 1994). A textbook which is developed by native speakers can make 'pronouncements and recommendations', promoting their language as 'real language' and their approaches to pedagogy as 'real teaching' (Widdowson, 1994, p. 388). Because no textbook will be suitable for every teaching situation, unless it is used to dictate these situations, adaptations are constantly needed in terms of 'modifying', 'adding or deleting' and 'reorganising content', 'addressing omissions', 'modifying tasks', and 'extending tasks' (Richards, 2001c, p. 260).

Kramsch (2014) persuasively connects TBLT to the 'commodification of language and of language teaching materials' and the trend of transforming textbooks into 'tourist brochures' as a way of 'surfing diversity, not engaging with difference' (p. 302). Canale

(2016) insightfully analyses the extent to which language textbooks accurately represent foreign culture. The 'politics of hide and seek [study] not only what textbook discourse chooses to represent and how it chooses to represent it, but also what it chooses to leave out' (Canale, 2016, p. 230). Through simplification strategies, textbooks represent social phenomena through 'homogenisation of foreign culture' by 'exclusion of groups, perspectives or non-hegemonic practices within the culture' (Canale, 2016, p. 232). In other words, an idealised homogeneous representation of society grants linguistic and cultural ownership to certain social groups and speech communities. Moreover, these groups are portrayed by foreign language textbooks as norms, as the ones whose abilities and levels of proficiency should be emulated.

2.5.2.3. Proficiency Examinations and Syllabus Design

The influence of proficiency examinations is broadly found to extend over textbook production and syllabus design; thus, constraining teachers and students' language learning experiences (Buttjes, 1990). Since proficiency examinations require specific knowledge and skills, depending on the purposes and/or the levels at which they are aimed, proficiency-oriented goals tend to be different from interactional goals (Kramsch, 1986; Lo Bianco, 2001). Kramsch (2005) argues convincingly that task-based syllabi should be connected to real-world contexts and real-world problems; however, 'standardised tests and proficiency ratings' continue to measure language knowledge through identifiable skills which can be 'transferable across tasks' (p. 559). Issues which are considered to be unnecessary for the completion of these tasks, such as sociocultural and identity issues, are assumed irrelevant and are, therefore, left out (Kramsch, 2005).

The influence of proficiency examinations on syllabus design is generally found to have a washback effect on language teaching and learning (Lewkowicz, 2000; Schoffen, 2009). A washback effect refers to the impact that tests and examinations have on teaching and learning experiences and the changes to educational elements, such as syllabi, as a result of this impact (Shohamy, Donitsa-schmidt and Ferman, 1996). It is important to point out that this impact can be either positive or negative. A proficiency examination can guide syllabus goals, especially in terms of desired outcomes, as well as serve as a direct tool to remove obsolete pedagogical approaches which are unsuitable for the preparation necessary to succeed in the examination (Schoffen, 2009). Nevertheless, syllabus aims and objectives can be

directed exclusively towards students' preparation for the proficiency examination which could limit language learning experiences (Lewkowicz, 2000; Schoffen, 2009; Shohamy et al., 1996). This brief discussion is particularly relevant in light of the review that is presented in Chapter 3 of the Certificate of Proficiency in Brazilian Portuguese; and Chapter 5 considers its impact on the learning of Portuguese as a Foreign Language within the data-gathering contexts for this current research.

2.6. Summary

This chapter has provided a comprehensive review of the theoretical foundations within the following areas of enquiry: (a) policy making and enactment; (b) language policy and language-in-education policy; (c) foreign language education and intercultural communication; and (d) curriculum development and enactment for foreign language education.

In Section 2.2, a discussion has been drawn concerning the socio-political and economic purposes for processes of policy making and enactment. Three distinct, yet interconnected to a certain extent, phenomena – globalisation, policy borrowing, and academic research – have been reviewed regarding their contribution to the development of similar educational policies worldwide. Those similarities have been argued to be responsible for the standardisation across different contexts rather than representation of specificities. The role of practitioners – which is usually limited to policy enactment – has been discussed in terms of their sense of engagement with enacting policies in which they cannot recognise their realities and needs and the effects that such sense can have within the classroom.

In Section 2.3, concepts of language and how they interact with each other have been reviewed to discuss the role of language when it becomes a means through which notions of society, identity and culture are constructed. Language planning and policy, in turn, have been argued to establish and/or promote these constructions as criteria for those to whom citizenship is granted. Language-in-education policies, which are related to language planning and policy, have been presented as a mechanism through which the development of certain language abilities is prioritised.

In Section 2.4, foreign language education has been reviewed in relation to the globalisation and internationalisation agendas within education systems. CLT and TBLT had their contribution and limitations presented and discussed so that the

introduction of different perspectives – such as intercultural communication competence, critical cultural awareness and intercultural speaker – could be justified and reviewed according to their relationship with foreign language education. Further recontextualisation of language and learner – as symbolic system and multilingual subject, respectively – has been discussed considering the contributions of the concept of *conscientização*, criticality and interculturality to foreign language education and the development of cosmopolitan citizenship and symbolic competence.

In Section 2.5, curriculum development has been reviewed regarding its relationship with social contexts in which it is enacted. The role of the teacher, who interprets and moderates different dimensions of curriculum (intended and operational), has been highlighted. The influence of CLT and TBLT on curriculum development and syllabus design for foreign language education has been discussed alongside the role of textbooks and proficiency examinations. Multidimensional frameworks have been reviewed considering their capacity to allow broad (re)contextualisation and (re)interpretations in order to shape syllabus design by taking practitioners' viewpoints into consideration.

The following chapter presents an overview of the context in which this research took place. The academic mobility programme PEC-G, the proficiency examination CELPE-BRAS and the role that is played by the Brazilian public universities which receive international students who participate in the programme are described and explained. This brief contextualisation aims to provide a background knowledge which is necessary to understand the particularities of the contexts that are discussed in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH CONTEXT

3.1. Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the context in which this research took place as a way to facilitate understanding of the specific elements that are discussed in detail in Chapter 4. Section 3.2 presents briefly the main points of the Exchange Programme for Undergraduate Students (PEC-G¹) in terms of the programme's history; purposes; recent facts and figures; and eligibility requirements. In Section 3.3, there is an outline of the Certificate of Proficiency in Brazilian Portuguese (CELPE-BRAS²) and the examination which assesses examinees' levels of proficiency. The ways in which CELPE-BRAS defines language, language use, communicative competence and culture are introduced and discussed, drawing on the academic theoretical literature which is reviewed in Chapter 2. Section 3.4 presents the main characteristics of the language programmes within the universities to which PEC-G students are sent by the Brazilian Ministry of Education to study Portuguese as a Foreign Language (PFL).

3.2. Exchange Programme for Undergraduate Students

The Exchange Programme for Undergraduate Students (PEC-G) was first offered in 1965 in order to provide students from developing countries with which Brazil maintains educational, cultural or scientific and technological agreements the opportunity to pursue their undergraduate studies in Brazilian Higher Education Institutions (Brasil, 2014a). There are currently 59 countries that participate in PEC-G – 25 African countries, 25 Latin-American countries and Caribbean islands, and 9 Asian countries; however, 77% of PEC-G students come from African countries as it is shown in Table 3.1.

¹ PEC-G is an acronym for Programa de Estudantes-Convênio de Graduação

² CELPE-BRAS is an abbreviation for Certificado de Proficiência em Língua Portuguesa para Estrangeiros

Table 3.1 Percentage of PEC-G students per continent 2000-2016 (Brasil, 2016b)

Continent	Percentage of PEC-G students (2000-2016)
Africa	76.5%
Latin America and The Caribbean Islands	23%
Asia	0.5%

In order to be eligible to participate in PEC-G, students must comply with several requirements amongst which the following items are relevant to this research:

- (1) the candidate must live abroad and be a citizen of one of the 59 countries with which Brazil has signed an agreement related to PEC-G;
- (2) the candidate must be at least 18 years old and, preferably, not older than 23;
- (3) the candidate must not have completed their Secondary studies in Brazil;
- (4) if the candidate's country does not have a CELPE-BRAS application centre, the candidate will have a single chance to take the proficiency examination in Brazil, in October of the current year, after having completed a PFL course at one of the accredited Higher Education Institutions; and
- (5) the candidate who fails the CELPE-BRAS examination in Brazil will not be able to start their undergraduate course (Brasil, 2015c).

Bizon (2013) argues that the PEC-G agreement is an important political instrument for the institutional internationalisation of universities in Brazil which implies the development of language policy. CELPE-BRAS, in that sense, represents a language policy within Brazilian HEI since the examination is a requirement for international students who desire to participate in the programme. Given that there are 28 CELPE-BRAS application centres in Latin-American countries and the Caribbean Islands and only 7 centres in African countries, most PEC-G students who must attend the PFL courses that are required by the Brazilian Ministry of Education come from African countries. It is reasonable to conclude that the Brazilian accredited HEI which offer PFL courses within the PEC-G context play an important role in preparing those students for both CELPE-BRAS and their future as undergraduate students.

This section has presented a brief history of PEC-G as well as data related to the percentage of participants amongst its member countries. The eligibility requirements have been outlined. The next section introduces CELPE-BRAS and the theoretical perspectives which inform the examination, particularly focussing on language, language use, communicative competence and culture.

3.3. Certificate of Proficiency in Brazilian Portuguese

3.3.1. CELPE-BRAS and its influence on the PFL area

The following sections present briefly the background to CELPE-BRAS and the motivations for the development of the CELPE-BRAS examination. The theoretical perspectives that inform CELPE-BRAS are discussed in terms of their influence on education in PFL. The examination's structure and assessment criteria are outlined in order to provide an overview of the procedures with which both the candidates and the examiners must comply. The section ends by outlining the academic publications that have contributed to the development of research regarding CELPE-BRAS and the PFL area.

3.3.1.1. The development of CELPE-BRAS

CELPE-BRAS is the Certificate of Proficiency in Brazilian Portuguese which was developed by the Brazilian Ministry of Education and, since 1998, the examination has been offered worldwide every April and October (INEP, 2015). CELPE-BRAS was created to certify the proficiency levels of international students and/or workers who need Portuguese to develop their jobs and/or studies in Brazil or elsewhere (Scaramucci, 2012). Oliveira (2004) argues that a proficiency certificate represents a language and political instrument through which a government can manage how a certain language circulates within the international language market. For Zoppi-Fontana and Diniz (2008), CELPE-BRAS is an instrument for language policy and for the promotion of Portuguese; moreover, it is one of the official institutional measures which directly influences teaching, teacher education and the preparation of professionals within the PFL area.

It has been argued that CELPE-BRAS' contributions to education helps to change teachers' and examinees' perceptions regarding both classroom practice and assessment (Scaramucci, 2002, 2004, 2008; Schlatter et al 2009). Scaramucci (2012) convincingly argues that CELPE-BRAS' impact on teaching and learning processes can generate both positive and negative washback effects. For Scaramucci (2012), further measures – such as teacher development – must be taken in order to allow CELPE-BRAS to have a fully positive influence on PFL education. Scaramucci (2012) believes that the theories on which CELPE-BRAS has been based, especially the

theoretical perspectives related to language and assessment, should be used to inform teacher development and teacher education.

3.3.1.2. The theoretical perspectives that inform CELPE-BRAS

CELPE-BRAS was developed to be a proficiency examination based on a communicative assessment (Schlatter, 1996). CELPE-BRAS' communicative tasks focus on assessing the examinees' competence to use the language for communication purposes in a socially and grammatically adequate way (Scaramucci, 1995). Scaramucci (2012) explains that CELPE-BRAS is informed by Clark's (1996) perspective of language use – which is defined as 'a form of *joint action* that is carried out by an assemble of people acting in coordination with each other' (p. 3, italics in original). Scaramucci (2000) argues that the notion of proficiency on which CELPE-BRAS relies is that of Bachman (1990), that is, the framework of Communicative Language Ability (CLA). Such framework includes the following three components:

- (1) language competence: a set of specific knowledge components that are utilised in communication via language;
- (2) strategic competence: mental capacity for implementing components of language competence in contextualised communicative language use. It provides the means for relating language competencies to features of the context of situation in which language use takes place and to the language user's knowledge structures (social knowledge, 'real-world' knowledge); and
- (3) psychological mechanisms: neurological and psychological processes involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon (sound, light). (Bachman, 1990, p. 84)

This description seems to concur with Kramersch's (2005) argument that this notion of proficiency aims to assess language knowledge and use through the measurement of a specific set of skills that can be reproduced and are transferable across different tasks.

Scaramucci (1997) also argues that CELPE-BRAS expects the examinees to use language as a culturally-organised social action in order to know what to say, to whom, when and how. In other words, the examinees are required to deal with issues related to context, previous knowledge and interpretation while using language for communication purposes (Scaramucci, 2012). In terms of culture, it is emphasised that the examinees should be invited to express their world views according to their

own experiences and the perspectives that they share with the members of a certain community (INEP, 2015). It is claimed that the communicative tasks should be developed to encourage interactions within diverse situations and contexts, contexts within which the examinees can recognise themselves, and others who are represented, through broader cultural processes (INEP, 2015).

Culture, in CELPE-BRAS, is perceived to be an element of language that focuses on social adequacy (Rodrigues, 2006). For Rodrigues (2006) 'learning a certain culture enables understanding the others; [moreover], the non-native speakers maintain their individuality and nationality but acquire new patterns through which they can understand and act upon the target culture' (p. 51). A study that aimed to investigate the representation of Brazil and Brazilians within CELPE-BRAS demonstrated that the texts that have been reproduced within the examination promote a notion of culture which is attached to nationality (Lima, 2008). In addition, Lima (2008) analysed the texts on which the examinations' tasks had been devised and revealed that such texts had been produced within the most urban and cosmopolitan regions of the country. As previously noted, CELPE-BRAS certifies the examinees' proficiency in Portuguese and, also, aims to promote the importance of the Brazilian Portuguese within the internationalisation agenda. In so doing, the examination seems to be interested in prioritising certain varieties of Portuguese and specific notions of culture.

CELPE-BRAS assesses the examinees through using communicative tasks which represent an invitation for the examinees to engage in interactions (Scaramucci, 2012). The notion of speech genres that informs CELPE-BRAS is attributed to Bakhtin (1968) and therefore the examinees are required to:

- 1) produce utterances by playing a certain role within a given communicative situation;
- 2) address these utterances to specific interlocutors;
- 3) achieve a determined communicative purpose; and
- 4) make sense in a context that, in turn, also produces meaning (Schlatter, Scaramucci, Prati and Acuña, 2009).

For Scaramucci (2012), a successful examinee needs to be able 'to comprehend and produce texts in different genres [by] taking a stance and connecting ideas through a contextually adequate use of language' (p. 57).

3.3.1.3. The structure of the CELPE-BRAS examination

The examination assesses examinees' ability to interact in Portuguese using tasks which simulate real-life situations and therefore the CELPE-BRAS examination is a performance test which assesses oral and written comprehension and production (Schoffen, 2009b). The CELPE-BRAS examination, because of its communicative nature, focuses on (a) the use of language; (b) the use of authentic texts; and (c) assessment of integration between comprehension and production (oral and written) (INEP, 2015). By simulating 'real-life situations' through communicative tasks based on authentic texts, the CELPE-BRAS examination adopts a stance that grants authenticity to texts which are produced for communication purposes rather than pedagogical purposes (Canale and Swain, 1980; Nunan, 2004). Nevertheless, as discussed in Section 2.4.1.3, this perspective regarding authenticity can be challenged, since only certain language varieties are included and considered to be authentic; moreover, these varieties might be promoted and accepted as standard. As a result, sociocultural and linguistic authority are given and/or claimed by the minority of native speakers who declare themselves and/or are declared to be custodians of such varieties (Widdowson, 1994).

The CELPE-BRAS examination is divided into two modules: a three-hours module comprising the written elements (Appendix 1) and a twenty-minutes module involving the oral element. Each module requires different actions from the part of the examinees and examiners, as presented by Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 The structure of the CELPE-BRAS examination (INEP, 2015)

Features of the Exam	Module 1 Written Elements	Module 2 Oral Element
Duration	3 hours	20 minutes
Tasks	Task 1	
	Authentic text	Assessed skills
	Video excerpt	Oral and written comprehension and Written production
	Task 2	
	Authentic text	Assessed skills
	Audio excerpt	Oral and written comprehension and Written production
	Task 3	
	Authentic text	Assessed skills
	Written text	Written comprehension and production
	Task 4	
Authentic text	Assessed skills	
Written text	Written comprehension and production	

Features of the Exam	Module 1 Written Elements	Module 2 Oral Element
Patterns of Assessment	Every written production will be assessed in regard to the combination of oral and/or written comprehension and written production. Two assessors will independently assess the production's adequacy and relevance of the examinee's response to the communicative purposes proposed by the task.	Two examiners – amongst whom the one playing the role of interlocutor as well – will independently assess the examinee's oral performance in terms of (a) comprehension of interlocutor's/examiner's oral production; (b) competence in interacting in Portuguese; (c) fluency; (d) competence in using appropriate vocabulary and structures in Portuguese while speaking about assorted themes; and (e) pronunciation.

For the written element, the examinees must produce a written response to each of the four tasks that are provided. These tasks aim to assess the examinees' written production, as well as written and oral comprehension, since the tasks' instructions (Appendix 1) are presented through written texts. Information that is required to respond the tasks is presented in written, audio and video texts. Each task requires examinees to:

- 1) comprehend the text which is provided (oral and/or written);
- 2) select appropriate information from the texts;
- 3) adopt a social role (enunciator);
- 4) write to a specific person or group of people (interlocutor/s); and
- 5) perform a predetermined action (purpose) (INEP, 2015).

Each written production is anonymised, digitalised and uploaded to the Assessment Electronic System of CELPE-BRAS and is then assessed by two assessors who focus on the adequacy and relevance of the examinees' productions (INEP, 2015). The definition of proficiency that informs CELPE-BRAS is based on the appropriate use of language to perform particular actions and therefore written productions must be assessed by considering their ability to take account of the context that is presented by the task itself (Schoffen, 2009b). In that sense, adequacy and relevance are related to the examinees' capacity to respond to each task's communicative purpose(s).

Discursive adequacy assesses whether and to what extent the text takes account of the communication situation that is proposed and the candidate's ability to use the discourse genre which is required (INEP, 2015). This notion of discourse genre use focuses on the 'enunciator (who writes), the interlocutor (to whom the text is written), the purpose (the objective for writing it), and the information to be conveyed (the informational content of the authentic text)' (INEP, 2015, p.19). Textual adequacy assesses whether and to what extent the text is clear and cohesive and whether the information that has been selected by the examinee is relevant to the particular discourse genre which is being produced (INEP, 2015). In other words, written

productions must reflect both the examinees' comprehension of the tasks and their capacity to use language in context.

For the oral element, the examinees have a 20-minutes face-to-face interaction which is assessed by two examiners – the interlocutor/examiner and the observer/examiner – who focus on the examinees' capacity to interact during a 'simulation of a real-life conversation' about personal issues and assorted themes that have been broadly circulated by Brazilian mainstream media (INEP, 2015, p. 20). Provoking elements (Appendix 2), which can be read and examined by the examinees for a minute before the interaction starts, are provided as visual aids to facilitate the conversation and help the examinees to comprehend the topic which is about to be discussed (INEP, 2015). The interlocutor/examiner receives a script for the interaction which is divided into four sets of questions as follows:

Question 1: comprehension of the topic that is presented by the provoking element;

Questions 2, 3, and 8: personal opinions and experiences regarding the topic being discussed;

Questions 4, 5, and 7: the relationship between the topic and the cultural elements from the examinee's country; and

Question 6: typical Brazilian cultural aspects related to the topic (INEP, 2015, p. 21).

Both examiners are required to assess independently each examinee, without discussing their opinions, before submitting their assessments and to do this they are required to focus on:

- (a) comprehension of interlocutor's/examiner's oral production;
- (b) competence in interacting in Portuguese (performance and autonomy during their oral production);
- (c) fluency (capacity to interact without interrupting the conversation flow);
- (d) competence in using appropriate vocabulary and structures of Portuguese while discussing a variety of themes; and
- (e) pronunciation (adequacy of sounds, rhythm and intonation of Portuguese) (INEP, 2015).

The approach which is adopted to design the tasks for the examination appears to be based on Hymes' (1974) flexible factors which are considered to be key for the development of communicative tasks (see Chapter 2). Adequacy, in turn, is assessed by the CELPE-BRAS examination under the notion of communicative competence,

which considers language as both system and discourse, and that is divided into grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences (Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Hymes, 1972). The patterns of assessment that is used for and promoted by the examination clearly prioritise language use (language as discourse) over language usage (language as system), which does not reflect Canale and Swain's (1980) view that there is a conceptual overlap and interdependence amongst the four competences.

The CELPE-BRAS examination assesses six levels of proficiency: Beginner, Basic, Intermediate, Upper Intermediate, Advanced and Upper Advanced (Appendix 3). However, CELPE-BRAS is awarded only to those who achieve one of the four Intermediate or Advanced levels (Schoffen, 2009b). CELPE-BRAS certifies proficiency according to the examinees' global performance, that is, the lower level achieved in any of the examination's elements is the examinee's final result. In other words, if an examinee is granted the Intermediate level for the oral element and the Advanced level for their written element, the examinee's level awarded is Intermediate because it is assumed that the quality of the examinee's oral production has not yet improved as much as their written productions (Schoffen, 2009, p. 36).

3.3.1.4. Relevant studies related to CELPE-BRAS

As previously mentioned and further discussed in Chapters 5, the washback effect that has been caused by CELPE-BRAS has influenced education in PFL. CELPE-BRAS has also been a major influence on research within the PFL field. For the past twenty years, CELPE-BRAS has been the focus of research concerning many issues – amongst which, the main topics are assessment; communicative tasks; oral/written comprehension/production; teaching; the development of pedagogical materials; its influence on teaching and learning processes; its role as an instrument for promoting Brazil; and certain notions of culture and its participation in the internationalisation process. Table 3.3 presents the number and type of publications which have been published from 1995 – the year in which the CELPE-BRAS examination started being developed – to 2016.

Table 3.3 List of the Academic Publications about CELPE-BRAS (Celpe-Bras, 2016)

Year of Publication	Number of Papers	Number of Articles	Number of Monographies	Number of Dissertations	Number of Theses	Number of Book Chapters	Number of Books
1995	-	1	-	-	-	1	-
1998	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
1999	-	1	-	-	-	1	-
2002	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
2003	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
2004	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
2006	3	-	-	4	-	-	-
2007	-	-	-	1	1	-	-
2008	-	2	-	2	1	-	-
2009	-	2	1	2	2	-	-
2010	-	1	-	1	-	-	-
2011	1	-	-	1	-	-	-
2012	1	4	-	3	1	1	-
2013	1	2	-	4	1	-	-
2014	1	2	2	1	-	1	1
2015	2	2	-	1	-	1	-
2016	1	1	3	-	-	1	-

Table 3.3 clearly shows that CELPE-BRAS is a topic of interest which has been represented within research in the PFL field. As further discussed in Chapters 5, CELPE-BRAS is usually chosen by the PG students who are PFL teachers. Their Master's dissertations and Doctoral theses tend to focus on CELPE-BRAS' influence on teaching and pedagogical materials. For Scaramucci (2002), foreign language teachers need to update their own views on language and proficiency in order to produce real change within the classroom. Rodrigues (2006) argues that, despite being based on the most recent research and theories regarding the language learning and teaching processes, the theoretical perspectives on which CELPE-BRAS is based are not necessarily translated to PFL practices. Nevertheless, as the findings of this study suggest (see Chapter 5), the notions of language, culture and proficiency that inform CELPE-BRAS, which do not reflect current theories or pedagogies for foreign language education, appear to have been established and/or promoted in the contexts where this study took place.

Bohn (2001) argues convincingly that traditional theories regarding language teaching, which are still prioritised by the universities, impact on teacher education

and may cause discrepancies between theory and practice. Agreeing with this argument, Scaramucci (2012) argues that the curriculum for undergraduate courses which prepare language teachers should be aligned more closely with the contexts where these teachers will be developing their practice. Most of the participants in this study agree with this position (as is discussed further in Chapter 5) and believe that the universities where PFL courses are offered for international students should have undergraduate courses which prepare PFL teachers.

This section has discussed the theoretical stances on which CELPE-BRAS relies its understanding of language, language use, communicative competence and culture. The examination's structures and general assessment criteria have also been outlined. The following section outlines key characteristics of the PFL programmes within the Brazilian universities.

3.4. Programmes of Portuguese as a Foreign Language in Brazil

Over 100 Brazilian HEIs participate in PEC-G by receiving international students from the 59 countries with which the Brazilian Ministry of Education have an agreement related to academic mobility (Brasil, 2014b). However, only 12 HEIs offered PFL for PEC-G students through their PFL programmes during the period between February and October of 2015 (Brasil, 2014c). Table 3.4 presents an overview of the 12 Brazilian HEIs which offered PFL courses for PEC-G students in 2015; information regarding their PFL programmes; the number of new PEC-G students they received in that year; and the students' nationalities.

Table 3.4 Universities which offered PFL for PEC-G students in 2015 (Brasil, 2014c)

University	Main characteristics of the PFL programme	Number of new PEC-G students in 2015/Nationalities
Uni01	The PFL programme at Uni01 is managed and structured by a Language Centre, which is considered a supplementary institution to Uni01's College of Human Sciences, Languages and Arts. The Language Centre was developed over 20 years ago to provide of Modern, Classical Languages course to the community and professional development to Languages undergraduate students within Uni01. Currently, the centre offers over 30 different courses regarding Languages, Culture, Teacher Development, Literature, and Cinema.	5 students from African countries 1 student from a Caribbean island 1 student from a Central American country
Uni02	PFL at Uni02 is one of the Languages offered by the Modern and Classical Languages extension programme within the College of Languages and Literature. Amongst the PFL courses offered by the programme, there is a PFL course for PEC-G students.	13 students from African countries 5 students from the Caribbean Islands

University	Main characteristics of the PFL programme	Number of new PEC-G students in 2015/Nationalities
Uni03	The PFL programme at Uni03 is managed and structured within the Department of Classical Languages. The programme focus on offering several PFL courses, amongst which the PFL course for PEC-G students. The programme also promotes teacher development and research concerning PFL and Brazilian Cultural Identity.	6 students from African countries 4 students from the Caribbean Islands
Uni04	PFL at Uni04 is an extension programme which was developed almost 25 years ago. The programme focus on offering several PFL courses, amongst which PFL course to PEC-G students. The programme also promotes teaching, teacher development, and research opportunities to Languages undergraduate and post-graduate students.	8 students from African countries 5 students from the Caribbean Islands 1 student from a Central American country
Uni05	PFL at Uni05 is one of the Languages offered by the Modern and Classical Languages extension programme within the College of Languages and Literature.	29 students from African countries 6 students from the Caribbean Islands 2 students from an Asian country
Uni06	PFL at Uni06 is an extension programme, which was created over 25 years ago, within the College of Languages and Literature. The programme offers several PFL courses, amongst which PFL for PEC-G students.	13 students from African countries 2 students from a Caribbean Island
Uni07	PFL at Uni07 is an extension programme within the College of Languages and Literature. Amongst the PFL courses offered by the programme, there is a PFL course for PEC-G students.	9 students from African countries 4 student from the Caribbean islands 1 student from a Central American country
Uni08	PFL at Uni08 is one of the languages offered by a Languages Centre within the Council of Interinstitutional and International Relations and the university itself. PFL is offered to international students within the university, including PEC-G students.	9 students from African countries 2 student from the Caribbean islands
Uni09	PFL at Uni09 is one of the languages offered by an extension programme within the university's Centre of Languages and Cultures.	6 students from African countries 4 student from the Caribbean islands
Uni10	PFL at Uni10 is one of the languages offered by an extension programme within the university's Centre of Languages and Literatures. PEC-G students are offered a course which focuses on CELPE-BRAS.	23 students from African countries
Uni11	PFL at Uni11 is managed and structured by the Department of Portuguese Language and Brazilian Culture within the university's Secretary of Academic Mobility and the Secretary of International Relations.	16 student from the Caribbean islands 1 student from a Central American country
Uni12	PFL at Uni12 is part of an extension programme of teaching and research within the College of Languages and Literature. The programme offers several PFL courses, amongst which PFL for PEC-G students.	4 student from the Caribbean islands 10 student from a Central American country

Table 3.4 demonstrates that 180 PEC-G students, from over 500 new PEC-G students who arrived in Brazil in 2015, needed to study PFL in order to comply with the requirement established by the academic mobility programme (Brasil, 2016b). Each university has its own programme, each with different characteristics. With regard to their structural organisation, the majority of the programmes offer PFL-related courses only, rather than several Modern and Classical languages. In addition, the programmes differ in terms of opportunities to develop teaching and research for those who act as programme teachers. In terms of management, the PFL programmes appear to be managed mainly by the College of Languages and Literature within each university; however, a few programmes are managed by other departments and/or secretaries (such as International Relations or Academic Mobility).

The PEC-G students were sent by the Ministry of Education to one of the 12 Brazilian HEIs presented by the Table 3.4 where PFL courses were offered. However, the PEC-G students cannot choose where they are going to study and, as demonstrated in Table 3.4, they are not evenly distributed across the 12 universities. Moreover, the location of the HEIs where these students might eventually start their undergraduate courses is not taken into consideration when they are matriculated in a PFL course, which can be verified by the information that is presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5 PEC-G students' allocation to PFL courses and UG courses (Brasil, 2014c)

Student	HEI of UG course	Uni of PFL course
2 Students	Uni04	Uni03
1 Student	Uni12	Uni03
5 Students	Uni12	Uni05
1 Student	Uni11	Uni05
2 students	Uni11	Uni06
1 Student	Uni02	Uni08
1 Student	Uni06	Uni11
5 Students	HEI within Uni03, Uni05, Uni09, Uni11, and Uni12 States	Uni02
4 Students	HEI within Uni04, Uni07, Uni11, and Uni12 States	Uni03
7 Students	HEI within Uni01, Uni11, and Uni12 States	Uni04
20 Students	HEI within Uni01, Uni03, Uni04, Uni06, Uni 07, Uni11, and Uni12 States	Uni05
6 Students	HEI within Uni07, Uni11, and Uni12 States	Uni06
2 Students	HEI within Uni03 State	Uni08
9 Students	HEI within Uni01, Uni03, Uni04, and Uni07 States	Uni11
8 Students	HEI within Uni01, Uni04, and Uni05 States	Uni12

Table 3.5 reveals that 13 PEC-G students could have been placed at the same HEI where they were going to be sent in 2016 to start their undergraduate courses and 59 PEC-G students could have been sent to the same state or region. Considering the size of Brazil, as well as its economic, sociocultural and linguistic diversity across cities, states and regions, it could be argued that the contexts within which those PEC-G students were becoming familiar in 2015 would drastically change once they moved to a different HEI to start their undergraduate studies.

Bizon (2013) conducted a study that aimed to investigate the perspectives of four PEC-G students during the two stages – the PFL course and the UG course – of their academic experience in Brazil. Amongst the many struggles that are emphasised in the study, the adaptation period of one year – during which the PFL courses take place – was described by the PEC-G students as insufficient. Despite acknowledging the importance of CELPE-BRAS and the PFL courses for those students' preparation for the UG courses, many aspects of the PEC-G programme – such as the reallocation of the PEC-G students – were found to be challenging. The study revealed that the PEC-G students tend to take longer to conclude their undergraduate studies; by the end of the research, two of the four participants had withdrawn from the university (Bizon, 2013).

3.5. Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the research context so that particular elements, which are presented and further clarified in the following chapter, may be understood. The main aspects of PEC-G, CELPE-BRAS and the theoretical perspectives regarding language, task, communicative competence and culture on which the examination is based have been presented and reviewed. Additionally, the chapter has outlined the key characteristics of the language programmes that are managed by the HEIs where the PEC-G students must attend a PFL course in order to comply with the requirements set out by the Brazilian Ministry of Education concerning the academic mobility programme.

The literature on CELPE-BRAS promotes the theoretical perspectives on which the examination is based and encourages the use of such perspectives to inform education in PFL. The notions of language, language use, culture, proficiency and assessment promoted through CELPE-BRAS are strongly related to CLT and TBLT which, as discussed in Chapter 2, have been challenged by current theories and pedagogies for foreign language education. Despite acknowledging the importance of the CELPE-BRAS examination in certifying proficiency in PFL and in representing an official language policy for PFL, the theoretical perspectives that inform the examination are outdated and do not reflect current research in foreign language education. Considering this gap between the theoretical perspectives which inform CELPE-BRAS and the current theories and pedagogies for language teaching, this study investigated the following overarching research question:

- What shapes and informs curriculum development for PFL courses which are offered by Brazilian federal universities for PEC-G students?

Alongside this overarching research question, this study also investigated the following sub-questions:

- What are the key goals to be achieved by such PFL courses within this context?
- To what extent do syllabi, pedagogical materials and teaching reflect the curriculum within this context?
- To what extent does institutional support influence the processes of structuring and/or re-structuring these PFL courses?

The following chapter provides a rationale for the methods used and methodological decisions made when planning for and conducting data collection and data analysis for this study in order to answer the research questions. Drawing on Constructivist Grounded Theory (CGT), a detailed account is provided of theoretical and purposive sampling and of data gathering and analysis approaches. Attention then turns to ethical issues, trustworthiness and validity and reflexivity.

CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

This chapter provides an account of and justification for the research design devised for this study; the participants; ethical considerations; data collection and analysis procedures; and research quality in terms of validation, trustworthiness and reflexivity. Section 4.2 discusses the characteristics of Constructivist Grounded Theory as well as the reasons why this approach was selected to inform this research design. In Section 4.3, theoretical and purposive sampling are presented alongside the procedures by which two sets of participants – nine PFL programme co-ordinators and ten PFL programme teachers – were recruited to be interviewed. Moreover, key background information related to the participants is outlined to establish their importance and relevance for the contexts in which they develop their roles and for this study. Section 4.4 provides a discussion of ethical issues related to informed consent, privacy, disclosure and translation. In Section 4.5, the methods that were selected for data gathering and analysis are outlined. Procedures for the selection of relevant documents and for the analysis of these documents are presented. In addition, a detailed account of how in-depth semi-structured interviews with participants were planned, executed and analysed. Section 4.6 presents the strategies which were employed to store, analyse, and translate data, and the management and storage of references is described. In Section 4.7, strategies to increase research quality – validation, trustworthiness, and reflexivity – are presented and justified.

4.2. Research Design

Cohen et al. (2007) argue that a research design is highly influenced by the purposes of the research itself. Qualitative research and its multiplicity of approaches allows concepts and/or hypotheses to be developed and refined during, rather than before, the process of research (Gibbs, 2007; Kvale, 2007; Rapley, 2007). Researchers who investigate PFL have tended to adopt qualitative approaches to access and analyse their experiences and/or those of others, since their objective is usually related to the comprehension and/or interpretation of specific phenomena within PFL contexts (e.g. Bizon, 2013; Bosch, 2015; Kunrath, 2002; Li, 2009; Menezes, 2015). Using

ethnography and conversation analysis, investigations have focused on student-student interactions and the performance of CELPE-BRAS' examinees during the oral element of the examination to conceptualise collaborative pedagogical tasks and oral proficiency (e.g. Bulla, 2007; Fortes, 2009). Comparative case studies have provided suggestions of frameworks for the development of oral and written pedagogical tasks and pedagogical sequences (e.g. Andrighetti, 2009; Carilo, 2009, 2012; Kraemer, 2012; Santos, 2014). Grounded theories have been employed to establish new paradigms regarding task complexity and new patterns of assessment for CELPE-BRAS' written tasks (e.g. Gomes, 2009; Schoffen, 2009).

In order to accomplish the aims of this study and answer the research questions, the selected research design needed to tolerate enough flexibility to guarantee that different perspectives and contexts could be investigated and represented. It was therefore important to ensure that the methods adopted allow that such flexibility would be possible. Furthermore, an interpretative and reflexive stance towards the research was adopted and therefore Constructivist Grounded Theory (CGT) was the research design selected to conduct this study. The following section presents a summary of CGT's key characteristics and how adopting an interpretative and flexible approach throughout helped with the selection of suitable methods of gathering and analysing the data that were gathered.

4.2.1. Constructivist Grounded Theory

Traditionally, Grounded Theory (GT) is 'derived from data and then illustrated by characteristic examples of data', that is, when a theory is generated by data, hypotheses and concepts come from data and are worked out regarding their relationship with the data (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p. 5). Glaser and Strauss (1967) propose methods by which theorists can develop research in such a way that theory generation can be perceived as a process. Those methods can be summarised as follows:

- data collection and analysis occur simultaneously;
- analytic codes and categories are built from data rather than preconceived hypotheses;
- constant comparison is made during each stage of analysis;
- theory must be developed throughout each stage of data collection and analysis;

- memo-writing helps to elaborate categories, as well as specify their properties, define the relationships amongst them, and identify gaps;
- theoretical sampling for theory construction rather than representativeness; and
- the literature review should be conducted after the development of an independent analysis (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

GT, which is a ‘constellation of methods’ that provides ‘a frame for qualitative inquiry and guidelines for conducting it’, challenges beliefs which viewed qualitative methods as unsystematic and unable to generate theory (Charmaz, 2014, p.14). GT rejects the tradition of conducting data collection and data analysis as two separate phases of research. Rather than being forced to suit a predetermined theory, data are analysed and reviewed to enable theory to emerge (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007; Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Hence, GT studies do not start with a theory but end with one.

Despite the contributions of GT to qualitative research, the position of the researcher in relation to data and participants that is established by traditional GT have been viewed as ambiguous (e.g. Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2006; Strauss and Corbin, 1997). As a result, the researcher’s ontological and epistemological beliefs play an important role in the way the researcher treats GT’s set of guidelines; thus, additional technical procedures related to positivistic assumptions were applied to the generation of an ‘evolved’ GT (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2006, p. 3). Table 4.1 provides a comparison between traditional GT and evolved GT:

Table 4.1 Comparison between traditional GT and evolved GT (Mills et al, 2006)

Traditional GT (Glaser & Strauss, 1967)	Evolved GT (Strauss & Corbin, 1996)
THEORETICAL SENSITIVITY	
Researchers are oriented to enter the field of inquiry with as few determined ideas as possible so that they can enable themselves to remain sensitive to the data rather than pre-existing hypotheses and biases.	Several techniques (such as questioning, and the flip-flop technique) are recommended to researchers in order to enhance their sensitivity and stimulate reflection during the processes of data analysis.
TREATMENT OF THE LITERATURE	
Understanding that data needs to be separate from participants and researchers, it is suggested to researchers not to review any bodies of literature before having codes emerging from data.	Researchers are encouraged to engage with literature from the beginning of the process for the literature might contribute to the research itself and the researcher’s theoretical construction.
CODING	
Coding is seen as the fundamental analytic tool through which an emergent grounded theory will be uncovered from the field. Three forms of codes are suggested: (a) open, initial step of coding from data; (b) theoretical, conceptual connectors which relate categories and their properties; and (c) constant comparative, description of the method which conducts open and theoretical coding.	Complex coding methods are encouraged as strategies through which the connections between structure and process can be examined. Paradigmatic frameworks for axial coding and the use of conditional/consequential matrix suggest that the researchers should focus on the interconnections and patterns of interaction between categories.

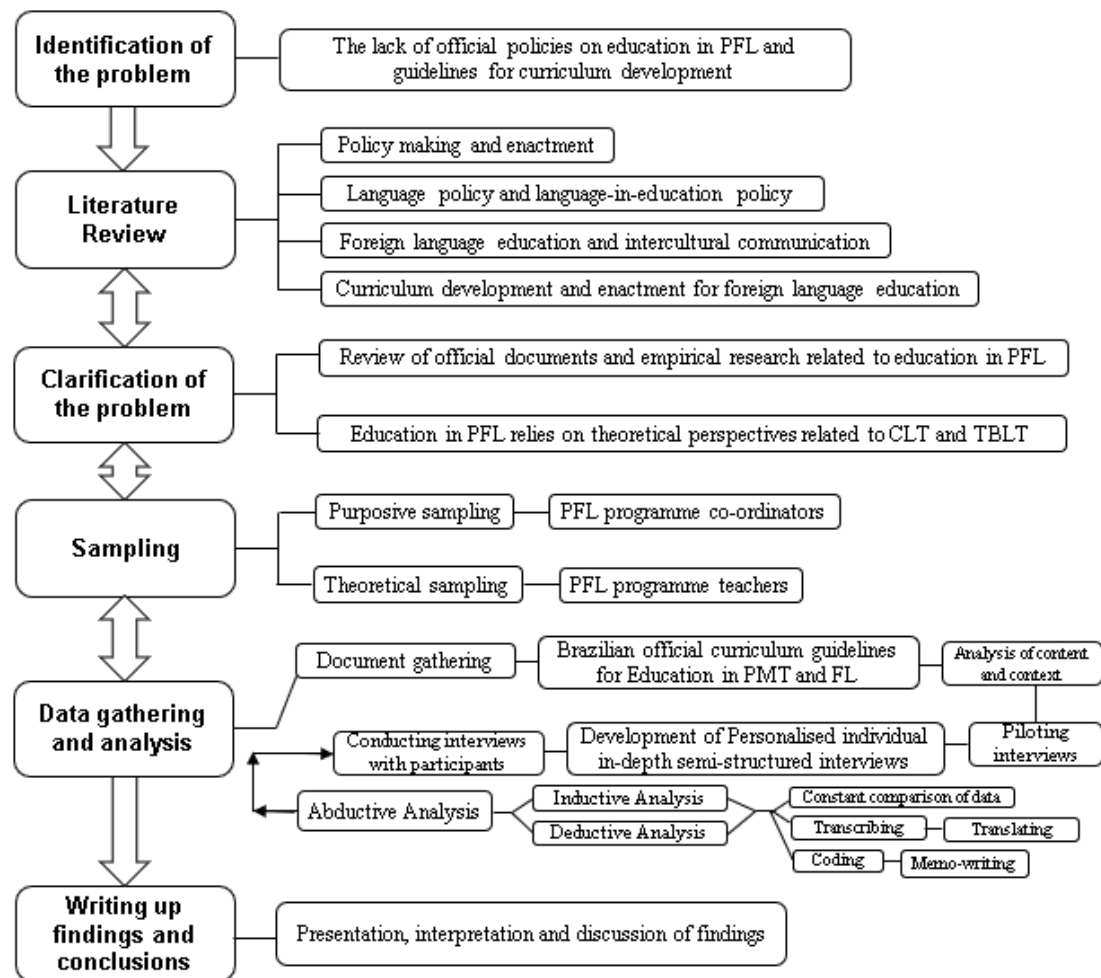
With the intention to reshape the interaction between researcher and participants during the research process, CGT applies strategies of traditional GT while rejecting notions of objectivity (Mills et al., 2006). Charmaz (2014) argues that CGT does not intend to erase what GT methodologists have proposed; rather, the term 'constructivist' seeks to bring subjectivity back to qualitative studies by acknowledging its value when it is related to researchers' involvement and (self) reflexivity in constructing and interpreting data (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007a; Charmaz, 2014).

Constructivist grounded theorists adopt an inductive, deductive, abductive, interactive, interpretative and reflexive stance towards their own research to consider how their theories develop (Charmaz and Belgrave, 2012). This position involves reflecting on the premise that both researchers and participants interpret meanings and actions. Investigating 'how' – and sometimes 'why' – participants construct these meanings and actions in specific situations results in a theory that relies on the researcher's imaginative interpretation. By prioritising the studied phenomenon and viewing data and analysis as the construction of shared experiences and relationships with participants and other sources, CGT 'serves as a way to learn about the worlds we study and a method for developing theories to understand them' (Charmaz, 2006, p. 10). It is argued that constructivist grounded theorists should develop their research with "an open mind but not an empty head" (Dey, 1999, p. 251, cited in Charmaz, 2006, p. 48).

In CGT, data are not seen as a straightforward source but as an array of possibilities for meaning making. Researchers are encouraged to move 'beyond the surface in seeking meaning in the data, searching for and questioning tacit meanings about values, beliefs, and ideologies' (Mills et al., 2006, p. 7). Using several methods of data gathering is helpful in providing rich data from which researchers can interpret diverse viewpoints, intentions, actions and contexts (Charmaz, 2014). Since data gathering and analysis occur somewhat simultaneously in CGT, researchers can constantly compare their data, which allows for the shaping and reshaping of their methods in order to refine data when necessary. Despite merely providing tools for data gathering and analysis, CGT methods can affect researchers' perspectives regarding the phenomena being investigated (Charmaz, 2014). For that reason, constantly reflecting upon alternatives, limitations and advantages concerning methods gives researchers the opportunity to reconsider, justify and ground their own decisions (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007a).

Given CGT and its key characteristic, the design frame for this research was developed according to the stages which are shown by Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Design Frame



This study was motivated by the identification of a problem: the lack of official policies and curriculum guidelines for education in PFL. Given that no hypotheses had been drawn about the reasons and/or implications of this problem, it was necessary to rely on a research design which would allow concepts and hypotheses to be developed and/or refined alongside the research itself. CGT's methods enabled the flexibility needed to conduct this study. As represented in Figure 4.1, the stages of this study were intertwined and therefore each stage informed and was informed by the preceding and following stages.

CGT encourages the engagement to literature review since the beginning of the research process. Thus, relevant literature on language and language-in-education policy making and enactment was reviewed before narrowing the research context

within education in PFL. Through the review of empirical studies about education in PFL and official documents related to the context of PEC-G and the CELPE-BRAS examination, the problem was clarified and the research context was specified. Two different stages were, then, informed by the clarification of the problem: (a) literature review, by evidencing the need for reviewing literature regarding foreign language education and curriculum development; and (b) purposive sampling of the first group of participants – the PFL programme co-ordinators, which is further discussed in Section 4.3.

Having data gathering and analysis as stages that can both alternate or overlap, which is one of the main characteristics of CGT, enabled the constant comparison of data and changes and/or adaptations of collecting and analysing methods in order to refine data. The documentary gathering and analysis helped the elaboration of the interviews to pilot the study which, alongside background information about the first group of participants (see Table 4.2), shaped the framework for the interviews. Data originated from the interviews with the PFL programme co-ordinators evidenced that the PFL programme teachers' participation would benefit this study. In that sense, the data gathering and analysis stage influenced the theoretical sampling of the second group of participants (see Table 4.3) which, in turn, shaped additional data gathering and analysis. Finally, the writing up stage reflected the connections that had been established for the development of all the previous stages.

This section outlined and discussed key characteristics and methods of CGT and how they informed this study. The following section presents the sampling strategies that were employed to recruit participants. It also describes the stages of recruitment and participants' background information.

4.3. Sampling

As discussed in the previous section, methodological suitability is an important element when determining research quality. CGT allows decisions regarding methods to be made and remade when this is suggested by the data. Sampling strategies can also offer flexibility; however, researchers need to take sampling decisions early in the process of planning the research (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). Several issues upon which researchers should reflect during the process of deciding upon sampling strategy are identified in the research literature. Indeed, Cohen et al. (2007)

argue that identifying a suitable sampling strategy, and being prepared to modify it, are the most important steps to be considered.

Grounded theorists traditionally plan their sampling strategies through theoretical sampling, which allows relevant data to be gathered and included in the course of a study whose aim is to elaborate on and refine themes and categories which constitute the emerging theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1997). Theoretical sampling involves relying on data for initial ideas and concepts to emerge as well as expecting those early impressions to require additional data (Charmaz, 2014). In other words, some preliminary analysis must have been made before theoretical sampling can take place. Charmaz (2014, p. 208) argues that, despite being 'a quick, focused method of gathering pinpointed data', theoretical sampling may not take account of ambiguities and tensions presented by 'empirical worlds'. Furthermore, theoretical sampling tends to fail to acknowledge the diversity of social interactions, reciprocities and relations of power with which researchers might have to deal in order to gain access to settings and, especially, to people (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007b; Charmaz, 2014).

Because of the contexts in which this research took place (see Chapter 3), there was a limited number of people who could be considered to be potential participants; thus, it was decided that theoretical sampling was not a suitable sampling strategy. Since the researcher's judgment was the main criterion for choosing participants, purposive sampling was the strategy that was initially adopted. With purposive sampling, participants are chosen for specific purposes without necessarily representing a sample of a wider population (Cohen et al., 2007). For this study, purposive sampling was used to reach the first group of participants – PFL programme co-ordinators – people who were in a professional position which allowed them to provide knowledgeable in-depth information and thereby contributing to richness of data.

Adopting a CGT approach allowed for the analysis of the data to begin while it was being gathered. Hence, it was possible to reflect upon the data throughout the data gathering phase in order to identify any necessary adaptations and adjustments to the approaches that were being used. Theoretical sampling was subsequently employed to select the second group of participants whose knowledge about and involvement with the contexts had been acknowledged and highlighted by the participants in the first group.

4.3.1. Participants

The term 'participants', rather than 'respondents' or 'subjects', was chosen so that their roles in this research would be explicit. As such, no passivity, degree of exploitation, or lack of criticality could be inferred (Robson, 2011). The participants were divided into two groups: (1) PFL programme co-ordinators; and (2) PFL programme teachers.

4.3.1.1. Portuguese as a Foreign Language Programme Co-ordinators

A PFL programme co-ordinator is usually an academic staff member of the College of Languages, Linguistics and Literature at one of the Brazilian public universities where PEC-G students are sent to attend PFL courses before becoming undergraduate students (see Chapter 3). However, this role is not necessarily a fixed position, as a PFL programme can have a different co-ordinator each year. Moreover, this role is not the only position occupied by the academic, since a PFL programme co-ordinator can be involved in other projects, in other departments, and, even, in other colleges within the same university.

The recruitment process for this group of participants involved the following stages and procedures:

- 1) Finding contact information of PFL programme co-ordinators from all twelve universities listed in page 85 (Table 3.3). The Ministry of Education website provided some information related to the PFL programmes and their co-ordinators/co-ordinating team for 2015 including names, e-mails, telephone numbers and office hours;
- 2) Contacting co-ordinators by sending an e-mail to each of the co-ordinators/co-ordinating team members. The common content of the e-mails (Appendix 4) included a personal introduction to me, the researcher, a summary of my academic background, a brief description of the research, and an invitation to be a participant in the study. These specific pieces of information were chosen so that potential participants could feel they were making an informed decision about their participation;
- 3) Receiving the co-ordinators' responses: ten co-ordinators responded to the first e-mail, five of whom immediately agreed to participate in the study. However, four co-ordinators required additional information before making their decision. This information included my full curriculum vitae and a list of

my publications, a summary of literature reviewed to that point and a list of the PFL programme co-ordinators who had already agreed to participate in the study. One co-ordinator thanked me for the invitation but declined the invitation to be interviewed. The two remaining co-ordinators did not reply to my first e-mail;

- 4) Further attempts to make contact: an additional e-mail was sent to each of the four co-ordinators who had requested additional information. Another e-mail was sent to the co-ordinator who had decided not to take part in the research. This e-mail acknowledged her decision and informed her that, if she changed her mind, her participation would be greatly appreciated and welcomed. The first e-mail was re-sent two more times to the two co-ordinators who had not replied; and
- 5) Receiving the co-ordinators' responses for the second time: three of the four co-ordinators who had requested additional information agreed to participate in the research. No response was received from the other co-ordinators and it was assumed they were not interested in participating in this study.

Eight co-ordinators were recruited and each was sent further details related to the research and documents concerning confidentiality, anonymity and informed consent (see Section 4.4.1). Unfortunately, one participant withdrew his acceptance after rescheduling his interview with the researcher several times. In total, seven co-ordinators were recruited and participated in the study until it concluded. Two former co-ordinators offered their expertise and volunteered to be participants alongside the co-ordinator who had already been recruited as a participant. Once again, the flexibility of CGT methods allowed for the addition of these participants because of the contributions they could potentially make to the research. Thus, nine of the fourteen co-ordinators, representing seven of the twelve universities, participated in this study.

Because the participants' information was easily accessible through the Ministry of Education website and/or the Lattes platform, some general, yet relevant, information regarding their academic backgrounds and current research interests is presented in Table 4.2. However, other information that could lead to the identification of participants (e.g. geographic location and sociocultural impact of the programme on the general and academic community) has been omitted. Table 4.2 thus gives the participants' pseudonyms (chosen based on popular Brazilian names and ordered

alphabetically from A to I), the numbers allocated to identify the universities where they were PFL co-ordinators and their gender; length of service as a PFL co-ordinator (by July of 2015); tenure rank; academic degrees obtained; and research backgrounds.

Table 4.2 PFL Programme Co-ordinators Information

Name (Gender) (Uni#)	Length of service	Tenure Rank	Academic Degrees Obtained	Research Background
Alice (Female) (Uni01)	N/A	Retired Professor	UG – Languages Master's – TESOL PhD – Applied Linguistics	Modern Languages Teacher Education TESOL Culture and Foreign Language
Beatriz (Female) (Uni01)	N/A	Professor	BA – Linguistics Master's – Linguistics PhD – Linguistics	Portuguese Linguistics Philosophy and History Linguistics
Cecilia (Female) (Uni01)	3.5 years	Staff member	UG – German Master's – Applied Linguistics PhD candidate - Linguistics	GFL and PFL Tandem Human Rights
Denise (Female) (Uni02)	5 months	Professor in French as a Foreign Language (FFL)	UG – PFL, French, and Social Services Master's – Linguistics and Literary Theory PhD – Language Sciences	FFL and PFL Teacher development Assessment
Elisa (Female) (Uni03)	4.5 years	Senior Lecturer in German as a Foreign Language (GFL)	UG – Portuguese and German Master's – Linguistics PhD – Linguistics	GFL Translation Grammar
Fernanda (Female) (Uni04)	21 years	Professor in TESOL	BA – Languages Master's – Applied Linguistics PhD – Applied Linguistics	EFL and PFL CELPE-BRAS Teacher Development
Gustavo (Male) (Uni05)	2.5 years	Senior Lecturer in PFL	UG – Portuguese Master's – Journalism PhD – Spanish Linguistics	SFL and PFL Discourse Analysis Project-based Learning
Helena (Female) (Uni06)	1.5 year	Teaching Fellow in PFL	UG – Portuguese Master's – Applied Linguistics	PMT PFL
Igor (Male) (Uni07)	2.5 years	Senior Lecturer in PFL	UG – Linguistics Specialisation – Languages Pedagogy Master's – Linguistics PhD – Linguistics	PFL Language Policies Assessment CELPE-BRAS

The seven PFL programme co-ordinators fulfil other functions at the universities – such as teaching, supervising, developing research projects related and unrelated to PFL. With the exception of Cecília, who co-ordinates the PFL programme through a contract, all other participants were recruited by the universities through public

tendering and they already have tenure. Gustavo, Helena and Igor occupy a post which had been made specifically created for a PFL programme co-ordinator. Beatriz, Denise, Elisa and Fernanda fulfil the role of co-ordinators alongside their main positions as lectures.

These other roles and positions within the University and/or College of Languages, Linguistics and Literature allow the co-ordinators to recruit their undergraduate and postgraduate students to become PFL teachers within the PFL programmes. The importance of having access to these students, and their participation as PFL programme teachers, were acknowledged by the co-ordinators during the process of data gathering. The possibility of drawing on what emerged from analysis of the initial data to include additional data-gathering methods encouraged the recruitment of a second group of participants which comprised PFL teachers.

4.3.1.2. Portuguese as a Foreign Language Programme Teachers

Since most PFL programmes are extension programmes, undergraduate and postgraduate students within College of Languages, Linguistics, and Literature are encouraged to become PFL teachers alongside lecturers and/or teaching fellows. These teachers can be volunteers, scholarship holders or hired with temporary contracts and usually teach several courses each semester. The number of PFL teachers varies according to the range of courses that are offered by the PFL programme. Because this current research study focuses on PFL courses for PEC-G students, only those teaching such courses were invited to become participants. I was interested in investigating the perspectives of more experienced PFL teachers and/or researchers and therefore undergraduate students without any previous degree or teaching experience were not invited to be participants in this research. The recruitment process for this group of participants was similar to the one which was used to recruit the co-ordinators and involved the following stages and procedures:

- 1) Contacting the current participants: an e-mail was sent to each of the co-ordinators who had already been interviewed so they could provide contact information for the experienced PFL teachers who were currently working with PEC-G students. All co-ordinators responded promptly to the e-mail and provided the information required;
- 2) Contacting the PFL teachers: an e-mail (Appendix 5) was sent to each of the fourteen PFL teachers who had been nominated by the co-ordinators. The

content of the e-mail included a personal introduction to me as the researcher, a summary of my academic background, a brief description of the research and an invitation to be part of the research as participants. These specific pieces of information were chosen to be shared so that potential participants could feel they were making an informed decision; and

- 3) Receiving the teachers' responses: eleven teachers responded to the e-mail and accepted the invitation. Each teacher was immediately thanked and acknowledged. A second e-mail was sent to the other three teachers but no response was received.

Eleven teachers were recruited at this stage and they were sent further details about the research and documents concerning confidentiality, anonymity and informed consent (see Section 4.4.1). Unfortunately, one participant did not return the forms or respond to e-mails, despite several attempts to make contact. In total, ten of fourteen PFL teachers participated in this stage of the research. As with the co-ordinators, general, yet relevant, information regarding the PFL teachers' academic backgrounds and career aspirations was accessed (see Table 4.3). The table includes the participants' pseudonyms (chosen based on popular Brazilian names and ordered alphabetically from J to T³); academic degrees obtained; and their research backgrounds. Numbers are allocated to identify the university where they worked as PFL teachers and information is provided concerning the nature of their contracts; and their length of service as a teacher and as a PFL teacher.

Table 4.3 PFL Programme Teachers' Information

Name (Contract) (Uni#)	Length of service as teacher/PFL teacher	Academic Degrees Obtained	Research Background and Interests
Julia (Staff) (Uni01)	28 years 20 years	UG – Languages Specialisation – Psychopedagogy Master's (ongoing) – Linguistics	PFL CELPE-BRAS Language Policies
Laura (Staff) (Uni02)	7 years 2 years	UG – Portuguese UG – French Master's – Linguistics and Literary Theory	FFL and PFL Teaching Approaches Development of Pedagogical Materials
Maria (Volunteer) (Uni02)	7 years 2 years	UG – French Master's – Linguistics and Literary Theory	FFL and PFL Assessment

³ The letter 'k' was omitted since it does not belong to the Portuguese alphabet.

Name (Contract) (Uni#)	Length of service as teacher/PFL teacher	Academic Degrees Obtained	Research Background and Interests
Nair (Scholarship holder) (Uni02)	17 years 4 years	UG – Portuguese UG – French Specialisation – Portuguese Master's – Linguistics PhD candidate	PFL and FFL Written production CELPE-BRAS Language and Culture
Olga (Scholarship holder) (Uni03)	3 Years 3 Years	UG – Portuguese Master's (ongoing) - Linguistics	Literacy and Language Policies Language Planning and Policy
Patricia (Scholarship holder) (Uni04)	8 Years 8 Years	UG – Languages Master's – Applied Linguistics PhD – Applied Linguistics	Foreign Languages Organisation of talk-in-interaction
Guenia (Scholarship holder) (Uni05)	3 Years 3 Years	UG – Languages UG – PFL Specialisation (ongoing) – Cultural Studies, History and Languages UG (ongoing) – Social Communication (Public Affairs)	Indigenous Languages PFL
Regina (Scholarship holder) (Uni05)	2 Years 2 Years	UG – Languages UG (ongoing) – PFL	Cultural Production Theatre
Silvia (Teaching Fellow) (Uni06)	20 Years 10 Years	UG – Languages Master's – Applied Linguistics	PFL and PAL PFL in Mainstream Schools
Tereza (Scholarship holder) (Uni07)	7 Years 6 Years	UG – Languages Master's (ongoing) – Linguistics	PFL PFL for refugees

With the exception of Patricia, who had recently left the PFL programme when she completed her PhD, and Julia, who had been working in another department within Uni01, the other eight participants were still working as PFL teachers. Nevertheless, as was the case with the co-ordinators, teaching PEC-G students was one of their many responsibilities within the programme and/or university. Scholarship holders are supposed to develop a research project, related or unrelated to PFL, while teaching PFL. Furthermore, they all have their UG and/or PG studies to complete and some of them (e.g. Maria and Tereza) had other jobs outside the programme.

4.4. Ethical Issues

Macfarlane (2009) argues that conducting research while behaving in an ethical manner means more than avoiding unethical actions or complying with regulations; it involves going beyond the rules and regulations which can often present conflicting principles. Behaving ethically is part of the daily work of the researcher throughout the

research study. In other words, having the ethical dimensions of enquiry in mind at all times allows researchers to conduct the entire research process with integrity (Macfarlane, 2009). However, Macfarlane (2009) does not suggest that integrity is an intrinsic feature of researchers; rather, he argues that the development of one's sense of integrity is an exercise which needs to be performed continuously so that researchers become critically aware of their own weaknesses and flaws.

Reflecting upon relevant ethical issues which can potentially arise at different stages of the research enables the researcher to decide how to handle and/or resolve such issues without causing any harm to participants or to the research study (Hammersley and Traianou, 2012). Kvale (2007) highlights the importance of being aware of ethical issues at seven stages in the research process: thematising; designing; the interview situation; transcription; analysis; verification; and reporting. Because this research involved contexts where Portuguese is the main or sole language for communication and/or educational purposes, an eighth stage was added – translation – during which ethical issues also had to be considered. Having to consider multiple ethical codes before planning this research (e.g. British and Brazilian, state, local and institutional) required an objective, yet critical, stance when fulfilling the role of a translator (see Section 4.4.2).

4.4.1. Informed Consent, Privacy, and Disclosure

The term 'fully-informed consent' is widely used in the literature on the topic of ethical issues concerning academic research (see for example BERA, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Silverman, 2005). Nonetheless, consent might never be fully informed, since even researchers may not be fully aware of all the aspects related to their studies (Atkins and Wallace, 2012; Hammersley and Traianou, 2012). Thus, the term 'informed consent' is used because it is considered to characterise more accurately the nature of the forms which were sent to the participants of this study. Producing an official document which presents a summary of the research can help researchers rethink their plans as they reflect on decisions made up to that point (Rapley, 2007). The Informed Consent Form (Appendix 6) provided the participants with relevant information so they would be able to consider agreeing to become involved in the research. The form provided details of the following aspects:

- (a) the main objectives of the research;
- (b) the reasons for choosing this particular group of individuals as participants;

- (c) an outline of stages which would take place before, during, and after the interviews;
- (d) information regarding data management;
- (e) information regarding privacy; and
- (f) the researcher's contact information for further enquires.

These aspects were considered to be the most relevant so that participants would have enough information to make an informed decision when considering whether or not to participate in the research. Clarification regarding how and to whom participation is reported is fundamental for assuring participants' privacy, especially in a context where hierarchical relationships exist, such as federal government-coordinators, coordinators-teachers, federal agencies-students (BERA, 2011). Not only is confidential and anonymous treatment of participants considered the norm for research conduct but participants also have the right to know how their personal information will be anonymised and stored (BERA, 2011; CAPES, 2010). Since the final product of this specific research is a thesis, which has been sponsored by a Brazilian Government Agent – CAPES – the full text will be made public via federal academic research websites. Furthermore, federal and state public university libraries will receive printed copies of this thesis. However, as no publication can lead directly or indirectly to a confidentiality/anonymity agreement breach, participants were given a pseudonym and limited demographic information was shared (see Table 4.2).

It was important that participants felt neither obliged nor discouraged to facilitate and/or participate in this research study because of any relationship with government agencies. The participants were also informed that their active participation would be completely voluntary and their withdrawal would be accepted at any stage of the research before the thesis submission. After being approved by the Ethics Committee at Moray House School of Education, the consent form was translated into Portuguese and both versions – the one in Portuguese and the one in English – were sent to the participants. Providing information in the participants' language minimises potential misunderstandings and establishes equal treatment of people involved (Atkins and Wallace, 2012; Esposito, 2001; Hammersley and Traianou, 2012; Silverman, 2005).

4.4.2. Translation

Understanding the participants' viewpoints supports the value of translated data, since failure to convey accurately the intended meanings may render data useless (Esposito, 2001). The translator must be an interpreter who 'processes the vocabulary and grammatical structure of the words while considering the individual situation and the overall context of the Source Language' (Esposito, 2001, p.570). In other words, it is the translator's responsibility to capture meanings and context from a source language to reconstruct them in the target language, assuming a new context.

Relationships amongst languages, researchers/translators and participants are as important as issues of which/whose word is the most appropriate in a certain statement in a certain language (Temple and Young, 2004). The bilingual nature of this specific study had to be scrutinised through ethical lenses because the translation was undertaken by me. I decided to play the role of a translator so no other person would have access to the raw data; by doing this I remained alert to the need to maintain the participants' privacy. Although it was impossible to ensure complete neutrality, I reflected throughout on the importance of assuming an objective, almost mechanical, stance while translating so biased translation could be avoided.

4.5. Data Gathering and Analysis Methods

As discussed in Section 4.2.1, one of the key characteristics of CGT is the opportunity to engage in data gathering and analysis simultaneously (Charmaz, 2014). For that reason, this section presents the methods that were used to conduct both data gathering and data analysis. Section 4.5.1 discusses the stage of document gathering and analysis. Section 4.5.2, which is divided into four parts, describes the development of the extended, intensive, in-depth, semi-structured tailored interviews which were considered suitable methods to gather rich, detailed and full data that would lend itself to thorough and meaningful analysis. The first part provides a brief account of the pilot study which was conducted before the interviews with the participants took place. The second and third parts present the procedures through which interview data was gathered. Finally, the fourth part provides an outline of and a discussion about coding, constant comparison and memo-writing which were the methods chosen to conduct the analytical stages of this research.

4.5.1. Document gathering and analysis

Charmaz (2014, p. 45) advocates the use of documents as data as long as they represent the ‘type of text whose form, content, purpose, accessibility, visibility, utility, legitimacy, and consequences’ can provide opportunities for reflection. Aiming to use documents as a way to reflect upon potential topics to be addressed during the interviews, official government policy documents and curriculum guidelines regarding Portuguese as a Mother Tongue and Modern Languages as Foreign Languages for Primary and Secondary School Levels were collected. There were two main reasons for selecting these particular documents: (1) the lack of specific policy documents and curriculum guidelines for the context investigated – PFL for post-Secondary level; and (2) the fact that these documents had been published by The Ministry of Education. Table 4.4 provides details of the documents gathered:

Table 4.4 Brazilian Policy Documents and Curriculum Guidelines related to Language

Name	Publishing Year	Target Public
Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais (PCNs): Introdução (National Curriculum Parameters: Introduction)	1997	Practitioners within the Public Education System Primary School Level (final four years)
Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais (PCNs): Língua Portuguesa Vol.1 (National Curriculum Parameters: Portuguese)	1997	Portuguese Schoolteachers within the Public Education System Primary School Level (final four years)
Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais (PCNs): Língua Portuguesa (National Curriculum Parameters: Portuguese)	1998	Portuguese Schoolteachers within the Public Education System Primary School Level (3 rd and 4 th cycles)
Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais para o Ensino Médio (PCNEMs): Linguagens, Códigos e suas Tecnologias (National Curriculum Parameters for Secondary School: Languages, Codes, and their Technologies)	2000	Portuguese, Literature, Foreign Language Schoolteachers within the Public Education System Secondary School Level
Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais de Ensino Médio (PCNEMs): Orientações Educacionais Complementares (OCs) aos Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais: Linguagens, Códigos e suas Tecnologias (Complementary Educational Orientations to PCNEMs: Languages, Codes, and their Technologies)	2006	Portuguese, Literature, Foreign Language Schoolteachers within the Public Education System Secondary School Level

These documents, as mentioned earlier, were chosen for conveying official stances towards curriculum development; perspectives on language; foreign language and culture; and teaching approaches that were suggested by The Ministry of Education in Brazil. Given that the participants in this research, in addition to being PFL co-ordinators and teachers, are lecturers, professors, and students within Public Universities’ UG and PG Languages Programmes, such documents are likely to influence their practice within the PFL programmes.

4.5.2. Documentary analysis

Charmaz (2014) argues that documents' content may provide insights and hunches without necessarily offering pieces of evidence. With that in mind, the documents were not selected because they could be considered evidence to support or confirm a particular hypothesis. Rather, the focus was on investigating whether and how such documents could be used in other contexts. Prior (2003) argues that the content of documents, rather than their influence, is usually the focus of researchers; however, what people do with documents should be more relevant than what documents say. Based on Charmaz's (2006) suggestions for analysing documents' content and Prior's (2003) suggestions for analysing documents' contextualisation, Table 4.5 provides an outline of the questions which were used to build a framework for the documentary analysis stage of this research.

Table 4.5 Documentary Analysis Framework

Initial Investigating Questions	
<p>For contextualisation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Where do the data come from? b) Who participated in shaping them? c) What did the authors intend? d) Have participants provided sufficient information for us to make a plausible interpretation? e) Do we have sufficient knowledge of the relevant worlds to read their words with any understanding? 	<p>For understanding content</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) What are the parameters of the information? b) On what and whose facts does this information rest? c) What does the information mean to various participants/factors in the scene? d) What does the information leave out? e) Who has access to the facts/records/sources of the information? f) Who is the intended audience for the information? g) Who benefits from shaping and/or interpreting this information in a particular way? h) How, if at all, does the information affect actions?
Additional Investigating Questions	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) How was the text produced? By whom? b) What is the ostensible purpose of the text? Might the text serve other unstated or assumed purposes? Which ones? c) How does the text represent what its author(s) assumed to exist? Which meanings are embedded within it? How do those meanings reflect a particular social, historical, and perhaps organisational context? d) What is the structure of the text? e) How does its structure shape what is said? Which categories can be discerned in its structure? What can be gleaned from these categories? Do the categories change in sequential texts over time? How so? f) Which contextual meanings does the text imply? g) How does its content construct images of reality? h) Which realities does the text claim to represent? How does it represent them? i) What, if any, unintended information and meanings might be seen in the text? j) How is language used? k) Which rules govern the construction of the text? How can these rules be discerned in the narrative? How do these rules reflect both tacit assumptions and explicit meanings? How might they be related to other data in the same topic? l) When and how do telling points emerge in the text? m) What kinds of comparisons can be made between texts? Between different texts on the same topic? Similar texts at different times such as organisational annual reports? Between different authors who address the same questions? n) Who benefits from the text? Why? 	

Analysing these documents through a questioning lens, as if the documents were being interviewed, clarified how the decision-makers expected language-in-education policies to be enacted by practitioners – especially language schoolteachers – in Brazil. Constantly comparing one document with another indicated the similarities and differences both within and between them. The main features of the documents, for

example, (a) the period of time during which they were developed; (b) who had constructed them; and (c) the stated/unstated and assumed/non-assumed purposes were highlighted so that specific topics that emerged could be explored during the interviews. It is important to note that the documentary analysis concerning those policy documents did not force predetermined topics and questions to be added to the interview planning. Nevertheless, it enabled further reflection on the next stages of data gathering and analysis.

4.5.3. Interviews

The qualitative interview tends to be adopted by researchers who aim to investigate experiences and contexts from their interviewees' perspectives, since it has the potential to offer exclusive access to the views of those within such contexts (Kvale, 2007). According to Warren (2001), the participation of interviewees in qualitative interviews should provide material for interpretation rather than undisputable facts. The interviewer, in turn, participates actively in the interview 'from historically grounded biographical as well as disciplinary perspectives' (ibid, p. 97). Charmaz (2014) argues that 'a constructivist approach views interviews as emergent interactions in which social bonds may develop'; thus, that approach turns the interview into a 'site of exploration, emergent understandings, legitimation of identity, and validation of experiences' (Charmaz, 2014, p. 91).

Johnson (2001) believes that social and interpersonal interaction can be successfully achieved through in-depth interviewing for its potential to provide the means through which interviewers may access interviewees' deep levels of knowledge and understanding. In addition, Smith (1995) argues that semi-structured interviews may offer a detailed picture of the interviewees' beliefs, perceptions and their accounts regarding a particular area. Although both these interviewing methods may be potentially beneficial to qualitative research, by themselves, they cannot be considered the key for a favourable outcome. As much as the method(s) chosen to conduct an interview, the stance adopted by the interviewer plays an important role in the interviewing process (Smith, 1995).

Holstein and Gubrium (1995) emphasise the advantages of adopting an active stance towards the interviewing process. 'The active interviewer' is responsible for motivating interviewees' responses and activating the production of a narrative which is relevant

to the research (Holstein and Gubrium, 1995, p. 38). Hence, active interviewing is a 'form of interpretative practice' which combines interviewer's and interviewee's articulations of 'ongoing interpretative structures, resources, and orientations' with practical rationalising (Holstein and Gubrium, 1995, p. 16). In other words, the flexibility of this approach encourages participants' perspectives, meanings and experiences to be the focus. Moreover, immediate follow-up questions and/or unanticipated topics can be addressed and explored so that meaning-making processes can take place.

The aim of the interviews in this study was to investigate the participants' perspectives regarding the PFL courses for PEC-G students. For that reason, I chose to conduct individual, active, in-depth semi-structured interviews with the participants either in person or via Skype. Since the interviews were the main method through which data were gathered for this research, it was necessary to achieve social and interpersonal interaction, as well as a conversational tone to minimise any power asymmetry in the interviewee-interviewer relationship (Johnson, 2001; Mishler, 1986; Smith, 2015). Thus, it was considered important to establish a good rapport with the participants. In order to accomplish this rapport, I constructed a tailored interview guide (Appendix 6) for each of the participants. These interview guides were developed according to the following steps:

- 1) studying the participants' Lattes page thoroughly;
- 2) using their Lattes information to build the first group of questions so that participants could start the interview by talking about themselves, their academic backgrounds and their current research interests;
- 3) building groups of key open-ended questions and potential follow-up questions related to the following key topics for this research:
 - (a) the process of curriculum development for PFL courses within the context of PEC-G;
 - (b) the differences and similarities amongst curricula for different PFL courses within the PFL programmes;
 - (c) pedagogical goals and approaches;
 - (d) pedagogical materials;
 - (e) teachers' selection process;
 - (f) pre-service and in-service teacher development;
 - (g) institutional and governmental support for the PFL programme; and

- 4) encouraging the participants to share their views on the future of the PFL field.

Before conducting the interviews for this research, I decided to pilot the interviewing stage in order to practise the approach and reflect upon the usefulness of the interview guides. The next section outlines the steps taken to pilot the study and the adjustments that were made to minimise issues during the interviews with the participants of this study.

4.5.3.1. Piloting the Interviews

The same sampling strategies and recruitment steps to select the participants for this study were used to select three participants for the pilot study. Table 4.6 provides the background information of the participants in the pilot study.

Table 4.6 Information of Pilot Participants

Name (Gender)	Length of service	Academic Degrees	Research Interests
Vânia (Female)	6 Years	UG – Portuguese Master’s – Literary Studies PhD – Literary Studies	Portuguese Brazilian Literature
Vera (Female)	5 Years	UG – Languages Master’s (ongoing) – Applied Linguistics	PFL and EFL Proficiency Exams
Vinicius (Male)	4 Years	UG – German and Portuguese	GFL and PFL Brazilian and Regional Culture

All three participants in the pilot study were interviewed twice, via Skype and face-to-face, in order to practise the two methods which would be later employed to interview the participants in the research study. The interviews were recorded using two audio recorders as a precaution. Vânia’s interviews, via Skype and face-to-face, were approximately 45 minutes and 60 minutes long; Vera’s interviews were approximately 40 minutes and 55 minutes long; and Vinicius’ interviews were 50 minutes and 70 minutes long. Tailored interview guides were used for both interviews.

Overall, the pilot study was helpful and informative in developing awareness concerning pace, transitions between groups of questions, and note-taking during the interviews. Participants in the pilot study mentioned, after the interviews via Skype, that the pace was rapid at times and that note-taking during the interview was distracting. It was also noticed that transitions between groups of question could be tailored for each participant and that immediate follow-up questions could be asked based on the participants’ answers. Following the face-to-face interviews, the

participants in the pilot study reported that both issues, pace and note-taking, had been resolved. The adaptation of the order of topics and questions groups during the interviews was also commended by the participants in the pilot study. The next sections outline the steps taken to conduct the main interviews and the approaches to data analysis.

4.5.3.2. Conducting the Interviews with the PFL Programme Co-ordinators

The steps that were taken before conducting the interviews included:

- 1) scheduling the interviews: an e-mail was sent to each co-ordinator to ascertain their availability to be interviewed during the month of July 2015. After receiving information on the co-ordinators' availability, a timetable was created which allowed all seven states where the universities are located to be visited. This enabled all the interviews to take place in the co-ordinators' offices;
- 2) confirming the interviews: an e-mail was sent to each co-ordinator confirming the date, time and location where the interviews would take place. In addition, a summary of the interview guide (Appendix 8) was attached to the e-mail so that the participants were familiarised with the topics to be covered during the interviews; and
- 3) rescheduling the interviews: less than a week before the scheduled dates, two participants, Denise and Gustavo, asked to have their interviews rescheduled because of strike actions at their universities. Because it was not possible to reschedule their interviews to be conducted face-to-face, Denise and Gustavo agreed on a day and time to be interviewed via Skype.

Table 4.7 outlines specific details of each interview in terms of interview modality and duration; unanticipated issues; and how these issues were resolved.

Table 4.7 Summary of Interviews with Co-ordinators

Participant	Interview Modality and Duration	Unanticipated Issues	Resolution
Alice Beatriz Cecilia	Face-to-face 1:31:41	Only Cecilia participated in the entire interview There were several interruptions	Cecilia was initially the only one to be interviewed When participants forgot what they were saying I played the recording and they were able to carry on
Denise	Skype 1:10:21	-	-

Participant	Interview Modality and Duration	Unanticipated Issues	Resolution
Elisa	Face-to-face 55:18	Several PFL teachers were working around the office during the interview.	They were requested to keep noise to a minimum by the co-ordinator
		Several interruptions	Co-ordinator would send unscheduled visitors away and carry on
		PFL teachers answering questions for the co-ordinator	They were requested by the co-ordinator to help with questions she felt they could answer more accurately
Fernanda	Face-to-face 1:09:13	Interview took place in a public place (coffee shop)	Audio recorders had to be put near Fernanda's face
Gustavo	Skype 1:16:37	Some connection issues were experienced	Gustavo turned off his video so the sound improved
Helena	Face-to-face 1:13:09	-	-
Igor	Face-to-face 1:14:34	-	-

All the interviews were recorded by two digital recorders and notes were taken. As the table determines, there were few unanticipated issues which did not impose any kind of setback for either me or the participants. Rapport with the participants was successfully built by exchanging e-mails before meeting them in person, which minimised the possibility of having dynamics of power compromising the interviews and which facilitated the data gathering. The conversational tone of the interview process allowed participants to reflect on their roles as PFL co-ordinators and share their perspectives in an amicable and informative way. Full advantage was taken of the opportunity to gather and analyse data simultaneously. This initial analysis led to the conclusion that it was necessary to gather data from an additional group of participants, namely the PFL programme teachers.

4.5.3.3. Conducting the Interviews with the PFL Programme Teachers

The interviews with all the ten PFL teachers were conducted via Skype from July to November of 2015. The following steps were taken: (1) an e-mail was sent to the teachers whose contact information had been provided by the PFL co-ordinators; (2) the PFL teachers' Lattes pages were studied in order to personalise each participant's interview guide; (3) the interviews were scheduled; and (4) the interviews were conducted. Table 4.8 outlines the specifics of each interview in terms of interview duration; unanticipated issues; and how these issues were resolved.

Table 4.8 Summary of Interviews with Teachers

Participant Interview Duration	Unanticipated Issues	Resolution
Julia 1:29:15	There were several interruptions from Julia's office mates	I reminded Julia where she had stopped
	Julia digressed a lot	I allowed Julia to speak as much as she wanted to but returned to the topic when opportunity presented itself
Laura 43:25	-	-
Maria 37:27	-	-
Nair 36:17	-	-
Olga 46:10	-	-
Patrícia 1:03:10	Patrícia digressed a lot	I allowed Julia to speak as much as she wanted but returned to topic when opportunity presented itself
Quenia 30:36	Some connection issues	I turned off the video so the audio quality improved
Regina 43:59	Rapport was not established during the first half of the interview	I constantly reassured Regina about the importance of her participation
Silvia 54:53	Silvia was unsure about her contribution	I constantly reassured Silvia about the importance of her participation and how valid her contribution really is
Tereza 47:32	-	-

As the table demonstrates, unanticipated issues were mainly related to the fact that the interviews were conducted via Skype and the difficulties which arose with establishing rapport; however, these issues did not impose major setbacks. The following reasons were found to have contributed to the difficulties in establishing an immediate successful rapport with these participants:

- 1) the short period of time between the recruitment and the interview, which did not allow many e-mails to be exchanged as it had been the case with the co-ordinators; and
- 2) the fact that these participants had been nominated by their PFL co-ordinators, which meant they might not have been completely willing to participate in this research.

In order to overcome those difficulties, a conversational tone was adopted to conduct the interviews which enabled the participants to feel more comfortable, reflect upon their roles as PFL teachers and share their perspectives in an amicable and informative way.

4.5.3.4. Analysing the Interviews with the Participants

As mentioned in Section 4.5.3, intensive interviewing allows researchers to conduct open-ended, in-depth investigation on topics in which participants are experts to generate rich data. CGT presents flexibility in many areas, as discussed throughout this chapter; and data analysis methods are flexible and adaptable to a certain extent. The main objective of data analysis, in CGT, is to construct theory; however, there are several stages through which researchers must go before achieving this ultimate goal (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007a). It is argued that theoretical sensitivity plays an important role in equipping researchers with knowledge which will enable them to make sense of their data (Strauss and Corbin, 1997).

During the data analysis stage, CGT methods were employed to develop an emerging theory in order to interpret the data as follows:

- (a) transcribing: field notes were transcribed verbatim whereas interviews were transcribed at a verbatim-with-dialect level (Gibbs, 2007). Such levels of transcription were chosen to analyse participants' perspectives and interpretations rather than their discourses;
- (b) translating: interview transcriptions were translated to English. Both language and cultural considerations were taken into account throughout the process in order to achieve an accurate representation of the original transcription. Describing rather than translating certain words and expressions contributed to minimise the negative impact on the trustworthiness of the research (Larkin, Dierckx de Casterlé and Schotsmans, 2007);
- (c) line-by-line coding: for this initial coding process, gerunds were used as a 'heuristic device to bring the researcher into the data' while interacting and studying each piece of data (Charmaz, 2014, p. 121). Constant comparison methods were employed at this stage within the same interview to allow the identification of any similarities and differences amongst and between lines of data and initial codes found in the same participants accounts' (Glaser and Strauss, 1967);
- (d) focused coding: this next coding stage required decisions to be made regarding the significance of the initial codes. These initial codes were then used to scrutinise, sort, synthesise and analyse amounts of data which were larger than line by line (Charmaz, 2014). Constant comparison methods were employed to compare and contrast initial codes with initial codes; initial codes with focused codes; and focused codes with focused codes within the same

participant's accounts. This process was not developed in a linear way but rather formed a constant undulating trajectory;

- (e) theoretical coding: this final coding process was employed to relate focused codes to each other to build emergent hypotheses to be integrated into the theory. Theoretical codes, like initial and focused codes, emerge from data in order to move the researcher's analytical perspective towards a theoretical path (Charmaz, 2014). Constant comparison methods were expanded at this point and similarities and differences within and across participants' interviews were identified (Glaser and Strauss, 1967);
- (f) memo-writing: a methodological journal was maintained throughout all research stages so that critical reflexivity could be exercised constantly (Charmaz, 2014). Furthermore, memos with full descriptions which facilitated constant comparison were used to keep records of the initial, focused and theoretical codes.

In accordance with these methods, induction, deduction and abduction reasoning guided data analysis. Silverman (2011) argues that analytical induction is the process by which data are thoroughly scrutinised in order to develop a theory. For Charmaz (2014), analytical induction is a type of reasoning that focuses on drawing conclusions from a series of individual cases aiming to form a conceptual category. Analytic induction involves constant comparison and the search for negative cases (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). For this study, constant comparison was made at each level of the analytical work so that hypotheses could be formulated and negative cases could be established after careful examination of every data fragment. Such approach finds support in Charmaz (2006) who advocates the use of constant comparative methods to determine analytical distinctions within data. It also corroborates Silverman's (2011) argument that negative cases are not found but established by the analytical approach, since data fragments cannot be intrinsically deviant.

Not only did the codes in this study emerge from data but they were also underpinned by the literature reviewed in Chapter 2; thus, deduction reasoning guided the process of data analysis. For Charmaz (2006), analytical deduction moves from a general concept to specific cases so that data are not guided to fit into theory but theoretical assumptions inform data analysis. In this study, the participants' understandings were situated within the reviewed literature and, simultaneously, evidenced the need for further literature review. In other words, the literature review informed and was

informed by data. Since the emergence of codes was based on both the literature and the data, inductive and deductive reasonings were part of data analysis.

The combination of analytical induction and deduction can be found in the abductive method. Alvesson and Sköldbberg (2009) argue that abduction relies on both an empirically based analytical induction and a theoretically informed deductive analysis. Reichertz (2007), abduction is a 'cognitive logic of discovery' that aim to explain the interpretation of collected data which cannot be associated with any other data fragment or theory (p.220). Charmaz (2014) argues that abductive reasoning is the researcher's inferences which involves the following:

- a) finding reasonable theoretical explanations for the surprising data;
- b) constructing hypotheses for each likely explanation; and
- c) verifying empirically these hypotheses by examining data in order to reach the most plausible explanation.

In this study, abductive reasoning allowed data to be examined and re-examined and further data to be gathered in order to adjust and refine codes and themes grounded on both theoretical and empirical interpretations.

4.6. Data Management

As previously mentioned (see Section 4.5), data were collected by audio-recording interviews with participants which were, subsequently, transcribed and translated. Because the interview transcriptions and translations were not printed, no physical file was created. Thus, digital versions of these documents had to be safely stored alongside the digital audio recordings. One external hard drive, personal laptops, office desktops and two file hosting systems which enabled full mobile access – Dropbox and Samsung Cloud – were used to store all the files. All these equipment and hosting systems can only be accessed with a personal username and password. The files were saved in their original format – MP3 for audiotexts, and Word and PDF for texts – using the codes as labels (Interview_01.MP3; Interview_01_Transcription.doc; Interview_01_Translation.PDF).

Nvivo was used as the Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CASQDAS) of choice to organise the data, since the University of Edinburgh provides free access to this particular software package. Nvivo helped with organising and analysing data at every stage of the research. Mendeley – an online, desktop, and

Android App – was the reference management programme chosen to access, review, store and insert citations of references used. There are many options for transcription and dictation software, as mentioned previously (see Section 4.5.3.4). However, in agreement with Kvale (2007) and Mishler (1990) who argue that transcribing can be an analytical and interpretative process, interview transcription, for this study, was done manually.

4.7. Research Quality

This section provides an overview of strategies which were used to increase research quality of this study. The first part focuses on how validation allowed this study to claim trustworthiness. The second part discusses how constant reflexivity contributed to the development of this study.

4.7.1. Validation and Trustworthiness

Silverman (2011) states that the credibility of any scientific research involves validity and reliability. Prior (2003) parallels validity and reliability as concepts that separate good from bad evidence. Foster (2006) believes that the reliability of research can be checked if validity is assessed as it follows:

- a) by testing the replicability of the research methods employed;
- b) by triangulation, which means, crosschecking data collected from different sources; and
- c) by respondent validation, which means, comparing the researcher's interpretations with those of the participants in the study.

Cohen et al. (2007) argue that notions of validity and reliability, which are related to accounts and how they are perceived and/or received, do not necessarily suit qualitative research. Rather, they suggest notions of authenticity which implies the integrity of the researcher in conducting a certain study. For Macfarlane (2009), authenticity is related to the extent to which research can be trusted or perceived to be manipulative. Qualitative research can often be related to subjectivities and therefore proving the validity of results involves justifying what could be perceived as unconventional methods (Scott and Usher, 2011). However, conveying knowledge that is based on social practices, which is the case of this study, cannot rely on just measurable and/or observable general rules of validity, reliability or authenticity.

Despite acknowledging scholars' efforts to define valid and trustworthy qualitative research in order to describe methods for ensuring and recognising studies' quality, Sandelowski and Barroso (2002) question the need for reaching such consensus. Sandelowski (1993) challenges the value that is attributed to replicability and repeatability within qualitative research. By rejecting the rigorous application of techniques which are supposed to ensure reliability and validity, Sandelowski agrees with Mishler (1990) and argues that 'validation is less a technical problem than a deeply theoretical one' (p. 2). For Mishler (1990), by 'reformulating validation as a social construction of knowledge', evaluating the trustworthiness of a study becomes a judgment on which researchers rely to develop their own work and make claims about it as well as to evaluate the work of others (p. 417).

The point of this study is to assure that the findings reported are perceived to be valid and trustworthy by the relevant community of researchers and/or practitioners. In other words, validation is the process through which trustworthiness can be both claimed and perceived. Focusing on validation and trustworthiness, rather than validity, reliability or authenticity, reallocates traditional positions of objectivity, non-reaction and the neutrality of reality and moves them to 'the social world – a world constructed in and through our discourses and actions, through praxis' (Mishler, 1990, p. 420). Determining whether the findings are valid from multiple standpoints can convince the reader that they are based on critical investigation and may help to achieve trustworthiness (Creswell, 2014; Silverman, 2005).

For this study, data were gathered by interviewing participants whose expertise allowed them to provide meaningful accounts regarding the context of interest. Two strategies were employed in order to achieve trustworthiness while presenting the findings: (1) constant comparison; and (2) respondent validation. During the data gathering and analysis stage, constant comparison was employed within and across the interviews. This strategy enabled the construction of coherently justified codes, focused codes, theoretical codes and memos which were conveyed in a broader, yet detailed, way. Themes, which were derived from the data and underpinned theoretically, were defined and revised until they were found to be valid representations of the findings.

Once the findings were considered to be established, participant or respondent validation was employed as a second strategy to achieve trustworthiness (Gibbs, 2007). Birt et al.(2016) argue that the participant or respondent validation is only

positive if performed willingly and if its contribution truly impacts the study. This kind of validation involves research participants checking initial data, interview transcripts and/or first drafts of interpretative reports for accuracy (Torrance, 2012). Reports containing a summary of the interview-data interpretation were sent to each one of the participants. It is important to emphasise that each participant could only access the interpretative report related to his/her own interview. The participants were asked to check those reports for accuracy and they were invited to amend, add to, or remove any comments which they considered to be inaccurate representations of their perspectives. The interpretations regarding the accounts of two participants were refined after having been provided with few clarifications. It can be argued, therefore, that the interpretations which are presented in this study represent the participants' views as accurately as possible.

4.7.2. Reflexivity

Macfarlane (2009) highlights the importance of personal reflexivity, since the process of researching may reshape researchers' ways of thinking and/or change their beliefs. Hence, researchers should adopt a critical stance in relation to their studies, as well as question and re-question the way their research is being conducted. Critical interrogation regarding characteristics of the study, such as the research design, questions that are asked during interviews and processes of analysis, 'supports the central process of truth-seeking' (Macfarlane, 2009, p.127). Through reflexivity, researchers consider every stage of their research carefully without rushing into prompt judgement about meanings concerning data. In other words, reflexivity involves justifying actions rather than just being aware of what motivates those actions (Macfarlane, 2009).

Charmaz (2001) argues that CGT 'encourages researchers to be reflexive about the constructions including preconceptions and assumptions that inform their inquiry' (p. 683). Reflexivity is a chance for researchers to think and rethink, investigate and ground, and/or present and justify, to themselves and to others, the decisions on which they based the process of theory development (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007a). Despite being a personal asset that influences the researchers' way of thinking about the studied object, reflexivity is a skill which is related to the researcher's ability to share this thinking process and to convey tacit knowledge. Reflexivity is more than a

tool through which research quality can be improved; it can be used to make implicit relational and ethical dilemmas explicit (Finlay, 2012; Macfarlane, 2009).

Given that this study relied on interview data, the considerations of Finlay (2012) regarding the role of the reflexive interviewer contributed to reflexivity during the data gathering stage. She proposes the following five “lenses” through which the researcher can evaluate reflexively interviews:

- (1) strategic reflexivity which focuses on methodological/epistemological aspects;
- (2) contextual-discursive reflexivity which examines situational and sociocultural elements;
- (3) embodied reflexivity which focuses on the researcher’s sense of the relationship that has been established between interviewer and interviewee;
- (4) relational reflexivity which examines the intersubjective, interpersonal realm; and
- (5) ethical reflexivity which monitors procedures and power dynamics – which might reveal ethical implications (Finlay, 2012, p. 318).

Finlay (2012) emphasises that the “lenses” might overlap, since they should not be perceived as mutually exclusive. In addition, she acknowledges that enacting reflexivity varies from researcher to researcher and she attributes this variation to the researcher-interviewer’s ideology, predilections, methodological commitments and/or purposes. For this study, the “lenses” of contextual-discursive reflexivity, relational reflexivity and ethical reflexivity played a significant role while the interviews were being constructed, conducted and analysed. Contextual-discursive reflexivity helped to consider the participants’ perspectives while distinguishing between what was being told and what was being retold by the participants. Relational reflexivity contributed to the development of positive rapport with the participants which enabled them to share their opinions and expertise more freely. The researcher-participant relationship needs an especial attention at the moment of the interview, since this is when the construction of findings begin (Finlay, 2012).

Ethical reflexivity was fundamental to establish context-specific ethical challenges, such as when certain participants would ask about other participants’ views on a given issue. It did not seem possible to impose a strictly formal interview with the participants after having achieved a friendly atmosphere. However, ethical issues were not re-negotiated in order to avoid any potential discomfort. Ethical reflexivity also helped to assure that the findings would be exclusively related to the participants’

accounts, regardless of my knowledge about and/or experiences with the investigated context and/or the interviewed participants. Although I had not been a practitioner within the PFL context for approximately two years when the research was initiated, I cannot deny that my role as an insider-outsider might have influenced this study. Those who had been invited to participate in the interviews might have accepted or refused the invitation because of my background in the field. The participants might have considered my insider-outsider status during the interview and therefore elaborated or shortened their answers.

The insider-outsider challenges that some researchers face when conducting interviews are broadly described (e.g. Cohen et al., 2007; Orland-Barak, 2002; Ryen, 2001; Tierney, Dilley, Gubrium and Holstein, 2014). Cohen et al. (2007) argue that the insider's perspective is often more difficult to manage than the one of the outsider, since role negotiation, balance and trust can become an issue. Ryen (2001), however, believes that both roles are equally challenging and that the insider-outsider needs to deal with several issues, such as access to people and/or locations and rapport building with gatekeepers and/or participants. As previously discussed, having access to the universities and, especially, building a positive rapport with the participants were considered key components to conduct successful interviews for this study.

If on one hand, my previous experience enabled me to empathise with the participants and to understand their perspectives, on the other hand, my insider role could have influenced my interpretations of those participants' accounts. Dwyer and Buckle (2009) suggest that the insider researcher should gather data with eyes wide open but assuming to know nothing about the phenomenon that is being investigated. My underlying knowledge of, or sense of familiarity with, those contexts could not be accessed as a source of information to (a) make connections or bridge gaps between the perceptions of different participants within and across universities; or (b) produce data.

My insider role was foregrounded during two interview-related stages: (1) the elaboration of the main questions and potential follow-up questions which would guide the interviews; and (b) the conduction of the interviews with the participants. That positionality allowed me to recognise and establish the initial topics of interest to be addressed by the guiding questions (see Appendix 7). Furthermore, it helped me to identify opportunities to explore further unexpected issues which were arisen during

the interviews – such as the reasons for discrepancies between the accounts of participants within the same contexts.

Cohen et al. (2007) acknowledge that the boundaries between the researcher's insider and outsider positions might not be unequivocally clear, since both stances are not mutually exclusive. Although I knew that my insider stance could be advantageous to this study, strategies needed to be applied so that I could distance myself from the participants and the contexts that were being investigated. My outsider standpoint allowed me to provide the participants with a conversational atmosphere during the interviews without offering my personal and/or professional opinions regarding the matters that were being discussed. In so doing, I aimed to avoid projecting my own perspectives and those of others onto the participants.

My outsider role was foregrounded during the analysis of the interviews in order to restrain myself from considering my experiences to be part of the data. Ethical reflexivity helped me to rely on data that had been originated from the participants' perspectives about the context. Regardless of the similarities and/or discrepancies amongst them, all the participants' accounts were valid and assumed to be truthful – whether collectively or individually. In other words, exercising multiple ways of reflecting upon this research provided the acceptance and understanding of multiple voices and viewpoints which certainly played a much more important role within the theory construction process than my reminiscences.

4.8. Summary

This chapter has provided the rationale for the methodology used to plan and conduct data collection and data analysis for this study. The key features of CGT have been highlighted and a justification had been provided for the decisions to use this approach to inform both the research design and the gathering and analysis of the data. Theoretical and purposive sampling have been presented as methods which were used to recruit the participants for this study. Ethical issues related to informed consent privacy, disclosure and translation have been discussed as well as methods of data gathering and analysis. Finally, the strategies which were employed to store data, to manage and store references and to increase research quality have been outlined. The following chapter reports the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5 FINDINGS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings deriving from the interviews that were conducted with the PFL co-ordinators and teachers who participated in this study. These findings were guided by the methodology that has been presented in Chapter 4 and informed by my understanding of the theoretical underpinnings which have been reviewed in Chapter 2. As discussed in Chapters 3 and 4, there were twelve Brazilian federal universities that offered PFL courses for the PEC-G students in 2015 – when the data collection occurred. Seven of these twelve universities are here represented by the nine PFL co-ordinators and ten PFL teachers who agreed to be interviewed to generate data for this study. The representatives are outlined in Table 5.1.

Table 5:1 – Universities’ representatives

University	Co-ordinators	Teachers
Uni01	Alice, Beatriz and Cecilia	Julia
Uni02	Denise	Laura, Maria and Nair
Uni03	Elisa	Olga
Uni04	Fernanda	Patricia
Uni05	Gustavo	Quenia and Regina
Uni06	Helena	Silvia
Uni07	Igor	Tereza

The set of open-ended questions which designed nineteen individually tailored in-depth semi-structure interviews aimed to provide answers to the overarching research question and the sub-questions outlined in Section 3.5. By employing the CGT methods of analysis, previously described in Section 4.5.3.4, the following key themes emerged from my interview data: (1) developing curriculum for PFL courses; (2) enacting the curriculum through the syllabus and pedagogical materials; and (3) institutional support for teacher development and research.

This chapter is divided into three sections. Section 5.2 presents the major findings involving what influences/shapes/informs the curriculum development for PFL courses within the context of PEC-G. These findings contribute to the PFL area for

presenting and discussing the processes of curriculum development for PFL courses within different PFL programmes. Section 5.3 brings the findings concerning the influence of CELPE-BRAS on the curriculum enactment through syllabus design and the development of pedagogical materials. These findings add the perspectives of key players to the existing discussions about how certain notions of language, language use, competence and culture can be promoted through teaching. Section 5.4 presents the findings concerning the co-ordinators' and teachers' perceptions of how the institutional support, or lack of it, can affect the PFL programmes at those seven universities. These findings add local perspectives to an ongoing national and international debate about the relationship between the chosen language of instruction and the institutional internationalisation agendas.

5.2. CELPE-BRAS shaping the curriculum for PFL courses for PEC-G students

As discussed in Chapter 2, several particularities should be considered when developing a language curriculum, such as the needs of the learners, the aims of the programme, an appropriate syllabus, the course structure and the teaching methods (Nation and Macalister, 2010; Richards, 2001). Considering the role of CELPE-BRAS – a prerequisite for PEC-G students to become undergraduate students in Brazilian universities – the examination is expected to influence the development of PFL courses for this group of learners. Proficiency examinations tend to measure language knowledge through identifiable and transferable skills whilst assuming sociocultural and identity issues to be irrelevant for the completion of tasks (Kramsch, 2005). CELPE-BRAS is a proficiency examination; thus, not specifically conceived to be guidelines for curriculum development. However, the influence of proficiency examinations on curriculum development and syllabus design might be positive when their contributions are related to prioritising goals which may help language learners to achieve desired outcomes (Lewkowicz, 2000; Schoffen, 2009; Shohamy, Donitsa-schmidt and Ferman, 1996).

The communicative nature of CELPE-BRAS is strongly related to its developers' research fields of interest at the time of its conception – which involved CLT, TBLT, Clark's (1996) perspective of language use, Bachman's (1990) framework of Communicative Language Ability and Bakhtin's (1968) notions of speech genre. The CELPE-BRAS examination was developed as an assessment tool to certify the

proficiency of, amongst others, PEC-G students (Scaramucci, 1995; Schlatter, 1996). That might justify why the theoretical perspectives that inform CELPE-BRAS influence the curriculum development for PFL courses for PEC-G students. Data collected for this study revealed that most of the PFL co-ordinators perceived CELPE-BRAS to be key for the expansion of mobility programmes such as PEC-G.

The following sections present the co-ordinators' accounts regarding their decision to use CELPE-BRAS as guidelines for curriculum development divided into three different viewpoints:

- 1) the co-ordinators at Uni01, Uni04 and Uni07 who argued that, in the absence of specific guidelines or policies, CELPE-BRAS can be used as orientations for curriculum development;
- 2) the co-ordinators at Uni02, Uni03 and Uni06 who believed that CELPE-BRAS should be used as sole guidelines for curriculum development regardless of the existence of other orientations; and
- 3) the co-ordinator at Uni05 who argued that CELPE-BRAS should not be used as guidelines for curriculum development, except for CELPE-BRAS preparatory courses.

5.2.1. CELPE-BRAS as the main guidelines for curriculum development

The requirement of passing the CELPE-BRAS examination and the lack of official language-in-education policies and orientations for PFL seemed to have been the main reason why CELPE-BRAS had been used as guidelines to develop curriculum for PFL courses for PEC-G students, as the following extract suggests:

There isn't a national reference for education in PFL (...) teachers had to end up **using the European Framework**, for example, which is important for European Languages but that **needs to be re-contextualised** to our teaching contexts, **it can't be blindly adopted just because it's European**. What we've been doing is to **take into a lot of consideration what CELPE-BRAS proposes**. Even though CELPE-BRAS is **meant to assess**, it's an examination that **enlightens**, somehow, what a curriculum would be

Igor (co-ordinator at Uni07)

The quotation suggests that, because of the lack of national guidelines for PFL education, other orientations needed to be sought. For Igor, CELPE-BRAS had been a suitable set of guidelines for curriculum development. Igor claimed that other orientations for language education, such as the European Framework, had been

used by PFL teachers in the past. Although acknowledging the importance of such framework for the field of assessment in foreign language, Igor argued that the contexts to which it is applied are different and therefore re-contextualisation is key. Igor's perspectives on the use of policies which had been developed for other contexts reflected Halpin and Troyna's (1995) definition of policy borrowing.

Halpin and Troyna (1995) argue that policy borrowing involves 'the appropriation of identifiable aspects of another country's policy solutions, including ways of implementing and administering them' (p. 304). Igor seemed to believe that policy borrowing is not the most appropriate way to deal with the lack of specific policies for PFL education. While globalisation had been promoting and/or facilitating the exchange of information amongst policymakers worldwide, Igor argued that solutions cannot be 'blindly adopted' only because they have been successfully developed for and/or applied to other contexts. This practice in Brazil may reflect what Freire (1973, 1979a; 1979b) referred to as the country's traditional submissive position with respect to dominant countries. Borrowing solutions may lack the criticality needed to assess their applicability within different contexts.

Despite having acknowledged that CELPE-BRAS focused on assessment rather than teaching, Igor argued that using the examination to inform curriculum development allowed for a focus on the specificities of the PFL contexts. When asked about how a CELPE-BRAS-based curriculum would work, Igor responded as follows:

This curriculum would focus on certain **capacities** which would be eventually **assessed by CELPE-BRAS** (...) CELPE-BRAS is our **main guide**, even though it's not a reference for teaching. There's the expectation that **we'll be able to develop our own guidelines** alongside other universities. There's a **discussion** already in **place**. The CELPE-BRAS Techno-scientific Committee started to think about a way of taking **CELPE-BRAS as a starting point** (...) establish levels thoroughly describe the **levels of proficiency** which are assessed by CELPE-BRAS (...) start **structuring different kinds of curriculum**.

Igor (co-ordinator at Uni07)

Some measures might be taken to strengthen the relationship between CELPE-BRAS and the curriculum for PFL courses. The influence of CELPE-BRAS on the curriculum seemed to be related to the development of 'certain capacities' which are prioritised by the assessment criteria that inform the examination. Igor claimed that the CELPE-BRAS Techno-scientific Committee had started a discussion about the consolidation of CELPE-BRAS as the 'starting point' for the construction of guidelines for curriculum development. Igor appeared to believe that, by establishing clear levels of proficiency,

different kinds of curriculum for different PFL courses could be developed based on such guidelines. Despite having acknowledged that proficiency examinations are not orientations for teaching, Igor seemed to perceive CELPE-BRAS as suitable guidelines for curriculum development.

Igor's perspectives are supported by researchers who argue that CELPE-BRAS should inform all the aspects involving PFL – such as policymaking, teaching and teacher development (Almeida, 2012; Dorigon, 2016; Dutra and Penna, 2013; Huback, 2012; Mamani, 2014; Scaramucci, 1997, 2004, 2012). Buttjes (1990) challenges those views by arguing that the influence of proficiency examinations on the processes of curriculum development and syllabus design might limit students' learning experiences to the specific knowledge and skills which are required by the examination. Regardless, Igor was not the only co-ordinator who argued that guidelines for curriculum development should be based on the theoretical assumptions that inform CELPE-BRAS. The following extracts present the responses of Alice and Cecília, the co-ordinators at Uni01, for the question related to the relationship between CELPE-BRAS and the PFL curriculum:

CELPE-BRAS is very important for us to visualise **language in use**.

Alice (co-ordinator at Uni01)

Yes, and, also, **task-based approaches** (...) I can say that **every year we re-organise things** concerning the **curriculum e materials** (...) with the PEC-G students, obviously, the **focus is entirely on CELPE-BRAS**, almost like a **preparatory course**. CELPE-BRAS is our “**north**” until October.

Cecília (co-ordinator at Uni01)

Alice and Cecília seemed to perceive the theoretical perspectives that inform CELPE-BRAS – especially those related to TBLT – to be suitable guidelines for curriculum development within the context in which they work. Given that passing the CELPE-BRAS examination can be considered to be the PEC-G students' major goal, it can be argued that Alice and Cecília believed that using the examination as a guideline for curriculum development was a way to address that particular need. This notion is partially corroborated by Richards (2001a, 2001b, 2001c) and Nation and Macalister (2010) who argue that the goals set out by the language curriculum should be related to the needs of those participating in the education process. Nevertheless, the PEC-G students might have other objectives and needs; thus, critical analysis and constant

review are necessary to establish the pedagogical goals which would reflect such needs.

The PEC-G students at Uni01, however, did not attend only the PFL course that resembled CELPE-BRAS preparatory courses. In the following extract, Cecília and Alice explained some of the advantages of providing PEC-G students with several PFL courses:

Every **morning**, there's a **PFL group exclusively with PEC-G students** with a **different syllabus** and every **afternoon they attend the regular courses with international students with similar proficiency levels**. They [PEC-G students] used to be around themselves almost exclusively and we realised that **integrating them to other groups** could make a great difference and it did. They have to **interact with other students** since they don't have only other PEC-G students as classmates.

Cecília (co-ordinator at Uni01)

Our previous **PEC-G groups** used to be very **isolated** (...) We used to have them **attending class somewhere else**, at our other branch. The original idea was to **have them interacting with Brazilian students**, with **native speakers** in the **real world**, but it didn't work out.

Alice (co-ordinator at Uni01)

As described in Table 3.3, Uni01 offered several PFL courses at their languages centre; thus, the PEC-G students attended more than one PFL course. Alice and Cecília reported that the PEC-G students had attended the morning course, amongst themselves, and the afternoon course, amongst other international students. Cecília suggested that the afternoon courses had provided the PEC-G students with more opportunities to interact with non-PEC-G students. Alice mentioned that the PEC-G students used to attend classes in a branch where they could interact with Brazilian students; however, that had not worked as expected. Alice's explanation implied that interacting with native speakers had been assumed to be more beneficial to the PEC-G students than interacting with other international students.

The assumptions of linguistic superiority and authenticity that can be attributed to certain native speakers attach the notion of communicative competence to the learners' ability to use language in ways that grant their performance the status of native-speaker like (Canale and Swain, 1980). This relationship between authenticity and native speakers has been widely challenged because it does not reflect the linguistic diversity within speech communities in order to promote a fictional construction of a middle-class monolingual individual (Kramersch, 1997, Kramersch and Sullivan, 1996). Kramersch (1997) criticises the idea of disregarding the multilingual

perspectives of foreign language learners to encourage the emulation of an idealised native speaker who belong to unrealistic homogeneous contexts.

Given the communicative aspect of CELPE-BRAS, the privileged position in which the native speaker is placed using CLT and TBLT might have contributed to Alice and Cecília's initial decision. Although Alice and Cecília seemed to have realised that the PEC-G students' opportunities to interact in PFL had been broadened by their integration with non-PEC-G international students, the idealisation of the native speaker kept being directly and/or indirectly promoted through other means – such as the pedagogical materials (see Section 5.2.2.3). When asked about the reasons for offering several PFL courses for the PEC-G students, Cecília responded as follows:

I believe that **having longer hours has helped them**. Being able to attend **other courses besides the PFL course for PEC-G students** is really helpful. After they're done with CELPE-BRAS, we encourage them to keep attending classes until December. Especially because we know **their needs as undergraduate students will not be completely covered by what they study here**.

Cecília (co-ordinator at Uni01)

The quotation suggests that a CELPE-BRAS-based PFL curriculum would not prepare the PEC-G students for their undergraduate studies in Brazilian universities. Cecília implied that the PEC-G students' needs regarding their undergraduate studies had not been completely addressed by the PFL courses. Cecília's accounts were corroborated by Beatriz and Alice (also co-ordinators at Uni01) and, as discussed in Section 5.3, by Julia (teacher at Uni01). Passing the CELPE-BRAS examination, rather than being prepared for the UG courses, seemed to have been prioritised; however, it cannot be argued that CELPE-BRAS had been the sole source of orientations for curriculum development, since the post-CELPE-BRAS classes did not focus on the examination.

A similar context was reported by Fernanda, the co-ordinator at Uni04, in the next extract that brings her response for the question concerning the PFL courses for PEC-G students:

It's important to point out that **CELPE-BRAS** was developed to be a common **tool of assessment for PEC-G students**. That's why it focuses on **measuring the capability or the potential of this student in participating in academic life**. That means having the **potential** to write, speak, read, and listen in Portuguese with **interactional purposes**. These are the main things that **inform the PEC-G course** (...) The PEC-G course is a 15-hour-per-week course and they also attend a course called **Regional Culture for PEC-G** which is a 2-hour-per-week course. This second course aims to **take them out of the classroom**, so they can become **familiar with**

their surroundings. They go around the **university** campuses, around different **neighbourhoods**, around the **city**. They become familiar with **daily things related to their lives here**.

Fernanda (co-ordinator at Uni04)

Fernanda suggests that the criteria for assessment and the notion of proficiency that inform CELPE-BRAS had been adopted for the PFL courses at Uni04. Fernanda seemed to agree with what the CELPE-BRAS manual presents as the main purposes of the examination: (a) assessing the use of language with interactional purposes; and (b) establishing levels of proficiency through communicative tasks (INEP, 2015). The assessment criteria that is attributed to the examination indicates a strong influence of CLT and TBLT which do not offer a straightforward recipe to be followed. Rather, they encourage teachers to rely on the students' needs to build real-life interaction opportunities (Breen and Candlin, 1980; Nunan, 1991). Since the PEC-G students had their own group – 'the PEC-G group', passing the examination might have been perceived as the students' common need and therefore it justified using CELPE-BRAS as the main guideline to develop curriculum.

According to Fernanda, the 15-hours-a-week course focused mainly on CELPE-BRAS whereas the 2-hours-a-week course focused on culture. Calling the course 'Regional Culture' implies that culture must be attached geographically to a certain community – a notion that reflects the theoretical perspectives that inform CELPE-BRAS. Fernanda claimed that the course aimed to take the students to different areas which they were, at that point, allowed to occupy, such as the university campuses and neighbourhoods around the city. Fernanda's description suggested that the PEC-G students had been encouraged to become familiar with what had been presented to them as culture of a certain region. The "regional culture" might have been presented as a set of social constructions that were common to those living in the territory to where the PEC-G student had moved. Culture might have become an element of language through which social adequacy could be conveyed (Rodrigues, 2006).

Fernanda seemed to believe that this additional course offered the PEC-G students an opportunity to expand their PFL studies to beyond the CELPE-BRAS requirements. It can be argued that, similar to the contexts within Uni01 and Uni07, the PFL courses for PEC-G students within Uni04 used CELPE-BRAS as the main, rather than the only, guidelines for curriculum development. As discussed in the

following section, three PFL programmes had their PFL curricula solely based on CELPE-BRAS.

5.2.2. CELPE-BRAS as the only guidelines for curriculum development

The perspectives concerning the curriculum development for PFL courses for PEC-G which were shared by the co-ordinators at Uni02, Uni03 and Uni06 differed from those previously discussed. When asked about the guidelines on which the curriculum development for PFL courses had been based, Denise, the co-ordinator at Uni02, responded as follows:

The **CELPE-BRAS recommendations** and **manual**, as far as guidelines go (...) I don't even feel I need anything else. I believe **CELPE is the most important "north"** (...) Considering PFL contexts, there's been a concern with **effective competences** rather than with specific knowledge about **language** or certain **elements of language** (...) **CELPE-BRAS guides the kind of assessment we have during this PFL course**. CELPE-BRAS is the **final goal**.

Denise (co-ordinator at Uni02)

Denise argued that passing the examination was the 'final goal' and that no guidelines other than CELPE-BRAS had seemed necessary. The PFL course might have focused on preparing the PEC-G students to pass the examination – which can be understood, since passing CELPE-BRAS was mandatory for the PEC-G students. Denise claimed that CELPE-BRAS had also been used as guidelines for the development of assessment criteria. Denise's decision can find support in Scaramucci (2002, 2004, 2008) who argues that CELPE-BRAS would only have a fully positive influence on education in PFL if it were used to inform every process related to teaching and learning. The assessment criteria on which CELPE-BRAS is based echoes Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983) perspective of communicative competence, which includes grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences (INEP, 2015).

For Denise, the assessment within the PFL course had to reflect the criteria which are used by the CELPE-BRAS' examiners. Mickan (2013) challenges language curricula that are based on tasks and genres – the main elements through which CELPE-BRAS' examinees are assessed. Mickan (2013) argues that, despite prioritising communication, the curriculum fails to disconnect communicative competence from the measurement of the learners' language development through the use of grammar

and the perception of genres as predictable social discourses. The following extract presents Denise's description of how the PEC-G students had their oral productions assessed during the PFL course:

I have a supervisee who researches **oral assessment** and **teaches the PEC-G students**. She tries to specify what **students are expected to do during their oral test** (...) she works with **CELPE criteria** (...) the students can own those criteria and understand what they have to work on and **how examiners will assess them** and **what is expected from them in terms of interaction** with the examiner.

Denise (co-ordinator at Uni02)

The quotation suggests that the PEC-G students were taught how to practise for the examination by internalising the requirements and the format of CELPE-BRAS. Their classes which focus on oral comprehension and production seemed to have helped them to develop and to replicate certain patterns of interaction that would be considered proficient according to the assessment criteria that inform CELPE-BRAS. It can be argued that the PEC-G students were treated as they were CELPE-BRAS' examinees, since the curriculum had been based exclusively on CELPE-BRAS. By having equated the PEC-G students' needs with passing the examination, their undergraduate studies seemed to have been disregarded. Having language use assessed through CELPE-BRAS-like tasks might have misrepresented real-life interactions in Portuguese. Moreover, it might also have limited the students' learning experience to the communicative situations which had been usually proposed by the examination.

The restrictions that a CELPE-BRAS-based curriculum can impose were mentioned by Helena, the co-ordinator and one of the teachers at Uni06, in the next extract:

CELPE-BRAS wasn't mandatory so things were **less stressful** (...) we had **more freedom** to develop the courses (...) When I came back, in 2003 or 2004, it [CELPE-BRAS] had already been mandatory for a couple of years. The **classes**, the **content** the **curriculum**, **everything was focusing on the preparation for CELPE-BRAS**.

Helena (co-ordinator at Uni06)

Helena claimed that, once CELPE-BRAS had become a requirement for PEC-G students, every aspect of the PFL courses needed to focus on the examination. Despite having acknowledged that CELPE-BRAS had changed everything related to the PFL course for PEC-G students, Helena seemed to prefer that current scenario, as the next quotation suggests:

This relationship between the PFL programme and CELPE-BRAS makes sense

(...) **communicative tasks** add not only **knowledge** but also **literacy**. The examinee needs to take a **position in the world**, in a formal situation, in an informal situation (...) Yesterday, we had our **first mock test**, I prepared the **written element** and the **oral element** just like the test (...) it's the **washback effect** of CELPE-BRAS (...) I think the more **you guide your students towards that direction**, the more you're making things easier for them.

Helena (co-ordinator at Uni06)

Helena argued that relying on the understanding of language use and communicative tasks that inform CELPE-BRAS to develop a PFL curriculum helped to guide the PEC-G students. Helena seemed to believe that the PEC-G students needed to become familiar with the examination's format – especially with the communicative tasks through which their written and oral performances would be assessed. Helena summarised what the CELPE-BRAS' manual presents as a requirement for examinees: the adoption of a social role to simulate a real-life situation (INEP, 2015). The fact that Helena quoted the manual to support her argument about the role that the examinees are supposed to play during the examination implies that CELPE-BRAS had greatly influenced the curriculum development.

Helena also corroborated Scaramucci's (2012) argument that the influence of CELPE-BRAS on the teaching and learning processes generated a washback effect. Helena's accounts suggested that, for her, the washback effect had been positive, since CELPE-BRAS had helped to develop the course, classes and materials and it had guided the PEC-G students. It can be argued that CELPE-BRAS had been used as the only guidelines on which the curriculum development for the PFL course for PEC-G students was based.

A similar context was described by Elisa, the co-ordinator at Uni03; Elisa explained how the PFL course for PEC-G students had been structured as follows:

Everything is **based on CELPE-BRAS** (...) the "Monday" teacher works with **grammar**, another teacher works with **written production**, another works with **Brazilian Culture** (...) the students have the chance to get in touch with **different ways of speaking, different teachers, different ways of expressing**. They get to have more **Brazilian people talking to them** (...) From August on, **we focus exclusively on CELPE-BRAS** by using previous **tests, practising the interview, oral skills** (...) I always ask MEC to send me **PEC-G students from French-speaking countries** so they all **speak the same language** and **present the same problems**, like **pronunciation problems**. Also, **most of them come from Africa so their culture is similar** too.

Elisa (co-ordinator at Uni03)

Elisa claimed that CELPE-BRAS had provided orientations for the development of the PFL course for PEC-G students. Nevertheless, the theoretical assumptions that inform CELPE-BRAS do not separate language as system from language as discourse whereas Elisa's description of the course's structure indicated that grammar, language use and culture had been worked on during different classes by multiple teachers. Elisa's perspectives on language, language use and culture seemed disconnected from the methods and/or approaches through which these notions had been established and/or promoted. Elisa emphasised three characteristics of the PFL course that strengthened this perception: (a) classes that focus exclusively on grammar; (b) the belief that interacting with many Brazilians will be linguistically advantageous for the PEC-G students; and (c) a separate day during which 'Brazilian Culture' was taught.

Firstly, the PEC-G students had 'grammar classes' which might have promoted the notions of language as a mechanism and language competence as grammatical competence. This conception of decontextualised use of language, that contrasts with the understanding on which CELPE-BRAS is based, might have encouraged teachers and students to focus on language as system, a set of rules in which interaction plays little or no part (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Widdowson, 1989). Second, the belief that interacting with 'more Brazilian people' would involve opportunities for the PEC-G students to improve linguistically might have advanced the assumption that 'native speakers' should be considered models of appropriate language use. This perception is related to the privileged position that native speakers are afforded through the use of CLT and TBLT (Kramsch, 1997). Finally, classes focusing on the "Brazilian Culture" imply that culture might have been reduced to a homogeneous manifestation of nationality.

It can be argued that those three assumptions had supported and/or had been supported by some of the organisational and pedagogical decisions of Elisa about the PFL course for PEC-G students. For instance, Elisa claimed that she had requested to receive PEC-G students coming from French-speaking countries only because they would 'present the same problems', since they spoke 'the same language' and shared a similar culture, the "African culture". Elisa seemed to believe that, because they had come from countries where French was the official national language, the PEC-G students' mother tongue and/or first language was French.

As discussed in Chapter 2, over two billion people do not have access to education in their mother tongue or first language, that is, one's mother tongue is not necessarily the language that had been officially established as national (Walter and Benson, 2012). Elisa's understanding of language and culture appeared to be attached to a specific notion of nationality that disregarded the cultural and linguistic diversity within the PEC-G students. Elisa's perspectives on language and culture might have influenced the curriculum and encouraged the students to perceive their languages and cultures and those of their classmates from the same essentialist stance.

The co-ordinators at Uni02, Uni03 and Uni06 reported that CELPE-BRAS had shaped the PFL courses for the PEC-G students. The next section presents the perspectives of the only co-ordinator who argued that CELPE-BRAS should not be used as guidelines to develop curriculum for a PFL course which is not a CELPE-BRAS preparatory course.

5.2.3. CELPE-BRAS as supporting guidelines for curriculum development

Despite having expressed different opinions on the extent of CELPE-BRAS' influence, the co-ordinators of six of the seven PFL programmes who participated in this study agreed that the examination had played a major role in the process of curriculum development for the PFL courses within the context of PEC-G. Gustavo, the co-ordinator at Uni05, shared perspectives which were different from those of his fellow co-ordinators. When asked about how the PFL courses had been structured at Uni05, Gustavo responded as follows:

PEC-G students have classes **alongside non-PEC-G students** (...) the group is extremely **heterogeneous** (...) from pre-UG to PhD students, lecturers, and professors; they come from all **around the world** (...) The **distribution** of these students is very **uneven**. They're **not divided into levels of proficiency**, or **nationalities**, or UG/PG programmes. (...) We work with a **methodology** based on **projects**. This uneven **organisation** is **ideal** for **PBL** that encourages **constant development of language skills for life** and **collaboration** amongst the students which I don't think communicative tasks do.

Gustavo (co-ordinator at Uni05)

Gustavo explained that the PEC-G student had not been separated from non-PEC-G international students; instead, many different groups comprised of a certain number of international students coming from different countries and participating in assorted academic mobility programmes. Gustavo seemed to believe that the PFL students, regardless of their needs, professional and academic backgrounds, age or nationality,

could attend the same classes. Gustavo argued that such organisation was ideal for a language curriculum that relied on Project-based Learning (PBL) – which had been Gustavo’s area of interest. For Gustavo, having worked with projects, rather than communicative tasks, enabled the PFL students to develop the necessary language skills to participate in real-life interactions.

PBL, as a learner-centred and learner-driven approach, aims to allow the collaborative creation of a specific end product through the use of authentic language which supports the use of the target language for genuine communicative needs, competence and relevance and promotion of language learner autonomy (Fried-Booth, 1986; Hedge, 1993; Hutchinson, 1991; Little, 2007). Collaboration and authorship, alongside language use, are encouraged to establish interactions involving the groups’ needs and purposes to achieve a common outcome during the development of a project (Hedge, 1993; Little, 2007). It can be argued that, different from what CEPLPE-BRAS’ communicative tasks propose, projects do not expect the students to simulate a real-life interaction by selecting given information while adopting lifelike social roles to produce specific written and/or oral texts. When asked about how the PEC-G students’ specific needs – such as passing the CELPE-BRAS examination – had been considered to develop the curriculum, Gustavo responded the following:

The PEC-G students have **the projects from February or March to July and CELPE-BRAS preparatory classes from August to October (...)** PEC-G students **arrive here completely concerned** about CELPE-BRAS (...) **we are also concerned** but **CELPE-BRAS** focuses on **discourse genres** and it’s basically a **written examination**, since the oral part is short and it doesn’t count much, **nobody fails because of the oral part**. I don’t see any **incompatibility** in terms of **what they need to learn** or what **others** [non-PEC-G students] **need to learn (...)** I believe **that if the students are not capable of interacting amongst other international students, how will they be able to interact with Brazilians** with whom they’ll attend classes in the **UG and PG programmes?**

Gustavo (co-ordinator at Uni05)

Gustavo explained that the CELPE-BRAS examination had been explicitly addressed during the period between August and October as part of a preparatory course; however, the longest PFL course, from February/March to July, had focused on projects. The quotation suggests that the preparatory course might have been developed to ease the PEC-G students’ anxiety towards the examination. Different from the six contexts which were discussed previously, CELPE-BRAS had not played

a major role in the PFL courses for PEC-G students at Uni05. Gustavo's assumptions about how the written and the oral elements are assessed unequally through the examination might have contributed for the supporting role that CELPE-BRAS had been playing in the PFL programme at Uni05. Gustavo seemed to believe that the PFL courses for PEC-G and non-PEC-G students served multiple purposes – including the preparation of the PEC-G students for the examination.

Having focused on projects rather than communicative tasks might have broadened the PEC-G students' notions of language use and provided them with more meaningful interactions. Nevertheless, as presented in the next extract, Gustavo claimed that his decisions had not been supported fully by his colleagues:

Some of my co-workers believe that **PEC-G students should have a group of their own with classes that would focus on CELPE-BRAS**. Others think that **Spanish speakers should have a group of their own** (...) they say **Spanish speakers learn differently**, they learn **faster**, which is **not true** (...) What we have observed is that, **at first, Latin Americans have an advantage because language similarities with Portuguese** (...) my understanding is that **if you give them time, the results are unrelated to their first language** (...) the **students' first language is not a factor** that guarantees successful outcomes. I don't believe there's any.

Gustavo (co-ordinator at Uni05)

Gustavo disagreed with his colleagues who had argued that PEC-G students should have been placed in a group of their own with classes that would focus on CELPE-BRAS. Some of Gustavo's colleagues had also argued that the Spanish-speaking students should have had their own group because of their perceived superior aptitude for learning Portuguese. Gustavo refuted such assumptions by arguing that, despite having an initial advantage due to language similarities between Spanish and Portuguese, Spanish speakers do not necessarily achieve better outcomes than other international students. For Gustavo, the students' first language does not contribute to language learning; in fact, he seemed to believe that no factor could have justified the segregation of the students to achieve desirable outcomes in language learning and/or teaching.

Gustavo's understanding of language education seemed to move beyond the traditional L1/L2 dichotomy. The PFL programme at Uni05 might have provided an education setting where language learners with different levels of proficiency were equally encouraged to participate in intercultural interactions. When asked about

other people's opinions about the PBL-based curriculum, Gustavo reported as follows:

Some **colleagues, PFL teachers and students, especially the PEC-G students, resisted** to this method, they **didn't like it** especially because **they weren't used to it** (...) this **curriculum allows** the international students to **study language autonomously** because the **class** itself is only **one of many opportunities to learn and develop language competence** (...) the **students must be encouraged to play a more active role in their learning processes** (...) **being actively involved** in their learning process is the **biggest challenge for PEC-G students**.

Gustavo (co-ordinator at Uni05)

The resistance to a project-based PFL course might have been motivated by the educational background of those involved in the PFL programme. The PFL teachers, for example, may have been more comfortable to provide the students with CELPE-BRAS-like tasks in order to promote predictable and easily assessed interactions. Gustavo argued that it had been a challenge for the PEC-G students to become more actively involved in their learning processes – which suggests that the PEC-G students might have preferred to and/or been used to playing a more passive role. This passivity might have been related to their previous experiences with language learning and teaching. Although the curriculum appeared to have been elaborated to promote autonomy and collaborative work through the development of projects, the teachers and students' resistance, as further discussed in Section 5.3, might have contributed to the discrepancies between the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum.

This section has presented the findings concerning the influence of CELPE-BRAS on the process of curriculum development for PFL courses for PEC-G students within seven Brazilian public universities. The five PFL programme co-ordinators who represented Uni01, Uni04 and Uni07 argued that, alongside their academic backgrounds and research interests, CELPE-BRAS had provided the main guidelines for curriculum development. The three PFL co-ordinators who represented Uni02, Uni03 and Uni06 argued that CELPE-BRAS alone had offered the orientations for curriculum development within the PEC-G contexts. The co-ordinator at Uni05, however, disagreed with the other eight co-ordinators' perspectives concerning the role that CELPE-BRAS should play in the processes of curriculum development.

These findings have answered the overarching research question and the first sub-question by indicating that CELPE-BRAS, despite being a proficiency examination, is

the greatest influence on the development of curriculum and the establishment of pedagogical goals for the PFL courses within the context of PEC-G. The following section presents my findings regarding two key curriculum enactment processes – the syllabus design and the selection and/or development of pedagogical materials – and how they reflect the pedagogical goals set out by the co-ordinators for the PFL curriculum.

5.3. The influence of CELPE-BRAS on the processes of curriculum enactment

The following section presents my findings concerning the curriculum enactment within the PFL courses for PEC-G students in the seven universities where this study was undertaken. Section 5.3.1 discusses the extent to which the syllabus reflected the pedagogical goals set out for the developed curriculum. The PFL teacher's perceptions of their participation in the decision-making process are found to have influenced the curriculum enactment. Section 5.3.2 presents the PFL co-ordinators' and the PFL teachers' views on how the selected and/or developed pedagogical materials provided opportunities for the goals set out for the curriculum to be achieved. Within most of the contexts, the main purpose of the pedagogical materials was to convey the theoretical assumptions that inform CELPE-BRAS.

5.3.1. The syllabus reflecting the established pedagogical goals

5.3.1.1. The PFL teachers' perceptions of their contribution to the decision-making processes

All the PFL co-ordinators who participated in this study commended the work of the PFL teachers and highlighted the importance of their role in the processes of curriculum enactment – as further discussed in Section 5.3.2. The PFL teachers' perceptions regarding their participation in the decision-making process seemed to have influenced curriculum enactment. When asked about the extent of the PFL teachers' participation in, and contribution to, key decisions regarding syllabus design, Tereza, a PFL teacher at Uni07, responded as follows:

we [PFL teachers] decide upon themes, grammar topics and discourse genres to be worked on in class. We develop a progression and we try to follow that order (...) Igor also suggests some themes that he considers important and we develop a plan to be followed until October. We adapt this plan when necessary. We have a

certain **autonomy to change** it as we see fit because the objective of developing such document is not to have something to be strictly followed. **We can change certain things and then report to Igor (...)** we have meetings every other week and Igor always **hears us** talking about everything related to the PEC-G group. That's how **he advises us and supervises us**.

Tereza (teacher at Uni07)

The quotation suggests that the co-ordinator Igor had listened to and considered the PFL teachers' opinions. Tereza claimed that a plan had been developed jointly by the PFL teachers and Igor and that the teachers had the autonomy to change and/or alter that plan if needed. The meetings between Igor and the teachers might have had a supervision character, since Tereza suggested that a variety of issues used to be addressed in order to improve the PFL course for the PEC-G students. Tereza seemed to believe that the relationship between Igor and the teachers had been mutually beneficial, since the teachers' reports informed Igor's supervision while Igor's advices guided the teachers' practices. Tereza's perspectives suggest that Igor encouraged the teachers to exercise autonomy and authorship with respect to the syllabus. This perception might be one of the reasons why Tereza seemed to have identified her opinions, alongside those of her fellow teachers, as contributions.

Having been included in the decision-making process and syllabus design might have given to the PFL teachers the confidence to evaluate and to improve upon the intended curriculum. The PFL teachers at Uni07 appeared to have developed a sense of authorship towards the curriculum – which could be related to the encouragement that they had received from Igor to own the curriculum from the development stage to the enactment stage. Fullan (2008) explains this perception by arguing that, when involved in the decision-making, teachers might feel a sense of commitment towards enactment. For Eisner (1990), it is important that the different dimensions of teachers' participation in interpreting and moderating the multiple nuances of a curriculum occur both inside and outside the classroom. Tereza's understanding of the teachers' participation in and/or contribution to the key processes that involved the curriculum development and/or enactment was not shared by most of the PFL teachers within the other six universities.

Despite having worked within the same contexts, Regina and Quenia, two PFL teachers at Uni05, shared entirely conflicting views on their participation in the decision-making process. The next extract presents Regina's accounts on the matter:

Who organises everything is Gustavo and last year [2014], since it was the first year of this **project thing**, we [PFL teachers] kind of **piloted** it (...) I had **no idea what working with PBL meant** so everything was wrong, **I wasn't developing the projects**, I was using the **grammar classes I used to have when I was attending Primary and Secondary School** to teach the students some grammar. **The students enjoyed the classes** that way (...) I have **PEC-G** and **non-PEC-G** students with **different levels of proficiency** sharing the **same group**. It is very **complicated**, and I used to **complain a lot**. (...) **I still have a hard time** dealing with this.

Regina (teacher at Uni05)

The quotation suggests that the PFL teachers at Uni05 had no role in the decision-making process; conversely, Regina claimed that the co-ordinator Gustavo had made all the structural and pedagogical decisions about the PFL courses. Regina claimed that she had spent her first year as a PFL teacher replicating her own language learning experiences – which were related to grammar-based teaching. Regina's decision to teach grammar rather than working with a PBL curriculum might have been motivated by three key issues: (a) her lack of knowledge of what PBL involved; (b) her confidence in reproducing the familiar approaches through which she had been taught language in school; and (c) the perceived positive response of the students to the more traditional approaches that Regina had been using.

Given that Regina did not believe to have contributed to the development of the PFL courses within Uni05, she used her own background in language learning, rather than Gustavo's orientations, to inform her practice. Granada and Parr (2013) explain such attitude by arguing that teachers' everyday decisions concerning their practice are related to their social background, since teachers are not neutral actors whose main role is to implement uncritically a given curriculum. Regina mentioned that her students had enjoyed her classes – which suggest that those students, despite having different sociocultural backgrounds, might have had similar language learning experiences. For Marsh (2004), even when teachers and students are not included in the processes of curriculum development, they might find a space in which their voices can be expressed and heard in the enactment. In other words, those PFL students might have interpreted and re-interpreted the curriculum that had already been interpreted and re-interpreted by Regina.

The experience that Regina shared exemplifies the co-ordinator Gustavo's claims about the PFL teachers' and students' resistance to PBL. Regina clearly struggled with Gustavo's way of organising the PFL courses and she claimed to have expressed her discontent; however, her opinions might not have been considered. Regina's

ability to understand and willingness to enact the curriculum appeared to have been compromised by her lack of participation. Nevertheless, no evidence suggested that Regina had decided to interfere intentionally with the way Gustavo had developed the curriculum and structured the PFL courses.

Quenia, Regina's fellow PFL teacher at Uni05, described a completely different scenario when sharing her perspectives on her participation in the decision-making process. Quenia explained how the PFL courses had been organised as follows:

From February to July, the courses are **developed through projects**; we [PFL teachers] always **have meetings** during which **we decide themes** for such **projects** (...) **ideas of themes** and **materials** can be **brainstormed during** our **meetings with Gustavo** who is responsible for **supervising us** and a **final plan is drawn** (...) From August to October, **different groups of PEC-G students** are organised so **a new course begins** (...) Everything related to this course comes from **CELPE-BRAS** and we use **previous examinations** as **materials** (...) all the **teachers** need to **agree upon a syllabus** which involves presenting the **same genres**, the **same texts**, so the **classes** can be the **same** for all the groups (...) **we simulate the examination during these classes** (...) **we assess their texts according to the examination's criteria.**

Quenia (teacher at Uni05)

In contrast to Regina, Quenia appeared to believe that the PFL teachers at Uni05 participated in some of the decision-making processes – especially those related to syllabus design. Quenia claimed to have had regular meetings with Gustavo to design the syllabus and organise the pedagogical materials for both the project-based and the CELPE-BRAS-based PFL courses. Quenia suggested that equal curriculum enactment within different PFL groups depended on three key elements: (a) a syllabus upon which the teachers and Gustavo had agreed; (b) the development of projects that involved a common theme; and (c) the use of the same pedagogical materials and/or CELPE-BRAS-like tasks. Because Quenia perceived that the teachers had contributed to the decision-making process, she might have assumed that the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum would not present any differences. That could be the reason why Quenia did not acknowledge that curriculum enactment also involves teachers and students.

When asked about her opinion regarding the organisation of the PFL groups and the use of PBL, Quenia responded as follows:

Working with **PBL makes sense to me because of the context** (...) this approach **can be used regardless of the students' previous knowledge about the language** (...) For example, **Spanish-speaking students are more confident** when they **start** their classes. **Portuguese** is more **similar to Spanish** than it is to other languages (...) after a couple of weeks, **PEC-G students** start improving **much faster than the**

other international students (...) because of their **needs regarding CELPE-BRAS**, feel that they have to learn and improve constantly.

Quenia (teacher at Uni05)

Quenia's views on the PBL-based curriculum and the students' arrangement within the PFL groups differed from those of Regina but echoed those of Gustavo. For Quenia, such pedagogical and organisational approaches seemed to have suited the PFL contexts within Uni05. Quenia appeared to believe that groups with students whose levels of proficiency were different had not imposed any issue due to the use of PBL. Quenia argued that the PEC-G students, despite the initial advantage of the Spanish-speaking students, had developed their language skills more effectively than the other international students. Quenia believed that this improvement had been related to the PEC-G students' dedication to their studies and their awareness of the importance of CELPE-BRAS. The quotation suggests that Quenia had understood and accepted Gustavo's vision for the PFL courses. Quenia's commitment to enacting the curriculum that had been developed seemed to be related to her sense of authorship towards the syllabus design.

Despite having described the characteristics of the two curricula – the project-based curriculum and the CELPE-BRAS-based curriculum – in similar ways, Regina and Quenia did not agree on how such curricula had been developed or enacted. Regina's and Quenia's accounts support the assumption that there was a more recognisable inconsistency between the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum in Regina's practice. Quenia's practice was reported to have established and promoted the pedagogical goals that had been set out for the curriculum – to which she understood to have contributed. Regina appeared to have challenged the key characteristic of the curriculum by teaching language through the use of grammar rather than the development of projects.

The gap between the intended curriculum and the curriculum which was enacted by Regina can be explained by two different perspectives: the integrity perspective and the actor-oriented perspective (Penuel, Phillips and Harris, 2014). Through the integrity perspective, the focus lies on the level of fidelity with which Regina enacted the intended curriculum without problematising the reasons for the presence or absence of discrepancies. The actor-oriented perspective addresses Regina's rationale for interpreting, re-interpreting and adapting the intended curriculum to accommodate it to the diverse contexts in which it was enacted. This perspective

would consider Regina's views about her lack of participation in the decision-making process and her reasons for relying on her previous language learning experiences to develop her practice.

The accounts of the three PFL teachers at Uni02 who participated in this study also evidenced a significant gap between the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum. When asked about the teachers' main contributions to curriculum development and/or syllabus design, Laura responded as follows:

Now, our [PFL teachers] **contribution is more related to teaching itself** than organisational issues but **we used to be very involved** (...) the **previous co-ordinator** would **consult** us **we'd give him our opinions** about **materials**, the **classes**, necessary **changes** and **he'd listen to us** (...) we used to have **regular meetings** (...) we'd **share** our **opinions** and **discuss** ways to address certain issues **together** (...) But now, **there's an established programme**, so **teachers are told** like 'you'll teach next Tuesday, so you have to **cover the textbook until the page 30, you can't go over that**' and we had a **list of suggestions** and **other materials** to look for and use in class.

Laura (teacher at Uni02)

Laura's view of her role as a PFL teacher can be divided into "before" and "after" Denise's appointment as the PFL co-ordinator at Uni02. Because Laura had worked with two different PFL programme co-ordinators, she decided to compare both approaches in terms of teachers' involvement with the decision-making process. According to Laura, before 2015 – when this study took place – the teachers would participate in the discussions about 'organisational issues' and attend meetings to exchange opinions with the co-ordinator. Since the teachers' suggestions would be considered by the previous co-ordinator, Laura seemed to believe that the teachers used to contribute to the organisation of the PFL courses for PEC-G students. Laura did not feel the same way during Denise's first year as a co-ordinator.

The quotation suggests that Laura saw the meetings with the co-ordinator as opportunities for the PFL teachers to express their opinions and ideas about (a) the classes; (b) the pedagogical materials; and (c) what could be changed. Given that the former co-ordinator would meet regularly with the PFL teachers to discuss improvements, it might be suggested that the syllabus used to be more flexible than the 'established programme' which was put in place in 2015. Denise was reported to have developed the curriculum, selected the pedagogical materials and planned the lessons. Laura seemed to believe that the teachers' participation had been limited to

teaching, since the teachers were supposed to enact a predetermined curriculum and a pre-designed syllabus.

Maria, also a PFL teacher at Uni02, agreed with Laura when describing the adjustments which had been made by the co-ordinator Denise. Contrary to Laura's views, the next extract suggests that Maria did not appear to have perceived such changes to be negative:

When Denise took over as our co-ordinator, **things started to be handled differently**. We kept using the **same textbooks as our materials** (...) preferably, we'd be working with the textbooks in a more **communicative way** (...) **Denise** would **suggest** some **materials** and she'd **highlight the most important things** in the textbooks. It was **easier for me** and, I think, it was **easier for the students** (...) we worked like that **until May** and then we started working only with **CELPE-BRAS** which is **the most important aspect of the course**.

Maria (teacher at Uni02)

Maria claimed that the PFL teachers continued to use the same materials that they had been using for years. The quotation suggests that the textbooks did not reflect the notions of language use that inform CELPE-BRAS. That might be one of the reasons why, according to Maria, Denise would suggest additional materials and highlight certain parts of the textbooks – which, ideally, had to be used through a more communicative approach. Maria's accounts on how the syllabus and the pedagogical materials had been moved towards communication supported Denise's claims that the curriculum for the PFL course had been based exclusively on CELPE-BRAS. It cannot be argued that Maria felt that she had participated in the decision-making process; on the contrary, Denise seemed to have been the only responsible for all the alterations related to the PFL course. Maria's positive attitude in accepting and applying such alterations might have been motivated by Denise's idea of prioritising CELPE-BRAS – which seemed to be also desired by Maria.

Nair, also a teacher at Uni02, expressed her perspectives on the changes which had been established by Denise as follows:

Denise's changes **didn't represent** any sort of **imposition**. Even when the **syllabus** is **based** on the **textbooks**, I **adapt** the **exercises** in a way that would make them **more CELPE-BRAS-like** (...) After May, when the PEC-G students have already become familiar with some **basic grammar structures** and have developed some **basic communication skills**, each **teacher develops** their **curriculum**, their **plan** (...) a **programme** which is **related to the research** we have been developing as **PG students** (...) a **programme** which is **based on one of the abilities which are assessed by the CELPE-BRAS examination**.

Nair (teacher at Uni02)

Nair's views seemed to be similar to those of Maria rather than those of Laura. Although the textbooks used to have a strong influence on the syllabus, Nair argued that she had always adapted them. Those adaptations might have aimed to reduce the gap between the pedagogical goals set out for the curriculum – which was based on CELPE-BRAS, according to the co-ordinator Denise – and the syllabus – that used to be based on the content of those textbooks. For Nair, the syllabus that was based on the PFL textbooks equipped the PEC-G students with 'basic grammar structures' and 'basic communication skills' which they would need for the next stage of the PFL course. From May to October, Nair claimed that each teacher had developed a specific syllabus that was based on one of the examination' elements – written or oral – depending on their research interest.

Laura, Maria and Nair claimed and/or implied that their participation in the decision-making process had been reduced after Denise's appointment as the co-ordinator. The teachers, however, appeared to have been given a lot of autonomy to design a syllabus that prioritised the element of the CELPE-BRAS examination on which they had been focusing their research. The fact that Denise had reorganised the materials and planned the lessons for the period during which the textbooks were used might have contributed to the teachers' perception that their opinions had not been considered. The perceived top-down approach to curriculum development and syllabus design did not seem to have motivated the teachers to refrain from making changes. The teachers and Denise argued that the CELPE-BRAS examination had offered the guidelines on which the PFL course was solely based. However, when the textbooks were being used as orientations for syllabus design, the influence of CELPE-BRAS seemed to have been diminished.

5.3.1.2. The role of the PFL teachers in developing and/or adapting the syllabus

Regardless of their participation in the decision-making process, the PFL teachers who participated in this study claimed to have played a significant role in designing and/or adapting the syllabus for the PFL courses that they taught. When asked about how the syllabus had been designed, Olga, a teacher at Uni03, responded the following:

There **wasn't any sort of programme or table of contents (...)** Each teacher chose the **subject with which they felt more comfortable**. I'm the **grammar teacher (...)**

class planning and **preparing materials** have always been **done individually** (...) Elisa showed us some **old CELPE-BRAS examinations** and **explained how the examination works** (...) She **showed us where to find textbooks** and that **their table of contents could be our syllabus** but we were completely **free to conduct our classes the way we wanted**.

Olga (teacher at Uni03)

Olga claimed that each teacher at Uni03 chose a specific subject to teach within the PFL course and designed a syllabus, planned the lessons and prepared the pedagogical materials. Olga suggested that the co-ordinator Elisa had little or no participation in such processes, since Elisa had only provided the teachers with some textbooks and the tasks from previous CELPE-BRAS examinations. The lack of a common syllabus on which the PFL classes would have to be based might have motivated the PFL teachers to design their syllabi. Elisa's suggestion to use the tables of content in the textbooks as the syllabus contradicted her own claim that the curriculum had been exclusively based on CELPE-BRAS. The following extract presents Olga's opinion about the role of CELPE-BRAS in the syllabus:

Many things that the **PEC-G students believe that they should be taught** are **not related to** the perspective of language that **CELPE-BRAS** promotes. They ask **questions about complex issues** related to language **but** I know that the **CELPE-BRAS** examination **will never require** them to know that. I know I'd be **wasting my time** teaching something which **won't be useful** to them (...) I develop my classes in a **more communicative way, applying communicative approaches** (...) I wanted to **focus on language use**, I was extremely **criticised** for **not teaching enough grammar**. Some students would bring really old **PMT dictionaries** and **PMT grammar books**.

Olga (teacher at Uni03)

The quotation suggests that Olga used CELPE-BRAS as guidelines for syllabus design rather than the textbooks which had been recommended by the co-ordinator Elisa. Olga claimed that the PEC-G students had strong opinions about what and how they should be learning Portuguese. Olga seemed to have disregarded the students' suggestions that were unrelated to her understanding of the theoretical assumptions that inform CELPE-BRAS. The PEC-G students appeared to share notions of language and language use that were associated to grammar studies and language as system. Those preferences of the PEC-G students might have been related to their previous language learning experiences. It can also be argued that, since Olga was 'the grammar teacher', it was reasonable of the PEC-G students to assume that grammar topics would be prioritised over communicative tasks.

Olga's decision of disregarding the textbooks' table of contents as guidelines for syllabus design can find support in Kelly (2009) who argues that a curriculum and a syllabus should move beyond the content dimension. Olga's concern in promoting the notions of language and language use that inform CELPE-BRAS through the syllabus agrees with Barnett (2009) who argues that a plan should be designed in order to specify what and how certain kinds of knowledge can be taught. Olga seemed to have designed a syllabus that focused on the requirements set out for the CELPE-BRAS examination. It can be argued that CELPE-BRAS restricted Olga's practice and the PEC-G students in-class learning experiences to the use of language, the specific discourse genres and the interactional situations which had been part of the examination.

Laura, Maria and Nair, teachers at Uni02, described a similar scenario from that reported by Olga. When asked about the main influences on the PFL courses for PEC-G students, Laura responded as follows:

PEC-G students need to be prepared for CELPE-BRAS so they need a course that is organised to prepare them for the examination (...) PEC-G students need to learn how to communicate, how to write, read, they need to be prepared for the interview (...) What we [PFL teachers] do is to list all the genres that have already been covered by CELPE-BRAS examinations and we organise them into a sequence and work with them all.

Laura (teacher at Uni02)

Laura argued that the PEC-G students needed to learn how to develop the comprehension and production skills which would enable them to use language within the requirements of the CELPE-BRAS examination. The teachers at Uni02 seemed to have designed a common syllabus on which each teacher based their classes. The progression or 'sequence' of discourse genres that were prioritised by the syllabus involved the recurring genres in CELPE-BRAS. The main objective of the course was clearly to prepare the PEC-G students for the examination rather than promoting the development of language skills that would be required during their undergraduate studies. Laura's accounts supported the co-ordinator Denise's claims that CELPE-BRAS had been the sole source of guidelines for everything related to the PFL course at Uni02.

Maria corroborated Laura's response by claiming that 'even during the short period that we would work with the textbooks, I would ask them to write texts that were usually proposed by the examination' (**Maria – teacher at Uni02**). Nair claimed that

'I did not focus on CELPE-BRAS from the beginning because of the PEC-G students' lack of basic linguistic knowledge but I would ask them to write short CELPE-BRAS-like texts' (**Nair – teacher at Uni02**). Maria's and Nair's quotes supported Laura's views in terms of the influence that the examination had on the syllabus design for the PFL course. Given that, as previously mentioned, the three teachers were using their classes to collect data for their research – which was related to CELPE-BRAS – it is understandable that the syllabus had been almost exclusively based on the notions of language and language use that inform the examination.

Although CELPE-BRAS represented a significant influence on the syllabus that had been designed by the three teachers, the following quotation suggests that such influence did not limit Maria's practice:

I wouldn't allow the concern about **CELPE-BRAS** or my research to restrict me in reproducing the examination's oral tasks (...) I also **focused on language skills** that the PEC-G students would be required to have during their **undergraduate studies** (...) I kept in mind and reminded the PEC-G students that the **PFL course wouldn't end after the examination** and that **CELPE-BRAS** was the **easiest part** of their experience in Brazil (...) so I **worked** with many **discourse genres that aren't usually covered by the examination**, like **seminars** and **PowerPoint presentations**.

Maria (teacher at Uni02)

Maria claimed that neither the examination nor her research had prevented her from encouraging the PEC-G students to develop oral skills which would not be covered by CELPE-BRAS. Maria seemed to have provided the PEC-G students with opportunities for the development of oral skills on which they would be able to rely during their undergraduate studies. Maria believed that the examination would be the easiest challenge for the PEC-G students and that preparing them for the examination would not prepare them for their undergraduate studies. Maria appeared to disagree with the co-ordinator Denise's decision of using CELPE-BRAS as the only guidelines for the curriculum development.

Maria's perspectives on how a CELPE-BRAS-based PFL course fails to prepare the PEC-G students for their undergraduate studies are similar to the views of Julia – teacher at Uni01. When asked about how the preparation for the examination helped the PEC-G students to be prepared for their undergraduate studies, Julia responded as follows:

The required **language proficiency level doesn't guarantee** that the **PEC-G students** will be able to **follow the classes** or even more **complex social**

conversations (...) most of the courses **demand more** than what a person with an intermediate certificate can handle (...) I like to ask them to **outline their goals** regarding their PFL studies and **their ideas** and **expectations** are **added to the syllabus** (...) it is because of the **feedback provided by our previous students that current PEC-G students can attend these many PFL courses** here even **after CELPE-BRAS**.

Julia (teacher at Uni01)

Julia claimed that the intermediate level of proficiency – which is required by the universities – does not guarantee that the PEC-G students will be able to cope with the language levels within the UG programmes. Based on this perception and the PEC-G students' opinions, several PFL courses started to be offered by the languages centre at Uni01. Such initiatives seemed to have broadened the chances for the PEC-G students' learning experiences to move beyond the preparation for the CELPE-BRAS examination. It can be argued that the PEC-G students' opinions about what and how they should be taught had been considered by the teachers and coordinators at Uni01. Different from other PFL programmes, such as the context at Uni03, previously described by Olga, the PEC-G students' feedback seemed to have been incorporated to the syllabus at Uni01.

Considering the students' needs and perceptions when designing or adapting a syllabus might be a way to include these students in the decision-making process and therefore enable them to feel a sense of authorship towards their learning experiences. Julia's accounts support the conclusion that the PFL teachers at Uni01 had the autonomy to build and/or improve upon the syllabi after having consulted the students. The importance of students' participation is emphasised by Richards (2001a) who argues that the students' needs and the contextual specificities should be the starting point for the construction of a 'network of interacting systems' (p. 41). For Mickan (2013), a syllabus should reflect the objectives and expected outcomes that describe the students' participation in social practices as well as their involvement and progression in a well-structured programme. The PFL teachers and the PEC-G students at Uni01 might have contributed for the construction of syllabi that were not limited to the structure or notions of language and language use that inform CELPE-BRAS.

Although the PFL programme within Uni07 did not offer more than one PFL course for PEC-G students, the syllabus also appeared to have been designed to address the students' needs regarding CELPE-BRAS and their undergraduate studies.

Tereza, a teacher at Uni07, described the teachers' role in designing and adapting the syllabus for the PFL course as follows:

We work with this **perspective of discourse genre**, especially because the PEC-G students have to be prepared for **CELPE-BRAS** (...) from July, we start applying **some tasks** and **previous examinations** to focus **on the examination itself** but before July we work with different **discourse genres** (...) **CELPE-BRAS does not expect the examinees** to be very **critical and opinionated** or to **take a stance** and build **a strong argument** (...) promoting and/or developing **critical literacy** is a concern of ours (...) it **might not make any difference for their performance during the examination** but expressing criticality **might help them once they become UG students** and, for me, **preparing them for their academic life is really important**.

Tereza (teacher at Uni07)

The quotation indicates that the use of discourse genres did not reflect a context-based pedagogical choice; instead, it was related to the influence of the notion of discourse genre on which CELPE-BRAS is based – which is attributed to Bakhtin (1968). The examinees are expected to produce a specific utterance to a certain interlocutor by playing a communicative role to achieve a given purpose (Schlatter et al, 2009). Tereza suggested that, even when the focus was not CELPE-BRAS, language teaching had been conducted through communicative tasks and discourse genres. Tereza claimed that she had worked with tasks and discourse genres that would not necessarily be part of the examination – which supports the co-ordinator Igor's accounts that CELPE-BRAS had been used as the main, rather than only, guidelines for the curriculum development.

Tereza argued that some skills, such as criticality, had been developed during the PFL course regardless of their usefulness during the examination. Tereza's concern with the PEC-G students' criticality seemed to reflect her commitment to help those students to be prepared for their 'academic life'. This suggests that Tereza might not have allowed CELPE-BRAS to impose limitations to her practice and to the PEC-G students' linguistic achievements. It can be argued that Tereza – similar to Julia from Uni01 – believed that passing the CELPE-BRAS examination would not guarantee that the PEC-G students would be prepared for their undergraduate studies.

This section had presented my findings regarding the teachers' perception of their roles in the decision-making process, especially those related to the syllabus design. My interpretations of these accounts have evidenced that the teachers who had been included in those processes perceived their participation to be contributions. However, those who had been excluded from the discussions saw the final decisions

to be impositions. The following section presents my findings concerning the selection of pedagogical materials and/or their development in relation to the goals set out for the curriculum and/or the syllabus for the PFL courses within the context of PEC-G. The first and second parts examine the co-ordinator's views on the teachers' participation in that process. The third and fourth parts discuss the teachers' perspectives on the importance of selecting and/or developing pedagogical materials as part of curriculum enactment.

5.3.2. The selected and/or developed materials reflecting pedagogical goals

5.3.2.1. The adoption of published textbooks as pedagogical materials

CELPE-BRAS influences, or even shapes completely, the processes of curriculum development and syllabus design for the PFL courses. Six of the seven co-ordinators who participated in this research argued that CELPE-BRAS should be used for the development of pedagogical materials. Two co-ordinators claimed to have used published textbooks as their main pedagogical materials. When asked about how the textbooks reflected the pedagogical goals set out for the curriculum, Denise, the co-ordinator at Uni02, responded as follows:

The **teachers** said that they **had** already **planned** the **syllabus** and **lessons based** on the **textbooks** (...) those **textbooks** had nothing to do with CELPE-BRAS, they only had **grammar-based exercises**, **nothing** related to the **communicative goals** (...) I **started planning the classes myself**, like a **weekly plan** so the teachers could mix and match all the lessons in the textbook (...) I **suggested some activities** until a certain point, then, the teachers would start working on their own.

Denise (co-ordinator at Uni02)

The quotation suggests that, despite failing to reflect the communicative goals set out for the curriculum, the PFL teachers had decided to use the textbooks as a matter of convenience rather than for pedagogical reasons. Denise claimed that she had planned the lessons for the teachers by reorganising the order of the textbooks' lessons and adding and/or suggesting additional materials. As previously discussed, the teachers at Uni02 – Laura, Maria and Nair – perceived Denise's initiatives to be top-down decision-making which had excluded the teachers from the processes of curriculum development and syllabus design. Denise seemed to have made such changes to move the pedagogical materials towards the communicative nature of CELPE-BRAS on which the curriculum had been based. Denise explained how the

additional materials had been selected to diminish the gap between the curriculum and the textbooks as follows:

To give you an example of suggestion, I would write next to a lesson, 'here you can work on **the status of women within the Brazilian culture**' (...) Sometimes, I suggest them to **ask the students to present specificities of their cultures** (...) using a **PowerPoint presentation with pictures only**, so they **weren't allowed to write down any words to help them** with the presentation. (...) I want to be able to develop good and more **specific materials with communicative goals**.

Denise (co-ordinator at Uni02)

The additional resources appeared to have been related to the textbooks' lessons and/or themes, which suggests that the textbooks were used as the main pedagogical materials. Denise seemed to have focused on two key aspects that the textbooks might have lack: (1) culture; and (2) language use for communicative purposes. Denise's suggestions to include culture to the pedagogical materials might have provided the teachers and the students with opportunities to address some topics that would not have been covered by the textbooks. Despite having conveyed a perspective of culture that was attached to the concept of nationality, Denise's example – a discussion about 'the status of women within the Brazilian culture' – was aligned to the notion of culture that inform CELPE-BRAS.

Denise's second example involved a series of oral presentations during which the PEC-G students would have to use photos as visual resources to share 'specificities of their cultures'. Given that the CELPE-BRAS examination presents tasks which provide the examinees with written texts, photos, videos and audios to inform and motivate the production of determined oral and written texts, Denise's suggestion did not promote the notion of language use on which CELPE-BRAS is based. It can be argued that Denise's attempts to close the gap between the curriculum and the pedagogical materials might not have been successful. Denise appeared to be struggling with a curriculum and a set of textbooks which had been in place since before her appointment as a co-ordinator. However, as further discussed in Section 5.3.1.2, Laura, Maria and Nair, teachers at Uni02, would adapt those materials to CELPE-BRAS-like tasks.

Elisa, the co-ordinator at Uni03, also claimed that a set of published textbooks had been used as pedagogical materials. The following extract presents Elisa's opinions about such materials:

The **textbooks** are the **guidelines** for everything related to the PFL course. We use the textbooks to follow **their progression**, their **tables of contents** (...) they **define** our **syllabus** and the **levels of proficiency** (...) the **first ten units** need to be covered by the **Basic** and **Pre-Intermediate** courses and the **last ten units** should be part of the **Intermediate** and **Pre-Advanced** courses (...) the girls [PFL teachers] develop **their materials**, they use **materials** they find **online**, **other textbooks**, for **Primary and Secondary schools**, **grammar exercises**.

Elisa (co-ordinator at Uni03)

Elisa's accounts concerning the importance and influence of the set of textbooks contradicted her own statement that the curriculum had been solely based on CELPE-BRAS. The notion of proficiency that those textbooks promote seemed to be related to content whereas the notion that inform CELPE-BRAS involves communicative tasks and language performance (INEP, 2015). Elisa's response also contradicted Olga, a teacher at Uni03, who argued that there had not been any syllabus or table of content in place to be used as orientations by the teachers. Elisa corroborated Olga's views when she claimed that the teachers prepared their materials based on the set of PFL textbooks, Primary and Secondary school textbooks for Portuguese as a Mother Tongue (PMT) and online resources. It can be argued that a specific set of textbooks might have influenced, as much as CELPE-BRAS, the development and selection of pedagogical materials for the PFL course for PEC-G students at Uni03.

When asked to provide an example of how the teachers adapted the materials to take account of the PEC-G students' specific needs and characteristics, Elisa responded as follows:

There's a **teacher** who **teaches culture** (...) she works with **Brazilian Music of all sorts** (...) a little bit of **History** (...) she talks about **food** (...) we cover some **social issues**, things that **they're not used to study** in their countries, things such as **feminism, children's rights. Brazilian stuff**. Things which are **completely different from their reality** (...) The PEC-G students can **present their music** (...) They brought **voodoo stuff**, and **typical food** (...) they had **this opportunity** and they have opportunities here in class when possible because we have to **focus on teaching the language, Brazilian language, Portuguese**.

Elisa (co-ordinator at Uni03)

Elisa's notions of culture appeared to rely on both local and national senses of homogeneity. When Elisa mentioned 'Brazilian Music', she seemed to have referred to a specific genre which is both typical, since it is 'of all sorts', and representative of Brazil as a whole, since it is 'Brazilian'. 'History' was also mentioned as related to culture, which suggests that Elisa believed that society needed to be studied through

its history and the perceived influence that such past had on society's current habits. Elisa might understand culture as a set of elements – such as Music, History and food – that are supposed both to represent and to be promoted as a representation of people who share a certain nationality.

When Elisa referred to feminism and children's rights as 'Brazilian stuff', she seemed to assume that most of Brazilians broadly discuss such matters whereas none of these students have any knowledge regarding those 'social issues'. This supposition might have encouraged the PFL teachers to disregard the PEC-G students' opinions about certain topics. The PEC-G students' perspective, however, seemed to have been considered and appreciated when they were requested to present/introduce elements of 'their culture' – such as Music and food. The PEC-G students appeared to have been encouraged to demonstrate stereotypical understandings which might have served as patterns of comparison between "their culture" and the "Brazilian culture".

Although the PEC-G students had been given opportunities to present 'their cultures', Elisa argued that the Brazilian culture and language had to be prioritised. Elisa's perspectives suggest that the PEC-G students had to impersonate a stereotyped version of their identity to fit in a preconceived idea of what 'their culture' should represent. Moreover, the notion of a homogenised Brazil – with one common culture and one common language – seemed to have been conveyed through the pedagogical materials. Establishing and/or promoting a specific culture and a certain variety of the language as the standard representation of a country can reduce culture to nationality and disregard the linguistic and sociocultural diversity within a given society.

This standardisation can contribute to the perception that the cultures and/or language varieties which do not correspond to the established national patterns should not be recognised. The people whose cultures and language varieties are unrepresented or misrepresented by the official language-in-education policies might be marginalised. Such argument finds support in Guilherme (2007) who argues that language plays a significant role in the establishment of a nation-state that, through policies, can grant and/or deny citizenship to certain members of society. The advancement of certain language and culture varieties within the PFL course at Uni03 might have undermined the possibilities for the PEC-G students to access and to express linguistic and cultural diversity.

5.3.2.2. The development of pedagogical materials and the promotion of criticality and reflexivity

The development of pedagogical materials was mentioned by most of the co-ordinators who participate in this study as a fundamental enactment process. For Fernanda, the co-ordinator at Uni04, a connection between theory and practice can be achieved through the development of pedagogical materials. Fernanda explained why she had been encouraging the PFL teachers at Uni04 to produce and share pedagogical materials in the following extract:

There are **no nice materials for PFL in the market**, they don't even offer a good starting point. **Published materials will never** fully **reflect** the **nuances** and the **diversity** of a language classroom in the way that **authentic materials might**. We've been **developing our own materials** (...) developing pedagogical materials starts a **conversation between theory and practice** (...) **opportunities for reflexivity**.

Fernanda (co-ordinator at Uni04)

Fernanda suggested that two key reasons had motivated her to encourage the development of pedagogical materials: (1) the lack of good published pedagogical materials for PFL; and (2) the fact that published materials cannot accommodate the diversity within a classroom. Fernanda mentioned contextual diversity as an important element to be considered during the development of pedagogical materials and that 'authentic materials' might reflect those contexts more successfully than published materials. Fernanda claimed that the development of pedagogical materials had enabled the PFL teachers to reflect upon the relationship between theory and practice.

Given the influence of CELPE-BRAS on the processes of curriculum development for the PFL course at Uni04 and importance of CLT and TBLT for the examination, it can be argued that Fernanda's understanding of authenticity echoes the notion of Canale and Swain (1980). For Canale and Swain (1980), authentic materials are any spoken or written texts which are produced for communication purposes rather than pedagogical. This definition has been broadly problematised by many researchers for different reasons. Breen (1989), for instance, questions this definition for believing that it fails to authorise everyone who is involved in the teaching/learning process to grant authenticity which takes place in the classroom. Kachru (1992, 1997, 2006) argued that texts which usually are granted authenticity belong to and are originated from a privileged portion of society that retains cultural and linguistic hegemony.

Authenticity is conferred to the texts that reproduce and promote the language and culture varieties that are considered standard.

Similar to Fernanda's opinions, Igor, the co-ordinator at Uni07, responded the question related to the relevance of developing pedagogical materials as follows:

Authentic pedagogical materials can potentially enable the **PEC-G students to achieve better results** than published **textbooks that don't address their needs**. When I say needs I mean it in many different senses, **important cultural issues, discussions that we want to have** with them (...) **we can hear what they think and they can share their experiences, their perspectives**. I think that this process is way richer, **developing material** thinking about **CELPE-BRAS** (...) They're **students** who have so much to bring to the table, so **much to give** and they do, so it's also a concern of ours to **develop materials** which enable those students **to share their personal experiences, their cultural constructions, to have an actual exchanging of ideas**.

Igor (co-ordinator at Uni07)

Igor argued that published PFL textbooks do not attend the PEC-G students' needs and therefore had not been adopted as pedagogical materials. The materials which had been developed within the PFL programme appeared to promote the theoretical assumptions that inform CELPE-BRAS, since the examination might have been perceived to be the students' most relevant need. Because of the strong influence of CELPE-BRAS on the pedagogical materials, it can be suggested that the discussions might have focused on themes and topics that have been addressed recurrently by the examination. For Igor, those discussions aimed to encourage the PEC-G students to share their views and to acknowledge those of others.

Igor did not seem to have equated culture to the notion of nationality; moreover, the PEC-G students' diversity appeared to have been considered in order to create a place where different perspectives and sociocultural constructions could be shared through interactions. What Igor referred to as 'an actual exchange of ideas' did not seem to be based on the essentialist notion of culture on which CELPE-BRAS is based. That might have provided the PEC-G students with opportunities to reflect upon and to express critically their perspectives regarding sociocultural issues rather than echoing national stereotypes. Such view finds support in Byram (2008) who argues that an environment where different opinions can be shared without judgement might help students to become aware of the cultural apparatus which consciously and unconsciously shapes their viewpoints and the way they perceive and evaluate other people's perspectives.

Gustavo, the co-ordinator at Uni05, expressed his opinion about the relationship between the development of pedagogical materials and the students' cultural diversity as follows:

One of the things that made me **improved my practice** was the fact that I was always **developing my own materials** (...) As a languages teacher, **communicative approaches and tasks were always the obvious reference** but when I was requested to work with projects, I realised that **communicative tasks were not the best way to promote meaningful interactions** (...) As a PFL teacher and now a co-ordinator, I can guarantee that **PBL fits the purposes of this diverse context way better than the predesigned lessons** that we might find in a textbook (...) so, **developing our own pedagogical materials is** a perfect way to **reflect our practice** and the **specificities** of our contexts (...) the **autonomy that PBL requires** is not completely welcomed by **some of the students and teachers** I must admit but their **resistance** fades in the presence of positive results.

Gustavo (co-ordinator at Uni05)

Gustavo's reasons to advocate for the development of pedagogical materials were similar to those of Fernanda and Igor. As Fernanda, Gustavo argued that, by developing pedagogical materials, opportunities to reflect upon the relationship between theory and practice had been created. Gustavo claimed that his practice had been improved, once he started to develop pedagogical materials and, as a co-ordinator/supervisor, he might have wanted the PFL teachers to have that experience. As Igor, Gustavo mentioned the importance of considering the contextual specificities to 'promote meaningful interactions' through the developed pedagogical materials. The most significant difference between Gustavo and his fellow co-ordinators was the use of projects rather than communicative tasks.

Given that, at Uni05, the PFL groups were not comprised of students with similar proficiency levels or who participated in the same academic mobility programme, Gustavo believed that TBLT would not have encouraged the PFL students to develop their language studies as autonomously as PBL did. According to Gustavo, despite having been focused on the students' needs and diverse contexts, some of the PFL teachers and students had to be convinced that project-based pedagogical materials could help to achieve positive results. The teachers and students' resistance that Gustavo reported to have perceived might have been related to the fact that the pedagogical materials did not present CELPE-BRAS-like tasks.

Gustavo believed that the development of pedagogical materials could have guaranteed that the students' diversity and individuality would be considered. As previously discussed, Regina, a PFL teacher at Uni05, expressed her discontentment

with the fact that the curriculum and the syllabus had focused on PBL and, for that reason, she would develop pedagogical materials that were not based on projects. The case of Regina can be explained by Byram et al. (1990) who argue that both teachers and learners should not be seen as passive readers without any sense of authorship towards the materials.

At Uni01 and Uni06, the co-ordinators did not seem to have rejected the use of textbooks completely; however, such materials were not reported to be used uncritically. Cecília, one of the co-ordinators at Uni01, reported that the PFL programme relied, almost exclusively, on textbooks and other materials – both developed within the programme. When asked about the approaches through which those different kinds of materials were usually deployed inside the classroom, Cecília explained as follows:

Many **PFL teachers write their dissertations and theses about the development of materials**, so some “**textbooks**” and a lot of **other pedagogical material** for the PEC-G students **are developed by us** (...) there’ll always be **things that our textbooks and previous materials won’t cover**. Those **authentic texts** and **videos** about what’s going on in the world (...) we prepare **tasks** which are very **similar** to those in the **examination**. We **build the tasks**; we **discuss** the **linguistic resources** necessary to develop the texts required by a certain task. (...) But from July on, since the **focus is CELPE-BRAS**, even the **material is exclusively related to the tasks proposed by the examination**.

Cecília (co-ordinator at Uni01)

Similar to Fernanda’s and Gustavo’s perspectives, Cecília seemed to believe that the development of pedagogical materials enabled the PFL teachers to combine their research with their practice. Cecília claimed that some PFL teachers had been involved with research about the development of pedagogical materials which helped to expand the number of textbooks and tasks developed for the PFL courses. The additional materials seemed to have been developed to address current themes and topics which had not been covered by the predesigned materials. Given that the PEC-G students attended PFL classes both in a group of theirs, and also in different groups with other international students, it seemed reasonable to prioritise the CELPE-BRAS examination in the materials for the PEC-G group.

The quotation suggests that CELPE-BRAS influenced the content and format of the pedagogical materials developed for the PEC-G students. CELPE-BRAS might have informed the research and the practice of those PFL teachers who had helped with the development of pedagogical materials and whose dissertations and theses had

addressed such topic. The co-ordinators at Uni01 appeared to agree with Scaramucci (2012) who argues that the theoretical assumptions on which CELPE-BRAS is based should be used to inform every aspect of PFL – including the development of pedagogical materials. This perspective, explained in the next extract, was also expressed by Helena, the co-ordinator at Uni06, who, similar to Cecília, decided to improve upon the existing textbooks by developing more contextualised and CELPE-BRAS-like pedagogical materials:

The **textbooks** we had were **grammar-based** and had nothing to do with CELPE-BRAS. I decided to **change the materials gradually** and all the **teachers supported** me (...) I always try to bring **communicative tasks** to these materials (...) I tell the students that they must **learn the language** but that they also must learn the **examination** (...) They can **work their way up from an introduction letter to a PowerPoint presentation**, for example. Those are ways of working both **content** and the **task** itself, the **format**, to **prepare** these students for what's coming. Not only in terms of **CELPE-BRAS**, but also for what's coming when they start their **undergraduate studies**.

Helena (co-ordinator at Uni06)

Given that Helena claimed that the curriculum for the PFL course for PEC-G students had been solely based on CELPE-BRAS, the influence of the examination on the development of pedagogical materials can be understandable. Helena argued that the students had to be familiarised with both the content and the format of the examination and therefore the grammar-based textbooks, which did not reflect either of those elements, had been replaced gradually. Helena suggested that the materials moved from, what she seemed to consider to be, less complex tasks – such as writing a letter of introduction – to more complex tasks – such as a PowerPoint presentation. Helena's understanding of what defines the complexity of a CELPE-BRAS-like task can be questioned by the theoretical perspectives that inform the examination. According to Bachman (1990), whose framework of CLA informs CELPE-BRAS, the complexity of a task cannot be defined by the task alone. Rather, what needs to be considered is the consequences of the interaction between the students' communicative competence and the tasks' characteristics.

The development of pedagogical materials was mentioned by most of the co-ordinators as a potential means through which the PFL teachers could include the themes and topics that they considered to be relevant for the PEC-G students. As a key process of curriculum enactment, the development and/or adaptation of materials may reflect the pedagogical goals set out for the intended curriculum and/or convey

the teachers' assumptions concerning language teaching/learning. As previously discussed, the differences and/or similarities between the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum can be related to the teachers' participation in the decision-making process. The following sections present my findings concerning the teachers' role in developing/adapting the pedagogical materials and the influence of the theoretical perspectives on which CELPE-BRAS is based.

5.3.2.3. The role of the PFL teachers in developing and/or adapting the pedagogical materials

As acknowledged by all the co-ordinators in the previous sections, the main contribution of the PFL teachers, in terms of structuring the PFL courses, was related to the development of pedagogical materials. Given that the PFL programme co-ordinators at Uni02 and Uni03 were using published textbooks as the main pedagogical materials, the PFL teachers had to work with materials which did not reflect the pedagogical goals set out for an allegedly CELPE-BRAS-based curriculum. When asked about how she adapted those textbooks to the PEC-G context, Olga, a teacher at Uni03, responded the following:

We [PFL teachers] usually rely on the textbooks but I'd say that **about 60% of the materials** we use with PEC-G groups **are developed by us** (...) we come across a **text on the internet** and **develop some materials**, some **questions** about these texts (...) we **select some piece of news** from that week and use it. They [PEC-G students] need to **develop reading and writing skills** so most of the pedagogical materials deal with **content in a very superficial way**, even with **grammar topics** (...) **I prepare my classes according to the textbooks' themes**, even my grammar classes (...) every week, I **give an exercise which combines a video and a text and they have to produce a ten-line text**.

Olga (teacher at Uni03)

Olga acknowledged the influence of the textbooks but disagreed with the co-ordinator Elisa regarding the extent of such influence. Olga claimed that most of the materials which were used with the PEC-G students had been developed by the teachers in accordance to the themes in the textbooks. Olga might have used the textbooks as a starting point to develop the materials; however, discussions related to the content and grammar topics were described as superficial. Olga seemed to have prioritised the development of reading and writing skills – which implies that Olga adapted, or, even replaced, the textbooks with materials that brought CELPE-BRAS-like tasks.

Olga's attitude towards the textbooks which had been suggested by the co-ordinator corroborates Forman's (2014) views on the role of textbooks. Forman (2014) argues that the importance of the textbooks in facilitating language education cannot be perceived to be wholly positive when the authority of these materials remains unchallenged. Olga appeared to have taken advantage of the autonomy that Elisa had allowed the PFL teachers to have to use critically the materials and the textbooks.

At Uni02, the role of the published textbooks was not agreed upon by the co-ordinator Denise and the teachers Laura, Maria and Nair. Although Denise had reorganised the syllabus and the lesson plans based on the textbooks, Nair, as explained in the next extract, claimed that all the pedagogical materials that she used had been developed by her:

I don't work with the textbooks, I work with authentic materials because CELPE-BRAS works with a communicative perspective and therefore it deals with text genres and it requires examinees to produce complex texts that can be found within society (...) If I want to work with reader's letters, **I take many magazines to the classroom** and they start having a **first contact with this genre**. That helps them realise **how people express themselves** in a letter like that, **where** these letters **can be found, which section** of the publication presents those letters, what **strategies** are used **to express opinions** (...) after we work with these kinds of texts, **we start working with previous CELPE-BRAS examinations, to simulate the examination.**

Nair (teacher at Uni02)

Nair suggested that authentic texts cannot be found in published textbooks; moreover, CELPE-BRAS seemed to have motivated her to work with what she referred to as authentic materials. Similar to the perception that was shared by most of the co-ordinators and teachers, Nair's understanding of authenticity echoed the notion that involves spoken and written texts which are not especially produced for language teaching (Canale and Swain, 1980; Nunan, 2004). Nair granted authenticity to both, the texts in the materials and the texts that were produced by the PEC-G students. This perception can find support in Breen (1989) who argues that authenticity takes place in the classroom and it involves students and contexts. This broad definition of authenticity is problematic for failing to establish clear criteria for developing and/or selecting pedagogical materials for the PFL-teaching contexts.

Nair assumed that the PEC-G students were unfamiliar with certain types of written texts – such as magazine articles – and therefore needed to be introduced to them. According to Nair, the PEC-G students had a 'first contact' with the written texts and analysed them before producing a similar text, which had been proposed through

CELPE-BRAS-like tasks. Given that those were postsecondary students, they should not have been expected not to know certain discourse genres. Prior experiences concerning language learning should not be disregarded when a new language is being studied. This view is corroborated by Kramsch (2011) who argues that different languages alongside the different cultural memories that they evoke can be added to the learners' repertoire. Multiple languages and cultural memories might be used to build the semiotic diversity on which the multilingual subject can rely to reframe ways to see familiar events (Kramsch, 2009, 2011).

Maria, also from Uni02, seemed to have had a slightly different approach to that of Nair, as her response to the question about her role in adapting and/or developing materials suggests:

In March and April, **I work with the textbooks** but, from May to October, **I work exclusively with oral comprehension and production** (...) I start with the **genre "seminar"**. I **explain what a seminar is**, show them some **YouTube videos** and **they present a seminar** (...) Then, we start **analysing provoking elements** (...) I **use CELPE-BRAS' assessment framework** and I **develop provoking elements** related to themes we discuss, when there aren't any (...) I also prepare **PowerPoint presentations** with the elements which are usually **used by the CELPE-BRAS examination and the assessment framework**. Sometimes, they **simulate a CELPE-BRAS interview** amongst themselves. **One student** plays the **interlocutor**, the other one plays the **examinee** and the other one plays the **examiner**. After every round, **they provide** each other with some **feedback**.

Maria (teacher at Uni02)

Maria claimed that she had used the textbooks for the first two months of the PFL course before replacing them for tasks that emulated CELPE-BRAS' oral element. Given that the oral production task that the examinees are required to perform during the examination only involves a 20-minutes interaction, Maria did not restrict the pedagogical materials to the examination's format in terms of oral comprehension and production. Maria added seminars to the list of oral genres on which the classes would be based, which suggests a concern with preparing the PEC-G students for oral interactions besides those covered by the CELPE-BRAS examination. However, Maria claimed that she had assessed the PEC-G students' oral productions according to the criteria that informs CELPE-BRAS. It can be argued that neither Nair or Maria followed uncritically Denise's suggestions. Nair decided not to use the co-ordinator's lesson plans – which included the textbooks – whereas Maria, despite having used the textbooks, did not base the pedagogical materials exclusively on CELPE-BRAS-like tasks.

The teachers at the other five contexts where this study took place – Uni01, Uni04, Uni05, Uni06 and Uni07 – did not have any textbooks on which they needed to rely. When asked about the development of pedagogical materials and how these materials reflected the pedagogical goals set out for the curriculum, Silvia, a teacher at Uni06 responded as follows:

Despite having everything planned, **every class is a new class** and everything needs to be prepared again (...) **CELPE-BRAS is a dynamic examination which deals with current social and cultural aspects of Brazil** (...) we have to **find new texts, new videos, new audios** and we get **to build the course** based on this search (...) **I develop materials mainly for writing**; however, **when the PEC-G students present common errors**, which happens a lot, **I develop materials related to grammar** (...) I give them **grammar exercises** so they can understand things better.

Silvia (teacher at Uni06)

Silvia claimed that she had produced new pedagogical materials for each class she taught – either by adapting the materials that were available or by developing new materials. According to Silvia, the materials became outdated because the examination addresses current issues that are relevant for the Brazilian context. Although Silvia had developed materials which focused on writing, she acknowledged that some of the materials presented ‘grammar exercises’ to address the students’ recurrent ‘errors’. This suggests that Silvia might not have agreed with the coordinator Helena who argued that using grammar-based materials with PEC-G students makes no sense. The assessment criteria that inform CELPE-BRAS specifies clearly that textual adequacy is related to the examinees’ capacity to use language in context (INEP, 2015). Regardless, Silvia’s overall description of the tasks suggests an explicit influence of CELPE-BRAS which reflects the pedagogical goals set out by Helena for the curriculum.

A more implicit influence of the examination was described by Tereza, a teacher at Uni07, in the following extract:

To focus on **oral production**, for example, we can **discuss how to prepare a PowerPoint presentation** and how to behave during a presentation (...) the students’ **performance is assessed** based on **CELPE-BRAS’ criteria**. Every time they’re **assessed they are told beforehand about the assessment criteria** so they can be prepared. The same thing happens when we reach the point of having **only CELPE-BRAS-like tasks** (...) I always start by **presenting assessment criteria for that specific task**.

Tereza (teacher at Uni07)

Even though some of the tasks might not have been based on the examination, the students' productions were assessed through the assessment criteria on which CELPE-BRAS is based. Tereza claimed that she had developed different CELPE-BRAS-like criteria to each task and shared them with the PEC-G students. Tereza seemed to believe that knowing those criteria helped the students to understand what was expected from their performance. Nevertheless, it can be suggested that the PEC-G students might have been encouraged to focus on developing language skills which are perceived to be desired only by the examination.

As previously argued, the washback effect on language teaching and learning that is created by the proficiency examinations can be positive, such as removing obsolete pedagogical approaches, or negative, such as limiting language learning to the examination's requirements (Lewkowicz, 2000; Schoffen, 2009; Shohamy et al., 1996). Tereza's accounts suggests that this washback effect was implicit in the development of the pedagogical materials but evident in the assessment criteria. The PEC-G students could have assumed that everything that had not been prioritised by those specific assessment criteria would be unnecessary and that their productions needed to complete a given CELPE-BRAS-like task.

Similar to Tereza, Patricia, a teacher at Uni04, claimed that the pedagogical materials which were used for PFL groups with non-PEC-G students had been adapted to be used with PEC-G students. The following extract presents Patricia's response for the question concerning how and why those materials had to be adapted:

The **PEC-G students** need to **focus on reading and writing** because of the **CELPE-BRAS examination** and it's really important for them to develop those skills (...) we start **proposing reading and writing assignment**, from the **least complex to the most complex** ones, so they can **get familiar with** this sort of **tasks** (...) I'd say that **pedagogical materials focusing on reading and writing** are the ones we use the most with them and **pedagogical materials produced for CELPE-BRAS preparatory courses** (...) because we have to comply with the **university's grading system, we apply tests** (...) and **lots of writing assignments** (...) we **assess their progress during the classes** too (...) **PEC-G students don't really care about the final grade** (...) for them **the most important thing is to receive a good feedback** on their weekly writing assignments.

Patricia (teacher at Uni04)

Patricia claimed that the pedagogical materials which had been selected and/or produced for the PEC-G group focused on reading and writing due to the influence of CELPE-BRAS. Such argument suggests that the PEC-G students at Uni04 had a PFL course which focused on the written element of the examination. This decision seems

to corroborate the assumption of Gustavo, the co-ordinator at Uni05, who argued that the written element is prioritised within the examination. In order to prepare the students for the format of the examination, Patricia explained that CELPE-BRAS-like tasks had been introduced progressively to the students through the materials – especially those used for the CELPE-BRAS preparatory course. Although the co-ordinator Fernanda claimed that CELPE-BRAS had been used as the main, rather than only, guidelines for curriculum development, the examination appeared to have had a deeper influence on the pedagogical materials.

In term of assessment, Patricia reported that the PFL teachers had to observe the grading system within the university; however, the PEC-G students would receive feedback for their written productions. Patricia claimed that the students would consider the weekly assessment and feedback to be more helpful than the official grading system. The reason for that might be related to the students' perception that the grading system did not reflect the assessment criteria that inform CELPE-BRAS or the levels of proficiency granted through the examination. This perception of the students could have been promoted by the teachers, through both the pedagogical materials and the assessment criteria used within the PFL course, or motivated by the examination. Regardless, it represented what Scaramucci (2002, 2004, 2008) and Schlatter et al. (2009) argued to be one of CELPE-BRAS' contributions: changing PFL teachers' and students' notions of classroom practices and assessment.

Given that, at Uni05, the influence of the examination was reported to be limited to the preparatory courses, the pedagogical materials that were developed did not focus on CELPE-BRAS-like communicative tasks. Quenia, a teacher at Uni05, explained how the materials reflected the pedagogical goals set out for the PBL-based curriculum as follows:

Every project had a theme and therefore all the **materials** for a certain project had to be **related to the theme** (...) when we proposed a project about **daily routine**, for example, we had to **tailor-made some authentic materials** that presented **our** [PFL teachers] **routines**. After that, **they** [students] were supposed to **present theirs**. This was one of the projects to which we **didn't have to search for materials**; instead, we **develop our materials** based on our routines. Depending on the theme, we can **search for materials on the internet, rearrange materials** that we already have or **cut and paste**.

Quenia (teacher at Uni05)

The pedagogical materials had to reflect the themes around which the syllabus had been organised. Despite having referred to the materials as 'authentic', Quenia said

that they had been ‘tailor-made’ to suit specific pedagogical purposes and to be presented as models for the students. Quenia’s understanding of authenticity did not seem to be related to the notion which is promoted by TBLT. Quenia appeared to believe that authentic materials were those created by the PFL teachers at Uni05 as opposed to pedagogical materials that could have been developed by assembling and/or rearranging texts. The development of such ‘tailor-made’ materials might have been motivated by the diversity within the groups of students. As previously explained, at Uni05, PEC-G and non-PEC-G students attended classes within the same groups.

For the CELPE-BRAS preparatory course, both the teachers at Uni05, Quenia and Regina, reported that the materials presented either CELPE-BRAS-like tasks that had been developed or actual tasks from previous examinations. Regina explained how the development of pedagogical materials occurred as follows:

Once their [PEC-G students] **preparatory course** started, in August, the only thing that needed to be done was the **selection of themes for the classes (...)** **the tasks** which had been proposed by previous CELPE-BRAS examinations **were available** online for everyone so **we didn’t need to search or develop tasks**.

Regina (teacher at Uni05)

Regina reported that, from August, the PEC-G students attended a course which aimed to prepare them for the examination. Thus, it was a preparatory course for which previous CELPE-BRAS examinations were used as pedagogical materials. The PFL teachers’ criticality and reflexivity seemed to have been less required during the processes of developing and/or adapting the materials for the preparatory course than it had been for the other PFL courses. It can be argued that, at Uni05, the influence of CELPE-BRAS was limited to the preparatory course, since the PFL courses for PEC-G and non-PEC-G international students, according to the co-ordinator Gustavo and the teachers Regina and Quenia, had been based on PBL.

5.3.2.4. The pedagogical materials and the promotion of the theoretical perspectives that inform CELPE-BRAS

Most of the PFL teachers who participated in this study claimed that they had developed the pedagogical materials for the PEC-G students because of the specificities attributed to those students – especially their needs that involved CELPE-BRAS. For that reason, it seems reasonable to argue that the theoretical assumptions that inform the examination must have been promoted through such materials. Silvia,

a teacher at Uni03, responded the question about what informed the pedagogical materials that she had developed as follows:

By teaching PFL, **I can be the pedagogical material**. I'm able to **offer my students information regarding our culture**, for example, because it is **my culture**, I was born here, I was raised within **the Brazilian culture** (...) I can have **more authority** than a textbook **for being a native within the culture** and a **native speaker** (...) We get to **contrast the African culture with the Brazilian culture** but, at the same time, we get to **contrast the Brazilian culture with their different cultures, from Senegal, from Benin** (...) I **give them** some pieces of paper containing some **general topics** (...) **their nations, their nationalities, their languages** (...) **geographic** aspects, some **history, cultural** aspects which they consider the most **different** aspects in **comparison** to the **Brazilian culture**.

Silvia (teacher at Uni06)

Silvia's understanding of language and culture seemed to rely on the notion of nationality for the development of a homogeneous identity. Silvia attributed her authority over Portuguese and the "Brazilian culture" to the fact that she was a 'native speaker'. The same authority was granted to the PEC-G students – which allowed them to compare the "African culture" and the culture of their respective countries to the "Brazilian culture". Portuguese appeared to have been portrayed by Silvia as the language of a homogeneous speech community of native speakers; moreover, culture seemed to have been limited to specific representations – such as nation, nationality, language, geography and history.

Since Silvia's views concerning language and culture were aligned to the assumptions that had been established and promoted through the CELPE-BRAS examination, the pedagogical materials might have reflected the goals set out for the CELPE-BRAS-based curriculum that had been developed by the co-ordinator Helena. As discussed in Chapter 3, in the CELPE-BRAS' manual, culture is presented as a construction in which the examinees are invited to participate by expressing their perspectives of the world according to their experiences and those of others with whom they share a community (INEP, 2015). Nevertheless, Lima (2008) argues that the varieties of language and culture which have been portrayed in the texts within the CELPE-BRAS examinations as an accurate representation of Brazil correspond to certain urban and cosmopolitan areas of Brazil.

The three PFL teachers at Uni02 seemed to have similar perspectives regarding culture to those of Silvia. When asked about how the pedagogical materials promoted cultural discussions amongst the PEC-G students, Nair responded as follows:

I try to work with **themes which are more universal** (...) there was this article “**Pensioners and Tattoos**”, for example, and this is a topic about which **you can discuss everywhere in the world**, you can discuss **how tattoos are perceived here in Brazil** and they also **compare** those perspectives with **their countries’ perspectives** (...) we **tell them how things work in Brazil** and **ask them how things work in their countries** and **compare both cultures**.

Nair (teacher at Uni02)

Nair, unlike Silvia, did not equate culture to folklore or history; however, Nair seemed to have encouraged the PEC-G students to believe that nationality was the only defining factor of one’s sociocultural stance. The PEC-G students, for Nair, could represent the thoughts and beliefs of those with whom they shared a nationality. It is important to emphasise Nair’s words when she reported that the teachers would ‘tell’ the students ‘how things work in Brazil’. The PEC-G students had not been provided with opportunities to investigate and share their thoughts on ‘how things work in Brazil’. Rather, the teachers appeared to have developed pedagogical materials that portrayed certain opinions as the “Brazilians’ perspectives”, as a representation of the “Brazilian culture”. Since the texts in CELPE-BRAS are usually produced and/or reproduced within more urban and cosmopolitan areas in Brazil, Nair might have presented the perspectives of Brazilians who belong to the dominant classes as the standard (Lima, 2008).

Nair’s perception of culture as a set of beliefs, habits and behaviours that belongs intrinsically to all the individuals who share a certain territory reflected the notion of culture which is promoted through CELPE-BRAS. Maria, also a teacher at Uni02, appeared to agree with Nair’s perspectives, as the following extract suggests:

I think what shocked me the most was the **cultural differences**. It’s very different to have a group full of **Brazilians** who have the **same cultural background** as I have from a group with about 12 **people** coming **from different parts of the world** (...) they used to say, ‘**in Africa**, a man would never move in order to go where a woman is, women must go where men are’. And I’d say, ‘**that’s in Africa, you’re in Brazil**’ (...) I used to say things like ‘**that’s how things work here**’ so it might have sounded like **I was imposing my culture to the students**. Now, I say things like, ‘I know you have a **different culture**, I respect **your culture** but **you are now living in a different culture**. Trying to **understand how things work** and how people deal with one another **in Brazil** will only **benefit you**’.

Maria (teacher at Uni02)

As her fellow teacher Nair, Maria seemed to believe that ‘cultural differences’ can only occur when a group is not comprised of students from the same country who share ‘the same cultural background’. For Maria, the PEC-G students, who were from

different African countries, shared the same culture, since the 'cultural differences' appeared to have been used to establish a comparison between Brazil and Africa. Despite having claimed that the students' sociocultural backgrounds had been respected, Maria argued that it would be more beneficial for them to understand the culture in which they had been living, the "Brazilian culture". The struggles between Maria and the PEC-G students might have been based on the diverse cultural stances concerning specific issues.

Cultural diversity seemed to have been addressed in terms of establishing the differences between "the Brazilian culture" and the "African culture". The first appeared to have been strongly promoted by the teachers whereas the latter might have been depicted as a set of perspectives on which the students should not rely while living in Brazil. The students' attempts to act according to what Maria referred to as "African culture" might have been a response to the teachers' efforts of portraying certain behaviours, attitudes and perspectives as models to be followed. It can be argued that relations of power were not avoided or challenged within that context; conversely, they might have been naturalised. The students were not encouraged to exchange views to expand their cultural repertoire or that of others. Rather, they were advised to change their sociocultural perspectives and, especially, behaviours to adapt to the "Brazilian culture".

Both, Maria and Nair, appeared to have promoted the notions of culture that inform the CELPE-BRAS examination – which conceptualise culture as a common background that belong to the members of a specific speech community who live in a certain local and/or national territory. Culture becomes an element of the target language, that focuses on social adequacy, which the examinees might access to perform the examination's tasks (Rodrigues, 2006). This connection between language and culture does not build a mutually and equally beneficial relationship. It implies that adequacy might be reached by emulating the linguistic skills and the cultural views which are perceived to be the representation of an idealised homogeneous society. Such view finds support in Fantini (2012) who argues that the use of a standardised variety of language might be seen as 'ticket to "membership" into a cultural enclave' (p. 264).

Regina, a teacher at Uni05, shared similar views from those expressed by Silvia (Uni06) and Maria and Nair (Uni02) when she responded the question about how culture had been addressed through the pedagogical materials.

PEC-G students from African countries live in a very **narrow-minded society** (...) I **present** and **expect** a **critical view** regarding the subjects that we discuss (...) I believe the **nationality influences their behaviour** (...) **African** students are very **religious**, they are very **Christian** (...) they come from such **sexist society** (...) we discuss the legalisation of **abortion, same-sex marriage** and **marijuana**. It's **horrifying for them** (...) Sometimes I think, they've been here for like six months, isn't it time for them to get it? Either you **surrender or go home**, they have a choice.

Regina (teacher at Uni05)

Regina argued that the PEC-G students' views concerning certain issues – such as 'the legalisation of abortion, same-sex marriage and marijuana' – were related to their nationality rather than to their sociocultural backgrounds. For Regina, African countries represent a 'narrow-minded', 'sexist' and 'religious' society and all the PEC-G students from different African countries shared the same perspectives. Nevertheless, abortion and marijuana are, to a certain extent, illegal in Brazil. If the religious and conservative socio-political contexts within the Brazilian society had not shaped Regina's perspectives, it can be suggested that the students' religiously-inclined opinions might have been motivated by their religious background rather than their nationality. Regina claimed that she 'presented and expected' criticality during the discussions that had been promoted in class. However, Regina argued that the students should 'surrender or go home' which suggests that the PEC-G students should have expressed critically their opinions as long as they agreed with the ones of Regina.

Quenia, Regina's fellow teacher at Uni05, offered another view on the PEC-G students' cultures when questioned about the influence of the students' participation and engagement with the processes of materials development and class planning.

Students' participation depends on their cultural and educational backgrounds. Depending on the **kind of education they had, they'll feel free to offer their opinion or they'll accept everything the teacher says**. It also **depends on where they come from**, and I **don't mean the country** where they come from **but the school, their personal experiences with educational settings** (...) we tend to **prepare materials and classes that encourage participation**. For example, the **theme 'My Country' is crucial** and it's one of the first ones because it's when we have our **first contact with the interculturality within a group** (...) **they present a lot of their culture** (...) we have projects related to **music, they present music from their countries** and **we present music from ours**. It's great to **integrate both cultures**. We also have a **project related to food** (...) so they can bring a **dish from their countries**.

Quenia (teacher at Uni05)

Quenia argued that the students' participation in class depended on their cultural and educational backgrounds; while some students felt comfortable in expressing their opinions, others would accept the teachers' perspectives as facts. Quenia seemed to have developed pedagogical materials and planned lessons that would enable students' participation. Quenia considered that the students' personal and educational experiences, not their nationalities, influenced on their level of confidence. Quenia's description of the project called 'My Country' implied that culture was, to a certain extent, reduced to elements – such as music and food – which might have been perceived to be the representation of one's country. The different cultures within the group of students appeared to have been divided into two categories, "the students' culture" and the "Brazilian culture", since Quenia claimed that projects such as 'My Country' helped to 'integrate both cultures'.

It can be argued that Quenia and Regina presented slightly different notions of culture. Quenia seemed to have considered that the students' diverse social and educational background played a role in their cultural perspectives whereas Regina appeared to believe that the students' cultures were intrinsically related to their nationality. Regina's notion of culture echoes an essentialist view that defines and constrains individuals' behaviours by the cultures in which they live rather than by the cultures that they produce and/or reproduce. Avoiding such perspectives might help to reject stereotypes and to challenge the socially constructed boundaries that are built to distinguish one culture from another that are usually perceived to be natural concepts (Holliday, 2011). This viewpoint illustrates House's (2008) argument that culture can be understood as an abstract ideological concept which simplifies social differences by limiting them to geographic borders.

Regina suggested that the PEC-G students needed to 'surrender' to the "Brazilian culture", since they had been living in Brazil which implies that Regina might have seen the students as passive carriers of 'their culture' who were uncappable to confront and/or transform their ways of understanding and acting upon the world. Quenia, however, seemed to have promoted the integration of, what she had perceived to be, two different cultures – the one of the students and the "Brazilian culture". Although Regina and Quenia did not agree on how cultural differences should have been addressed through the pedagogical materials, both reproduced the notions of culture that inform CELPE-BRAS. As discussed in Chapter 3 and illustrated

by the Appendix 9, when the examination mentions culture, it does in terms of comparing the “Brazilian culture” and the culture of the examinee’s country.

The theoretical assumptions that inform CELPE-BRAS and are promoted by the group of PFL teachers who have been mentioned thus far are challenged by Jackson (2013) who argues that intercultural boundaries are not related exclusively to language and nationality. For Jackson (2013), interculturality can also involve differences of class, gender, ethnicity, religion, race, age and physical/mental ability. This perspective regarding interculturality could be found in the account of Tereza, a teacher at Uni07. When questioned about how the materials reflected the pedagogical goals set out for the curriculum, Tereza responded as follows:

We prepare the **material for a week or two** (...) we would **divide** this material into **units** and each unit would propose a **theme**, present some **grammar topics**, and work on some **discourse genre** (...) we always **consider the students’ contributions** too. For example, they tell us ‘teacher, I saw people talking about such and such on Facebook’ and **we prepare some materials** to cover that topic (...) we address themes such as **abortion** to encourage their **critical engagement** to the discussions (...) on International Women’s Day, another teacher brought some materials portraying **women whose jobs could be considered “male jobs”** (...) we **discussed their views** and **some of them were shocked** and said things like ‘women don’t have to do that’, especially some of the **students who come from sexist cultural backgrounds**.

Tereza (teacher at Uni07)

The development of pedagogical materials seemed to have been influenced by the classroom dynamics, especially the students’ contributions and the format of CELPE-BRAS related to discourse genres. Tereza’s accounts corroborated the co-ordinator Igor’s reports about the flexibility of the syllabus and the autonomy with which he claimed to have provided the PFL teachers. The materials might have enabled the PEC-G students to develop critical literacy because the chosen themes and topics demanded criticality. Tereza appeared to have encouraged the PEC-G students to take a stance and express their personal views in a critical way; however, because of some of the students’ cultural background, certain topics could have been considered to be controversial. When required to explain the main differences between the students’ cultural backgrounds, Tereza shared the following views:

Most of students from this group **come from African countries** and some of them say they **don’t like being called Africans**. One of the students from Guatemala once said ‘in Africa, people drink cows’ pee because they don’t have water to drink’ and the other students got really mad and asked her where she had heard such nonsense and she replied she had seen it on Facebook and showed them the post (...) So, **as a teacher, I have to mediate these situations and encourage them to reflect if it**

was her fault or her lack of knowledge (...) From that girl's comment, **we started a discussion (...)** we **developed** a very **extensive work to empower** the students so they could talk about **their perspectives**, we even had a **theatre play** in which **they presented their views regarding the cultural diversity within their countries**.

Tereza (teacher at Uni07)

Tereza claimed that she had engaged the entire group in discussions about cultural stereotypes based on the students' preconceived constructions and/or perceptions. Tereza did not seem to have presented a solution or a final answer for the matter. Rather, she appeared to have promoted opportunities for debate during which the students were encouraged to reflect upon the reasons for such constructions and to re-construct their perceptions of culture and those of others. Culture, in that context, did not seem to be part of the PFL course as a means through which the students could compare "their cultures" to "the Brazilian culture". The students might have been more willing to share their opinions about their culture and those of others by reflecting critically upon the cultural diversity within and between different countries.

When questioned about how the cultural diversity within Brazil had been reflected in the pedagogical materials, Tereza responded as follows:

For example, there was a **truck travelling around Brazil** presenting an **exhibition** about the **Brazilian Cangaço**, so **people** who went to visit the truck could **wear the clothes** they used to wear back then and **learn about** some of the **social issues** related to **Cangaço's history**. The PFL teachers sent the **PEC-G students** there to **learn**, to **be involved (...)** and they were supposed to **collect data** from that truck to **write a newspaper article** because that happened while **we were working** with the **newspaper article** as a **discourse genre**.

Tereza (teacher at Uni07)

Tereza seemed to have adopted a different approach from those of the other PFL teachers who participated in this study. While most of the PFL teachers reported to have produced and/or selected pedagogical materials that would present certain aspects of the "Brazilian culture", Tereza claimed to have requested the PEC-G students to investigate and share their perspectives on specific sociocultural and historical aspects of Brazil and/or a given Brazilian region. The students might have decided about what was relevant to be reported in the newspaper article regarding Cangaço rather than having a teacher and/or the pedagogical material filtering information for them. The PEC-G students' views and interpretations concerning the matter appeared to have been valued.

Given that Cangaço can be considered an isolated sociocultural and political phenomenon that took place in a specific area of Brazil, it seemed to be a good illustration of how culture should not be attached to an idea of nationality. That discussion might have helped the students to realise that one's culture can be constructed and re-constructed dynamically by the relationship between one's sociocultural-historical background and that of others. This view can find support in Kramsch (2005) who argues that considering the students' 'representations, interpretations, expectations, memories, and identifications', might advance the construction of communities in which experiences are the bonding elements (p. 552). Those experiences might help to generate content or, as Tereza called, themes which can be discussed through the target language while cultures are (re)produced.

Culture seemed to have been both promoted and recognised as a dynamic discursive process that can be defined and redefined according to whom interprets it and from which sociocultural historical stance. Street (1993) suggests that culture is a verb and, as such, should not be defined or perceived to be an stable entity but as 'a process of meaning making and contest' (p. 25). By addressing different cultural backgrounds from the PEC-G students' experiences, regardless of their nationality, Tereza might have provided those students with opportunities to (re)negotiate their identities. By reflecting critically upon their cultural position and that of others, the PEC-G students might have understood and/or reshaped their ideologies and values and those of others.

This section has presented my findings regarding the process of curriculum enactment within the context of PEC-G. It has been argued that the PFL teachers' perceptions of their participation in the decision-making process influenced their commitment to enactment. Regardless of the teachers' participation, the main purpose of the curriculum, syllabus and pedagogical materials, within most of the contexts, has been found to be related to the CELPE-BRAS examination. These findings have answered the first sub-question by indicating that preparing the PEC-G students to pass the examination was the main goal of the PFL courses. They have also answered the second sub-question by evidencing that the pedagogical materials had been developed and/or selected based on their potential to (1) simulate CELPE-BRAS-like tasks; and/or (2) promote the theoretical assumptions that inform CELPE-BRAS.

The following section presents my findings concerning the support that is offered by the universities within which these PFL programmes are developed.

5.4. The institutional support and the role of PFL within the university

This section focuses on the influence that the institutional support, or the lack of it, may have in the advancement of PFL within the universities where this study was undertaken. The first part brings the co-ordinators' perspectives on how the institutional organisational support can both influence and be influenced by the role of PFL within the universities' internationalisation agenda. The second part discusses the teachers' views on the relationship between the institutional support and the opportunities for teacher development and/or research in PFL.

5.4.1. The co-ordinators' perspectives on organisational support

As discussed in Chapter 2, institutional internationalisation is the level at which the process of internationalisation takes place (Knight, 2004). This process aims to integrate an 'international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education' (Knight, 2004, p. 11). This sociocultural integration through education, while encouraging knowledge exchange, may promote the 'dominance of a western hegemony' (Maringe et al., 2013, p. 16). The role of language education in the process of internationalisation tends to strengthen this dominance by the use of English as the language of instruction in Higher Education (Byram, 2012; Kerklaan, Moreira and Boersma, 2008; Soler-Carbonell and Gallego-Balsà, 2016). However, Brazilian HEIs, such as those where this research took place, decided to maintain Portuguese as the official language of instruction by offering PFL courses to their international students.

When questioned about the role of PFL within the institutional internationalisation agenda, Igor, the co-ordinator at Uni07, responded as follows:

I think **Uni07** has been offering an **interesting support** for the area (...) **creating my post** was a big step forward because the university has a **lecturer in PFL** now rather than a lecturer in something offering **PFL-related subjects within the UG and PG programmes**, as it used to be (...) I see that **Uni07 has been developing language policies** in an interesting way (...) and a **language that's crucial for this process is certainly Portuguese** (...) **Further initiatives** are required (...) **additional lecturers** in PFL must be hired to **expand the area and build a PFL department** with **experts to supervise UG and PG students** which could **promote research in PFL**.

Igor suggested that Uni07 had invested in the advancement of PFL by supporting the PFL programme. The institutional language policies seemed to place PFL in an advantageous position in relation to other foreign languages – such as English, which could be considered by the decisionmakers to be the language for internationalisation purposes. Refusing to establish English as an official language for Higher Education might compromise the institutional internationalisation agenda, since it is difficult to predict whether national languages can maintain their roles in these contexts or whether they will be overtaken by English. For Igor, the institutional support for the PFL programme seemed to represent a recognition of the Brazilian Portuguese as an international language.

Igor argued that one of the greatest signs of institutional support had been the creation of his post of a lecturer in PFL. Igor claimed that previous attempts had been made in order to offer PFL-related courses within the UG and PG programmes; however, prior to his appointment, there had not been a person whose duties were related to PFL. Given that most of the PFL co-ordinators who participated in this research undertook additional duties related to other areas within the universities where they work (see Table 4.2), it seems reasonable to suggest that Uni07 had been investing in the development of the PFL area. Despite having acknowledged the institutional support, Igor listed several additional measures that need to be taken to advance the PFL area within Uni07. Igor believed that having a PFL department with experts in PFL could increase and improve research opportunities for UG and PG students.

The scenario that Igor seemed to perceive to be ideal was reported by Gustavo, the co-ordinator at Uni05, when required to describe the role of PFL within Uni05.

We have PFL as a major, we usually have many **PG students developing dissertations and theses in PFL as an extension of their UG studies** (...) the **tutors** in the programme are **UG students** and they attend my classes related to **internship** (...) they must **develop a tutoring project** within the PFL programme but, before start tutoring, their projects need my approval. The **PG students** attend my classes too and/or are my **supervisees**, **they** are the ones who **teach the courses for the international students** (...) we all meet once a week because I feel that I need to be on top of things.

Gustavo (co-ordinator at Uni05)

Gustavo reported that UG and PG students at Uni05 could develop their studies in PFL and become tutors and/or teachers within the PFL programme. Weekly meetings with the PFL tutors and teachers seemed to have helped Gustavo to 'be on top of things'. Gustavo seemed to believe to be his responsibility to participate in every aspect concerning the PFL area within Uni05 – especially the PFL courses for the international students. Given that Gustavo was a lecturer in PFL and the PFL programme co-ordinator, the level of commitment to the area that the quotation suggests is understandable. Uni05 appeared to have been investing in PFL throughout the extension, UG and PG programmes. Moreover, the UG and PG students seemed to have been engaging with teaching and research projects related to the area.

Although the PFL programme had been part of Uni04 for over twenty-five years in 2015, Fernanda, the co-ordinator at Uni04, reported some structural issues that, as the following extract suggests, could have been avoided.

We currently have between **25 to 30 teachers working for the programme** (...) We had more than **300 international students** divided into **many courses** so more than **700 matriculations**. But it wouldn't be a **problem** if we had an **infrastructure**, if we had **classrooms**. We were always able to **find teachers, prepare teachers, organise** everything (...) The idea is to have **PFL offered as a major**, as an **UG course**, to have a **PFL department** rather than an extension programme (...) It might mean to get this **institutional internationalisation officially going**.

Fernanda (co-ordinator at Uni04)

Fernanda described how the PFL programme had been organised within Uni04 and its dimension in terms of number of international students, PFL teachers and PFL-related courses. The PFL programme still lacked the institutional support that Fernanda considered to be fundamental to improve the infrastructural conditions necessary to accommodate all the courses. Fernanda seemed to believe that such issues could have been avoided if PFL were offered as a major within the UG programme; moreover, Fernanda argued that the presence of a PFL department would be advantageous for the institutional internationalisation agenda. Despite having reported structural issues that might not have been expected for such well-established PFL programme, Fernanda acknowledged the institutional support towards the PFL field. When questioned about the extent to which Uni04 had been

supported the PFL field within the UG and PG programmes, Fernanda responded the following:

UG students must participate in the seminar series for at least one semester before thinking about teaching and they **continue participating while teaching** (...) **Master's and doctoral students** (...) are **only encouraged to participate** in the seminar series because **they're usually developing PFL-related research** (...) there's a **lecturer in PFL** now, which **helps a lot** because **optional PFL-related subjects** have been offered within the **UG programme** and we have one more expert to **supervise PG students** (...) who wants to get involved are usually **interested in teaching PFL** and/or have been **appointed** by the **lecturer teaching** them in one of those **PFL-related subjects** (...) **they're all paid** either through a **contract** or a scientific initiation **scholarship**.

Fernanda (co-ordinator at Uni04)

Fernanda claimed that the PFL programme had been offering seminars for in-service teachers as opportunities for teacher development. Those seminars aimed to provide the UG students with the specific preparation for the PFL context, since Uni04 did not offer PFL as a major. The quotation suggests that the PFL programme received financial and, especially, academic support. Since all the PFL teachers had been under some sort of contract or scholarship, it can be argued that Uni04 offered financial support for the PFL programme. Furthermore, a lecturer in PFL had been appointed and academic research had been developed by PG students – which implies that the PFL field had been recognised within Uni04.

Unlike Fernanda, Denise, the co-ordinator at Uni02, could not rely on financial support, as explained in the following extract:

My **main goal** is to have **PFL as a major** so I can have **my requests supported** and, also, I'd let them know that **PFL would be a great addition to the internationalisation agenda proposed by the university** (...) They want to **internationalise the university** but there's **no space for foreign languages** (...) We've been requesting a **post to be created for PFL**, so **someone in the area can be selected and hired** and this person would be able to **take over everything related to PFL** (...) because **PFL isn't taken seriously** by the university, most of our **PFL teachers** are **volunteers** due to the **lack of contracts and scholarships** (...) most of them are **UG students** with **little or no experience** and **PG students** whose **areas of interest** are related to **other foreign languages**.

Denise (co-ordinator at Uni02)

Denise's job at Uni02 was related to French as a Foreign Language (see Table 4.1); thus, it is understandable that she would like to have someone appointed to take over the PFL programme. Denise reported that no language seemed to have a role within Uni02's internationalisation agenda. This disregard for languages can be challenged by Liddicoat (2013) and Shohamy (2006) who argue that decisions concerning

language education involve linguistic issues as well as the political, sociocultural and economic realities in which languages are used. According to Denise, most of the teachers who worked for the programme had been developing practice and/or research in other fields. Denise also claimed that most of those teachers, who worked as volunteers, were UG students and therefore their teaching experience was limited or non-existent. Denise appeared to believe that the lack of institutional support had been delaying the development of the PFL programme and the PFL field within Uni02. Denise might have selected more qualified teachers if Uni02 offered more contracts and/or scholarships.

Elisa, the co-ordinator at Uni03, used to have to rely on volunteers to teach at the PFL programme; however, as explained in the following extract, that context changed:

Now the PFL teachers have **scholarships** and **contracts** but they **used to be volunteers**. I must say though that **paying the teachers doesn't guarantee the quality** for the PFL programme. **PFL is not offered as a major** here and **there hadn't been a PFL-related course** in a long time (...) the PFL **teachers are UG students studying** PMT or English, Spanish or any **other foreign language** (...) I **select** them **according to their grades** because I **can't rely on their experience**.

Elisa (co-ordinator at Uni03)

Elisa acknowledged that offering scholarships and contracts to the PFL teachers had been a sign of Uni03's support towards the PFL programme; however, it did not seem to have improved the teachers' qualifications. Elisa argued that the lack of PFL-related courses and subjects within the UG and PG programmes had been limiting the advancement of PFL at Uni03. Elisa, whose area of expertise is German, claimed that the PFL teachers had been studying other foreign languages or PMT, since Uni03 did not offer PFL as a major. PFL teachers had not been selected based on their knowledge of or experience in the PFL field; instead, the selection criteria focused on their performance as UG students.

Most of the co-ordinators who participated in this study believed that offering a major in PFL would guarantee the development of the area within the university. Helena, the co-ordinator and one of PFL the teachers at Uni06, challenged this view, as the following extract suggests:

The **UG programme** in Languages offers a major in **Brazilian Portuguese as a Second Language** (...) the PFL programme belongs to a different department (...) Last year, **Uni06 hired me specifically for this post to manage the PFL courses for the PEC-G students**. It was really necessary to have **someone from a**

department within the university managing PEC-G courses **to make it official** to offer an **institutional seal** to PEC-G courses.

Helena (co-ordinator at Uni06)

Helena explained that the Brazilian Portuguese as a Second Language (BPSL) department managed the major in PFL within the UG programme whereas the PFL programme, which offered the PFL courses for the international students, belonged to another department. Regardless, Helena seemed to consider the creation of her post, teaching fellow in PFL, to be a sign of institutional support. To a certain extent, Helena's post might represent that the PFL courses for the PEC-G students had officially been made part of the university. Nevertheless, having prioritised the BPSL department over the PFL programme implied that the PFL field might not have a meaningful role within the Uni06's internationalisation agenda.

5.4.2. The teachers' perspectives on developmental support

5.4.2.1. Opportunities for specific teacher development

Two of the seven universities where this study took place – Uni05 and Uni07 – offered PFL as a major within their UG programmes. The lack of courses aiming to prepare PFL teachers might affect the PFL programme, since most of the PFL teachers within the programmes tend to be UG students. When required to describe how the UG course had prepared her to be a PFL teacher, Olga, a teacher at Uni03, responded the following:

The **UG programme** in Languages **does not cover PFL** (...) the **subject related to internship helped me** to understand how to develop my **teaching skills**; however, it **didn't prepare me to teach PFL** (...) I'd ask some suggestions to **lecturers and professors in PMT** but they said **they weren't familiar with the PFL** contexts. I started **searching for articles and materials** on my own to **educate myself** (...) Many **universities invest heavily in PFL** and even **offer PFL as a major** (...) I had **been working with PFL for three years** when it was time for the mandatory internship (...) me and other PFL teachers had our **evidence of teaching** within the PFL programme **denied** by Uni03 (...) we were told that **we wouldn't be PFL teachers** after graduating so **our experience with PFL could not be accepted as valid practice**.

Olga (teacher at Uni03)

Olga reported that there were no PFL-related subjects in the UG programme; moreover, the lecturers and professors in PMT could not help the PFL teachers due

to their lack of knowledge about the field. Given that the co-ordinator Elisa's expertise was related to German, it can be argued that even Elisa might not have been able to help the PFL teachers the way Olga felt to be necessary. Although Olga claimed that some internship-related subjects had helped to develop her 'teaching skills', she did not seem to believe that such 'skills' could have been transferred to the PFL context. Olga suggested that Uni03 had not been supportive towards the PFL programme and that the students had been discouraged to pursue a career in PFL. It can be argued that Uni03 did not provide the PFL teachers with opportunities for teacher development. The PFL programme at Uni03 was limited to offering PFL classes for international students and therefore PFL did not seem to play any significant role within the institutional internationalisation agenda.

The other PFL teachers who participated in this study reported a completely different experience from that of Olga. Tereza, a teacher at Uni07, for example, explained how certain classes had influenced her practice as follows:

Mandatory internships in PMT and English were the disciplines that **helped me** the most. Especially because **they dealt with social aspects** of being a Primary and Secondary **language teacher** (...) the **disciplines related to PFL** were **taught by Igor** (...) attending his classes made me realise how much I didn't know about the field, **possibly for not being able to graduate in PFL** at the university (...) Igor's classes helped me.

Tereza (teacher at Uni07)

Despite not being meant to prepare PFL teachers and focusing on Primary and Secondary contexts, the internship-related subjects seemed to have been perceived to be helpful by Tereza. Tereza considered the subjects which had been taught by the co-ordinator Igor as influential to her practice. Since Igor combined the roles as a PFL programme co-ordinator and a lecturer in PFL, it can be assumed that he prioritised PFL contexts by promoting discussions about relevant topics specifically related to PFL. Tereza seemed to believe that had she graduated in PFL, she would have known more about the field. Disproving this assumption, Silvia, a teacher at Uni06, shared her experiences of working at a university where PFL is offered as a major:

There wasn't any PFL-related subjects offered within the **PG programme**. There was a **course** that I took, though, **about PFL assessment** and **CELPE-BRAS**. It was **when Uni06 became a CELPE-BRAS application centre** (...) but I consider the **discussions we have as PFL teachers to be opportunities for development**.

Silvia (teacher at Uni06)

Uni06 did not seem to have promoted the development of the PFL field within its PG programme – which could be unanticipated, since Uni06 offered a major in PFL. Silvia claimed that an especial course about CELPE-BRAS had been offered to clarify the assessment criteria that inform the examination. CELPE-BRAS and the qualification of examiners might have been prioritised over the PFL programme and the preparation of PFL teachers. The lack of institutional developmental support might have motivated the co-ordinator Helena to organise meetings during which, according to Silvia, opportunities for teacher development had been provided. Given that Helena's main interest was related to CELPE-BRAS, it can be assumed that CELPE-BRAS-related issues had been discussed and/or addressed during those meetings.

Quenia, a teacher at Uni05 – where PFL was also offered as a major, responded the question about how her UG studies had influenced her practice as a PFL teacher as follows:

The subject that helped me the most was **'Introduction to PFL'** (...) because I feel it **worked as an invitation**, it encouraged me **to get involved**. The **subjects related to assessment in PFL** were really important because **we worked** extensively **with CELPE-BRAS**. We **compared assessment processes in PMT to those in PFL** so it was really interesting.

Quenia (teacher at Uni05)

Quenia claimed that PFL-related subjects had encouraged her to pursue a career in PFL and had given her some opportunities to discuss relevant topics – such as assessment within CELPE-BRAS. The classes that Quenia mentioned might have focused on CELPE-BRAS and assessment processes because of the importance of CELPE-BRAS for the PFL field. Given that the PFL programme at Uni05 was the only one that had not used CELPE-BRAS to develop the PFL courses, it can be argued that those classes might have been more interesting than helpful for Quenia.

Patricia, a teacher at Uni04, shared similar experiences to those of Quenia – despite not being able to graduate in PFL. The following extract presents Patricia's response for the question regarding opportunities for teacher development in PFL:

I participated in the weekly **meetings and the seminar series** which were **required** as part of the **teacher development** programme (...) I **stared observing classes** and more experienced teachers helped me (...) the **PFL programme was some sort of community** and most of the things we would **learn** and figure out **during practice** and by **sharing experiences** (...) There were **no subjects related to PFL within the**

UG programme but **Fernanda**, who was responsible for the subjects related to **mandatory internship in EFL**, would **discuss CELPE-BRAS**.

Patricia (teacher at Uni04)

Patricia claimed that the seminars series and the observations had helped to prepare her for her practice as a PFL teacher. Having been able to work in collaboration with more experienced PFL teachers seemed to have provided Patricia with the developmental support that she needed. The lack of PFL-related classes might have motivated Fernanda to offer opportunities for specific teacher development for the PFL teacher within the PFL extension programme. According to Patricia, Fernanda would discuss the CELPE-BRAS examination which might have been a way to promote the field and to recruit PFL teachers.

A similar situation was described by the three PFL teachers at Uni02. The following extract presents Nair's accounts regarding the relationship between the university's UG and PG programmes and the PFL programme:

My **major** is in **French** (...) when I'm **teaching PFL**, I **think about** these methodologies, these perspectives, these approaches, which have been developed during **my major in French** (...) During my UG and PG studies, **no subject related to PFL was offered**. I was lucky though to have a **supervisor who was interested in this field**, so, everything I know in terms of **theoretical background regarding PFL came from discussions with him** (...) I believe that because **PFL is not a major**, opportunities for teacher development happened organically within the PFL programme (...) **teachers who have more experience help others**.

Nair (teacher at Uni02)

Nair claimed that her practice within the PFL programme had been informed by her academic background in French. Since PFL had not been covered during her UG and PG studies, Nair seemed to have relied on methodologies related to French education and on the theoretical discussions that she had had with her supervisor – who had been 'interested' in the PFL field. Nair appeared to believe that if PFL became a major within Uni02, the opportunities for specific teacher development would be offered in the UG programme. Laura, one of Nair's fellow teachers, shared her views on the preparation for PFL teachers within Uni02 as follows:

I graduated in **French** and **PMT** so I believe that some **subjects that deal with textual genres** and **internship helped me** dealing with **classroom contexts**, **lesson plans**, processes of **teaching** and **learning** (...) I've been involved with PFL at Uni03 for almost **ten years** and we still have **no specific teacher development courses**. **Those who have been teaching for a while meet new teachers** and help them (...)

we ask them to **observe some classes and take notes** they sit with us and ask questions, prepare a lesson but there's **nothing organised by the university**.

Laura (teacher at Uni02)

Laura's accounts were similar to those of Nair; both claimed that Uni02 did not offer PFL-related subjects or courses that would focus on specific teacher development. Laura seemed to believe that some subjects that involved 'textual genres' and the internship had helped her with some aspects of her practice – such as lesson planning. Given that those subjects had aimed to prepare French and/or PMT teachers, Laura might have adapted such 'processes of teaching and learning' to the PFL contexts. Laura, as Nair, implied that Uni02 should have been more involved in providing specific teacher development for PFL teachers, since the PFL programme had been part of Uni02 for over ten years. Laura claimed that more experienced PFL teachers had been those on whom new PFL teachers could rely when they started their practice. Maria, another teacher at Uni02, corroborated Nair's and Laura's accounts with the following response to the question about what had influenced her practice:

I graduated in French so, when I **finished my Master's degree**, I thought 'I can't keep teaching PFL by winging it', I thought '**I have to graduate in PMT**' (...) to be honest, I can say that **I learnt a lot while teaching rather than before starting my practice**. When I started teaching, another teacher helped me. **I'd observe her classes and replicate them with my group**.

Maria (teacher at Uni02)

Maria claimed that a major and a Master's degree in French and in PMT had not prepared her for the PFL context. The help of Maria's fellow PFL teachers, alongside her practice, might have had a significant influence on her development as a PFL teacher than her academic background. This perception must be related to the fact that Maria had not been given the option to graduate in PFL or the opportunity of a formal specific teacher development. According to Nair's, Laura's and Maria's accounts, it can be argued that PFL had not been a field of interest for Uni02 and therefore developmental support for PFL teachers had been scarce.

5.4.2.2. Opportunities for research in PFL

When asked about research in PFL, most of the PFL teachers claimed that they had had opportunities to develop research in PFL within the PG programmes. Quenia, a

teacher at Uni05, claimed that the PFL teachers had been encouraged to develop academic research in PFL, as the following quotation suggests:

I have to develop research in PFL, I have a **great corpus**, it's the perfect context to develop research. **Gustavo always fights with us because he knows how rich this context is** and he argues that despite having this great context, **we don't research enough**, we **don't submit papers**, we **don't attend congresses and conferences** enough. The truth is **we get comfortable with our achievements as teachers**.

Quenia (teacher at Uni05)

Quenia seemed to feel that she could have been developing more research in PFL, since the contexts in which she had been teaching were 'rich'. Quenia claimed that the co-ordinator Gustavo had been encouraging the PFL teachers to get involved in academic events concerning the PFL field. However, the PFL teachers appeared to have been focused on their practice rather than on research. The PFL teachers at Uni05 might have gotten comfortable with the institutional support concerning specific teacher development, since Uni05 offered PFL as a major. Regardless, opportunities to develop research in PFL had been provided by Uni05 through its PG programme which implies a significant sign of institutional support towards the PFL field.

A similar context to that at Uni05 was reported by Tereza, a teacher at Uni07, even though Uni07 did not offer PFL as a major. The following extract presents Tereza's response for the question about opportunities to develop research in PFL:

We don't have a major in PFL or a **research group** here at Uni07. However, **working with the PEC-G students makes me a different and better teacher and researcher** (...) Also, the experience of **working with a group of teachers** who are UG and PG students, of **observing each other's classes** and of **sharing perspectives** is very helpful because being a teacher or a researcher can be very lonely (...) Igor's and the other lecturers' support is great and they're helpful supervisors.

Tereza (teacher at Uni07)

Although it seemed that the PFL field had not yet been broadly represented within Uni07, Tereza claimed that working with PFL, especially with PEC-G students, had enabled her to develop both practice and research. Tereza appeared to believe that the collaborative work in which the PFL teachers had been participating, alongside the supervisors' work, provided support to those involved with teaching and research. The teaching/research community that Tereza described might have been built to compensate for the lack of a formal PFL department or academic research group.

The PFL teachers had created a study group in which they could share their experiences and improve their skills regarding teaching and research.

At Uni02, the developmental support seemed to have prioritised research over teaching, as the following extracts containing Nair's and Maria's perspectives suggest:

In terms of research, there are a lot of opportunities related to PFL within the PG programmes. My supervisor has three supervisees whose theses are about PFL. I can say that those PFL courses we teach are our corpus (...) the PFL teachers are committed to the programme because we're not only teachers, we're also researchers (...) we lack teacher development courses but we research a lot, we publish a lot (...) I hope the university starts offering a major in PFL because if that doesn't happen, I might end up going through the selection process to work for the PMT department.

Nair (teacher at Uni02)

The university prepared me to be a researcher more than it prepared me to be a teacher (...) I intend to start a PhD in PFL and figure out what I can do to help developing this area.

Maria (teacher at Uni02)

Given that Uni02 did not offer PFL as a major and had no PFL-related subjects within its UG programme, it seemed surprising that its PG programme had allowed research in PFL. According to Nair, at least three PhD students had been focusing their research in PFL. Maria claimed that she felt more prepared to develop research than teaching. Nair attributed the PFL teachers' interest in teaching within the PFL programme to the potential that those contexts had to become the researchers' corpus. That might explain the co-ordinator Denise's perception that the PFL teachers had been resisting her attempts to develop new materials and to change the curriculum. If the PFL teachers had been seeing the PEC-G groups as a context from where data for their research could be collected, their wishes to maintain the same materials and curriculum might have been justifiable.

Both Nair and Maria shared their plans to continue developing research after concluding their doctoral studies. Nair claimed that she might have to apply for a position in the PMT department whereas Maria seemed to believe that her PhD would provide her with opportunities to work in the PFL field. It can be argued that Nair's and Maria's uncertainty regarding their academic future was related to the disregard with which Uni02 had been treating the PFL field. Most of the PFL teachers who participated in this study claimed that, regardless of the university's involvement,

initiatives which encourage and/or promote teacher development and/or research had been taken by the co-ordinator(s) and/or teachers within the PFL programmes.

The following extract presents several measures that had been put in place by the co-ordinator Fernanda, according to Patricia, a teacher at Uni04:

The kind of **support and encouragement** to develop our **practice** and our **research** that the **PFL programme** gives us can be compared to a **UG course**, it's almost some sort of **minor** (...) thanks to Fernanda, **the programme offers us more opportunities for teacher development and to research in PFL than the university itself** (...) **There's a lecturer now** whose main responsibility is to offer **subjects related to PFL** but they're **optional** (...) In my opinion, having this option is a good way of **changing people's perception regarding the area**.

Patricia (teacher at Uni04)

The PFL programme seemed to have been offering opportunities for teacher development and research during the seminar series that Fernanda had established as compulsory. Patricia compared those seminars to a minor in PFL – which suggests that meaningful PFL-related issues might have been addressed. Patricia seemed to believe that the recent appointment of a lecturer in PFL, who had been teaching optional PFL-related classes, might help to advance the field and to change people's perceptions regarding PFL. It can be suggested that the inclusion of PFL in the UG programme might have been a step forward towards the development of a major in PFL at Uni04.

This section has discussed the extent to which the institutional support can influence the advancement of PFL within the universities. The first part has presented my findings concerning the relationship between the institutional organisational support and the role of PFL in the universities' institutional internationalisation agendas. The second part has focused on how the institutional support can provide further opportunities for teacher development and/or for research in PFL within the universities' UG and/or PG programmes. These findings have answered the third sub-question by evidencing that institutional support, or the lack of it, influenced the processes of structuring and/or re-structuring the PFL programmes. This influence involves the role and the status of Portuguese in the institutional internationalisation agenda – which concerns the importance that is given by the institution to the posts of PFL co-ordinator and PFL teacher, to teacher development and to research in the area.

5.5. Summary

This Chapter has presented my findings which emerged following a fine-grained analysis of the interviews with the nine PFL programme co-ordinators and the ten PFL teachers who represented the seven universities where this study took place. The interviews were designed to allow me to find answers to the following overarching research question:

- What shapes and informs the curriculum development of PFL courses which are offered by Brazilian federal universities for PEC-G students?

Alongside this overarching research question, the interviews also sought to find answers to the following sub-questions:

- What are the key goals to be achieved by such PFL courses within this context?
- To what extent do syllabi, pedagogical materials and teaching reflect the curriculum within this context?
- To what extent does institutional support influence the processes of structuring and/or re-structuring these PFL courses?

Section 5.2. has presented my findings regarding the development of curriculum for PFL courses for PEC-G students. These findings were related to the overarching research question and are therefore the main findings of this research. Section 5.3. has outlined my findings regarding the processes of curriculum enactment and the extent to which the syllabus and the materials reflected the pedagogical goals set out for the curriculum. Section 5.4. has presented my findings about how the institutional support can influence the structure of the PFL programmes and the advancement of teacher development and research in PFL.

The following chapter presents a discussion that ties together the findings, my interpretations of the findings and the reviewed literature. It summarises the theoretical perspectives on which CELPE-BRAS is based and those on which critically- and interculturally-informed pedagogies for foreign language education have been underpinned. This summary aims to propose theoretical changes for the PFL courses for PEC-G students.

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings by reflecting upon the similarities and differences within and across the seven contexts which were investigated. It also explores the implications of the recommendation that there is a need for a theoretical shift in education in PFL, from communicative-based to critically- and interculturally-informed pedagogy. This chapter is divided into four parts. Section 6.2 provides answers to the overarching and subsidiary research questions and examines the role of Portuguese within the universities' internationalisation agendas; the institutional support that the PFL programmes had been offered; and the influence of CELPE-BRAS on the processes of curriculum development and enactment. Section 6.3 argues that there is a need to revisit the notions of language, language use, competence and culture on which the current PFL courses for PEC-G students are based. In addition, the implications of the proposal that the process of policy making and enactment, curriculum development and teaching and learning within the context of PFL for PEC-G students should be considered through the lens of Critical Pedagogy (CP) and Intercultural Communication Pedagogy (ICP) are discussed. In Section 6.4, the theoretical and methodological contributions to knowledge which this study has provided are presented; the limitations of this small-scale qualitative study are examined; and further research in this area is considered.

6.2. What shapes and informs curriculum development for PFL courses for PEC-G students

This section summarises the findings in order to answer the research questions that have guided this study. The first part focuses on answering the overarching question: what shapes and informs curriculum development for PFL courses which are offered by Brazilian federal universities for PEC-G students? Drawing on the literature on PFL, and on the findings from this investigation, it became evident that the CELPE-BRAS examination is the main source of curriculum guidelines for PFL courses within the PEC-G context. In the second part provide answers to the following subsidiary research questions:

- (1) What are the key goals to be achieved by such PFL courses within this context? and
- (2) To what extent do syllabi, pedagogical materials, and teaching reflect the curriculum within this context?

The third part relates to the institutional support for the development of the PFL courses for PEC-G students to answer the third subsidiary research question:

- (3) To what extent does institutional support influence the processes of structuring and/or re-structuring these PFL courses?

As previously clarified in Chapter 3, CELPE-BRAS was created to certify the proficiency levels in Brazilian Portuguese of international individuals. In cases such as the one of the PEC-G students, the certification is a requirement to study in Brazil (Brasil, 2015c). Oliveira (2004) argues that a proficiency certificate, such as CELPE-BRAS, may represent the governmental management of how a certain language circulates internationally. The findings of this study provide evidence that CELPE-BRAS informs and/or shapes the process of curriculum development for the PFL courses for PEC-G students. Hence, CELPE-BRAS represents a language policy, a language-in-education policy and a political apparatus through which a specific notion of language proficiency is both promoted and assessed.

Buttjes' (1990) argument that the influence of proficiency examinations might constrain language learning experiences was corroborated by the findings that have been presented in Chapter 5. The CELPE-BRAS-based PFL courses – which were offered by Uni02, Uni03 and Uni06 – focused exclusively on the notions of language use for communication purposes (further discussed in Section 6.2.1.1) and on the development of language skills, through communicative tasks, that would be prioritised by the examination's assessment criteria (see Chapter 3). Any other possibilities differing from the use of language which informs CELPE-BRAS were omitted from these curricula. Kramersch (2005) argues that omissions such as these might convey the idea that what is considered unnecessary to complete a certain task can be perceived as entirely irrelevant.

The PFL courses that were mainly, but not exclusively, based on CELPE-BRAS – which were offered at Uni01, Uni04 and Uni07 – prioritised the examination's format and criteria without disregarding other possibilities, such as the production of oral and written texts within discourse genres that would not be covered by CELPE-BRAS.

This allowed the PEC-G students' learning experiences to move beyond the limitations that a CELPE-BRAS-based curriculum can impose. However, the relevance of the examination for the PEC-G students was found to be a significant influence on the development of those courses and therefore the theoretical perspectives that inform CELPE-BRAS were prioritised.

At Uni05, the PEC-G students attended two PFL courses: a project-based PFL course alongside other international students and a CELPE-BRAS preparatory course. This decision by the co-ordinator Gustavo was interpreted as a pedagogical stance which intended to decouple PFL education from the preparation for the CELPE-BRAS examination. The PEC-G students were provided with a PFL course that enabled them to develop the skills that they would need to interact in Portuguese within multiple situations – including the undergraduate contexts in which they were about to participate. The findings revealed that the communicative- and task-based notions of language use and proficiency which informed CELPE-BRAS were perceived by the participants to be necessary only to pass the examination. The teachers and the PEC-G students were encouraged to move beyond the language skills that are prioritised in the examination's assessment criteria.

The common thread that linked these seven PFL courses was found to be the washback effect involving CELPE-BRAS, since the examination had influenced, to a certain extent, the process of curriculum development within the seven PFL programmes. CELPE-BRAS' influence on the PFL curricula was considered to be both positive and negative: positive because it focused on preparation for the examination, which was fundamental for the PEC-G students; and negative because it restricted and/or disregarded the students' language needs that were unrelated to CELPE-BRAS. This view is corroborated by Shohamy et al. (1996) who argue that tests and examinations, like CELPE-BRAS, can have an impact on teaching and learning experiences.

A proficiency examination might move educational elements, such as the curriculum, towards the elimination of pedagogical approaches that are unsuitable for the students' preparation for the examination and limit their language learning experiences (Lewkowicz, 2000; Schoffen, 2009; Shohamy et al., 1996). In the case of CELPE-BRAS, this guidance towards education in PFL is recommended widely for the following areas:

- a) specific teacher development (see Almeida, 2012; Azeredo, 2012a, 2012b, 2013; Rodrigues, 2006);
- b) teaching and learning (see Bastos, 2016; Escarpinete and Costa, 2014; Fernandes, 2009; Reis and Durão, 2015);
- c) development of pedagogical materials (see Ariet, Martins and Olavarriaga, 2016; Castro, 2006; Huback, 2012); and
- d) development of curriculum and curriculum guidelines (see Kraemer, 2012; Mittelstadt, 2013, 2015).

Those empirical studies presented the examination's influence on education in PFL as positive. This type of research has contributed to the role that CELPE-BRAS had been playing in the processes of curriculum development and enactment within the seven PFL programmes that were investigated for this study. However, the findings of this investigation evidenced that CELPE-BRAS' washback effect is negative in the contexts where the teaching and learning experiences have been limited to the communicative- and task-based theoretical perspectives that inform the examination. In so doing, these findings generate potential implications for policy and practice in order to move education in PFL away from the outdated foreign language pedagogies on which PFL teaching and learning has been based.

The following section discusses the extent to which CELPE-BRAS had influenced the processes of curriculum development and curriculum enactment.

6.2.1. Key pedagogical goals and how they are reflected by the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum

The findings revealed that the theoretical perspectives that inform CELPE-BRAS had been used as curriculum guidelines, to design syllabi and to select and/or to develop pedagogical materials for the seven PFL courses that this study investigated. The extent of the CELPE-BRAS' influence, however, was not found to be consistent amongst the PFL co-ordinators and teachers. In other words, the pedagogical goals that had been set out by the PFL co-ordinators for the curriculum were not necessarily considered fully by the PFL teachers.

Most of the PFL teachers, according to the co-ordinators, had not been included in the process of curriculum development and their involvement had been more related

to syllabus design and development and/or selection of specific materials for the PEC-G students; however, the teachers' opinions on the matter varied as follows:

- (a) all the teachers at Uni01, Uni04 and Uni07 felt that they had participated in the decision-making process;
- (b) All the teachers at Uni02, Uni03 and Uni06 claimed that they had not been included in the decision-making process; and
- (c) Regina, a teacher at Uni05, acknowledged the teachers' participation in and contribution to the development of curriculum for the PFL courses whereas Quenia, also a teacher at Uni05, claimed that the teachers had been excluded from that process.

The teachers' perceptions regarding their participation and/or contribution to the development of curriculum for the PFL courses were found to have influenced the process of curriculum enactment. Those teachers who had developed a sense of authorship towards the curriculum appeared to have been committed to the promotion of the goals on which the intended curriculum had been based. Nevertheless, findings revealed that those teachers who did not feel to have participated in the curriculum development process had relied on theoretical and pedagogical perspectives with which they had been more comfortable and/or familiar to inform the enacted curriculum. In other words, the gap between the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum seemed wider within the PFL courses at Uni02, Uni03 and Uni06 than those at Uni01, Uni04 and Uni07.

A distinct phenomenon was found at Uni05, since Quenia's and Regina's accounts were contradictory. Quenia claimed that the co-ordinator Gustavo had developed unilaterally the curriculum for the PFL courses whereas Regina argued that the teachers had participated in the decision-making processes – including curriculum development. It is important to emphasise that both accounts were valid and represented each participant's truth by having reflected Quenia's and Regina's experiences. Thus, despite being conflicting, those viewpoints influenced such participants' actions and, consequently, curriculum enactment. Quenia might have built upon her previous foreign language learning-teaching experiences (CELPE-BRAS- and grammar-based) to inform her practice because (1) she felt she had not developed the intended curriculum; and (2) she was not familiar with PBL. Regina's curriculum enactment process, in turn, reflected extensively the intended curriculum to which she felt to have contributed.

This finding supports the argument made by Bascia et al. (2014) who attributed the problems with curriculum enactment to teachers' exclusion from the development process. Fullan (2008) also argues that the participation of teachers in the decision-making process can strengthen curriculum enactment. The discrepancies between the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum revealed that the PFL teachers had not adopted or enacted uncritically the intended curriculum. Rather, the teachers were perceived to have reinterpreted and reformulated the intended curriculum into an enacted curriculum that would represent their language teaching/learning experiences and/or ongoing research. This evidence reflected Gandana and Parr's (2013) perspectives on the importance of teachers' criticality in the construction of classroom practices which are attached to their sociocultural, educational and academic backgrounds.

Although the teachers within the PFL programmes at Uni01, Uni04, Uni05 and Uni07 were found to have been included in the decision-making process, the intended curriculum and the enacted curriculum were found to present certain differences. These differences were mainly related to the extent of CELPE-BRAS' influence on the PFL courses. The findings showed that those PFL teachers did not expect to have designed a plan which would not be subject to change, having adapted the intended curriculum. The PEC-G students' participation, contribution and unanticipated needs had motivated the PFL teachers to review some of the pedagogical goals that had informed the intended curriculum.

In those contexts, the enacted curriculum had not been based only on the PFL teachers' interpretation of the intended curriculum since the students' voices had also been taken into consideration. The importance of hearing the students is advocated by Marsh (2004) who argues that a democratic classroom cannot be achieved without the students' participation in the process of curriculum enactment. Having included the PEC-G students in the enactment helped to diminish some of their resistance towards those PFL courses that had not been exclusively based on CELPE-BRAS. Nevertheless, it also increased the influence of the examination on the enacted curriculum – especially regarding the promotion of the theoretical assumptions informing CELPE-BRAS through the production of pedagogical materials.

The importance of CELPE-BRAS as an instrument for language policy development is not being questioned in this study; rather, its development has been acknowledged to have strengthened the PFL field. CELPE-BRAS represents the official recognition

of Portuguese as a language for internationalisation purposes. However, attributing the status of guidelines for PFL teaching and learning to CELPE-BRAS has been challenged throughout this thesis. The communicative-based theoretical assumptions which inform CELPE-BRAS, when used as guidelines for curriculum development, have resulted in the advancement of outdated perspectives regarding foreign language education. The following sections summarise how these outdated perspectives have shaped the pedagogical goals that inform both the intended and the enacted curriculum for the PFL courses within the PEC-G context.

6.2.1.1. The notions of language, language use and proficiency that inform the PFL courses for PEC-G students

As previously discussed in Section 3.3, the theoretical perspectives that inform CELPE-BRAS involve three key notions: language, language use and proficiency that is equated to competence. The examination promotes an understanding of language that echoes that of Hymes (1972) – whereby language is understood both as system and discourse. CELPE-BRAS is also based on Clark's (1996) perspective on language use which is defined as 'a *join action* that embodies both individual and social processes' (p. 3 italics in original). Proficiency becomes one's communicative competence or knowledge of, and ability to, use the language as a culturally-organised social action in a socially and grammatically adequate way for contextualised communication purposes (Scaramucci, 1995, 1997, 2012). This notion is in line with Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983) views on communicative competence as the combination of grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences.

The CELPE-BRAS' examinees have their proficiency in PFL assessed through communicative tasks which integrate oral and/or written comprehension and the production of authentic texts (Schoffen, 2009). Based on Bakhtin's (1968) definition of speech genres, the CELPE-BRAS examination requires the examinees to (a) produce utterances by playing a certain role within a given communicative situation; (b) address these utterances to specific interlocutors; (c) achieve a determined communicative purpose; and (d) make sense in a context that, in turn, also produces meaning (Schlatter et al., 2009). In other words, CELPE-BRAS assesses the examinees' proficiency in PFL through their competence to use language by

integrating the comprehension and production of authentic oral and written texts (INEP, 2015).

Considering CELPE-BRAS' communicative nature, CLT and TBLT represent a significant influence on the examination – in terms of both format and theoretical background. Bachman's (1990) framework of CLA shapes the notion of proficiency that inform the examination and, as the findings have revealed, the PFL courses for PEC-G students. This framework offers guidelines for the assessment of the examinees' capacity to use language as a culturally-organised social action within determined contexts which are presented through communicative tasks (Scaramucci, 1997, 2012). Although these perspectives were perceived to be suitable to both CELPE-BRAS and education in PFL by most of the PFL co-ordinators and teachers, these notions were found to enable the standardisation of the classroom interactions in PFL so that they would conform to the examination's format.

In terms of language use and proficiency, the findings evidenced that the idealised notion of 'the native speaker' had been portrayed as the model of communication authenticity. By prioritising certain language varieties over others, a sense of linguistic homogeneity amongst the individuals sharing a speech community was conveyed. The PEC-G students may have perceived this notion of authenticity and this sense of homogeneity to be models of language use to be followed when proficiency was desired. This perception is supported by Canale and Swain (1980) who argue that communicative authenticity involves the learners' ability to mimic native speakers and have their performances recognised as native-speaker like. As previously discussed in Chapter 3, the written texts around which the examination's tasks are devised have been mostly produced by and/or within the urban cosmopolitan areas in Brazil (Lima, 2008). These language varieties and language uses which have shaped the CELPE-BRAS examination had been clearly prioritised in the PFL courses for PEC-G students.

6.2.1.2. The notion of culture that inform the PFL courses for PEC-G students
The CELPE-BRAS manual defines culture as an expression of one's world view that is based on one's experiences and the perspectives that one shares with certain members of a specific community (INEP, 2015). The manual also presents the argument that the examination's communicative tasks encourage interactions within multiple situations and contexts in which the examinees may perceive themselves

and others represented through broaden cultural processes (ibid). Hence, the few CELPE-BRAS' tasks that addressed culture usually promote this essentialist view that connected culture to nationality.

Previous studies (see Lima, 2008; Rodrigues, 2006) have addressed cultural representations in the CELPE-BRAS examinations. Terms such as “the Brazilian culture” and “your country’s culture” provide clear evidence that the notion of culture that has been promoted by the examination is attached to nationality. “The Brazilian culture” that is represented in the examination reflects either a homogeneous society – by presenting texts the belong to and that circulate within specific urban areas of the country – or a geographic localised diversity – by reproducing cultural stereotypes. The findings demonstrated that the notion of culture which has informed the examination had been promoted through the pedagogical materials across the seven PFL courses for PEC-G students.

The portrayal of certain opinions on specific sociocultural issues as the common perspectives within “the Brazilian culture” encouraged the PEC-G students to accept those opinions as a “national representation”. In addition, it enabled the PEC-G students to establish and/or to reproduce certain perspectives as “the culture of their countries”. Culture was defined as a set of social behaviours and perspectives that are common to individuals who share a nationality rather than one’s viewpoints resulting from personal, social, historical and linguistic experiences. Having focused on similarities and differences amongst the “national cultures” that were represented in the classroom, culture was not presented as a meaning-making process that could be defined and redefined in the interactions.

The theoretical perspectives on which CELPE-BRAS is based – especially those related to language, language use, competence and culture – were found to have had a significant influence on the development of the PFL courses for PEC-G students. Contradicting what most of the literature about CELPE-BRAS purports – that the examination aims to engage the examinees in simulating real-life interactions – the findings revealed that the CELPE-BRAS-based PFL courses were not enough to prepare the PEC-G students for their academic lives. These findings support the argument made by Lo Bianco (2001) concerning the differences between proficiency-oriented goals – which are related to specific knowledge and skills – and interactional goals that involve real-world contexts and real-world problems.

As argued by Kramsch (2005), task-based syllabuses tend to emulate the standardisation of the proficiency examinations by measuring language knowledge through the students' ability to convey identifiable and transferable skills. The findings showed that anything that had been seen as unnecessary for the completion of these tasks, such as sociocultural and identity issues, was perceived to be irrelevant or was simply omitted. These findings generate potential pedagogical implications because they suggested that passing the CELPE-BRAS examination should not have been the main goal informing the intended and the enacted curriculum for PFL courses within the context of PEC-G.

The following section considers CELPE-BRAS' influence on the development of the curricula for the PFL courses that were offered by the seven universities and the role of PFL within their institutional internationalisation agenda.

6.2.2. The extent to which institutional support influence in the processes of structuring and/or re-structuring the PFL programmes

As discussed in Chapter 5, all of the PFL co-ordinators and teachers who participated in this study argued that institutional support had been a significant influence on the development of the PFL courses. The findings revealed that institutional support and, especially, the lack of it may be one of the key factors that contribute to some of the discrepancies amongst the seven PFL courses for PEC-G students which were investigated. Based on the findings, institutional support was divided into two categories: organisational support and developmental support. Organisational support is related to the appointment of a co-ordinator and to the financial support for the PFL teachers. Developmental support represents every measure that results in specific teacher development and opportunities to develop research in PFL.

In order to determine whether the PFL programmes had been provided with institutional support, the following criteria were considered:

- 1) the appointment of a PFL programme co-ordinator whose academic background and/or research interests involved PFL;
- 2) the provision of financial support for PFL teacher – either through a contract or a temporary scholarship;
- 3) the provision of specific teacher development – either within the UG and/or PG programmes or within the PFL programme; and

- 4) the provision of opportunities to develop research in PFL within the UG and/or PG programmes.

According to these criteria, the seven PFL programmes were divided into two different groups:

- 1) the PFL programmes that had been provided with limited institutional support – Uni02, Uni03 and Uni06; and
- 2) the PFL programmes that had been provided with substantial institutional support – Uni01, Uni04, Uni05 and Uni07.

6.2.2.1. The influence of limited institutional support on the PFL courses for PEC-G students

The PFL programmes within Uni02, Uni03 and Uni06 were found to have received limited support because they presented most of the following characteristics:

- a) their PFL co-ordinators lacked an academic background and/or expertise in PFL;
- b) their PFL teachers were unpaid volunteers;
- c) specific teacher development was not offered; and/or
- d) opportunities to develop research in PFL were unavailable.

The co-ordinators Denise (Uni02) and Elisa (Uni03) had additional duties related to their primary field – French and German, respectively – whereas the co-ordinator Helena's (Uni06) sole concern was the PFL courses for PEC-G students. Neither Denise's and Elisa's connections to the universities' decisionmakers nor Helena's exclusivity to the PFL programme guaranteed the accreditation of PFL courses.

The findings showed that the PFL teachers – who were volunteers (Uni02), scholarship holders (Uni03) or hired by the programme (Uni06) – had received no specific teacher development before or during their practice. Although Silvia, a teacher at Uni06, had perceived her meetings with the co-ordinator Helena to be opportunities for development, the content of such meetings was found to be related to organisational issues that involve the PFL course for PEC-G students. In terms of opportunities to develop research in PFL, the findings revealed that only the PFL teachers at Uni02 had been developing doctoral research in PFL, which were all related to CELPE-BRAS. However, those participants might not be able to pursue an academic career in PFL at Uni02, since PFL had not been promoted as an area of

interest within the university. The PFL programmes at those three universities were limited to offering PFL courses focusing on CELPE-BRAS and to applying the examination.

The findings support the conclusion that, because Portuguese did not have a role within those three universities' internationalisation agendas, the institutional support with which the PFL programmes had been provided was limited to the needs regarding CELPE-BRAS. The few PFL-related studies that had been developed within the UG and/or PG programmes at those three universities prioritise CELPE-BRAS. It can be argued that, since CELPE-BRAS had been the main, or only, reason for those universities to offer institutional support to their PFL programmes, the motivation to conduct a research project about the examination is justifiable. Furthermore, the lack of specific teacher development opportunities that are not related to the CELPE-BRAS was found to have contributed to the CELPE-BRAS-based curricula and, consequently, to the advancement of the theoretical assumptions that inform the examination.

6.2.2.2. The influence of substantial institutional support on the PFL programmes

The PFL programmes within Uni01, Uni04, Uni05 and Uni07 fit the criteria for being considered to have been provided with substantial institutional support. The PFL courses for international students at these universities were part of an extension programme rather than being situated in a languages department. Thus, having a PFL co-ordinator whose expertise and/or area of interest was related to PFL accredited the PFL programmes to a certain extent. This accreditation was perceived to have enabled the co-ordinators to address the institutions' decisionmakers in order to propose some measures to improve the PFL programmes and to establish the PFL area at those universities.

Because of the co-ordinators' expertise and positions within the PFL programmes and the universities, the programmes had not been limited to offering PFL courses for international students or preparing the PEC-G students for the CELPE-BRAS examination. Rather, these PFL programmes had been advancing and promoting the PFL area within the universities' UG/PG programmes by offering opportunities to develop practice and/or research in PFL. The PFL teachers' sense of contribution to the PFL programmes, and to the field, was found to be a motivating factor for most of

the teachers' commitment to their practice and/or to research – research which was both related and unrelated to CELPE-BRAS.

The findings showed that Portuguese had been perceived as a language for internationalisation purposes within those four universities and therefore PFL was part of their institutional internationalisation agendas. Despite focusing on CELPE-BRAS and the theoretical perspectives that inform the examination, both specific teacher development and opportunities for research in PFL did not disregard PFL issues that were unrelated to CELPE-BRAS. It can be argued that this approach towards education in PFL contributed to the development of the PFL curricula that were not exclusively based on CELPE-BRAS. However, the strong influence of the examination enabled the promotion of the notions of language, language use, competence and culture on which CELPE-BRAS is based within the PFL courses for PEC-G students.

6.2.2.3. The relationship between institutional support and the role of Portuguese within the institutional internationalisation agenda

The findings revealed that the institutional support with which the PFL programmes had been provided was related to the university's acknowledgement of the importance in establishing and promoting Portuguese as a language for internationalisation purposes. Uni01, Uni04, Uni05 and Uni07 – which had been investing in their PFL programmes and had accredited the PFL courses – were opened up to receive any international students regardless of their first language or the academic mobility programme in which they participated. This attitude was interpreted as an effort to modify the academic and sociocultural landscape of the universities and the contexts of which they are part. This interpretation can find support in Maringe et al. (2013) conclusions, where they argue that internationalisation has been changing the higher education landscape, since its main purpose is to enable universities to pursue the creation of greater global value to their local contexts.

As reviewed in Chapter 2, Maringe et al. (2013) warn that internationalisation may generate expected benefits – such as cultural integration – and unanticipated consequences – such as dominance. The findings of this study evidenced that, despite the differences concerning institutional support, those benefits and consequences related to the process of internationalisation were experienced within the seven PFL programmes. For example, although the notions of culture informing

the PFL courses varied from one university to another, cultural and social integration for the international students was found to be a common goal amongst the seven PFL programmes. Moreover, the decision to adopt Portuguese as the official medium of instruction at these universities challenges the dominance of the English language in higher education contexts.

Byram (2008) argues that having a language other than English as the medium of instruction might compromise the development and enactment of language-in-education policies, since English is believed to facilitate institutional internationalisation (Kerklaan, Moreira and Boersma, 2008). The findings of this investigation revealed that all the PFL co-ordinators perceived the institutional support that the universities offered to the PFL programmes to be a factor that facilitated the process of institutional internationalisation. The institutional support, as summarised in Table 6.1, influenced the organisational and pedagogical structures of the PFL programmes within the seven universities.

Table 6.1. Summary of the findings

Questions / University	Uni 01	Uni 02	Uni 03	Uni 04	Uni 05	Uni 06	Uni 07
INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT							
Was PFL the co-ordinator's main area of expertise?	TCE	NO	NO	TCE	YES	TCE	YES
Were contracts/scholarships offered for the PFL teachers?	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES
Was PFL offered as a major?	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES	YES	NO
Was specific teaching development offered?	TCE	NO	NO	YES	YES	TCE	YES
Were opportunities to develop research in PFL offered?	YES	TCE	NO	YES	YES	TCE	YES
Were opportunities for an academic career in PFL available?	YES	NO	NO	YES	YES	TCE	YES
Did PFL seem to have a relevant role within the institutional internationalisation agenda?	YES	NO	NO	YES	YES	TCE	YES
PEDAGOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE PFL PROGRAMMES							
Was CELPE-BRAS appointed as the main source of guidelines for curriculum development?	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	YES
Was CELPE-BRAS actually the main source of guidelines for curriculum development?	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO	YES	YES
Was CELPE-BRAS appointed as the sole source of guidelines for curriculum development?	NO	YES	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO
Was CELPE-BRAS actually the sole source of guidelines for curriculum development?	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO
Did the co-ordinator claim that the teachers had participated in the curriculum development processes?	NO	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES

PEDAGOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE PFL PROGRAMMES							
Did the teacher(s) claim to have participated in the curriculum development processes?	NO	TCE	NO	YES	TCE	NO	YES
Were the notions of language use and proficiency informing CELPE-BRAS promoted through the syllabus and/or pedagogical materials?	YES	YES	YES	YES	TCE	YES	YES
Was the notion of culture informing CELPE-BRAS promoted through the syllabus and/or pedagogical materials?	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	TCE
TCE = To a Certain Extent							

Table 6.1 demonstrates the relationship between three key elements; (a) the institutional support; (b) the role of Portuguese within the institutional internationalisation agenda; and (c) the structure of the PFL programme. Portuguese was found to have an important role within the institutional internationalisation agendas of Uni01, Uni04, Uni05 and Uni07, since those universities had been offering substantial institutional support to their PFL programmes. Those four universities' developmental support provided scholars and UG/PG students with opportunities to engage in PFL teaching and/or research involving CELPE-BRAS and other areas of the PFL field. Uni02, Uni03 and Uni06 had offered limited institutional support to their PFL programmes, since the role of Portuguese within those universities' internationalisation agendas was related to CELPE-BRAS. These findings generate potential implications for specific teacher development because they revealed that the current organisational and developmental support prioritised the engagement of PFL teachers with the preparation of the PEC-G students for the CELPE-BRAS examination.

This section has summarised the findings in order to answer the overarching research question and the subsidiary research questions. It also has presented the implications for policy, practice and teacher development that the findings of this study can potentially generate (for further discussion, see Section 6.3.2). It has been established that CELPE-BRAS is what shapes and informs the curricula for the seven PFL courses that were investigated for this study. Furthermore, the pedagogical goals which had been set out by the curriculum developers were mainly related to passing the examination. The syllabi, the pedagogical materials and teaching reflected those goals by promoting the theoretical perspectives that inform the examination – especially the notions of language, language use, competence and culture. The interconnection between the institutional support and the pedagogical and structural

organisation of those PFL courses has been demonstrated. The universities where the importance of Portuguese as a language for internationalisation purposes had been acknowledged and which offered substantial institutional support for their PFL programmes, support which resulted in specific teacher development and research opportunities. Those initiatives were found to have minimised the exclusivity of CELPE-BRAS as a source of guidelines for curriculum development and pedagogical decisions.

6.3. Proposal for a theoretical shift

The theoretical perspectives on which CELPE-BRAS is based – especially those related to language, language use, competence and culture – were found to have a significant influence on the development of PFL courses for PEC-G students. As discussed in some detail in Chapter 2, the influence of proficiency examinations tends to constrain the students' teaching and learning experiences. The findings revealed that the PFL courses for PEC-G students, whose curricula had been solely or mainly informed by CELPE-BRAS, prioritised the language skills which are considered essential to pass the examination. As a proficiency certificate and a national language policy, the importance of CELPE-BRAS to the PFL field is unparalleled (Diniz, 2008, 2012, 2014; Machado, 2009). However, the use of theoretical assumptions that shape CELPE-BRAS, which have been superseded by more current thinking, as guidelines for curriculum development needs to be critically challenged. Otherwise, CELPE-BRAS will continue to exert a significant influence on the development of language-in-education policies and curricula for PFL courses – especially within the PEC-G context.

Given that the PEC-G students who pass the examination become UG students at one of the Brazilian HEIs that participate in this academic mobility programme, their language needs which are not related to CELPE-BRAS should also be considered. Contradicting what most of the literature about CELPE-BRAS promotes, that the examination aims to engage the examinees in simulating real-life interactions, the findings from this study revealed that the CELPE-BRAS-based PFL courses did not prepare the PEC-G students adequately for their academic lives. These findings support Lo Bianco's (2001) argument concerning the differences between proficiency-oriented goals and interactional goals.

As a direct consequence of CELPE-BRAS' influence on these PFL courses, language use and notions of culture differing from those which inform the examination would be considered as second-rate or disregarded. In order to move beyond pedagogical goals that establish and/or promote the production of relatively static notions and content, a problematised and critical perspective on language and culture, which cannot be limited to an essentialist viewpoint, is needed (Kramsch, 1986, 1993). The following section is divided into two parts. The first part focuses on the main characteristics of critical and intercultural perspectives within the context of foreign language education. The second part discusses the implications of a theoretical shift for education in PFL within the PEC-G context.

6.3.1. Critical and Intercultural Perspectives for Foreign Language Education

As reviewed in Chapter 2, Critical Pedagogy is informed by Freire's (1973) notion of conscientização. This perspective implies the development of individuals' critical thinking and self-reflexivity within transformative and liberating education experiences that empower individuals to form themselves through dialogue (Freire, 1973, 1979, 1987, 2005). In other words, teaching is part of the learning process as a dialectical and dialogical production and reproduction of knowledge (Guilherme, 2012). Such dialogue aims to disrupt the traditional teacher-student hierarchical dynamics as well as the relationship one has with one's own place in the world.

This democratic participation broadens the educational space, from the confinements of the classroom contexts of language use, into a more sociocultural and political arena (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Dasli (2011) distinguishes the impact that the studies of language-and-culture related to foreign language education has had on intercultural communication in terms of three moments:

- 1) the cultural awareness moment: culture is equated with country. A homogenised notion of culture is established to portray the dominant members of a given society as the representation of its entirety. The relationship between language and culture, according to this perspective, is based on the development of linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences that learners need to understand the Other;
- 2) the cross-cultural mediation moment: intercultural communication, which is perceived to be a discourse of tolerance and flexibility, focuses on the

subjectivity of culture. The relationships and interactions, alongside the individuals' behaviour and actions within the social environments in which they participate, are prioritised over ethnocentricity. While the contrasts between the Self and the Other are negotiated in favour of the production of thirdness, the individuals, during the interaction process, accommodate their identities to achieve tolerant and flexible views; and

- 3) the critical intercultural language pedagogy: diverse pedagogical practices that aim to encourage learners to perceive themselves as critical global citizens rather than members of a certain speech community. Critical citizenship enables individuals to exercise their own criticality to question what can be perceived and/or presented as unquestionable within intercultural interactions inside and outside educational settings.

Critical and intercultural perspectives within foreign language education involve ideological and political engagement that aims at emancipation and social justice through education for cosmopolitan citizenship (Guilherme, 2002; Osler and Starkey, 2005; Starkey, 2007). This critical perspective places the development of social actors in the processes of language learning which occurs across and between cultures (Liddicoat, 2005). The students' cultural diversity is informed by their individual and societal experiences. Content, in turn, emerges from such experiences which are represented, expressed and shared through the target language while cultures are produced and reproduced.

In order to propose a theoretical shift for the PFL courses within the PEC-G context, from the cultural awareness moment to the critical intercultural language pedagogy moment, the key notions which have been promoted by those courses – language, language use, competence and culture – need to be revisited. The next sections consider notions of language, language use, competence and culture through the lens of critical and intercultural perspectives.

6.3.1.1. Revisiting the notions of language, language use and competence

As previously discussed, CELPE-BRAS both promotes and is informed by Hymes' (1964, 1972) concept of communicative competence, Clark's (1996) notions of language use as a cooperative social action and Bachman's (1990) framework of CLA. CELPE-BRAS' examinees are expected to use language as a response to the written and oral texts, according to Bakhtin's (1968) definition of speech genres, within

the communicative tasks through which they are assessed. Scaramucci (1997, 2012) argues that such language use is a social action around which the examinees' knowledge and interpretations are contextualised and culturally-organised.

These notions do not reject language as system that involves decontextualised sets of grammar structures which are internal to the learner; rather, it adds multiple social discursive uses to language. Shohamy (2006) argues that language should not be perceived as a system of established norms but as a personal and individual construction that is created in and through communication. Liddicoat and Scarino (2013) echo that argument by calling for a reconceptualisation of language, within CP, which moves beyond the concepts of language as the representation of grammar- and lexicon-based communication through speaking, reading and/or writing.

As reviewed in Chapter 2, Kramersch (2009) argues that language is a 'symbolic system through which our bodies and minds apprehend themselves and the world' and, in this sense, using a foreign language means to rely on 'an alternative signifying practice' in order to think, remember, imagine and perceive ourselves, others and the world differently (p. 188). The ability to use another symbolic system, or several systems, enables individuals to exercise the 'symbolic power' (ibid). This power is both declarative, allowing the world to be represented in different linguistic codes, and performative, allowing multiple realities to be created in multiple languages. This perspective of language and language use challenges CLT which equated communicative competence with success in identifying and erasing individual differences through meaning negotiation and dialogue.

This meaning-negotiation competence is expected from the CELPE-BRAS examinees and recognised as language proficiency; however, such conceptualisation has been critically challenged because it encourages the development of standardised language skills which can be transferable across communicative tasks (Kramersch, 2005). Kramersch (2009) reconceptualised the notion of competence; for her symbolic competence, different from communicative competence, does not aim to even out differences until a negotiated perception of consensus can be achieved. The symbolic competence implies reframing one's own perceptions of familiar and/or unfamiliar social realities, and those of others, in order to act upon them, change them and/or create alternative realities (ibid).

Kramersch (2006a, 2006b, 2009) argues that language uses, such as that informing CELPE-BRAS, rely on a controlled and native speaker-oriented pattern of interaction.

She criticises the linguistic superiority that native speakers are granted through the use of CLT and TBLT because the students' multilingual viewpoints on the target language are disregarded whereas the emulation of an idealised unrealistic construction of a monolingual native speaker is advanced. Liddicoat (2013) clarifies that the foreign language learners' needs are different from those of this idealised native speaker. The foreign language learners have the potential to act and interact between and across languages and cultures – which goes beyond the scope of interaction practices belonging to the model of proficiency that the native speaker represents.

This perception focuses on the roles that each individual can play in an intercultural interaction and on how different sociocultural backgrounds can influence those roles. Foreign language learners need to become 'aware' participants in intercultural interactions during which meanings, contexts and individuals are critically interpreted, created and/or understood (Liddicoat, 2013). Through the critical and intercultural lens, language use and competence involve the personal capacity to engage actively in both linguistic and cultural diversity in order to challenge conformity.

6.3.1.2. Revisiting the notion of culture

Given that the CELPE-BRAS examination and the PFL courses which were investigated are informed by a notion of culture that is attached to nationality, "the Brazilian culture" is portrayed as a homogenous and monolingual society (see INEP, 2015; Lima, 2008; Rodrigues, 2006). Holliday (2011) argues that essentialist views of culture as a set of characteristics that is intrinsic to people sharing a nationality, such as that promoted by CELPE-BRAS, constrains individuals to the cultures in which they live but to which they do not necessarily belong. Moreover, these boundaries to distinguish one culture from another can be either developed by us or established for us (ibid). As reviewed in Chapter 2, within critically- and interculturally-informed language pedagogy, meaning is created and interpreted through the relationship between language and culture (Liddicoat, 2013). Culture is not perceived as a essentialised uniformity; rather, it is seen as a dynamic process of meaning-making which depends on the individuals' interpretations and sociocultural historical stances in the interaction.

Culture, in the context of language education, would ideally enable language learners to broaden their sociocultural and historical frameworks to comprehend and to

interpret their own stances and those of others. However, as corroborated by the findings, culture can be used to simplify social and/or geographic differences. Street (1993) argues that culture should be perceived as a verb, as a process through which meaning is both made and contested. This dynamism also opposes to essentialist notions of culture since it aims to challenge the naturalisation of what is ideologically promoted to influence people's perceptions of their own culture and that of others. Culture was not found to be perceived as a discursive process within the seven PFL programmes but as geographically located social and/or historical occurrences. By having focused on similarities and differences amongst the "national cultures" that were represented in the classroom, culture was not portrayed as a process that could be constantly defined and redefined in the intercultural interactions.

The following section discusses the possible implications of a theoretical shift, from communicative-based theoretical assumptions to critically- and interculturally-informed pedagogy, for the language-in-education policy making and enactment; curriculum development; teacher development; and teaching and learning within the context of PFL for PEC-G students.

6.3.2. Implications of a theoretical shift

6.3.2.1. The implications for language-in-education policy making and enactment

As previously discussed in Chapter 2, language-in-education policies can be used both to determine and to promote the development of language abilities that are perceived to be socially, culturally and/or economically desired (Liddicoat, 2013). In Brazil, where a monolingual model has been constitutionally established for the entire education system, a selected official standardised variety of Portuguese is expected to be acquired in order to portray the country as a linguistically homogeneous community (Bagno, 2007; Brasil, 1988). Within the context of PFL, CELPE-BRAS represents a language and political instrument through which the national and international circulation and promotion of Portuguese can be managed by the government (Oliveira, 2004; Zoppi-Fontana and Diniz, 2008).

Prioritising CELPE-BRAS is a political and ideological choice and, to a certain extent, a stage of the decolonisation process of Brazil – since CELPE-BRAS was created by Brazilian scholars, within Brazilian universities, to promote the Brazilian variety of

Portuguese. Given that CELPE-BRAS represents the official language-in-education policy regarding the context of PFL, the theoretical perspectives, alongside the linguistic and sociocultural contexts, which are promoted through CELPE-BRAS shape and inform education in PFL. CELPE-BRAS is placed at the centre of education in PFL, which encourages the development of research closely related to issues that involve the examination. This view can find support from Liddicoat (2013) who argues that the development of language-in-education policies prioritises what is ideologically and politically perceived as worthy of attention, whereas other matters remain unrepresented.

Walter and Benson (2012) argue that policymakers do not necessarily aim to facilitate educational equality through the development of language-in-education policies – especially when those policies prioritise dominant languages and/or language varieties. Although language-in-education policy documents may aim to promote equal educational opportunities, the status quo is rarely challenged and the non-dominant languages and language varieties are usually disregarded as effective means through which social participation can be achieved (Tollefson and Tsui, 2004; Walter and Benson 2012). For foreign language learners, such as the PEC-G students, language-in-education policies should project the ways in which language, culture and interculturality will be developed and employed through and after education (Liddicoat, 2013).

Given that language-in-education policies produce and reproduce the political and ideological views on how the social environment in which language is used will be, this representation influences, to a certain extent, what is taught and what is learned within educational settings. Liddicoat (2013) argues that two different ideological constructions regarding diversity tend to shape language-in-education policies for foreign language education:

- 1) language and cultural diversity as a threat to the status quo: the response to this understanding is the mandatory assimilation of the dominant language and culture by the foreign language learners; and
- 2) language and cultural diversity as a source of enrichment: the response to this understanding is the inclusion of the learners' languages and sociocultural perspectives in a subordinated position to the dominant constructions.

As the findings have revealed, both understandings and responses influenced the contexts of PFL for PEC-G students. The first construction was found to have been

developed within the PFL programmes that had been receiving limited institutional support, whereas the second construction was promoted at the universities where PFL had a meaningful role within the institutional internationalisation agendas (see Chapter 5). Since CELPE-BRAS has been the common guidance on which practitioners relied to take account of the PEC-G students' language and cultural diversity, the differences between the ideologies were a result of policy enactment. In the contexts where the PFL had been part of the institutional internationalisation agendas, the PEC-G students' diversity was, to a certain extent, included in the process of enactment.

A theoretical shift, from the communicative assumptions on which CELPE-BRAS is based towards critical and intercultural perspectives informing foreign language education, would involve the inclusion of matters which have been under- or unrepresented by CELPE-BRAS – such as social justice and citizenship. Within the PEC-G contexts in particular, the processes of policy development and enactment would have to consider the complex sociocultural and ethnolinguistic relations and struggles amongst those students. Addressing such issues explicitly could enable the policy apparatus to be used to challenge, rather than reinforce, the advancement of a dominant language and cultural varieties as the key to citizenship.

Language and citizenship are related to notions of nationality and that relationship is usually determined and/or promoted by language-in-education policies as an attempt to establish the hegemony of the nation-state (Guilherme, 2007). Given that the role of PFL within the institutional internationalisation agendas had influenced the process of policy enactment, the internationalisation is a phenomenon that allows this hegemony of the nation-state to be challenged. As argued by Cenoz et al. (2012), language-in-education policymaking does not have to convey uniformity; rather, it needs to account for the specificities of each context. Within the heterogeneous contexts especially, such as the ones where PFL has been offered for PEC-G students, the internationalisation agenda of those universities should be considered for the development of both national and institutional language-in-education policies.

This measure could minimise the influence of CELPE-BRAS on the processes of policy making and policy enactment by allowing the decisionmakers to focus on the PEC-G students' language needs that are unrelated to the examination. Moreover, King and Rambow (2012) argue that the CLT, which is the preferred model for PFL co-ordinators and teachers mostly because of the communicative nature of CELPE-

BRAS, does not account for the students' awareness in developing multiple cultural views and hybrid identities. As foreign language learners, the PEC-G students should be provided with opportunities to reflect, create and recreate their identities and cultural perspectives through the processes of language learning.

The development of CELPE-BRAS, as a language policy, a language-in-education policy and an official proficiency examination, represented a political and ideological stance to advance the Brazilian variety of Portuguese as an autonomous language for internationalisation purposes. However, the development of specific communication skills has been prioritised over the empowerment of PFL learners, such as the PEC-G students, to exercise social agency and citizenship within the new speech community in which they are participating. This view finds support from Shohamy (2006) who argues that the relationship between language-in-education policy, language testing and citizenship is shaped by ideological and political forces that aim to impose power over non-native citizens.

It is important to emphasise that citizenship, in this case, surpasses the typical affiliation that individuals have with a certain nation-state and it moves towards a sense of belonging which shapes and reshapes individuals' sociocultural identities (see Section 2.3.1.1). Multilingual and multicultural individuals may develop multiple identities and a cosmopolitan citizenship while maintaining their sense of belonging to a certain regional, local and/or national community (Jackson, 2014). The concept of multiculturalism that is often presented by the language-in-education policy discourse aims to accommodate both the resistance of the dominant groups, who want to retain their privilege and power, and the disbelief of ethnic communities in the conciliation rhetoric into the definition of citizenship (Rizvi, 2005).

Critical and intercultural language-in-education policy challenges the concepts of citizenship which focus on "national" language, culture and identity in order to discuss the power relations within and beyond the nation-state (Guilherme, 2002). Within the context of education in PFL, critical and intercultural policy would provide the PEC-G students with opportunities to develop their agency and autonomy through their learning processes. In other words, it would mean moving the PEC-G students away from the requirement for individuals to adapt and adjust to the "Brazilian" language, culture and identity. Language-in-education policymakers would have to consider the PEC-G students to be more than simply CELPE-BRAS examinees and education in PFL to be more than an arena through which the examination can be promoted.

6.3.2.2. The implications for the PFL curriculum

One of the dimensions which reflects the recommendations that are proposed through language and language-in-education policies is the curriculum, since educational settings are usually the contexts where a selected official national standardised language is expected to be taught and acquired (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997; Spolsky, 2004). CELPE-BRAS, as the only official policy regarding PFL, has been promoted by theoretical and empirical studies in the field (see Andrighetti, 2009; Fortes, 2009; Gomes, 2009; Kraemer, 2012; Santos, 2014) as an ideal source of guidelines for the development of a PFL curriculum. Within the context of PFL for PEC-G students, as the findings have revealed, PFL programme co-ordinators and teachers have been developing and/or enacting PFL curricula which are either completely or mainly shaped by CELPE-BRAS.

A theoretical shift, from communicative-based to critically- and interculturally-informed language pedagogy, requires more than theoretical changes in the processes of curriculum development and enactment. Given that the curriculum should aim to represent an educational project that reflects specific pedagogical goals and, concomitantly, a vehicle to change people through knowledge, a curriculum is a work in progress (Barnett, 2009; Marsh, 2004). Every aspect of the curriculum should be flexible, socially contextualised and democratically problematised in order to surpass the dimension of content and the idea of conditioning education for the social changes that are desired by the dominant classes (Barnett, 2009; Kirst and Walker, 1971; Moore, 2000).

As previously reviewed in Section 2.5.2, the model for curriculum design (Figure 2.1) that has been proposed by Nation and Macalister (2010) proposes the development of a set of coherent and comprehensive processes and sub-processes through which teaching and learning can be guided. The interconnection amongst the multiple elements representing goals, principles, needs and environment implies that every process and sub-process for the curriculum development should be taken into account equally. Placing evaluation as the thread that intertwines all those elements emphasises the importance of reflecting upon those processes constantly in order to adjust the curriculum when necessary. Richards (2001a), despite positioning the learners' needs as the main factor for curriculum development, argues that this element should be a starting point rather than the limits of a language curriculum.

The CELPE-BRAS-informed PFL curricula that were developed for PEC-G students and therefore the most obvious common need amongst those learners, passing the CELPE-BRAS examination, has been used to guide the other processes of curriculum development. Those curricula were task- and content-based and, as such, they aimed to help the PEC-G students to recognise the recurrence of grammatical and functional items in order to use them in multiple contexts (Rajaei Nia et al; 2012). This is what was required for the PEC-G students as CELPE-BRAS examinees, but it was not what they needed as international undergraduate students who had been participating in multilingual and multicultural communities. The proposed theoretical shift requires a curriculum that addresses real-world contexts and real-world problems critically instead of focusing on the identification and use of language skills which can be easily transferred across tasks within a proficiency examination (Kramersch, 2005).

Guilherme (2002) argues that a political dimension within the curriculum for foreign language promotes cultural politics and education for democratic citizenship. This political engagement and commitment to social agency can be encouraged by a PFL curriculum that is not based on certain language skills for specific communicative purposes. The PFL curriculum needs to enable a critical stance regarding language, culture and their influence on society so that individual and collective emancipation can be achieved (Guilherme, 2002). In other words, questioning the *status quo* is an important step towards the construction of a more just and democratic representation within society.

Foreign language education for cosmopolitan citizenship should aim to advance the learners' linguistic and cultural representation, as well as their social agency, in a way that would disrupt notions of territorial boundaries (Starkey, 2007; Starkey and Osler, 2003). The curriculum for foreign language education can enable practitioners to provide learners with opportunities to understand and accept multiple identities through multicultural literacy (Guilherme, 2006). For that to happen in the context of education in PFL, the curriculum needs to reflect the linguistic and cultural diversity in Brazil and in the PEC-G students' communities. By problematising the one nation-one culture-one language essentialist notion, interculturality moves beyond the assumption that cultural differences can only take place when national boundaries are crossed (Kramersch, 1998, p.81).

A critically- and interculturally-informed PFL curriculum, which focuses on the development of PEC-G students' cosmopolitan citizenship, would allow practitioners

to take advantage of those students' multicultural and multilingual identities instead of constraining their diversity under the label of nationality. Recognising and promoting the multicultural composition of society through the educational institutions means to offer the possibility for citizens to feel confident to play their roles interculturally. Cosmopolitan citizens do not need to be granted cosmopolitan citizenship by any governmental policy. However, it is through official recognition, such as the development of a foreign language curriculum that enables real practices of sociocultural and linguistic inclusion, that cosmopolitan citizenship can be broadly and gradually exercised (Guilherme, 2014).

Having reviewed several empirical studies about how foreign language teachers relate to culture teaching and to the intercultural perspectives, Crozet (2017) warns about the limitations of ICP and CP frameworks in terms of applicability to curriculum development, classroom practices and teacher development. It is also important to emphasise that this thesis does not mean to suggest that there should be standardised guidelines for the development of PFL curricula. Conversely, the theoretical perspectives related to critical and intercultural pedagogy encourage decisionmakers and practitioners to question generalisations and patterns for curriculum development. As Apple (2008) suggests, the criteria selected on which these standards can be based are usually the product of a political apparatus that does not recognise the specificities of diverse contexts. Moreover, as has been revealed by the findings, the participation of those involved in a certain context contributes to (a) the development of a curriculum that represents the students' needs and realities; and (b) the engagement of teachers in enacting the intended curriculum.

6.3.2.3. The implications for teacher development and education in PFL

As previously discussed in Chapter 3, Scaramucci (2012) argues that, in order to achieve positive washback effect, the influence of CELPE-BRAS must reach all the aspects of education in PFL, which includes specific teacher development. The theoretical shift that this thesis proposes would generate implications for teacher development because it requires PFL teacher education programmes which move beyond communicative perspectives of language education. Moreover, the PFL teachers would have to be prepared for the multilingual and multicultural contexts in which they would develop their practice. Moloney and Oguro (2017) argue that, since language teachers work with issues that are related to language and culture, specific

abilities for critical teaching – such as interpretation, analysis, evaluation of diverse perspectives – must be developed within teacher education programmes.

This view can find support in Byram (2012) who argues that if foreign language teachers are supposed to facilitate the development of learners' critical cultural awareness, it must be incorporated into foreign language teacher education. Within the context of PFL, teacher development would have to focus on closing the gap between the theories on which education in PFL is currently based and critically- and intercultural-informed pedagogies for foreign language education. This argument can find support in Kramersch's (2014) conclusions, where she argues that the foreign language teachers' ability to engage with critical enquiry enables the development of the students' awareness of global citizenship and social justice. In other words, specific teacher development for PFL teachers, through the lens of critical and intercultural perspectives, can potentially contribute to the development of PFL students' sense of sociocultural agency.

Given the communicative nature of CELPE-BRAS, language was found to have been conveyed as a means through which socially-contextualised interactions are performed via written or oral texts. The text was found to be the centre of language learning and teaching within the CELPE-BRAS-based and CELPE-BRAS-informed PFL courses. Kramersch (2009) argues that the communicative classroom encourages the negotiation of meaning to become a ritualistic display of power in which standardised genres must fit the production and reception patterns of the idealised monolingual dominant native speaker. This communicative scenario describes the CELPE-BRAS-informed PFL courses that are not developed to consider the multilingual and multicultural PFL classroom as a positive context where PFL can be taught/learned.

The educational purposes of language entail more than teaching and learning grammar, communication and meaning-making; they involve identity building so that language can be used to explore, understand, construct and present one's own self, one's own world and one's perceptions of others and their worlds (Liddicoat and Scarino, 2013). Not only is the linguistic repertoire of foreign language teachers and students shaped by language(s), it is also informed by multiple historical and cultural occurrences which are perceived as meaningful by an individual and/or a speech community (Kramersch, 2009). Students who are, or have been placed, in a state of inferiority due to their language and/or culture varieties may not contest the

meaningfulness that is widely attributed to the dominant varieties or resist such dominance.

Enabling a more active participation of the part of the language learner, as a critical social agent, places the learners at the centre of the teaching and learning processes. Phipps and Gonzalez (2004) define this combination of meaning-making, critical social agency and language learning as 'linguaging'. Linguaging takes place when both foreign language learners and teachers participate actively in dialogical and mutual ongoing development. For linguaging to be possible, the foreign language students cannot be perceived as learners who are incapable of collaborating with the teaching and learning process due to their lack of resources and/or skills in the target language. Rather, the students' experiences and ability to act socially, culturally and critically need to be employed in foreign language learning (Phipps and Gonzalez, 2004).

Within the context of PFL for PEC-G students, linguaging would require the exchange of experiences that involved more than sharing differences between "the Brazilian culture" and "the culture of the students' countries". In order to enable the PEC-G students to explore and share their own perspectives, while understanding and accepting those of others, the PFL classroom needs to be an actual social environment instead of a set of tasks that simulates real-life interactions. Phipps and Gonzalez (2004) argue that the foreign language classroom is a place where, as social beings, teachers and students experiment, observe and assess critically the collaborations and negotiations that shape their understandings. In addition, they learn who they are and who they can become, according to their own perceptions and those of others, by exercising their ownership over the new knowledges and by engaging with others through intercultural interactions.

If linguaging is a transformational way of being and making sense of the world while shaping it, critically- and interculturally-informed foreign language teaching and learning cannot be disconnected from the different perspectives through which the world is built. Phipps and Gonzalez (2004) argue that linguaging involves encounters with others and with one's own self so that one's ways of understanding the world can be constantly reassessed. The teachers' sociocultural perspectives and political positions should be renegotiated alongside those of the students, since the search for knowledge is a shared endeavour (Guilherme, 2002). For Byram (2011), the political engagement, that is expected from the critical foreign language teacher, can be

reflected in the processes of language learning to nurture the students' critical views on local and global contexts.

This political engagement might impose pedagogical challenges and choices for foreign language teachers since they might have to acquire new knowledges and consider several political, ideological and ethical stances to inform their practice (Crozet, 2017). Within the context of PFL for PEC-G students, the politically engaged teachers would be required to address issues which can be perceived as controversial by the CELPE-BRAS developers. Foreign language learners should be encouraged to cultivate the ability to manipulate, to interpret and to make and convey meaning in order to occupy an appropriate and favourable position in the intercultural interaction (Kramsch, 2009, 2011). A more critical stance could enable the PFL teachers and PEC-G students to challenge the apparent neutrality of the examination and to problematise the notion of text authenticity informing CELPE-BRAS' tasks.

Liddicoat (2005) and Lo Bianco (2001) argue that, by reflecting critically, foreign language learners can both understand and make connections between and across languages, cultures and contexts. Crozet (2017) warns that, to enable foreign language learners to develop such criticality, teachers themselves need to interpret those connections critically and analytically. Those connections go beyond the selected representations that are conveyed by the language teachers and/or pedagogical materials, they are part of linguistic and sociocultural content which cannot be neutrally transferred. By taking a stance, PFL teachers can move education in PFL towards a critical and intercultural dimension that promotes socio-political intervention in, rather than superficial description of, the sociocultural contexts in which the teachers and students circulate.

6.3.3. Summary

This section has presented a proposal for a theoretical shift for the education in PFL within the context of PEC-G. Firstly, the critical and intercultural perspectives regarding language, language use, competence and culture have been outlined and compared to the ones that inform CLT and TBLT. Then, possible implications of this theoretical shift have been presented by focusing on three key areas of the education in PFL: (a) policy making and enactment; (b) curriculum development; and (c) teacher development and education and PFL.

Since CELPE-BRAS has been developed, a growing body of research has explored the washback effect of the examination within education in PFL (e.g. Almeida, 2012; Huback, 2012; Li, 2009; Mamede, Rocha, Lima and Melo, 2007; Rodrigues, 2006; Scaramucci, 2004). Other researchers have proposed guidelines for curriculum development (e.g. Kraemer, 2012; Mittelstadt, 2013; Yan, 2008) or for the elaboration of pedagogical materials (e.g. Andrighetti, 2009; Bressan, 2002; Bulla, Lemos and Schlatter, 2010; Dutra and Penna, 2013; Gomes, 2006; Santos, 2014) based on the theoretical perspectives informing the examination. However, those studies focused on theoretical assumptions and/or empirical evidence which would corroborate the view that CELPE-BRAS' washback effect on teaching and learning practices is a positive occurrence.

My study did not seek to challenge the importance of CELPE-BRAS to the PFL field or its status regarding language and language-in-education policy. The main purpose of this thesis was to investigate the appropriateness of the theoretical perspectives that currently inform CELPE-BRAS which in turn provide guidelines for developing curricula for PFL courses for PEC-G students. In so doing, theoretical and empirical evidence was presented to support the development of PFL courses for PEC-G students through critically- and interculturally-informed foreign language pedagogy. By moving from communicative-based interactions towards a critical and intercultural classroom, PEC-G students might perceive themselves, and be perceived, as multilingual and multicultural citizens rather than as CELPE-BRAS examinees.

As evidenced by the data, the seven PFL programmes investigated had been distinctively structured according to particular characteristics – such as the expertise of the PFL co-ordinator, the number of PFL teachers, and the distribution of the PEC-G students within the PFL courses. The common thread connecting those seven PFL programmes was the responsibility to offer PFL courses for PEC-G students before they started their UG studies. For that reason, despite having compared those different contexts, this study did not aim to suggest patterns for the standardisation of the processes of policy making, policy enactment, curriculum development or teaching and learning.

6.4. Contribution to knowledge, Limitations and Further Research

This section brings together the theoretical and methodological contributions of this study to knowledge, which have been discussed throughout this thesis, as well as the limitations of this project and opportunities for further research.

6.4.1. Contribution to knowledge

The literature reviewed related to foreign language education discussed the limitations and contributions of CLT and TBLT to the field. This particular review has contributed to the discussion regarding the use of CLT and TBLT to develop PFL courses for PEC-G students by questioning the relevance of communicative-based pedagogies within this educational context. The theoretical perspectives reviewed on CP and ICP brought together foreign language education for cosmopolitan citizenship and the development of symbolic competence. This review has focused on the advantages of introducing critically- and interculturally-informed foreign language pedagogies to the context of PFL for PEC-G students.

The methodological contribution to knowledge that this thesis offers is twofold: the sampling strategy of data collection and the abductive approach to data analysis. The nineteen participants in this study, nine PFL co-ordinators and ten PFL teachers, represented seven universities with PFL programmes offering courses for PEC-G students in 2015. The sampling differed from the strategies that have been employed by researchers in the field of PFL, which mainly involved interviews with PFL teachers and/or students from a single PFL programme (e.g. Andrighetti, 2009; Bizon, 2013; Bosch, 2015; Kunrath, 2002; Li, 2009; Menezes, 2015). The interview data collected allowed the development of two patterns for comparisons:

- (1) differences and similarities across the seven contexts investigated; and
- (2) discrepancies and consistencies amongst the co-ordinators' and teachers' perceptions within the same context.

Furthermore, the use of an abductive approach to data analysis emphasised the advantage of relying on both theory and empirical data to develop an analytical strategy. This strategy enabled the interpretation of the data that had been originated from multiple views, which helped to increase validation and trustworthiness.

The findings regarding the theoretical perspectives informing curriculum development and enactment for PFL courses for PEC-G students have been presented in a way that reflects multiple hierarchically unbalanced voices equally. In addition, the relationship between the institutional support and the role of the PFL programmes within the universities has been introduced to the discussion concerning the internationalisation of the Brazilian federal universities. Based on the analysis of the interview data, the findings have been organised thoroughly and coherently to emphasise the interconnections across and within the seven contexts investigated.

As corroborated by the literature on education in PFL (see Chapter 3), CELPE-BRAS was found to be a major influence on the processes of curriculum development and enactment – especially due to the absence of specific national or institutional language-in-education policies and guidelines. The extent of CELPE-BRAS' influence on each of the seven PFL intended and enacted curricula for PEC-G students was identified and extensively discussed. The extent of the examination's influence has been linked to the following factors:

- (a) institutional support for the role of Portuguese in the universities' internationalisation agendas;
- (b) the discrepancies and/or similarities between the theoretical perspectives on which CELPE-BRAS is based and the theoretical views informing the PFL courses; and
- (c) the discrepancies and similarities between intended curriculum, which had mainly been developed by the PFL co-ordinators, and the enacted curriculum, which had reflected the PFL teachers' pedagogical views.

The discussion of the findings has argued for a theoretical shift – from the communicative perspectives to critically- and interculturally-informed pedagogy – for PFL within the PEC-G context. This thesis has contributed to the field of PFL by suggesting that notions of language, language use, culture and competence which currently inform the PFL courses for PEC-G students should be revisited in order to reflect the multicultural and multilingual nature of such contexts. By revisiting those notions and rethinking the pedagogical goals and the roles of teachers and students, the PFL courses for PEC-G students can potentially move beyond simply the preparation for the CELPE-BRAS examination.

This study was informed by literature on language and language-in-education policy making and enactment, foreign language education, critical intercultural language

pedagogy and curriculum development and enactment. The development of the theory suggesting that the PFL courses for PEC-G students should be informed by critical and intercultural perspectives for foreign language education was grounded in and emerged from the fine-grained analysis of the empirical data. This study, therefore, has made both theoretical and methodological contributions to the field of PFL.

6.4.2. Limitations

The limitations that have been encountered during the development of this study were related to the sampling strategies. Because of the research context, the number of people who could have been selected as participants was limited. By employing purposive sampling, twelve PFL programme co-ordinators representing the twelve Brazilian universities offering PFL courses for PEC-G students in 2015 were invited to be interviewed. Five of those twelve co-ordinators decided not to participate in the study. This sampling strategy, which is believed to be one of the strengths of this project, differed from other studies in the field of PFL which had recruited a larger number of participants though they were from a single educational setting (e.g. Andrighetti, 2009; Bizon, 2013; Bosch, 2015; Kunrath, 2002; Li, 2009; Menezes, 2015).

It is of course the case that a sample comprising nine participants is not statistically meaningful, as is the case with most qualitative studies. Regardless of the number, however, with purposive sampling, the participants were selected for specific purposes (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). The nine co-ordinators were in a professional position that enabled them to provide knowledgeable, in-depth information which contributed to the richness of the data. Theoretical sampling was subsequently employed to select PFL teachers whose empirical knowledge and involvement with the PFL courses for PEC-G students had been acknowledged and highlighted by the co-ordinators. Ten PFL teachers representing the seven contexts investigated agreed to be interviewed.

All ten PFL teachers had been working with PEC-G students for over two years; however, most of them had graduated in PMT or a foreign language other than Portuguese – such as English, Spanish or French. Their experience in the PFL area was mostly related to their practice rather than their academic background. On one hand, those theoretically-sampled participants provided the empirical knowledge that

the co-ordinators had emphasised. On the other hand, the theoretical rationale concerning those PFL teachers' pedagogical choices was rarely mentioned and/or echoed the co-ordinators' perspectives. Thus, it was difficult to establish, at times, the actual extent of some of the teachers' involvement in the decision-making processes – which also had been highlighted by the co-ordinators.

Although over 58% of the possible population for this study was interviewed, it was not possible to interview all of those involved in providing PFL courses for PEC-G students. The lack of representation from five PFL programmes did not allow for conclusions to be drawn regarding the CELPE-BRAS' influence on the processes of curriculum development and enactment within the twelve PFL courses for PEC-G students. Through the sampling strategies employed, however, data were collected and analysed and the findings which emerged enabled the extent of CELPE-BRAS' influence on the PFL courses for PEC-G students to be established within the seven programmes investigated.

6.4.3. Further Research

This study has linked language and language-in-education policies to the processes of curriculum development and enactment for foreign language education. Having reviewed different pedagogical views, notions of language, language use, competence and culture – which go beyond those which shape and inform the CELPE-BRAS examination – recommendations were made to be considered for the future education of students in PFL. Theoretical perspectives informing Critical Pedagogy and Intercultural Communication Pedagogy were presented, discussed and suggested for the development of PFL courses for those PEC-G students. As previously stated, this study did not intend to diminish CELPE-BRAS' importance as an instrument of language and language-in-education policy or to suggest a framework for curriculum development.

This study aimed to instigate and encourage PFL teachers and researchers to rethink the influence of CELPE-BRAS on language education in PFL. Moreover, a theoretical shift is proposed in order to move education in PFL towards a path on which criticality and interculturality become part of the teaching and learning processes. Further research may consider these theoretical underpinnings to build frameworks for curriculum development. Such frameworks, alongside specificities of each context,

may generate new insights for those working within the PFL programmes who are involved in structuring the PFL courses.

The findings discussed in Chapter 5 revealed that the PFL teachers' involvement with the PFL courses for PEC-G students goes beyond teaching. The PFL teachers had also been involved with the development of (a) curricula for PFL courses; (b) pedagogical materials; and (c) research in the field of PFL – especially those related to CELPE-BRAS. In this sense, PFL teachers within the contexts investigated may have the opportunity to reflect upon this study to develop further research. Future studies may also consider investigating the pedagogical implications of Critical Pedagogy and Intercultural Communication Pedagogy within specific PFL contexts. Such studies have the potential to offer the empirical evidence to support the theoretical shift that this study proposes.

Further research may also investigate how Critical Pedagogy and Intercultural Communication Pedagogy can be incorporated into PFL teacher education and/or pre-service and in-service PFL teacher development. It is important, however, that Critical Pedagogy and Intercultural Communication Pedagogy are not perceived as a set of prescribed methods to be followed by PFL teachers. Rather, those perspectives should encourage and enable PFL teachers to reflect upon their practice in order to adjust it according to the diversity and dynamism of education in PFL. Studies could explore whether, and to what extent, PFL teachers could move their practice away from CELPE-BRAS-informed pedagogy. Additionally, such projects could focus on the PFL teachers' strategies to convey what they studied to engage the PEC-G students to the criticality and interculturality that such pedagogical perspectives require.

Hopefully, this thesis will contribute to further discussions concerning the potential that education in PFL has to incorporate the theoretical perspectives related to Critical Pedagogy and Intercultural Communication Pedagogy. This study may also inspire PFL teachers to perceive their practice as a way to intervene, as well as to encourage intervention, in the sociocultural contexts in which they and their students participate. Through this thesis, I expect to advance the importance in developing PFL courses which focus on criticality and interculturality for the construction of multiple identities for the multicultural and multilingual PEC-G students. Ideally, this thesis would generate implications for CELPE-BRAS and promote a discussion about the appropriateness of the theoretical assumptions that inform the examination.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Agar, M., 1994. The intercultural frame. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 18(2), pp.221–237.
- Almeida, L.C.B. de, 2012. O efeito retroativo do Celpe-Bras no ensino de Língua Portuguesa para estrangeiros. *Anais do SIELP*, 2(1), pp.1–19.
- Alvesson, M., and Sköldbberg, K., 2009. *Reflexive methodology: new vistas for qualitative research*. London: SAGE.
- Andrighetti, G.H., 2009. *A elaboração de tarefas de compreensão oral para o ensino de Português como Língua Adicional em níveis iniciais*. UFRGS.
- Appiah, K.A., 1997. Cosmopolitan Patriots. *Critical Inquiry*, 23(3), pp.617–639.
- Appiah, K.A., 2006. Language Rights. *Modern Language Association*, 121(5), pp.1618–1620.
- Apple, M.W., 2004. *Ideology and Curriculum*. 3rd ed. New York: Routledge.
- Apple, M.W., 2008. Curriculum Planning: Content, form, and the Politics of Accountability. In: F.M. Connelly, M.F. He and J. Phillion, eds., *The SAGE Handbook of Curriculum and Instruction*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE, pp.25–44.
- Ariet, A., Martins, M.E., and Olavarriaga, M., 2016. Celpe-Bras y el libro didáctico de Portugués Lengua Extranjera. *Puertas Abiertas*, 12, pp.1–11.
- Atkins, L., and Wallace, S., 2012. *Qualitative Research in Education*. London: SAGE.
- Azeredo, L.A.S. de, 2013. Exames de Proficiência em Língua Estrangeira pela ótica Discursivo-Desconstrutivista. *Caminhos em Linguística Aplicada*, 8(1), pp.145–167.
- Bachman, L.F., 1990. *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bagno, M., 2007. *Preconceito Linguístico: o que é, como se faz*. 49th ed. [online] São Paulo: Edições Loyola. Available at: <<http://files.comunidades.net/ramalde/marcosbagnopreconceitolingustico100619193317phpapp01.pdf>>.
- Bakhtin, M., 1968. The Problem of the speech genre. In: *Speech Genre and other late essays*, first. Austin: University of Texas Press, pp.60–102.

- Baldauf, Jr., R.B., 2008. Rearticulating the Case for Micro Language Planning in a Language Ecology Context. In: A.J. Liddicoat and R.B. Baldauf, Jr., eds., *Language Planning and Policies: Language Planning in Local Contexts*, 8th ed. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, pp.18–41.
- Ball, S., 1990. *Politics and Policy Making in Education*. London: Routledge.
- Ball, S., 1998. Big Policies/Small World: An introduction to international perspectives in education policy. *Comparative Education*, [online] 34(2), pp.119–130. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/03050069828225>> [Accessed 17 Nov. 2014].
- Ball, S., 1999. Labour, learning and the economy: A ‘policy sociology’ perspective. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 29(2), pp.195–206.
- Ball, S., 2001. Global Policies and Vernacular Politics in Education. *Currículos sem Fronteiras*, 1(2), pp.27–43.
- Ball, S., 2013. *The Education Debate*. Bristol: Policy Press.
- Ball, S., Maguire, M., and Braun, A., 2012. *How Schools do Policy: Policy Enactments in Secondary Schools*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Barnett, R., 2000. Supercomplexity and the Curriculum. *Studies in Higher Education*, 25(3), pp.255–265.
- Barnett, R., 2009. Knowing and becoming in the higher education curriculum. *Studies in Higher Education*, 34(4), pp.429–440.
- Bascia, N., Carr-Harris, S., Fine-Meyer, R., and Zurzolo, C., 2014. Teachers, Curriculum Innovation, and Policy Formation. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 44(2), pp.228–248.
- Bastos, R.L., 2016. *Conteúdos para o ensino de português para estrangeiros: contribuições do Celpe-Bras*.
- Beck, U., 2002. The cosmopolitan society and its enemies. *Theory, Culture and Society*, 19(1–2), pp.17–44.
- BERA, 2011. *Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research*.
- Lo Bianco, J., 2001. Talking Globally: Challenges for Foreign-Language Education from New Citizenship and Economic Globalisation. *Forum for Modern Language Studies*, xxxvii(4), pp.456–475.

Birt, L., Scott, S., Cavers, D., Campbell, C., and Walter, F., 2016. Member Checking: A tool to enhance trustworthiness or merely a nod to validation? *Qualitative Health Research*, [online] 26(13), pp.1802–1811. Available at: <<http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/1049732316654870>>.

Bizon, A.C.C., 2013. *Narrando o exame CELPE-BRAS e o convênio PEC-G: A construção de territorialidades em tempos de internacionalização*. Universidade de Campinas.

Bohn, H.I., 2001. The lessons of tradition and the new perspectives in teaching and learning foreign languages. In: M.B.M. Fortkamp and R.P. Xavier, eds., *EFL Teaching and Learning in Brazil: Theory and Practice*. Florianópolis: Insular, pp.259–270.

Borrelli, M., 1990. Intercultural Pedagogy: Foundations and Principles. In: M. Byram and D. Buttjes, eds., *Mediating Languages and Cultures*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, pp.275–286.

Bosch, V., 2015. *Língua e Cultura no Ensino de PLE: Visões de Professores do CELIN-UFPR a partir do Uso de Material Didático*.

Brasil, 1988. *Constituição da República Federativa do Brasil*.

Brasil, 1997a. *Parâmetros curriculares nacionais: Língua Portuguesa Vol.1*. [online] Brasília: Ministério de Educação e Cultura. Available at: <<http://portal.mec.gov.br/seb/arquivos/pdf/livro02.pdf>>.

Brasil, 1997b. *Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais - Introdução*.

Brasil, 2000. *Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais para o Ensino Médio: Linguagens, Códigos e suas Tecnologias*. [online] Brasília: MEC. Available at: <http://portal.mec.gov.br/seb/arquivos/pdf/14_24.pdf>.

Brasil, M. da E., 1998. *Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais de Língua Portuguesa Terceiro e Quarto Ciclos do Ensino Fundamental*. Available at: <<http://portal.mec.gov.br/seb/arquivos/pdf/portugues.pdf>>.

Brasil, M. da E., 2006a. *Guia do Participante*. [online] Available at: <http://download.inep.gov.br/outras_acoes/celpe_bras/estrutura_exame/2014/guia_participante_celpebras.pdf> [Accessed 2 Apr. 2014].

Brasil, M. da E., 2006b. *Orientações Curriculares para o Ensino Médio: Linguagens, códigos e suas tecnologias*. Ministério ed. Brasília.

Brasil, M. da E., 2006c. *Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais de Ensino Médio: Orientações Educacionais Complementares aos Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais -Linguagens, Códigos e suas Tecnologias*. [online] Brasília: Ministério de Educação e Cultura. Available at: <<http://portal.mec.gov.br/seb/arquivos/pdf/linguagens02.pdf>>.

Brasil, M. da E., 2014a. *Base Nacional Comum*. [online] Available at: <<http://basenacionalcomum.mec.gov.br/#/site/inicio>> [Accessed 6 Aug. 2016].

Brasil, M. da E., 2014b. *Cursos e Instituições PEC-G*. [online] Available at: <<http://portal.mec.gov.br/pec-g/cursos-e-instituicoes>> [Accessed 23 Aug. 2016].

Brasil, M. da E., 2014a. *Exchange Program for Undergraduate Students - PEC-G*. [online] Available at: <<http://www.dce.mre.gov.br/en/PEC/PECG.php>> [Accessed 15 May 2014].

Brasil, M. da E., 2014c. *PEC-G 2015 - Resultado Final*. [online] Available at: <http://portal.mec.gov.br/index.php?option=com_docman&view=download&alias=16935-resultado-final-pecg-2015-2&category_slug=janeiro-2015-pdf&Itemid=30192> [Accessed 30 Nov. 2014].

Brasil, M. da E., 2016b. *Programa de Estudantes-Convênio Graduação (PEC-G)*. [online] Available at: <<http://www.dce.mre.gov.br/PEC/G/historico/introducao.php>> [Accessed 9 Oct. 2016].

Brasil, M. de R.E., 2015c. *Edital do Candidato PEC-G*. [online] Available at: <http://portal.mec.gov.br/index.php?option=com_docman&view=download&alias=16407-edital-pec-g-2015-pdf&category_slug=setembro-2014-pdf&Itemid=30192> [Accessed 2 Dec. 2015].

Breen, M.P., 1989. Authenticity in the Foreign Language Classroom. *Applied Linguistics*, 6(1), pp.62–70.

Breen, M.P., and Candlin, C.N., 1980. The Essentials of Language Teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, [online] 1(2), pp.89–110. Available at: <<http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/>>.

Bressan, C., 2002. *A elaboração de tarefas com vídeos autênticos para o ensino de línguas estrangeiras*.

Brookfield, S.D., 2005. *The Power of Critical Theory for Adult Learning and Teaching*. Berkshire: Open University Press.

Bryant, A., and Charmaz, K., 2007a. Grounded Theory and Reflexivity. In: K. Charmaz

and A. Bryant, eds., *The SAGE Handbook of Grounded Theory*. London: SAGE, pp.514–539.

Bryant, T., and Charmaz, K., 2007b. Sampling in Grounded Theory. In: *The SAGE handbook of grounded theory*. London: SAGE, pp.229–245.

Bulla, G., 2007. *A realização de atividades pedagógicas colaborativas em sala de aula de Português como Língua Estrangeira*.

Bulla, G., Lemos, F.C., and Schlatter, M., 2010. *Análise de material didático para o ensino de línguas adicionais a distância: reflexões e orientações para o design de tarefas pedagógicas*.

Buttjes, D., 1990. Culture in German Foreign Language Teaching: Making Use of an Ambiguous Past. In: M. Byram and D. Buttjes, eds., *Mediating Languages and Cultures*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, pp.47–62.

Byram, K., and Kramsch, C., 2008. Why is it so difficult to do anything? *The German Quarterly*, 81(1), pp.20–34.

Byram, M., 1990. Teaching Culture and Language: Towards an Integrated Model. In: M. Byram and D. Buttjes, eds., *Mediating Languages and Cultures*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, pp.17–30.

Byram, M., 1997. *Teaching and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Byram, M., 2008. *From Foreign Language Education to Education for Intercultural Citizenship: Essays and Reflections*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Byram, M., 2011. Conceptualizing Intercultural (Communicative) Competence and Intercultural Citizenship. In: *Intercultural competence and citizenship*. pp.85–97.

Byram, M., 2012a. A note on internationalisation, internationalism and language teaching and learning. *The Language Learning Journal*, 40(3), pp.375–381.

Byram, M., 2012b. A note on internationalisation, internationalism and language teaching and learning. *The Language Learning Journal*, 40(3), pp.375–381.

Byram, M., 2012c. Language awareness and (critical) cultural awareness – relationships, comparisons and contrasts. *Language Awareness*, 21(1–2), pp.5–13.

Byram, M., Esarte-Sarries, V., Taylor, S., and Allatt, P., 1990. Young People's

Perceptions of Other Cultures: The Role of Foreign Language Teaching. In: M. Byram and D. Buttjes, eds., *Mediating Languages and Cultures*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, pp.103–119.

Byram, M., Nichols, A., and Stevens, D., 2001. *Developing intercultural competence in practice*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Byrne, D., and Ozga, J., 2008. BERA review 2006: education research and policy. *Research Papers in Education*, [online] 23(4), pp.377–405. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/02671520701755457>>.

Canale, G., 2016. (Re)Searching culture in foreign language textbooks, or the politics of hide and seek. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 29(2), pp.225–243.

Canale, M., 1983. From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy. In: J.C. Richards and R.W. Schmidt, eds., *Language and Communicatio*. Abingdon: Routledge, pp.1–16.

Canale, M., and Swain, M., 1980. Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), pp.1–47.

CAPES, 2010. *Armazenamento de Periódicos e Dados*. [online] Available at: <<http://www.periodicos.capes.gov.br/>> [Accessed 8 Nov. 2014].

Carilo, M.S., 2012. *Tarefas de leitura e produção escrita no ensino a distância de língua Portuguesa para intercâmbio acadêmico*.

Celce-Murcia, M., Dornyei, Z., and Thurrell, S., 1995. Communicative Competence: A Pedagogically Motivated Model with Content Specifications. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 6(2), pp.5–35.

Celce-Murcia, M., and Olshtain, E., 2000. *Discourse and Context in Language Teaching: A Guide for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Celpe-Bras, 2016. *Trabalhos publicados sobre o Exame Celpe-Bras*. [online] Available at: <<http://www.ufrgs.br/acervocelpebras/pesquisas/textos-publicados-sobre-o-exame-celpe-bras>> [Accessed 12 Dec. 2016].

Cenoz, Jasone; Gorter, D., 2012. Language policy in education: additional languages. In: B. Spolsky, ed., *The Cambridge Handbook of Language Policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.301–320.

- Charmaz, K., 2001. Qualitative Interviewing and Grounded Theory Analysis. In: *Handbook of Interview Research*. London: SAGE, pp.675–692.
- Charmaz, K., 2006. *Constructing Grounded Theory - A Practical Guide Through Qualitative Research*. London: SAGE.
- Charmaz, K., 2014. *Constructing Grounded Theory*. London: SAGE.
- Charmaz, K., and Belgrave, L.L., 2012. Qualitative Interviewing and Grounded Theory Analysis. In: J.F. Gubrium, J.A. Holstein, A.B. Marvasti and K.D. McKinney, eds., *The SAGE Handbook of Interview Research: The Complexity of the Craft*. London: SAGE, pp.347–366.
- Chomsky, N., 1965. *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge: M.I.T. Press.
- Clark, H.H., 1996. *Using Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., and Morrison, K., 2007. *Research Methods in Education*. 6th ed. London: Routledge.
- Cook, V.J., 1993. *Linguistics and second language acquisition*. New York: Martin's Press.
- Creswell, J.W., 2014. *Research Design Qualitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. 4th ed. London: SAGE.
- Crozet, C., 2017. The Intercultural Foreign Language Teacher: Challenges and Choices. In: M. Dasli and A.R. Díaz, eds., *The Critical Turn in Language and Intercultural Communication Pedagogy*. London: Routledge, pp.143–161.
- Cury, C.R.J., 1996. Os Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais e o Ensino Fundamental. *Revista Brasileira de Educação*, [online] 2(2), pp.4–17. Available at: <http://anped.org.br/rbe/rbedigital/RBDE02/RBDE02_03_CARLOS_ROBERTO_JAMIL_CURY.pdf>.
- Dale, R., 2007. Specifying globalization effects on national policy: a focus on the mechanisms. In: B. Lingard and J. Ozga, eds., *The RoutledgeFalmer reader in education policy and politics*. Oxon: Routledge, pp.48–64.
- Dasli, M., 2011. Reviving the 'moments': from cultural awareness and cross-cultural mediation to critical intercultural language pedagogy. *Pedagogy, Culture & Society*, [online] 19(1), pp.21–39. Available at:

<<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/14681366.2011.527118>> [Accessed 29 Apr. 2014].

Delanty, G., 2000. *Citizenship in a global age: Society, culture, politics*. New York: Open University Press.

Díaz, A.R., 2013. *Developing Critical Languaculture Pedagogies in Higher Education: Theory and Practice*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Diniz, L.R.A., 2008. *Mercado de Línguas: a Instrumentalização Brasileira do Português como Língua Estrangeira*.

Diniz, L.R.A., 2012. Política linguística do Estado brasileiro para a divulgação do português em países de língua oficial espanhola. *Trabalhos de Linguística Aplicada*, 51(2), pp.435–458.

Diniz, L.R.A., 2014. Políticas uni/bi/multilaterais de certificação de proficiência em português: uma análise do Certificado de Proficiência em Língua Portuguesa para Estrangeiros (Celpe-Bras). In: R.L.P. Dell'Isola, ed., *O exame de proficiência Celpe-Bras em foco*. Campinas: Pontes Editores, pp.15–36.

Dorigon, T., 2016. *O CELPE-BRAS como instrumento de políticas linguísticas: um mediador entre propósitos e materializações*.

Dutra, A.F., and Penna, S., 2013. CELPE-BRAS: confecção de material didático. In: *IV SILID III SIMAR*. Rio de Janeiro: PUC-RJ, pp.1–15.

Dwyer, S.C., and Buckle, J.L., 2009. The Space Between: On Being an Insider-Outsider in Qualitative Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(1), pp.54–63.

Eisner, E.W., 1990. A Development Agenda: Creative Curriculum Development and Practice. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, 6(1), pp.62–73.

Esposito, N., 2001. From Meaning to Meaning: The Influence of Translation Techniques on Non-English Focus Group Research. *Qualitative Health Research*, [online] 11(4), pp.568–579. Available at: <<http://qhr.sagepub.com/cgi/doi/10.1177/104973201129119217>> [Accessed 8 Nov. 2014].

Fantini, A.E., 2012. Language: an essential component of intercultural communicative competence. In: J. Jackson, ed., *The Routledge Handbook of Language and*

Intercultural Communication. Abingdon: Routledge, pp.263–278.

Fávero, O., Horta, J., and Frigotto, G., 1992. Políticas Educacionais no Brasil: desafios e propostas. *Caderno de Pesquisa de São Paulo*, [online] 83(nov.), pp.5–14. Available at: <<http://www.fcc.org.br/pesquisa/publicacoes/cp/arquivos/949.pdf>>.

Finlay, L., 2012. Five Lenses for the Reflexive Interviewer. In: J.F. Gubrium, J.A. Holstein, A.B. Marvasti and K.D. McKinney, eds., *The SAGE Handbook of Interview Research: The Complexity of the Craft*. London: SAGE, pp.317–332.

Forman, R., 2014. How local teachers respond to the culture and language of a global English as a Foreign Language textbook. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 27(1), pp.72–88.

Fortes, M.S., 2009. *Uma compreensão etnometodológica do trabalho de fazer ser membro na fala-em-interação de entrevistas de proficiência oral em Português como Língua Adicional*. UFRGS.

Foster, P., 2006. Observational Research. In: *Data Collection and Analysis*. London: SAGE, pp.58–93.

Freire, P., 1973. *Education for Critical Consciousness*. London: Sheed and Ward.

Freire, P., 1979a. *Conscientização: Teoria e prática da libertação, uma introdução ao pensamento de Paulo Freire*. São Paulo: Cortez & Moraes.

Freire, P., 1979b. *Educação e mudança*. 12th ed. Rio de Janeiro: Paz e Terra.

Freire, P., 1985. *The Politics of Education: Culture, Power and Liberation*. London: Macmillan.

Freire, P., 1987. *Pedagogia do Oprimido*. 17^a ed. Rio de Janeiro: Paz e Terra.

Freire, P., 2005. *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. New York/London: Continuum.

Fried-Booth, D., 1986. *Project Work*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fullan, M., 2007. *The New Meaning of Educational Change*. 4th ed. [online] Abingdon: Routledge. Available at: <<http://eds.a.ebscohost.com/ehost/ebookviewer/ebook/bmxiYmtfXzlwMzU1MV9fQU41?sid=c22cd3c1-6bfa-4e82-80cc-3b9748794f34@sessionmgr4005&vid=1&format=EB&rid=1>>.

- Fullan, M., 2008. Curriculum Implementation and Sustainability. In: F.M. Connelly, M.F. He and J. Phillion, eds., *The SAGE Handbook of Curriculum and Instruction*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE, pp.113–122.
- Gagel, W., 1994. *Geschichte der politischen Bildung in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland 1945-1989: Zwölf Lektionen*. Opladen: Leske + Budrich.
- Gandana, I., and Parr, G., 2013. Professional identity, curriculum and teaching Intercultural Communication: an Indonesian case study. *Language Culture and Curriculum*, [online] 26(3), pp.229–246. Available at: <<http://www.scopus.com/inward/record.url?eid=2-s2.0-84889608384&partnerID=tZOtx3y1>>.
- García, O., 2012. Ethnic identity and language policy. In: B. Spolsky, ed., *The Cambridge handbook of language policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.79–99.
- Gibbs, G., 2007. *Analysing Qualitative Data*. London: SAGE.
- Giroux, H., 2003. Utopian Thinking Under the Sign of Neoliberalism: Towards a Critical Pedagogy of Educated Hope. *Democracy & Nature*, 9, pp.91–105.
- Giroux, H., and McLaren, P., 1994. *Between Borders: Pedagogy and the Politics of Cultural Studies*. New York/London: Routledge.
- Giroux, H. a., 2006. Academic Freedom Under Fire: The Case for Critical Pedagogy. *College Literature*, 33, pp.1–42.
- Glaser, B., and Strauss, A., 1967. *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*. New York: Aldine.
- Gnerre, M., 1991. *Linguagem, poder e discriminação*.
- Gomes, C.P., 2006. *Português para falantes de Espanhol: uma proposta de material didático para desenvolver a produção oral*.
- Gomes, M. da S., 2009. *A complexidade de tarefas de leitura e produção escrita no exame Celpe-Bras*.
- Gray, J., 2010. *The construction of English Culture, Consumerism and Promotion in the ELT Global Coursebook*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Guilherme, M., 2002. *Critical citizens for an intercultural world foreign language*

education as cultural politics. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Guilherme, M., 2006. Is there a role for Critical Pedagogy in Language/Culture Studies? An interview with Henry A. Giroux. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 6(2), pp.163–175.

Guilherme, M., 2007. English as a Global Language and Education for Cosmopolitan Citizenship. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, [online] 7(1), pp.72–90. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.2167/laic184.0>> [Accessed 20 Feb. 2014].

Guilherme, M., 2012. Critical Language and Intercultural Communication Pedagogy. In: J. Jackson, ed., *The Routledge Handbook of Language and Intercultural Communication*. Abingdon: Routledge, pp.357–371.

Guilherme, M., 2014. 'Glocal' Languages and North-South Epistemologies. In: A. Teodoro and M. Guilherme, eds., *European and Latin American Higher Education Between Mirrors*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers, pp.55–74.

Guilherme, M., and Dietz, G., 2015. Difference in diversity: multiple perspectives on multicultural, intercultural, and transcultural conceptual complexities. *Journal of Multicultural Discourses*, [online] 7(1)(March 2015), pp.1–21. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/17447143.2015.1015539>>.

Guilherme, M., Pureza, J.M., Silva, R.P. da, and Santos, H., 2006. The Intercultural Dimension of Citizenship Education in Portugal. In: G. Alred, M. Byram and M. Fleming, eds., *Education for Intercultural Citizenship: Concepts and Comparisons*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, pp.213–231.

Halliday, M.A.K., 1973. *Explorations in the functions of language*. London: Edward Arnold.

Halpin, D., and Troyna, B., 1995. The Politics of Education Policy Borrowing. *Comparative Education*, 31(3), pp.303–310.

Hammersley, M., and Traianou, A., 2012. *Ethics and Educational Research*.

Hargreaves, A., 2009. A decade of educational change and a defining moment of opportunity—an introduction. *Journal of Educational Change*, [online] 10(2–3), pp.89–100. Available at: <<http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s10833-009-9103-4>>.

Hargreaves, A., and Shirley, D., 2009. *The forth way: The inspiring future for*

educational change. New York: Corwin Press.

Hedge, T., 1993. 'Key Concepts in ELT. *ELT Journal Journal*, 47(3), pp.275–277.

Hoff, H.E., 2014. A critical discussion of Byram's model of intercultural communicative competence in the light of bildung theories. *Intercultural Education*, [online] 25(6), pp.508–517. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/14675986.2014.992112>>.

Holliday, A., 2011. *Intercultural Communication and Ideology*. London: SAGE.

Holliday, A., 2012. Culture, Communication, Context and Power. In: J. Jackson, ed., *The Routledge Handbook of Language and Intercultural Communication*. Abingdon: Routledge, pp.37–51.

Holstein, J.A., and Gubrium, J.F., 1995. *The Active Interview. The Active Interview*. London: SAGE.

House, J., 2008. What is an Intercultural Speaker? In: E.A. Soler and M.P.S. Jordá, eds., *Intercultural Language Use and Language Learning*. Dordrecht: Multilingual Matters, pp.7–21.

Huback, A.P., 2012. O exame do Celpe-Bras e os materiais didáticos de Português como Língua Estrangeira. *(Con)Textos Linguísticos*, 6(7), pp.31–46.

Hymes, D.H., 1972. On communicative competence. In: J.B. Pride and J. Holmes, eds., *Sociolinguistics: Selected Readings*. Harmondsworth: Penguin, pp.269–293.

Hymes, D.H., 1974. *Studies in the history of linguistics : traditions and paradigms*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

INEP, 2015. *Manual do Examinando CELPE-BRAS*.

Jackson, J., 2013. *Introducing Language and Intercultural Communication*. London: Routledge.

Jackson, J., 2014. *Introducing Language and Intercultural Communication*. London: Routledge.

Johnson, J.M., 2001. In-depth Interviewing. In: *Handbook of Interview Research*. [online] London: SAGE, pp.695–711. Available at: <<http://srmo.sagepub.com/view/handbook-of-interview-research/SAGE.xml>>.

- Kachru, B.B., 1992. *The Other Tongue: English across Cultures*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Kachru, B.B., 1997. World Englishes and English-Using Communities. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 17, pp.66–87.
- Kachru, B.B., 2006. *World Englishes: Critical Concepts in Linguistics*. New York: Routledge.
- Kaplan, R., and Baldauf, Jr, R.B., 1997. *Language planning from practice to theory*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Kelly, A. V., 2009. *The Curriculum: Theory and Practice*. London: SAGE.
- Kerklaan, V.,, Moreira, G., and Boersma, K., 2008. The role of language in the internationalisation of higher education: An example from Portugal. *European Journal of Education*, 43(2), pp.241–255.
- King, K.A., and Rambow, A.C., 2012. Transnationalism, migration and language education policy. In: B. Spolsky, ed., *The Cambridge handbook of language policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.399–417.
- Kirst, M.W., and Walker, D.F., 1971. An Analysis of Curriculum Policy-Making. *Review of Educational Research Association*, 41(5), pp.479–509.
- Knight, J., 2004. Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 8(1), pp.5–31.
- Kraemer, F.F., 2012. *Português Língua Adicional: Progressão Curricular com Base em Gêneros do Discurso*. UFRGS.
- Kramsch, C., 1986. From Language Proficiency to Interactional Competence. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(4), pp.366–372.
- Kramsch, C., 1993. *Context and Culture in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kramsch, C., 1998. *Language and culture*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kramsch, C., 2001. Intercultural Communication. In: R. Carter and D. Nunan, eds., *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.201–206.

- Kramersch, C., 2003. In search of the Intercultural. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 6(2), pp.275–285.
- Kramersch, C., 2005. Post 9/11: Foreign languages between knowledge and power. *Applied Linguistics*, 26, pp.545–567.
- Kramersch, C., 2006a. From Communicative Competence to Symbolic Competence. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(2), pp.249–252.
- Kramersch, C., 2006b. The Multilingual Subject. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 16(1), pp.97–111.
- Kramersch, C., 2009. *The Multilingual Subject*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kramersch, C., 2011. The symbolic dimensions of the intercultural. *Language Teaching*, [online] 44(3), pp.354–367. Available at: <http://www.journals.cambridge.org/abstract_S0261444810000431>.
- Kramersch, C., 2013. Culture in foreign language teaching. 1(1), pp.57–78.
- Kramersch, C., 2014. Teaching foreign languages in an era of globalization: Introduction. *Modern Language Journal*, 98(1), pp.296–311.
- Kramersch, C., and Sullivan, P., 1996. Appropriate pedagogy. *ELT Journal*, [online] 50(3), pp.199–212. Available at: <<http://eltj.oxfordjournals.org/content/50/3/199%5Cnhttp://eltj.oxfordjournals.org/content/50/3/199.short?rss=1&source=mfc>>.
- Kramersch, C., and Whiteside, A., 2008. Language Ecology in Multilingual Settings. Towards a Theory of Symbolic Competence. *Applied Linguistics*, [online] 29(4), pp.645–671. Available at: <<http://applied.oxfordjournals.org/cgi/doi/10.1093/applin/amn022>>.
- Kumaravadivelu, B., 2006. *Understanding language teaching: from method to postmethod*. [online] London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Available at: <<http://www.cro3.org/cgi/doi/10.5860/CHOICE.44-1658>>.
- Kunrath, S.P., 2002. *A aquisição do pretérito imperfeito em narrativas orais de Português como segunda língua por falantes de Alemão*.
- Kvale, S., 2007. *Doing Interviews*. London: SAGE.
- Larkin, P.J., Dierckx de Casterlé, B., and Schotsmans, P., 2007. Multilingual

translation issues in qualitative research: reflections on a metaphorical process. *Qualitative health research*, [online] 17(4), pp.468–76. Available at: <<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17416700>> [Accessed 8 Nov. 2014].

Lewkowicz, J. a., 2000. Authenticity in language testing: some outstanding questions. *Language Testing*, 17(1), pp.43–64.

Li, Y., 2009. *A Preparação de candidatos Chineses para o Exame CELPE-BRAS: Aprendendo o que significa 'uso de linguagem'*. UFRGS.

Liddicoat, A., 2005. Culture for language learning in Australian language-in-education policy. *Australia Review of Applied Linguistics*, 28(2), pp.1–28.

Liddicoat, A., 2013. *Language-in-Education Policies: the discursive construction of intercultural relations*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Liddicoat, A., and Scarino, A., 2013. *Intercultural Language Teaching and Learning*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.

Liddicoat, A.J., and Baldauf, Jr, R.B., 2008. Language Planning in Local Contexts: Agents, Contexts and Interactions. In: A.J. Liddicoat and R.B. Baldauf, Jr., eds., *Language Planning and Policies: Language Planning in Local Contexts*, 8th ed. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, pp.3–17.

Lima, R.A., 2008. *Representações do Brasil em textos do exame CELPE-BRAS*. Universidade Federal Fluminense.

Lu, P., and Corbett, J., 2012. An intercultural approach to second language education and citizenship. In: J. Jackson, ed., *The Routledge Handbook of Language and Intercultural Communication*. Abingdon: Routledge, pp.325–339.

MacDonald, M.N., Badger, R., and Dasli, M., 2006. Authenticity, Culture and Language Learning. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, [online] 6(3–4), pp.250–261. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.2167/laic252.0>> [Accessed 15 Sep. 2014].

Macfarlane, B., 2009. *Researching with Integrity: The Ethics of Academic Enquiry*. London: Routledge.

Mainardes, J., and Gandin, L.A., 2013. Contributions of Stephen J. Ball to the research on educational and curriculum policies in Brazil. *London Review of Education*, [online] 11(3), pp.256–264. Available at:

<<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/14748460.2013.840985>>.

Mamede, R.F., Rocha, I.M.O. da., Lima, R.T.C.L., and Melo, M. de F.B. de, 2007. O CELPE-BRAS e sua importância para as pesquisas em PLE na UFPB. In: *X Encontro de Iniciação à Docência*. pp.783–788.

Maringe, F., Foskett, N., and Woodfield, S., 2013. Emerging internationalisation models in an uneven global terrain: findings from a global survey. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, [online] 43(1), pp.9–36. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/03057925.2013.746548>>.

Marsh, C., 2004. *Key Concepts for Understanding Curriculum*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Menezes, E.R., 2015. *Crenças de Professores de PLE e Alunos Asiáticos do CELIN-UFPR*.

Meyer, M., 1990. Developing Transcultural Competence: Case Studies of Advanced Foreign Language Learners. In: M. Byram and D. Buttjes, eds., *Mediating Languages and Cultures*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, pp.136–158.

Mickan, P., 2013. *Language Curriculum Design and Socialisation*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Mills, J., Bonner, A., and Francis, K., 2006. The Development of Constructivist Grounded Theory. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5(March), pp.25–35.

Mishler, E.G., 1990. Validation in Inquiry-Guided Research: The Role of Exemplars in Narrative Studies. *Harvard Educational Review*, 60(4), pp.415–442.

Mittelstadt, D.D., 2013. *Orientações curriculares e pedagógicas para o nível avançado de Português como Língua Adicional*. UFRGS.

Mittelstadt, D.D., 2015. O Certificado de Proficiência em Língua Portuguesa para Estrangeiros (Celpe-Bras) e o nível avançado: contribuições para a construção de diretrizes curriculares. *Po'leutukal-beu'lajil Yeon'gu/Portuguese-Brazilian Studies*, 12, pp.117–138.

Moloney, R., and Oguro, S., 2017. Transforming Pre-Service Language Teachers' Understanding of Teaching Critically. In: M. Dasli and A.R. Díaz, eds., *The Critical Turn in Language and Intercultural Communication Pedagogy*. London: Routledge, pp.180–196.

- Moore, R., 2000. For Knowledge: Tradition, progressivism and progress in education—reconstructing the curriculum debate. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, [online] 30(1), pp.17–36. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/03057640050005753>>.
- Nainby, K.E., Warren, J.T., and Bollinger, C., 2003. Articulating Contact in the Classroom: Towards a Constitutive Focus in Critical Pedagogy. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, [online] 3(3), pp.198–212. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/14708470308668105>>.
- Nation, I.S.P., and Macalister, J., 2010. *Language Curriculum Design*. London: Routledge.
- Noels, K.A., Yashima, T., and Zhang, R., 2012. Language, Identity and Intercultural Communication. In: J. Jackson, ed., *The Routledge Handbook of Language and Intercultural Communication*. Abingdon: Routledge, pp.52–66.
- Nudzor, H.P., 2009. Re-conceptualising the paradox in policy implementation: a post-modernist conceptual approach. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, [online] 30(4), pp.501–513. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/01596300903237255>>.
- Nunan, D., 1988. *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nunan, D., 1991. Communicative Tasks and the Language Curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly*, [online] 25(2), pp.279–295. Available at: <<http://www.jstor.org/stable/3587464?origin=crossref>>.
- Nunan, D., 2004. *Task-based Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Oliveira, G.M., 2004. *Política Linguística, Política Historiográfica: Epistemologia e escrita da História da(s) Língua(s) a propósito da língua portuguesa no Brasil Meridional (1754-1830)*. Universidade Estadual de Campinas.
- Orland-Barak, L., 2002. The Theoretical Sensitivity of the Researcher: Reflections on a complex construct. *Reflective Practice*, 3(3), pp.263–278.
- Osler, A., and Starkey, H., 2005. *Changing Citizenship: Democracy and Inclusion in Education*. Berkshire: Open University Press.
- Ozga, J., and Jones, R., 2006. Travelling and embedded policy: the case of

knowledge transfer. *Journal of Education Policy*, [online] 21(1), pp.1–17. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/02680930500391462>>.

Ozga, J., and Lingard, B., 2007. Globalisation, education policy and politics. In: B. Lingard and J. Ozga, eds., *The RoutledgeFalmer reader in education policy and politics*. Oxon: Routledge, pp.65–81.

Pennycook, A., 2001. *Critical Applied Linguistics: a critical introduction*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Penuel, W.R., Phillips, R.S., and Harris, C.J., 2014. Analysing teachers' curriculum implementation from integrity and actor-oriented perspectives. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, [online] 46(6), pp.751–777. Available at: <<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/00220272.2014.921841>>.

Phipps, A., 2003. Languages, identities, agencies: intercultural lessons from Harry Potter. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 3(1), pp.6–19.

Phipps, A., and Gonzalez, M., 2004a. Culture and Beyond. In: A. Phipps and M. Gonzalez, eds., *Modern Languages: Learning and Teaching in an Intercultural Field*. London: SAGE, pp.53–71.

Phipps, A., and Gonzalez, M., 2004b. Languaging in Time and Place. In: A. Phipps and M. Gonzalez, eds., *Modern Languages: Learning and Teaching in an Intercultural Field*. London: SAGE, pp.87–109.

Phipps, A., and Gonzalez, M., 2004c. *Modern Languages: Learning and Teaching in an Intercultural Field*. London: SAGE.

Prior, L., 2003. Documents as Evidence. Researching the Inert Text. In: *Using Documents in Social Research*. London: SAGE, pp.146–165.

Rajaei Nia, M., Abbaspour, E., and Zare, J., 2012. A critical review of recent trends in second language syllabus design and curriculum development. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 2(2), pp.63–82.

Rapley, T., 2007. *Doing Conversation, Discourse and Document Analysis*. London: SAGE.

Reichertz, J., 2007. Abduction: The Logic of Discovery of Grounded Theory. In: K. Charmaz and A. Bryant, eds., *The SAGE handbook of grounded theory*. London: SAGE, pp.214–228.

- Ricardo, E.C., 2013. Implementação dos PCNs na sala de aula: dificuldades e possibilidades. *Física na Escola*, [online] 4(1). Available at: <http://www.academia.edu/3130959/Implementacao_dos_PCN_na_em_Sala_de_A_ula_dificuldades_e_possibilidades>.
- Richards, J.C., 2001a. Course Planning and Syllabus Design. In: *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*. pp.145–197.
- Richards, J.C., 2001b. From Syllabus Design to Curriculum Development. In: *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.23–50.
- Richards, J.C., 2001c. The Origins of Language Curriculum Development. In: *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.1–22.
- Richards, J.C., 2001d. The Role and Design of Instructional Materials. In: *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.251–285.
- Risager, K., 2006. *Language and culture: global flows and local complexity*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Risager, K., 2007. *Language and Culture Pedagogy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Rizvi, F., 2005. Identity, Culture and Cosmopolitan Futures. *Higher Education Policy*, 18(4), pp.331–339.
- Robson, C., 2011. *Real World of Research: a Resource for Users of Social Research Methods in Applied Settings*. Chichester: John Wiley and Sons.
- Rodrigues, M.S.A., 2006. *O Exame CELPE-BRAS: Reflexões teóricas para os falantes de outras línguas*.
- Rojo, R., 2000. Modos de Transposição dos PCNs às práticas de sala de aula: progressão curricular e projetos. *A Prática de Linguagem em Sala de Aula: praticando os PCNs*, pp.27–38.
- Ryen, A., 2001. Cross-culture interviewing. In: *Handbook of Interview Research*. [online] London: SAGE, pp.695–711. Available at: <<http://srmo.sagepub.com/view/handbook-of-interview-research/SAGE.xml>>.

Sandelowski, M., 1993. Rigor or rigor mortis: The problem of rigor in qualitative research revisited. *Advances in Nursing Science*, 16(2), pp.1–8.

Sandelowski, M., and Barroso, J., 2002. Reading Qualitative Studies. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, [online] 1(1), p.1. Available at: <<http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=aph&AN=10614544&site=ehost-live>>.

Santos, J.M.P. dos, 2014. *Proposta de Critérios para Elaboração de Unidades Temáticas e de Enunciados de Tarefas em Contexto de Ensino de PLE no CELIN-UFPR*.

Santos, L.G. dos, 2007. *Avaliação de desempenho para nivelamento de alunos de Português como Língua Estrangeira*. UFRGS.

Scaramucci, M.V.R., 1995. O projeto Celpe-Bras no âmbito do Mercosul: contribuições para uma definição de proficiência comunicativa. In: J.P.C. Almeida Filho, ed., *Português para Estrangeiros: interface com o espanhol*. Campinas: Pontes Editores, pp.77–90.

Scaramucci, M.V.R., 1997. Avaliação de rendimento no ensino-aprendizagem de português língua estrangeira. In: J.C.P. Almeida Filho, ed., *Parâmetros Atuais para o ensino de Português Língua Estrangeira*. Campinas: Pontes Editores, pp.75–88.

Scaramucci, M.V.R., 2000. Proficiência em LE: considerações terminológicas e conceituais. *Trabalhos em Linguística Aplicada*, 36(2), pp.11–22.

Scaramucci, M.V.R., 2004a. Efeito retroativo da avaliação no ensino/aprendizagem de línguas: o estado da arte. *Trabalhos em Linguística Aplicada*, 43(2), pp.203–226.

Scaramucci, M.V.R., 2004b. Efeito Retroativo da avaliação no ensino/aprendizagem de línguas: o estado da arte. *Trabalhos de Linguística Aplicada*, 43(2), pp.203–222.

Scaramucci, M.V.R., 2012. O Exame Celpe-Bras e a proficiência do professor de Português para falantes de outras línguas. *Digilenguas*, [online] 12(Junio), pp.48–67. Available at: <<http://digilenguas.fl.unc.edu.ar/sites/digilenguas.fl.unc.edu.ar/files/DigilenguasN12.pdf#page=100>>.

Schlatter, M., 1996. Inimiga ou aliada? O papel da cultura no ensino da língua estrangeira. *ANAIS do SIPLE*, III, pp.12–18.

Schlatter, M., Scaramucci, M.V.R., Prati, S., and Acuña, L., 2009. CELPE-Bras e CELU: Impactos da construção de parâmetros comuns de avaliação de proficiência em português e espanhol. In: *O português do Brasil como língua transnacional*. Campinas: RG Editora.

Schoffen, J.R., 2009a. *Gêneros do Discurso e Parâmetros de Avaliação de Proficiência em Português como Língua Estrangeira no Exame Celpe-Bras*. [online] Universidade do Rio Grande do Sul. Available at: <<http://www.lume.ufrgs.br/bitstream/handle/10183/16900/000707617.pdf?sequence=1>>.

Schoffen, J.R., 2009b. *Gêneros do Discurso e Parâmetros de Avaliação de Proficiência em Português como Língua Estrangeira no Exame Celpe-Bras*.

Scott, D., and Usher, R., 2011. *Researching Education: Data Methods and Theory in Educational Enquiry*. London: Continuum.

Shohamy, E., 2006. *Language policy: Hidden Agendas and New Approaches*. London: Routledge.

Shohamy, E., Donitsa-schmidt, S., and Ferman, I., 1996. Test impact revisited: washback effect over time. *Language Testing*, 13, pp.298–317.

Silverman, D., 2005. *Doing Qualitative Research - A Practical Handbook*. 2nd ed. London: SAGE.

Silverman, D., 2011. *Interpreting qualitative data: a guide to the principles of qualitative research*. 4th ed. London: SAGE.

Smith, J.A., 1995. Semi-Structured Interviewing and Qualitative Analysis. In: J.A. Smith and L. Van Langenhove, eds., *Rethinking Methods in Psychology*. London: SAGE, pp.10–27.

Soler-Carbonell, J., and Gallego-Balsà, L., 2016. The internationalisation of higher education in two different contexts: Catalan and Estonian sociolinguistic perspectives. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 29(1), pp.40–55.

Sonntag, S.K., 1995. Elite competition and official language movements. In: J. Tollefson, ed., *Power and Inequality in Language Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.91–111.

Spolsky, B., 2004. *Language Policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Starkey, H., 2007. Language Education, Identities and Citizenship: developing cosmopolitan perspectives. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 7(1), pp.56–71.

Starkey, H., and Osler, A., 2003. Learning for Cosmopolitan Citizenship: theoretical debates and young people's experiences. *Educational Review*, [online] 55(3), pp.243–254. Available at: <<http://eprints.ioe.ac.uk/4693/>>.

Strauss, A., and Corbin, J., 1997. *Grounded Theory in Practice*. London: SAGE.

Street, B. V., 1993. Culture is a Verb: Anthropological Aspects of Language and Cultural Process. In: D. Graddol, L. Thompson and M. Byram, eds., *Language and Culture*. Clevedon: British Association of Applied Linguistics, pp.23–43.

Temple, B., and Young, A., 2004. Qualitative Research and Translation Dilemmas. *Qualitative Research*, [online] 4(2), pp.161–178. Available at: <<http://qrj.sagepub.com/cgi/doi/10.1177/14687941040444430>> [Accessed 11 Sep. 2014].

Tierney, W.G., Dilley, P., Gubrium, E.J.F., and Holstein, J. a, 2014. Interviewing in education. In: *Handbook of Education Policy Research*. London: SAGE, pp.453–472.

Tollefson, J., 1993. Language policy and power: Yugoslavia, the Philippines, and Southeast Asian refugees in the United States. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 103(1), pp.73–95.

Tollefson, J., and Tsui, A., 2004. *Medium of instruction policies: which agenda? Whose agenda?* [online] London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Available at: <<http://ltr.sagepub.com/cgi/doi/10.1177/136216880500900108>>.

Tollefson, J.W., 1981. The Role of Language Planning in Second Language Acquisition. *Language Learning*, 31(2), pp.337–348.

Torrance, H., 2012. Triangulation, Respondent Validation, and Democratic Participation in Mixed Methods Research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, [online] 6(2), pp.111–123. Available at: <<http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/1558689812437185>>.

Wait, J.L. Van Der, 1990. Theory and practice in second language syllabus design. *Per Linguam*, 6(1), pp.71–80.

Walter, S.L., and Benson, C., 2012. Language policy and medium of instruction in

formal education. In: B. Spolsky, ed., *The Cambridge Handbook of Language Policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.278–300.

Ward, S., and Eden, C., 2009. *Key Issues in education policy*. London: SAGE.

Warren, C.A.B., 2001. Qualitative Interview. In: J.F. Gubrium and J.A. Holstein, eds., *Handbook of Interview Research Context & Method*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE, pp.83–101.

Weber, S., 1999. A Framework for Teaching and Learning ‘ Intercultural Competence ’. *Intercultural Experience and Education*, pp.196–212.

Whitty, G., 2006. Education(al) Research and Education Policy Making: is Conflict Inevitable? *British Educational Research Journal*, [online] 32(5), pp.159–176. Available at: <<http://www.jstor.org/stable/30032841>%5Cn<http://www.jstor.org/stable/pdfplus/30032841.pdf?acceptTC=true>>.

Widdowson, H.G., 1978. *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H.G., 1994. The Ownership of English. *TESOL QUARTERLY*, 28(2), pp.377–389.

Wilkins, D.A., 1976. *Notional Syllabus*. London: Oxford University Press.

Wilkinson, J., 2012. The intercultural speaker and the acquisition of intercultural/global competence. In: J. Jackson, ed., *The Routledge Handbook of Language and Intercultural Communication*. Abingdon: Routledge, pp.296–309.

Williams, R., 1958. *Culture and Society*. London: Chatto and Windus.

Wringe, C., 1996. The Role of Foreign Language Learning in Education for European Citizenship. *Evaluation & Research in Education*, 10(2), pp.68–78.

Yan, Q., 2008. *De práticas sociais a gêneros do discurso: uma proposta para o ensino de Português para falantes de outras línguas*. UFRGS.

Zoppi-Fontana, M.G., and Diniz, L.R.A., 2008. Declinando a língua pelas injunções do mercado: institucionalização do Português Língua Estrangeiro (PLE). *Estudos Linguísticos*, 37(3), pp.89–119.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Sample of the written element of the CELPE-BRAS examination



Você vai assistir duas vezes a um vídeo sobre o Programa Ciências sem Fronteiras, podendo fazer anotações enquanto assiste.

Como participante do Programa Ciências sem Fronteiras no ano passado, você foi convidado pelo Ministério da Educação a dar um depoimento para o site do Programa. Para incentivar a participação de outros colegas, relate sua experiência e apresente informações sobre o programa.

Task 1 Science without Borders

You will watch a video about the Science without Borders Programme twice. You may take notes while watching it.

Last year, as a participant in the Science without Borders Programme, you were invited by the Ministry of Education to write a testimonial for the programme's website page. In order to encourage your fellow students to participate in the programme, share some of your experiences and present some information regarding the programme.

Você vai ouvir duas vezes uma matéria sobre projetos tecnológicos inovadores podendo fazer anotações enquanto ouve.

Você atua na área de apoio a projetos inovadores de uma grande empresa e tem como função selecionar instituições que receberão financiamentos. Com base na notícia que ouviu, escreva um *email* para seu gerente a fim de indicar o Centro Federal de Educação Tecnológica Celso Sucove da Fonseca, Cefet-RJ. Para justificar sua indicação, descreva as características e o funcionamento dos protótipos (modelos) feitos pelos alunos, ressaltando a importância social do projeto Turin.

Task 2 Technocap

You will listen to a news report about innovative technological projects twice. You may take notes while listening to it.

You work for a company which supports innovative projects and your job is to select the institutions that will receive financial support. Based on the news report to which you have listen, write an e-mail to you manager to recommend the Federal Centre of Technological Education Celso Sucove da Fonseca, Cefet-RJ for the funding. In order to justify your recommendation, describe the features of the prototypes that have been built by the students and how they work, emphasising the social role of the Turin Project.

Você é gerente de recursos humanos e leu a reportagem “Meu escritório é em casa” sobre o modelo de *home office*. Escreva um texto ao seu diretor para convencê-lo de que a ideia poderia ser implementada em sua empresa. Em seu texto, explique essa modalidade de trabalho, as vantagens para o funcionário e para a empresa, assim como os aspectos legais envolvidos.

Task 3 My office is at home

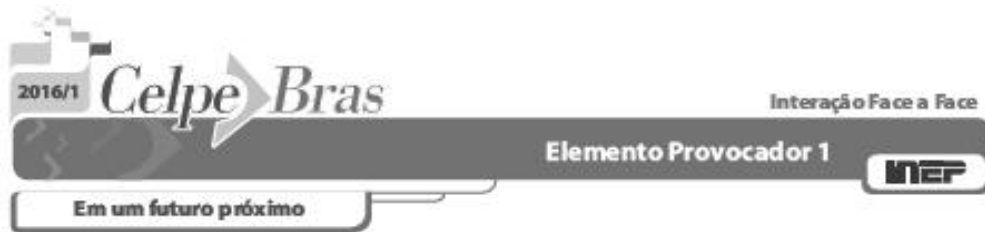
You are a HR manager and have just read the article “My office is at home”. Write a text to your director in order to convince him to implement such policy in your company. In your text, explain the different types of jobs; the advantages for the employee and for the company; and the legal aspects involved.

Você é um jornalista adepto a novas tecnologias e foi convidado a redigir um artigo de opinião para uma revista brasileira de circulação nacional em resposta ao texto “A era da solidão acompanhada”. Discuta os fatos apresentados na reportagem e posicione-se favoravelmente aos relacionamentos virtuais e ao uso da tecnologia no dia a dia das pessoas, negando a ideia de que há uma solidão acompanhada.

Task 4 The age of the accompanied loneliness

You are a journalist who advocates new technologies and have been invited to write an article to a Brazilian magazine in order to respond to the text “The age of the accompanied loneliness”. Discuss the facts which are presented in the text and dispute the existence of “accompanied loneliness” by making a case in favour of virtual relationships and the everyday use of technology.

Appendix 2 Sample of the provoking elements of the CELPE-BRAS examination



- 1 – Será possível recarregar o celular apenas uma vez por semana
- 2 – A bateria do celular poderá ser recarregada por meio de um fogão ou com as mãos
- 3 – Vídeos gravados com o celular poderão ser vistos com óculos de realidade virtual
- 4 – O celular funcionará como um estetoscópio
- 5 – O celular indicará o melhor caminho para cadeirantes

Provoking Element 1 In a near future

- 1 – it will be possible to recharge your mobile only once a week;
- 2 – it will be possible to recharge your mobile using a stove or your own hands;
- 3 – it will be possible to watch the videos you have recorded with your mobile on a pair of virtual reality glasses;
- 4 – it will be possible to use your mobile as a stethoscope;
- 5 – the mobile will show the best path for wheelchairs.



Provoking Element 3 Learn from your fears

Learn from your fears: Transforming this feeling in courage can help you live creatively, wisely and freely.



Provoking Element 11 The dark side of Facebook

It uses you as “lab rats” in experiments of which you are not aware. It spies on you. It makes us more unsympathetic and unhappy.

Appendix 3 Description of the levels of proficiency according to CELPE-BRAS

Levels of proficiency	Description
Intermediate	Certified to the examinees who can evidence partial operational command of Portuguese through the comprehension and production of written and oral texts about assorted subjects. Those texts can present linguistic inadequacies and interferences of their mother tongue and/or other foreign languages as long as the communication is not compromised.
Upper Intermediate	Certified to the examinees who fit the Intermediate criteria. However, linguistic inadequacies and interferences of their mother tongue and/or other foreign languages are less frequent in both oral and written texts.
Advanced	Certified to the examinees who evidence significant operational command of Portuguese through the comprehension and production of written and oral texts about assorted subjects. Those texts can present occasional linguistic inadequacies which are not sufficient to compromise the communication.
Upper Advanced	Certified to the examinees who fit the Advanced criteria. However, linguistic inadequacies are less frequent in both oral and written texts.

Appendix 4 Content of the recruiting email (PFL co-ordinators)

Dear _____,

My name is Michele Saraiva Carilo and I am currently a doctorate candidate at the University of Edinburgh. I intent to investigate the process of curriculum development for PFL courses within the PEC-G context. Since I had the opportunity to work with PEC-G students at UFRGS, I understand some of the challenges that this particular context can present in terms of policy and curriculum guidelines. Regardless, every year, at least 12 public universities in Brazil are supposed to offer PFL courses to dozens of PEC-G students before they can start their undergraduate studies. I would like to hear from you and your fellow PFL programme co-ordinators how you organise those PFL courses. If you agree to participate in this study, I will be meeting you in July for an interview. Ideally, all the 12 universities will be represented in this project, so the entire context can be investigated and analysed.

Please, do not hesitate to contact me with any enquires regarding the study before making your decision.

Kind regards,

Michele Saraiva Carilo

Appendix 5 Content of the recruiting email (PFL teachers)

Dear _____,

My name is Michele Saraiva Carilo and I am currently a doctorate candidate at the University of Edinburgh. In July, I interviewed your supervisor and PFL programme co-ordinator, _____, who suggested me to invite you to participate in my study about the process of curriculum development for PFL courses within the PEC-G context. Your participation will guarantee that the PFL teachers who work with PEC-G student can be heard and have their issues addressed in this thesis. Hence, I would like to invite you to be interviewed via Skype by the end of November.

Please, do not hesitate to contact me with any enquires regarding the study before making your decision.

Kind regards,

Michele Saraiva Carilo

Appendix 6 Information Sheet and Consent Forms

Information Sheet for Participants

Portuguese as a Foreign Language Education in Brazil: policy enactment and curricular development for PEC-G students

Thank you for expressing an interest in this research. This interview is being undertaken as a method of data collection for my Doctoral thesis. Please read the following information sheet carefully before deciding to participate in this research. If you choose to participate in this research, I thank you. If you decide not to participate, there will be no disadvantages to you of any kind and I thank you for considering my request.

What is the aim of this research?

This research investigates the processes of Language Education policy enactment and curricular development of PFL courses offered by twelve Brazilian Federal universities to PEC-G students in order fully to understand the impact and the implications that the lack of explicit language policy has had on PFL Education in Brazil.

What type of participants does this research require?

Teachers suggested by co-ordinators and co-ordination teams of PFL programmes from the seven Brazilian Federal Universities offering PFL courses for PEC-G students who have participated to the first stage of this research.

What will participants be asked to do?

In November, after agreeing a convenient date and time, the researcher will interview each participant individually. Interviews will be preferably conducted via Skype and in Portuguese.

After the process of data analysis, initial reports will be written and sent via e-mail to all participants so that the researcher's interpretations of participants' perspectives can be checked. Participants will have the opportunity to corroborate, add and/or correct any of the researcher's interpretations.

Can participants change their mind and withdraw from the research?

Participants may withdraw from participation in this research at any time and without any disadvantage. If the decision to withdraw from participation is made following the interview, data collected will be destroyed and any outcomes resulting from analysis will be ignored.

How will the data be used?

Any data collected during this research will be used for the development of the Doctoral thesis, academic publications in general, and conference presentations.

Who will access raw data?

Raw data will be accessed by the researcher. To check emerging analyses it may be shared with supervisors, but participants' names will be altered and pseudonyms will be given.

How will the data be stored?

Audio files and digitalised documentary data will be stored in a digital platform for five years (time requested by CAPES). After this period, data will be erased. Data will be stored securely at the University of Edinburgh and only the researcher will have access.

How will participants' personal information be protected?

Participants' names or university will not be revealed. In order to avoid identification, geographic location of sites will also be omitted.

What if participants have any questions?

If you have any questions about this research and/or your participation in this study, please contact:

Michele Saraiva Carilo

PhD student at the Moray House School of Education

Old Moray House, Holyrood Road,

Edinburgh EH8 8AQ

University of Edinburgh

E-mail: M.S.Carilo@sms.ed.ac.uk

Phone: +44 07913360568

Consent Form

Portuguese as a Foreign Language Education in Brazil: policy enactment and curricular development for PEC-G students

I, _____,
(PRINT NAME) hereby give my consent to participate in an interview related to the above named research.

By signing this consent form, I confirm that:

- the purpose of this interview has been explained to me;
- I am satisfied that I understand the procedures involved;
- any questions which I have asked about this interview have been answered to my satisfaction;
- I understand that I have the right to ask further questions about it at any time;
- the information which I have supplied to the University of Edinburgh and CAPES prior to participating in this interview is true and accurate to the best of my knowledge and belief and I understand that I must notify the researcher promptly of any changes to the information;
- I understand that my personal information will not be released to any third parties without my permission, since anonymity will be guaranteed through the use of pseudonymous;
- I understand that my participation in this interview is voluntary and I am therefore free to withdraw my involvement at any time;
- I understand that, if there is any concern about the appropriateness of my continuing in this research, I may be asked by my university to withdraw my involvement at any time;
- I understand that once the interview has been complete, the information gathered as a result of it will be used for the researcher's Doctoral thesis and other academic purposes such as academic publications and conference presentations.

SIGNATURE: _____

DATE: _____

Appendix 7 Interview Guides

PFL CO-ORDINATORS

Lattes-related Questions	
Undergraduate Studies	I have read in your Lattes that you have been interested in...since your undergraduate studies. You wrote your final paper on...,could you talk a little about this experience?
Post-graduation	Your dissertation brings a very interesting perspective towards... To what extent did your dissertation influence your current research?
Post-graduation	Your thesis deals with... Could you tell me a little about your main findings and further research?

Topic-related Questions	
Policies and Guidelines	<p>GENERAL QUESTION: Could you talk about the main goals of your current research?</p> <p>FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS:</p> <p>(a) How would you compare this project to the implementation of the PFL Programme here?</p> <p>(b) Who were the main agents for the development of the PFL programme here?</p> <p>(c) How was the initial process of developing the courses for the programme?</p> <p>(d) How many PFL courses are currently offered by the university to foreign students?</p> <p>(e) Which policies and guidelines were consulted for curriculum development?</p> <p>(f) How would you say the PFL courses' curricula reflect such policies and guidelines?</p>
Processes of curricular development	<p>GENERAL QUESTION: What are the processes of curricular development?</p> <p>FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS:</p> <p>(a) Who participates in the decision-making process?</p> <p>(b) What are the main features that have been incorporated by the curriculum since the beginning?</p> <p>(c) Focusing on the curriculum for the PFL course for PEC-G students, what are the specificities of such a course?</p> <p>(d) Why would you say such specificities are important?</p> <p>(e) What role would you say CELPE-BRAS plays in the curriculum for PFL courses within the context of PEC-G?</p>
Pedagogical approaches / materials	<p>GENERAL QUESTION: What would you say is the main course within the UG, PG and/or extension programmes that help the PFL teachers with their practice?</p> <p>FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS:</p> <p>(a) Who usually attends these courses?</p> <p>(b) How much experience regarding PFL education must the students have in order to engage with the discussions proposed during these courses?</p> <p>(c) Were the students requested to produce pedagogical materials? If so, were they requested to teach a lesson using such materials?</p> <p>(d) In your opinion, to what extent do the PFL teachers/tutors apply in their practice what they have learned during those courses?</p>
Teacher selection / development / training processes	<p>GENERAL QUESTION: Could you tell me a little about the selection process for the PFL teachers?</p> <p>FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS:</p> <p>(a) Talking specifically about PEC-G students' tutors/teachers, what are the prerequisites for this job?</p> <p>(b) What kind of training do they go through before teaching?</p> <p>(c) To what extent do the PMT and/or FL UG/PG courses prepare the PFL teachers?</p>
Institutional support	<p>GENERAL QUESTION: More than a professor/lecturer/teaching fellow, you are also a PFL programme coordinator. Could you tell me what such position demands from you?</p> <p>FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS:</p> <p>(a) What kind of support does the programme receive from the Languages Department?</p> <p>(b) What kind of support does the university offer to the PFL programme?</p> <p>(c) What kind of support do the Federal Government offer for the programme other than the expected for holding a CELPE-BRAS application centre?</p> <p>(d) What kind of involvement, if any, do state and local governments have in the programme?</p>

PFL TEACHERS

TOPICS	QUESTIONS
Background	<p>MAIN QUESTION Could you please tell me a little bit about your academic journey from your undergraduate studies until now?</p> <p>FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS (if UG final paper and/or Dissertation did not deal with PFL): Why did you choose to research this topic specifically? Have you had any experience teaching other languages? (If so, which one(s)? In which context(s)?) What motivated you to become a PFL teacher?</p>
Teacher education (within the university)	<p>MAIN QUESTION What were the main courses to which you attended during your UG and/or PG studies that you would say helped your development as a teacher? (Why?)</p> <p>FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS What subjects should the university provide in order to help the development of those studying to become teachers? Did you have any subject related to PFL during your UG and/or PG studies? (If so, which ones? Were they helpful? How so) (If not, do you think there should be any? Why(not)?)</p>
Practice and involvement with the programme	<p>MAIN QUESTIONS Talking specifically about your experience as a PFL teacher here, which courses have you taught? How would you say the courses you have mentioned are different from that for PEC-G students?</p> <p>FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS Focusing on your job as a PFL teacher within the context of PEC-G, could you tell me a little bit about the classes you teach? How do you and the other teachers organise those classes? How are the decisions regarding the curriculum for this course made? (If not mentioned, who participates? Who makes the final decisions? How are such decisions reinforced?) What about its syllabus?</p>
Pedagogical Material	<p>MAIN QUESTION What kind of pedagogical material is used with the PEC-G students?</p> <p>FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS How does the process of developing pedagogical materials for this course work? (Whose decisions are taken into account? Who participates in the discussions? Who applies them?) What is the content of these materials? (Is it grammar-related? Is it task-based? How diverse is it?) Which sort of topics/themes does this material cover? How do the students work with it?) How would you say that these pedagogical materials reflect the pedagogical goals set out for the curriculum and syllabus for the PEC-G course?</p>
Teacher education and/or Research (within the programme)	<p>MAIN QUESTION What kind of opportunities do the PFL programme provide in terms of teacher education and/or training for you as a PFL teacher? (How do/does they/it work?) What kind of opportunities do the PFL programme provide in terms of research development for you as a PFL researcher?</p> <p>FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS To what extent do such opportunities help you to develop your teaching skills? What about your researching skills? After you finish you UG studies/Master's degree/PhD, do you intend to continue working with and/or researching PFL? Why(not)?</p>

Appendix 8 Summary of the Interview Guides (PFL co-ordinators)

INTERVIEW GUIDE	
Participant	...
Date/Time	...
Local	...
Lattes-related questions	
Main topics	
Language policy and language-in-education policy (general and specific regarding PFL)	
Guidelines for curriculum development (general, PFL and PFL for PEC-G students)	
Pre-service and in-service teacher education/development/training (within the UG/PG/PFL programmes) and selection criteria	
Pedagogies and pedagogical materials (development and/or selection and application)	
Institutional support towards the PFL programme and/or the PEC-G context	
Contact	M.S.carilo@sms.ed.ac.uk

Appendix 9 Sample of Interaction Guide for the oral element of the CELPE-BRAS examination

2016/1 **Celpe** *Bras* Roteiro de Interação Face a Face

Elemento Provocador 1 **INEP**

Em um futuro próximo

O material apresentado ao examinando serve como Elemento Provocador de uma Interação Face a Face entre você, Avaliador Interlocutor, e o examinando. O objetivo da tarefa é avaliar a compreensão e a produção oral. Não há apenas uma resposta correta.

Etapa Diga ao examinando:

1 **Por favor, observe a imagem e leia o texto silenciosamente.**
(O examinando faz isso silenciosamente)

Etapa Após aproximadamente um minuto, pergunte ao examinando:

2 **O que você acha disso?**

Etapa Para dar ao examinando a oportunidade de prosseguir com sua produção oral, siga o Roteiro abaixo e faça as adequações necessárias em função das respostas do examinando.

3

1. Qual das cinco inovações você acha mais interessante? Por quê?
2. Para você, qual das cinco inovações é a menos importante? Por quê?
3. Como você imagina que um celular poderia ser carregado por meio de um fogão?
4. O texto menciona um futuro próximo. Quão próximo você imagina que seja esse futuro?
5. Em sua opinião, quais são as funções que não podem faltar em um celular?
6. Que funções existem em seu celular, mas você nunca usa?
7. Você troca sempre de celular? Comente.
8. E no seu país, as pessoas trocam muito de celular? Como se relacionam com a tecnologia?

Script for face-to-face interaction

In a near future – Provoking Element 1

The material which is presented to the examinee is a provoking element for a face-to-face interaction between you, the interlocutor-assessor, and the examinee. This task aims to assess the examinee's oral comprehension and production. There is not a single correct answer.

Stage 1: tell the examinee

Please observe the picture and read quietly the text.

(The examinee follows the instructions).

Stage 2: approximately a minute after the instructions have been given, ask the examinee the following question:

What do you think about that?

Stage 3: in order to provide the examinee with opportunities to develop his/her oral production, follow the script below and adjust it, if necessary, according to the examinee's answers:

1. Which one of the five innovations that are mentioned you believe to be the most interesting? Why?
2. Which innovation is the least important, in your opinion? Why?
3. How could a mobile be recharged by a stove?
4. The text mentioned "near future". How near do you think this future is?
5. In your opinion, which functions a mobile must have?
6. Which functions does your mobile have that you never use?
7. Do you frequently switch headsets? Elaborate.
8. In your country, do people frequently switch headsets? How do people in your country deal with technology?

Aprenda com seus medos

O material apresentado ao examinando serve como Elemento Provocador de uma Interação Face a Face entre você, Avaliador Interlocutor, e o examinando. O objetivo da tarefa é avaliar a compreensão e a produção oral. Não há apenas uma resposta correta.

Etapa Diga ao examinando:

1

Por favor, observe a imagem e leia o texto silenciosamente.
(O examinando faz isso silenciosamente)

Etapa

Após aproximadamente um minuto, pergunte ao examinando:

2

Que relação você estabelece entre o texto escrito e a imagem?

Etapa

Para dar ao examinando a oportunidade de prosseguir com sua produção oral, siga o Roteiro abaixo e faça as adequações necessárias em função das respostas do examinando.

3

1. Você concorda que é possível aprender com os próprios medos? Por quê?
2. Em sua opinião, transformar o medo em coragem pode ajudar as pessoas a viver com mais criatividade, sabedoria e liberdade? Por quê?
3. Você acredita que o medo tenha alguma função em nossas vidas? Fale sobre isso.
4. Para você, como o medo pode prejudicar a vida de uma pessoa?
5. Que estratégias uma pessoa pode usar para tentar superar seus medos?
6. Você se considera uma pessoa medrosa? Fale sobre isso.
7. Os medos de pessoas de gerações diferentes são os mesmos? Comente.
8. Você acha que há relação entre a cultura de um povo e os medos que as pessoas sentem? Explique.

Script for face-to-face interaction

Learn from your fears – Provoking Element 3

The material which is presented to the examinee is a provoking element for a face-to-face interaction between you, the interlocutor-assessor, and the examinee. This task aims to assess the examinee's oral comprehension and production. There is not a single correct answer.

Stage 1: tell the examinee

Please observe the picture and read quietly the text.

(The examinee follows the instructions).

Stage 2: approximately a minute after the instructions have been given, ask the examinee the following question:

What is the relationship between the image and the written text?

Stage 3: in order to provide the examinee with opportunities to develop his/her oral production, follow the script below and adjust it, if necessary, according to the examinee's answers:

1. Do you agree that it is possible to learn from one's fears? Why?
2. In your opinion, transforming one's fear into courage can help people to live creatively, wisely and freely? Why?
3. Do you believe fear contributes to our lives? Talk about that.
4. For you, how can fear harm someone's life?
5. Which strategies can a person have to overcome his/her fears?
6. Do you consider yourself a scared person? Talk about that.
7. Do people from different generations have the same fears? Elaborate.
8. Do you believe there is a relationship between a people's culture and the fears that people feel? Explain.

O lado negro do Facebook

O material apresentado ao examinando serve como Elemento Provocador de uma Interação Face a Face entre você, Avaliador Interlocutor, e o examinando. O objetivo da tarefa é avaliar a compreensão e a produção oral. Não há apenas uma resposta correta.

Etapa Diga ao examinando:

1

Por favor, observe a imagem e leia o texto silenciosamente.
(O examinando faz isso silenciosamente)

Etapa

Após aproximadamente um minuto, pergunte ao examinando:

2

O que você entende pela expressão “lado negro”?

Etapa

Para dar ao examinando a oportunidade de prosseguir com sua produção oral, siga o Roteiro abaixo e faça as adequações necessárias em função das respostas do examinando.

3

1. Você concorda que o Facebook tem um lado negro? Comente.
2. O que você acha da imagem?
3. É possível o Facebook vigiar “cada movimento” de uma pessoa? Como?
4. Você concorda que o Facebook “nos deixa mais intolerantes e infelizes”? Comente.
5. Pesquisas indicam uma relação entre o uso do Facebook e ocorrências de depressão entre os jovens. Em sua opinião, por que isso acontece?
6. Na sua opinião, quem são os maiores usuários do Facebook: crianças, jovens ou idosos? Por quê?
7. Você acha que o Facebook tem um lado positivo? Qual?
8. Os brasileiros adoram o Facebook. Você tem uma explicação para isso? Em seu país, é comum as pessoas usarem redes sociais? Fale sobre isso.

Script for face-to-face interaction

The dark side of Facebook – Provoking Element 11

The material which is presented to the examinee is a provoking element for a face-to-face interaction between you, the interlocutor-assessor, and the examinee. This task aims to assess the examinee's oral comprehension and production. There is not a single correct answer.

Stage 1: tell the examinee

Please observe the picture and read quietly the text.

(The examinee follows the instructions).

Stage 2: approximately a minute after the instructions have been given, ask the examinee the following question:

What do you believe "dark side" means?

Stage 3: in order to provide the examinee with opportunities to develop his/her oral production, follow the script below and adjust it, if necessary, according to the examinee's answers:

1. Do you agree that Facebook has a "dark side"? Elaborate.
2. What do you think about the picture?
3. Do you believe Facebook spies on people? How?
4. Do you agree that Facebook "makes us more unsympathetic and unhappy"? Elaborate.
5. Some research reveals that there is a relationship between Facebook and depression amongst the youth. In your opinion, why does that happen?
6. In your opinion, who represents the majority of Facebook's demography: children, teenagers or the elderly? Why?
7. Do you think Facebook has a positive side? Why?
8. Brazilian people love Facebook. Can you explain why? In your country, do people usually enjoy social media? Talk about that.