

Introducing a New Theory for Reimagining English Language Pedagogy: Immersive Multimodal Interaction Model (IMIM)

Oyibo Nelson Enefola¹, Ameh Timothy Ojochegbe^{2*}, Akanya Joseph³, Adiyono Adiyono⁴, Ogbuji Anthony⁵

Prince Abubakar Audu University, Nigeria^{1,2,3,5}

Tarbiyah Ibnu Rusyd Tanah Grogot, Indonesia⁴

Corresponding Author: timothyameh.edu@gmail.com

Article received on 10-08-2026 — Final revised on 01-09-2026 — Approved on 29-10-2026

Abstract: Despite the widespread use of English as a medium of instruction, a persistent gap remains between learners' exposure to English and their communicative proficiency. Teacher-centred, monomodal, and decontextualized instruction contributes to this challenge, particularly in multilingual African classrooms. This paper proposes the Immersive Multimodal Interaction Model (IMIM) as an integrated, context-responsive framework for English language pedagogy, bringing together immersion, interaction, and multimodality. The study employs a conceptual and theoretical research design. It critically integrates literature on second language acquisition, sociocultural learning theory, communicative language teaching, multimodal pedagogy, and translanguaging. No primary empirical data were collected. The conceptual synthesis produces a three-component pedagogical framework operationalized through a flexible five-stage instructional cycle: immersive exposure, guided interaction, participatory engagement, creative production, and reflective feedback. The proposed model incorporates learners' existing linguistic repertoires and locally available resources, including narratives, gestures, and visual materials, to support contextualized learning activities. IMIM offers a theoretically grounded approach to inclusive and culturally responsive English language teaching in multilingual and resource-constrained settings. Its implications concern instructional design, curriculum flexibility, and formative assessment emphasizing meaningful communication. However, its effectiveness in improving language proficiency remains a proposition requiring empirical validation through classroom-based research.

Keywords multimodal learning; english language pedagogy; multilingual classrooms; Africa; interaction; immersion; constructivism

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/4.0/>



INTRODUCTION

English language education occupies a critical and multifaceted position in multilingual societies, functioning simultaneously as a lingua franca, an official language of governance, and the primary medium of instruction across virtually all levels of formal education (Bamgbose, 2011; Smit, 2023). In African countries like Nigeria, Kenya, South Africa, and Ghana, English is not merely a subject in the school curriculum but a symbolic and functional gateway to academic achievement, professional advancement, socioeconomic mobility, and meaningful participation in an increasingly globalized world (Makoni & Pennycook, 2020; Ojochegbe, 2024).

The acquisition of English proficiency is widely regarded by learners, families, and policymakers alike as an indispensable prerequisite for upward social mobility and access to higher education, a reality that reflects decades of colonial language policy now deeply embedded in educational systems across the continent (Milligan, 2022; Olatoye, 2022). There is an undeniable centrality of English in postcolonial societies (Crawford & Hares, 2021), yet, despite decades of sustained formal instruction at both primary and secondary levels, a significant proportion of learners continue to demonstrate markedly limited communicative competence, particularly in spoken, functional, and spontaneous uses of the language (Li Wei & García, 2022; López-Gopar & Sughrua, 2023).

This glaring disconnect between extended exposure to English instruction and the actual development of productive language proficiency remains one of the most persistent, complex, and troubling challenges confronting English language education across the African continent (Milligan, 2022; Ouane & Glanz, 2010). Learners routinely complete several years of formal English language instruction and yet remain unable to communicate effectively or confidently in everyday academic and social contexts (Brevik & Holm, 2023; Cummins, 2021). This paradox demands rigorous scholarly attention and calls urgently for the development of theoretically grounded, contextually responsive pedagogical alternatives that are genuinely capable of bridging the gap between institutional instruction and authentic communicative practice (García & Lin, 2022; Phyak et al., 2022).

This persistent proficiency gap has been attributed to a constellation of deeply interrelated structural, institutional, and pedagogical factors (Alidou et al., 2006). These include severely overcrowded classrooms that make individualized instruction virtually impossible (Sakata et al., 2022), critically limited instructional materials and technological resources (Moorhouse, 2023), inadequate and inconsistent pre-service and in-service teacher training, systemic underfunding of public education, and, most significantly, the continued and largely uncritical reliance on traditional pedagogical approaches that are fundamentally misaligned with how language is acquired and used (López-Gopar & Sughrua, 2023; Milligan, 2022).

These conventional instructional approaches are typically characterized by heavy reliance on rote memorization of grammatical rules, grammar-translation exercises disconnected from authentic communicative use (Ruivivar, 2022), rigid teacher dominance of classroom discourse, and minimal opportunities for genuine learner interaction, negotiation of meaning, or creative language production (Nunan, 2020; Ojochegbe, 2024). As a consequence, such methods profoundly fail to reflect the fundamentally dynamic, deeply social, and inherently meaning-driven nature of real language acquisition (Lantolf et al., 2015; Long, 2015).

The theoretical inadequacy of these traditional approaches becomes even more apparent when considered against the backdrop of contemporary research in second language acquisition

-SLA (Ellis, 2003), which has consistently demonstrated that language learning is most effective when it is embedded in authentic communicative contexts, driven by purposeful interaction, and informed by learners' existing linguistic and cultural knowledge (Brevik & Holm, 2023; Swain, 2005). The Input Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, and sociocultural theories of learning all converge on the fundamental principle that meaningful, contextualized engagement with language is far more conducive to proficiency development than decontextualized, form-focused instruction (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

Despite the weight of this evidence, traditional transmission-based models of instruction continue to dominate African classroom practice, largely perpetuated by entrenched examination systems, colonial educational legacies, and institutional inertia. Furthermore, African classrooms are inherently and richly multilingual environments, characterized by learners who navigate multiple linguistic systems, and identity positions simultaneously in their daily lives (Canagarajah, 2013; García & Li Wei, 2014). The linguistic landscape of a typical Nigerian, Kenyan, or Ghanaian classroom may involve learners drawing on multiple indigenous languages, regional dialects, pidgins or creoles, and varying levels of English competence within a single instructional space (Bamgbose, 2011; Olatoye, 2022; Probyn, 2015).

Rather than recognizing and strategically leveraging this rich multilingual repertoire as a profound cognitive and communicative resource, traditional pedagogical approaches have historically sought to suppress, marginalize, or entirely eliminate learners' first languages from the classroom environment (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). This systematic suppression of the mother tongue not only contravenes well-established principles of additive bilingualism and cognitive transfer (García & Li Wei, 2014), but also produces demonstrably negative consequences for learners, including disengagement from classroom participation, reduced motivation, diminished self-efficacy, and ultimately superficial and fragile learning outcomes (Omidire & Ayob, 2022).

The cumulative weight of these challenges has generated a growing and increasingly urgent consensus within contemporary scholarship in applied linguistics, language education, and educational linguistics that fundamentally new approaches to English language teaching in African contexts are not merely desirable but critically necessary (Alidou et al., 2006; Ojochegebe, 2024; van Pinxteren, 2022). In response to these persistent limitations, contemporary scholarship has increasingly foregrounded the central importance of interaction (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), learner agency, collaborative knowledge construction (Bezemer & Kress, 2016), and multimodal meaning-making as indispensable components of effective language pedagogy (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009). Nevertheless, the implementation of these frameworks in African educational contexts has remained persistently fragmented, (Coyle et al., 2010; Long, 2015).

Prior scholarship provides complementary but distinct foundations for this proposal. Probyn (2015) examines pedagogical translanguaging in South African science classrooms, highlighting the instructional value of moving between linguistic resources. Creese and Blackledge (2010) conceptualize translanguaging as a bilingual classroom pedagogy. These contributions inform IMIM but do not, individually, articulate the specific three-pillar configuration and five-stage instructional cycle proposed here. Unlike a claim that earlier approaches lack interaction or multilingual support, the present contribution lies in their explicit integration into one adaptable instructional sequence.

Accordingly, this paper aims to develop and explain the conceptual structure of IMIM, specify how immersion, interaction, and multimodality work together, and outline a flexible instructional cycle for multilingual classrooms. Its theoretical contribution is an integrated organizing framework rather than a claim of demonstrated superiority over content and language integrated learning, task-based language teaching, or existing translanguaging approaches. Its practical implications concern teacher preparation, context-responsive curriculum planning, and formative assessment. Empirical investigation is needed to establish its feasibility and effectiveness.

This paper proposes the Immersive Multimodal Interaction Model (IMIM) as a framework that deliberately and systematically integrates the most productive insights from communicative language teaching, sociocultural theory, multimodal literacy, and translanguaging pedagogy into a coherent, flexible, and context-responsive instructional model (García & Li Wei, 2014; Kress, 2010). IMIM is specifically designed to align with the complex sociolinguistic realities of multilingual settings while simultaneously remaining practically adaptable to the resource limitations and institutional constraints that characterize many educational settings across the continent of Africa (Canagarajah, 2011; Heugh, 2011; Trudell, 2007).

The framework is built upon the foundational conviction that African learners' multilingual identities, cultural knowledge systems, and diverse communicative repertoires are not obstacles to English language acquisition but are, on the contrary, rich and generative resources that effective pedagogy must actively acknowledge, incorporate, and build upon (Cummins, 2007; García, 2009; Makoni & Pennycook, 2007).

RESEARCH METHOD

This study adopted a conceptual and theoretical research design aimed at developing a new pedagogical framework for English language teaching, namely the Immersive Multimodal Interaction Model (IMIM). Rather than collecting primary empirical data, the study synthesized contemporary literature in second language acquisition, sociocultural learning theory, communicative language teaching, multimodal pedagogy, and translanguaging to identify persistent gaps in existing English language instructional approaches. The analysis is best characterized as a conceptual synthesis of the literature discussed in the manuscript, rather than a systematic review or a primary-data study.

The discussion organizes the selected theoretical contributions around recurring pedagogical concerns: access to comprehensible input, meaningful interaction, multimodal meaning-making, and multilingual classroom participation. These themes are then mapped to the three IMIM components and translated into the five instructional stages described in the results. No documented database search protocol, screening log, inclusion criteria, or standardized coding instrument is available in the manuscript; therefore, claims of systematic retrieval, reproducible screening, or comprehensive coverage cannot be made. The resulting framework should be interpreted as a theoretically reasoned proposal requiring subsequent validation.

The development of the IMIM framework followed a systematic process of theoretical integration. Foundational concepts from established language learning theories were critically examined and synthesized to construct a unified instructional model comprising three interdependent components: immersion, interaction, and multimodality. These components were subsequently operationalized into a five-stage instructional cycle consisting of immersive

exposure, guided interaction, participatory engagement, creative production, and reflective feedback.

Because the study is conceptual, the results reported below consist of synthesized theoretical propositions and the proposed IMIM framework, not observations from classroom participants or measured intervention effects. Discussion of earlier studies is used to establish conceptual plausibility and contextual relevance, rather than to demonstrate the effectiveness of IMIM. To establish the relevance and applicability of the proposed model, the framework was evaluated against the sociolinguistic and educational realities of multilingual African classrooms, particularly issues relating to teacher-centred instruction, limited instructional resources, examination-driven pedagogy, and learners' multilingual repertoires. The study therefore contributes a theoretically grounded, context-responsive pedagogical model that provides a basis for future empirical validation through classroom implementation and experimental research.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

English Language Teaching in Africa: Persistent Challenges

English language teaching across Sub-Saharan Africa has long been characterised by a paradox in which extensive exposure to the language does not necessarily translate into high levels of communicative competence among learners (Mthembu, 2023; van Pinxteren, 2022). Despite the centrality of English as a medium of instruction and a gateway to socio-economic mobility, empirical evidence consistently reveals that many learners complete several years of formal schooling without achieving functional proficiency in the language (Crawford & Hares, 2021; Erling et al., 2023).

In Nigeria, for instance, studies have demonstrated that secondary school graduates frequently struggle with basic communicative tasks such as spontaneous conversation, listening comprehension, and pragmatic language use, a situation that reflects deep structural and pedagogical failures in English language education (Olatoye, 2022). Comparable findings have been reported in countries such as Kenya, Tanzania, and South Africa, where English occupies a dominant institutional role but remains unevenly mastered by learners (Chamberlain et al., 2022; Piper & Dubeck, 2024). One of the most widely cited explanations for this persistent underachievement is the dominance of examination-oriented instructional practices, which prioritize success in standardized tests over the development of communicative competence (Ali & Hamid, 2023; Ojochegbe, 2024).

In many educational systems, assessment frameworks focus heavily on written accuracy, grammatical correctness, and rote memorization, thereby shaping classroom practices in ways that marginalize authentic language use (Dawadi, 2021; deBoer et al., 2023). As a result, teachers often emphasize discrete linguistic forms and decontextualized exercises rather than meaningful interaction, reinforcing a narrow conception of language proficiency (Brevik & Holm, 2023). This phenomenon, commonly referred to as washback, illustrates how high-stakes examinations can exert a powerful influence on pedagogy, often to the detriment of communicative learning outcomes (Ali & Hamid, 2023; Dawadi, 2021).

Closely related to this issue is the prevalence of teacher-centred instructional models, which continue to dominate many classrooms across the continent (Chamberlain et al., 2022; Piper & Dubeck, 2024). In such settings, Sakata et al. (2022) see it that the teacher is positioned as the primary source of knowledge. Learners on the other hand assume largely passive roles, with

limited opportunities for participation, negotiation of meaning, or collaborative learning (Buluma et al., 2023).

This pedagogical orientation constrains the development of interactive skills and reduces exposure to authentic language use, both of which are essential for second language acquisition. Furthermore, large class sizes, limited instructional resources, and systemic constraints often exacerbate these challenges, making it difficult for teachers to implement more learner-centred approaches (Erling et al., 2023; Piper & Dubeck, 2024). According to Shrestha et al. (2023), another critical factor is the issue of teacher preparedness and professional development. Research indicates that many English language teachers in African contexts have limited training in communicative language teaching methodologies and may themselves lack high levels of proficiency in English (Mthembu, 2023).

This situation often leads to the reproduction of traditional, form-focused teaching practices that prioritise accuracy over fluency and discourage experimentation with innovative pedagogies (Brevik & Holm, 2023; Buluma et al., 2023). Additionally, contextual constraints such as curriculum rigidity and institutional expectations further limit teachers' ability to adopt alternative approaches (Atuhura & Nambi, 2024). These challenges highlight the need for pedagogical frameworks that move beyond traditional, examination-driven models and prioritize meaningful communication, learner engagement, and contextual relevance (Ojochegebe, 2024). It is within this broader landscape that innovative approaches such as the Immersive Multimodal Interaction Method (IMIM) are being propounded.

Multilingualism and Translanguaging

Recent scholarship has increasingly emphasized that African classrooms are inherently multilingual spaces in which learners routinely navigate multiple linguistic systems, including indigenous languages, regional lingua francas, and global languages such as English (Li Wei, 2022; Probyn, 2019). Scholars such as Fang et al. (2022) further argue that this multilingual reality is not incidental but constitutive of everyday meaning-making practices in education, shaping how learners access, process, and express knowledge, this aligns with the findings of (Adesope et al., 2010). This linguistic diversity reflects broader sociocultural and epistemic realities and constitutes a central dimension of learners' identities, communicative repertoires, and cognitive development (Busch, 2017; Li Wei, 2018).

In this sense, multilingualism is not merely a background condition of African classrooms but an active resource through which learners engage with academic content and construct understanding (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022). However, despite this well-documented linguistic richness, language education policies and classroom practices across many African contexts have historically positioned multilingualism as a challenge to be controlled rather than a resource to be leveraged (Daffri & Taibi, 2023; Li Wei, 2022). Cummins (2021) asserts, such deficit-oriented perspectives often stem from monolingual ideologies that privilege English as the sole legitimate medium of instruction while devaluing learners' existing linguistic resources.

This has led to the systematic marginalization of learners' first languages within formal education, where their use is frequently discouraged or even penalized (Copland et al., 2023; Probyn, 2019). However, recent studies challenges these assumptions by demonstrating that excluding learners' home languages from the classroom can hinder comprehension, reduce participation, and limit cognitive engagement (Li Wei, 2022; Makalela, 2021). In contrast, studies grounded in translanguaging theory show that when learners are allowed to draw on their full

linguistic repertoires, they are better able to access complex concepts, negotiate meaning, and participate more actively in classroom discourse (Liu & Fang, 2022; Tai & Li Wei, 2021).

This shift in perspective reframes multilingualism not as an obstacle to learning but as a powerful pedagogical resource that can enhance both linguistic and academic outcomes (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022; Makalela, 2021). Consequently, there is a growing consensus among contemporary scholars that effective language pedagogy in African contexts must move beyond monolingual norms and embrace multilingual practices as central to teaching and learning (Li Wei, 2022; Phyak et al., 2022). By recognizing and integrating learners' diverse linguistic resources, educators can create more inclusive, equitable, and cognitively engaging learning environments that reflect the realities of multilingual societies (Cummins, 2021; Li Wei & García, 2022).

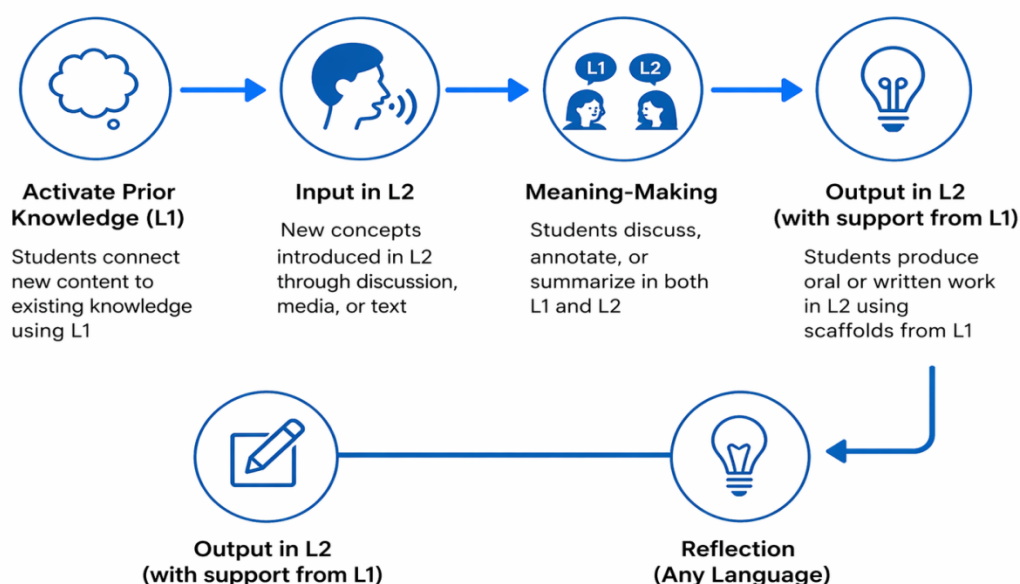


Figure 1. Translanguaging Flow during a lesson

In recent years, the concept of translanguaging has emerged as a powerful alternative framework for understanding and leveraging multilingual practices in educational settings (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Li Wei & García, 2022). Translanguaging refers to the dynamic process by which multilingual speakers draw on their full linguistic repertoire to make meaning, communicate effectively, and engage in learning (Canagarajah, 2011; Li Wei, 2018). Rather than viewing languages as separate, bounded systems, this perspective recognizes the fluid and integrated nature of linguistic resources in real-world communication (García, 2009; Otheguy et al., 2015).

Studies show that translanguaging can enhance comprehension, facilitate cognitive processing, and support deeper engagement with academic content (Cummins, 2007; Omidire & Ayob, 2022). By allowing learners to access prior knowledge and express complex ideas in ways that transcend rigid linguistic boundaries, translanguaging fosters both linguistic and cognitive development (García & Kleyn, 2016; Hornberger & Link, 2012). Moreover, it plays a crucial role in affirming learners' identities and promoting inclusive educational practices, particularly in

contexts where linguistic hierarchies have historically marginalized certain language groups (Brooks, 2022; May, 2014).

In African contexts, where multilingualism is the norm rather than the exception, translanguaging offers a particularly relevant and context-sensitive pedagogical approach (Chamberlain et al., 2022; Probyn, 2015). It aligns with indigenous communicative practices and acknowledges the realities of language use both inside and outside the classroom (Alidou et al., 2006; Meighan, 2023). Yang and Brindley (2023) assert that interaction is a supportive condition for learning which includes a constitutive process through which language development is actively constructed in real time. From this perspective, the interaction hypothesis has evolved beyond its earlier formulations to emphasize the dynamic interplay between input, output, and feedback within socially situated communicative events (Long, 2015).

Within this framework, language learning is facilitated when learners engage in meaningful communication, negotiate meaning, and receive responsive feedback that draws their attention to linguistic form (Loewen & Sato, 2018; Yang & Brindley, 2023). These interactional processes enable learners to notice gaps in their interlanguage, test hypotheses about language use, and refine their communicative strategies over time (Gass et al., 2020; Goo & Mackey, 2013). In line with this, recent studies have demonstrated that interaction-rich environments significantly enhance learners' ability to process input and produce more accurate and fluent output, particularly when tasks are communicatively authentic and cognitively engaging (Aubrey, 2022; Sato, 2017).

Drawing on sociocultural theory, scholars emphasize that language development emerges through collaborative dialogue, where learners co-construct knowledge and scaffold each other's performance within the zone of proximal development (Lantolf et al., 2015). Furthermore, Watson Todd and Rangsarittikun (2022) assert that producing language during interaction. Particularly through "languaging", enables learners to process linguistic forms more deeply, thereby facilitating internalization and long-term retention. This perspective aligns with recent findings that emphasize the importance of dialogic interaction, peer collaboration, and task-based engagement in fostering higher-order language skills (Philp et al., 2014; Sato & Ballinger, 2016). Interaction has been shown to play a critical role in developing pragmatic competence, as learners are exposed to the sociolinguistic norms and discourse practices that govern real-world communication (Ryan, 2022; Taguchi, 2019).

Through participation in interactive tasks such as role-plays, discussions, and problem-solving activities, learners gain opportunities to negotiate meaning, manage turn-taking, and adapt their language use to different communicative contexts (Ellis et al., 2020; Lambert et al., 2017). These experiences are particularly valuable in multilingual classrooms, where interaction often involves the flexible use of multiple linguistic resources, further enriching the learning process (Sato & Ballinger, 2016; Tai & Li Wei, 2021). Despite the well-established benefits of interaction, recent evidence indicates that many classrooms in African contexts continue to provide limited opportunities for sustained communicative engagement (Altinyelken, 2019).

Structural constraints such as large class sizes, curriculum pressures, and assessment-driven practices frequently restrict the implementation of interactive pedagogies, leading to the persistence of teacher-dominated instructional models (Bremner et al., 2022). Additionally, institutional expectations and sociocultural norms may reinforce hierarchical classroom dynamics, thereby discouraging learner participation and limiting opportunities for collaborative

dialogue (Kimura & Tsai, 2023; Schweisfurth, 2019). The absence of meaningful interaction not only constrains linguistic development but also undermines learner motivation, agency, and engagement (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Pack & Kiss, 2023).

In contrast, classrooms that prioritize interaction tend to foster more positive learning environments, characterized by increased participation, confidence, and willingness to communicate (MacIntyre et al., 2020; Waddington, 2023). Lim et al. (2022) emphasize that contemporary communication is inherently multimodal, as meaning is constructed through the integration of multiple semiotic resources rather than through language alone. In this view, communication involves not only words but also visual images, gestures, spatial arrangements, sound, and digital media, all of which interact to shape how meaning is produced and interpreted in real-world contexts (Jewitt et al., 2021). This shift reflects broader developments in language education, where there is increasing recognition that traditional text-based approaches are insufficient for capturing the complexity of modern communication (Kessler, 2022).

Building on this perspective, multimodal approaches in education seek to intentionally integrate these diverse resources into teaching and learning processes in order to enhance comprehension and engagement (Kessler & Marino, 2023). When learners are exposed to information through multiple modes, they are more likely to process it deeply and retain it effectively, as different channels of input reinforce one another and provide complementary cues for understanding (Montero Perez, 2022). This is particularly important in second language contexts, where learners may rely on visual or contextual support to make sense of unfamiliar linguistic input (Plass et al., 2020).

In multilingual African classrooms, the relevance of multimodality is especially pronounced, as everyday communication practices are already deeply multimodal in nature (Chamberlain et al., 2022). Storytelling traditions, for example, often combine spoken language with gesture, facial expression, rhythm, and audience interaction, creating rich and layered meaning-making experiences (Osei-Tutu, 2023). Similarly, music, dance, and visual symbolism play significant roles in communication across many African societies, providing culturally embedded resources that can be leveraged for instructional purposes (Makalela, 2021). By drawing on these familiar modes, educators can create learning environments that are not only more engaging but also more culturally responsive and accessible to learners (Gay, 2018).

Multimodal instruction also supports learners with varying levels of proficiency by providing multiple entry points into the learning process (Rabbi, 2023). Visual aids, audio materials, and kinesthetic activities can help clarify meaning, reduce cognitive strain, and support learners who may struggle with purely text-based input (Sweller et al., 2019). At the same time, such approaches encourage active participation, as learners are able to express themselves through a range of modes rather than being restricted to written or spoken language alone (Brown & Savić, 2023). This expanded repertoire of expression fosters creativity, critical thinking, and deeper engagement with content (Cope & Kalantzis, 2022).

The Proposed Theoretical Framework: Immersive Multimodal Interaction Model (IMIM)

The Immersive Multimodal Interaction Model (IMIM) is conceptualized as a cohesive pedagogical framework that synthesizes three mutually reinforcing dimensions of language learning into a unified instructional approach designed for multilingual and resource-variable contexts. These three mutually reinforcing dimensions of language learning are; immersion, interaction, and multimodality. Rather than treating these dimensions as discrete methodological

options, IMIM integrates them into a dynamic system in which each element enhances and sustains the others, thereby creating a holistic environment for second language development.

This integrated orientation aligns with contemporary perspectives in applied linguistics that emphasize the interdependence of input, output, and meaning-making processes in language acquisition. The proposed integration extends the individual contributions of translanguaging, interaction-oriented instruction, and multimodal learning by arranging them within a single teaching cycle. However, the literature reviewed does not establish that this arrangement is more effective than established approaches. Its distinctive contribution is therefore an explicit, adaptable design proposition, and the relative value of each component remains an empirical question.

At its core, IMIM reconceptualizes immersion not as rigid exposure to the target language in isolation, but as a contextually responsive process that situates language within meaningful communicative environments. This perspective draws on the principle of comprehensible input, which posits that learners acquire language most effectively when they are exposed to input that is both understandable and slightly beyond their current level of competence (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). However, IMIM extends this principle by incorporating inclusive immersion, allowing for the strategic use of learners' first languages as scaffolding tools that facilitate comprehension and cognitive engagement. In doing so, the model challenges monolingual assumptions embedded in traditional immersion approaches.

Interaction, within the IMIM framework, functions as the central mechanism through which immersion is operationalized and internalized. The model is grounded in interactionist theories of second language acquisition, which emphasize the role of negotiation of meaning, feedback, and collaborative dialogue in facilitating language development. Through structured and unstructured communicative activities, learners are encouraged to actively engage with language, co-construct meaning, and refine their linguistic competence in socially mediated contexts (Swain, 2005). This emphasis on interaction reflects a shift from passive reception to active participation, positioning learners as agents in their own learning process.

Multimodality constitutes the third pillar of IMIM, providing the semiotic richness necessary to support diverse learning pathways and enhance meaning-making. The model recognizes that communication extends beyond verbal language to include visual, auditory, and kinesthetic modes. By integrating resources such as images, gestures, storytelling, and digital media into instructional practices, IMIM facilitates deeper comprehension and engagement, particularly for learners with varying levels of linguistic proficiency. This multimodal orientation is especially relevant in African contexts, where communication practices are inherently rich and multisensory.

The strength of IMIM lies in the synergy among these three pillars. Immersion provides the contextualized input necessary for acquisition, interaction transforms input into meaningful communicative practice, and multimodality enhances both processes by expanding the range of semiotic resources available to learners. Together, these elements create a pedagogical ecosystem that is inclusive, adaptive, and responsive to the complexities of multilingual language learning environments.

The IMIM Instructional Cycle

IMIM operationalizes its theoretical principles through a structured but flexible instructional cycle that reflects the iterative nature of language learning. This cycle is not intended as a rigid

sequence but as a dynamic process in which stages may overlap and recur depending on instructional goals and learner needs. The process begins with immersive exposure, where learners encounter rich, contextualized language input through narratives, dialogues, demonstrations, or multimodal texts.

This stage is designed to activate prior knowledge, provide contextual cues, and establish a meaningful foundation for subsequent interaction. Unlike traditional input phases that rely heavily on decontextualized texts, IMIM emphasizes authenticity and relevance, ensuring that language is presented in ways that resonate with learners' experiences. Following this initial exposure, guided interaction enables learners to engage with the input through structured activities facilitated by the teacher. At this stage, scaffolding plays a critical role, as teachers provide prompts, questions, and feedback that support learners in navigating new linguistic forms and meanings.

This guided engagement reflects sociocultural theories of learning, which highlight the importance of mediated interaction in cognitive development. As learners gain confidence, the cycle transitions into participatory engagement, where they engage in more autonomous communicative tasks that prioritize fluency, meaning-making, and collaborative problem-solving. Activities at this stage may include role-plays, group discussions, and task-based projects, all of which encourage learners to use language creatively and purposefully. This phase aligns with the output hypothesis, which underscores the role of language production in consolidating learning and identifying gaps in knowledge (Watson Todd & Rangsarittikun, 2022).

The cycle culminates in creative production and reflective feedback, where learners demonstrate their understanding through spoken, written, or multimodal outputs. This stage emphasizes not only linguistic accuracy but also the ability to communicate effectively across modes and contexts. Feedback from teachers and peers is integrated into the process, enabling learners to refine their performance and develop metacognitive awareness of their learning strategies. Reflection further reinforces this process by encouraging learners to evaluate their progress and identify areas for improvement, thereby fostering autonomy and lifelong learning skills.

The applicability of IMIM to African educational contexts lies in its responsiveness to the linguistic, cultural, and institutional realities that characterize classrooms across the continent. Unlike imported pedagogical models that often fail to account for local conditions, IMIM is inherently adaptable and context-sensitive, making it particularly suited to multilingual and resource-constrained environments. One of the defining features of African classrooms is their linguistic diversity, with learners frequently navigating multiple languages in both formal and informal settings (Blommaert, 2010). IMIM accommodates this reality by integrating translanguaging practices into its framework, thereby legitimizing the use of learners' full linguistic repertoires as tools for learning.

IMIM is designed to function effectively in low-resource environments, where access to advanced technological tools and materials may be limited. By leveraging locally available resources such as storytelling, oral traditions, and community-based knowledge, the model ensures that meaningful learning can occur even in the absence of extensive infrastructure (Finnegan, 2012; Osei-Tutu, 2023). This adaptability is critical in contexts where educational inequalities and resource constraints pose significant challenges to implementation (Sakata et al., 2022; UNESCO, 2016).

A future evaluation could begin with a small-scale classroom pilot in multilingual African schools, documenting feasibility, teacher implementation, learner participation, and the availability of low-cost multimodal materials. A subsequent comparative design could examine communicative performance and learner engagement under IMIM and existing instruction, using clearly defined measures and contextual safeguards. Such research would test rather than presume the model's practical benefits.

Another strength of IMIM is cultural relevance. By incorporating indigenous communicative practices and multimodal forms of expression, the model aligns instructional practices with learners' lived experiences, thereby enhancing engagement and motivation. This culturally responsive orientation not only facilitates language learning but also contributes to the preservation and valorization of local knowledge systems. This paper aimed to develop a context-responsive framework for English language pedagogy in multilingual African classrooms. Through conceptual integration of existing scholarship, it proposed the Immersive Multimodal Interaction Model (IMIM), combining immersion, interaction, and multimodality within a flexible five-stage instructional cycle.

The framework emphasizes meaningful language exposure, collaborative participation, creative production, and reflective feedback while recognizing learners' multilingual resources. Its principal contribution is an integrated pedagogical proposition that may inform teacher preparation, curriculum planning, and formative assessment in resource-constrained settings. However, the model remains theoretical; no classroom implementation or empirical assessment was undertaken. Future research should pilot IMIM in multilingual classrooms, document implementation feasibility, develop measures of its component processes, and compare communicative proficiency and engagement outcomes with existing teaching approaches before making effectiveness claims about student learning and inclusion.

The adoption of IMIM necessitates a reconfiguration of traditional pedagogical roles and practices. Teachers, within this framework, are repositioned as facilitators, mediators, and designers of learning experiences rather than mere transmitters of knowledge. This transformation requires not only pedagogical flexibility but also a deep understanding of learners' linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Learners, in turn, assume more active roles as participants, collaborators, and creators of knowledge. By engaging in interactive and multimodal tasks, they develop not only linguistic competence but also critical thinking, creativity, and problem-solving skills (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012).

This shift toward active participation aligns with constructivist theories of learning, which emphasize the role of experience and interaction in knowledge construction. Curriculum design within the IMIM framework must prioritize integration, flexibility, and contextual relevance. Rather than adhering to rigid, standardized content, curricula should incorporate tasks and materials that reflect learners' realities and support the development of communicative competence across multiple modes (Kim, 2023). Assessment practices must also evolve to capture the multidimensional nature of language proficiency, moving beyond traditional written examinations to include performance-based and formative evaluations (Gipps, 2012).

CONCLUSIONS

The Immersive Multimodal Interaction Model will represent a significant advancement in English language pedagogy. It addresses the limitations of traditional, examination-driven approaches, by integrating immersion, interaction, and multimodality into a cohesive and

context-responsive framework. IMIM redefines language teaching as an inclusive, dynamic, and culturally grounded process that values learners' linguistic resources and promotes active engagement. Its potential lies not only in improving language proficiency but also in transforming educational practices to better reflect the realities of multilingual societies. If effectively implemented and empirically validated, IMIM has the capacity to reshape English language education in Africa and beyond.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors acknowledge the scholars whose work on second language acquisition, sociocultural learning, multimodal pedagogy, and translanguaging informed the conceptual development of the Immersive Multimodal Interaction Model (IMIM). Their contributions provided the theoretical foundations for proposing a context-responsive approach to English language teaching in multilingual classrooms.

REFERENCES

- Adesope, O., Lavin, T., Thompson, T., & Ungerleider, C. (2010). A systematic review and meta-analysis of the cognitive correlates of bilingualism. *Review of Educational Research*, 80(2), 207–245. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654309352494>
- Ali, M., & Hamid, M. (2023). Teacher agency and washback: Insights from classrooms in rural Bangladesh. *ELT Journal*, 77(1), 52–61. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac005>
- Alidou, H., Boly, A., Brock-Utne, B., Diallo, Y., ADEA, K. H.-P., & 2006, U. (2006). Optimizing learning and education in Africa: The language factor. *Academia.EduH Alidou, A Boly, B Brock-Utne, YS Diallo, K Heugh, HE WolffParis: ADEA, 2006•academia.Edu*.
- Altinyelken, H. (2019). Promoting learner-centred pedagogy in Rwanda: A contextual analysis of its implementation and impact. *Comparative Education*, 55(3), 321–339. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03050068.2019.1602034>
- Atuhura, D., & Nambi, R. (2024). Competence-based language curricula: implementation challenges in Africa. *Academic.Oup.ComD Atuhura, R NambiELT Journal*, 2024•academic.Oup.Com, 78(3), 245–254. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ELT/CCAE003>
- Aubrey, S. (2022). Enhancing long-term learner engagement through project-based learning. *ELT Journal*, 76(4), 441–451. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccab032>
- Bamgbose, A. (2011). African languages today: The challenge of and prospects for empowerment under globalization. In *Selected proceedings of the 40th Annual Conference on African Linguistics* (pp. 1–14). Cascadilla Proceedings Project.
- Bezemer, J., & Kress, G. (2016). *Multimodality, learning and communication: A social semiotic frame*. Routledge.
- Blommaert, J. (2010). *The sociolinguistics of globalization*. Cambridge University Press.
- Bremner, N., Sakata, N., & Cameron, L. (2022). The outcomes of learner-centred pedagogy: A systematic review. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 94, 102649. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2022.102649>
- Brevik, L., & Holm, T. (2023). Affinity and the classroom: Informal and formal L2 learning. *ELT Journal*, 77(1), 83–93. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac012>

- Brooks, E. (2022). Translanguaging and the shifting sands of language education. *ELT Journal*, 76(1), 129–146. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccab062>
- Brown, C., & Savić, M. (2023). Practising critical visual literacy through redesign in ELT classrooms. *ELT Journal*, 77(2), 186–196. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac049>
- Buluma, A., Walimbwa, M., Mbulankende, J., & Nabiryo, R. (2023). In-service teachers' readiness to adopt technology-enhanced pedagogy in a Sub-Saharan country. *International Journal of Education and Development Using Information and Communication Technology*, 19(2), 58–74.
- Busch, B. (2017). Expanding the notion of the linguistic repertoire: On the concept of *Spracherleben*—The lived experience of language. *Applied Linguistics*, 38(3), 340–358. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amv030>
- Canagarajah, A. (2011). Translanguaging in the classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 2(1), 1–28. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110239331.1>
- Canagarajah, A. (2013). *Translingual practice: Global Englishes and cosmopolitan relations*. Routledge.
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2022). Pedagogical translanguaging and its application to language classes. *RELC Journal*, 53(2), 342–354. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00336882221082751>
- Chamberlain, L., Rodriguez-Leon, L., & Woodward, C. (2022). Disrupting language of instruction policy at a classroom level: Oracy examples from South Africa and Zambia. *Literacy*, 56(3), 264–274. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lit.12302>
- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (2009). Multiliteracies: New literacies, new learning. *Pedagogies*, 4(3), 164–195. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15544800903076044>
- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (2022). *Making sense: Reference, agency, and structure in a grammar of multimodal meaning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Copland, F., Garton, S., & Barnett, C. (2023). Languages in the primary classroom: Teachers' views and practices. *ELT Journal*, 77(1), 11–22. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac041>
- Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: Content and language integrated learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Crawford, L., & Hares, S. (2021). *The impact of private schools, school chains, and public-private partnerships in developing countries*. [https://elibrary.acbf.org/acbf/collect/acbf/index/assoc/HASH7cb6/72d6ce4a/37413489/a2.dir/impact private schools school chains and-public private partnerships developing countries.pdf](https://elibrary.acbf.org/acbf/collect/acbf/index/assoc/HASH7cb6/72d6ce4a/37413489/a2.dir/impact%20private%20schools%20school%20chains%20and%20public%20private%20partnerships%20developing%20countries.pdf)
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(1), 103–115. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x>
- Cummins, J. (2007). Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 10(2), 221–240.

- Cummins, J. (2021). *Rethinking the education of multilingual learners: A critical analysis of theoretical concepts*. Multilingual Matters.
- Daffri, W., & Taibi, H. (2023). Academic coloniality in ELT: The case of an Algerian university. *ELT Journal*, 77(4), 470–478. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccad010>
- Dawadi, S. (2021). Factors influencing washback of a high-stakes English-as-a-foreign-language test. *TESL-EJ*, 25(3), 1–16.
- deBoer, M., Leontjev, D., & Friederich, L. (2023). From language to function: Developing self- and peer-assessment tools. *ELT Journal*, 77(1), 94–104. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac014>
- Dörnyei, Z., & Al-Hoorie, A. (2017). The motivational foundation of language learning. *Language Teaching*, 50(4), 455–493.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R., Skehan, P., Li, S., Shintani, N., & Lambert, C. (2020). *Task-based language teaching: Theory and practice*.
- Erling, E., Clegg, J., Rubagumya, C., & Reilly, C. (Editors). (2023). *Multilingual learning and language supportive pedagogies in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Routledge.
- Fang, F., Zhang, L., & Sah, P. (2022). Translanguaging in language teaching and learning: Current practices and future directions. *RELC Journal*, 53(2), 305–312. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00336882221114478>
- Finnegan, R. (2012). *Oral literature in Africa*. Open Book Publishers.
- García, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- García, O., & Kleyn, T. (Editors). (2016). *Translanguaging with multilingual students*. Routledge.
- García, O., & Li Wei. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- García, O., & Lin, A. (2022). Translanguaging in bilingual education. In *Bilingual and multilingual education* (pp. 117–130). Springer.
- Gass, S., Behney, J., & Plonsky, L. (2020). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course* (5th ed.). Routledge.
- Gay, G. (2018). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice*.
- Gipps, C. (2012). *Beyond testing: Towards a theory of educational assessment*. Routledge.
- Goo, J., & Mackey, A. (2013). The case against the case against recasts. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 35(1), 127–165.
- Heugh, K. (2011). Theory and practice – Language education models in Africa: Research, design, decision-making and outcomes. In *Optimising learning, education and publishing in Africa: The language factor* (pp. 105–156). UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning.
- Hornberger, N., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging in today's classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *Theory Into Practice*, 51(4), 239–247.
- Jewitt, C., Bezemer, J., & O'Halloran, K. (2021). *Introducing multimodality* (2nd ed.).

Routledge.

- Kalantzis, M., & Cope, B. (2012). *New learning: Elements of a science of education* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Kessler, M. (2022). Multimodality. *ELT Journal*, 76(4), 551–554. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac028>
- Kessler, M., & Marino, F. (2023). Digital multimodal composing in English language teaching. *ELT Journal*, 77(3), 370–376. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac047>
- Kim, M. (2023). Decolonizing ELT materials: A sociomaterial orientation. *ELT Journal*, 77(3), 316–326. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccad013>
- Kimura, D., & Tsai, A. (2023). Decolonizing classroom discourse: Insights from interactional research. *ELT Journal*, 77(3), 327–337. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccad008>
- Kress, G. (2010). *Multimodality: A social semiotic approach to contemporary communication*. Routledge.
- Lambert, C., Philp, J., & Nakamura, S. (2017). Learner-generated content and engagement in second language task performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 21(6), 665–680.
- Lantolf, J., & Thorne, S. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford University Press.
- Lantolf, J., Thorne, S., & Poehner, M. (2015). Sociocultural theory and second language development. In *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 207–226). Routledge.
- Li Wei. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics*, 39(1), 9–30.
- Li Wei. (2022). Translanguaging as a political stance: Implications for English language education. *ELT Journal*, 76(2), 172–182. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccab083>
- Li Wei, & García, O. (2022). Not a first language but one repertoire: Translanguaging as a decolonizing project. *RELC Journal*, 53(2), 313–324. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00336882221092841>
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2013). *How languages are learned* (4th ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Lim, F., Toh, W., & Nguyen, T. (2022). Multimodality in the English language classroom: A systematic review of literature. *Linguistics and Education*, 69, 101048. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2022.101048>
- Liu, Y., & Fang, F. (2022). Translanguaging theory and practice: How stakeholders perceive translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *RELC Journal*, 53(2), 391–399. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688220939222>
- Loewen, S., & Sato, M. (2018). Interaction and instructed second language acquisition. *Language Teaching*, 51(3), 285–329.
- Long, M. (2015). *Second language acquisition and task-based language teaching*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- López-Gopar, M., & Sughrua, W. (2023). Decolonizing ELT methods through critical

- thematic units. *ELT Journal*, 77(3), 305–315. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccad012>
- MacIntyre, P., Gregersen, T., & Mercer, S. (2020). Language teachers' coping strategies during times of crisis. *System*, 94, 102352.
- Makalela, L. (2021). Translanguaging as a pedagogy for multilingual education in Africa. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 39(3), 1–12.
- Makoni, S., & Pennycook, A. (Editors). (2007). *Disinventing and reconstituting languages*. Multilingual Matters.
- Makoni, S., & Pennycook, A. (2020). *Innovations and challenges in applied linguistics from the Global South*. Routledge.
- May, S. (Editor). (2014). *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL and bilingual education*. Routledge.
- Meighan, P. (2023). Transepistemic English language teaching for sustainable futures. *ELT Journal*, 77(3), 294–304. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccad004>
- Milligan, L. (2022). Towards a social and epistemic justice approach for exploring the injustices of English as a medium of instruction in basic education. *Educational Review*, 74(5), 927–941. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2020.1819204>
- Montero Perez, M. (2022). Second or foreign language learning through watching audio-visual input and the role of on-screen text. *Language Teaching*, 55(2), 163–192. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444821000501>
- Moorhouse, B. (2023). Teachers' digital technology use after a period of online teaching. *ELT Journal*, 77(4), 445–457. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac050>
- Mthembu, B. (2023). Township EFAL teachers and speaking skills: The discrepancy between the espoused and enacted. *Per Linguam*, 38(2), 31–47. <https://doi.org/10.5785/38-2-968>
- Nunan, D. (2020). *Task-based language teaching* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Ojohegbe, A. (2024). Rethinking standardized testing in English language proficiency: Moving toward culturally responsive assessment models. *Jurnal Pendidikan Indonesia*, 5(12), 1990–1996. <https://doi.org/10.59141/japendi.v5i12.6584>
- Olatoye, T. (2022). Attitudes of educated Nigerians towards varieties of English. *Language Matters*, 53(1), 81–102. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10228195.2022.2067216>
- Omidire, M., & Ayob, S. (2022). The utilisation of translanguaging for learning and teaching in multilingual primary classrooms. *Multilingua*, 41(1), 105–129. <https://doi.org/10.1515/multi-2020-0072>
- Osei-Tutu, A. (2023). Developing African oral traditional storytelling as a framework for studying with African peoples. *Qualitative Research*, 23(6), 1497–1514. <https://doi.org/10.1177/14687941221082263>
- Otheguy, R., García, O., & Reid, W. (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 6(3), 281–307.
- Ouane, A., & Glanz, C. (2010). *Why and how Africa should invest in African languages and multilingual education: An evidence- and practice-based policy advocacy brief*.

UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning.

- Pack, A., & Kiss, T. (2023). A visual model of L2 motivation as a complex dynamic system. *ELT Journal*, 77(4), 458–469. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac037>
- Philp, J., Adams, R., & Iwashita, N. (2014). *Peer interaction and second language learning*. Routledge.
- Phyak, P., Sah, P., Ghimire, N., & Lama, A. (2022). Teacher agency in creating a translingual space in Nepal's multilingual English-medium schools. *RELC Journal*, 53(2), 431–451. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00336882221113950>
- Piper, B., & Dubeck, M. (2024). Responding to the learning crisis: Structured pedagogy in Sub-Saharan Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 109, 103095. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2024.103095>
- Plass, J., Homer, B., & Kinzer, C. (2020). Foundations of game-based learning and multimodal instruction. *Educational Psychologist*, 55(4), 219–234.
- Probyn, M. (2015). Pedagogical translanguaging: Bridging discourses in South African science classrooms. *Language and Education*, 29(3), 218–234. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2014.994525>
- Probyn, M. (2019). Pedagogical translanguaging and the construction of science knowledge in a multilingual South African classroom: Challenging monoglossic/post-colonial orthodoxies. *Classroom Discourse*, 10(3–4), 216–236. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2019.1628792>
- Rabbi, S. (2023). Towards decolonizing L2 writing pedagogy: Translingual and transmodal resources. *ELT Journal*, 77(3), 338–347. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccad011>
- Richards, J., & Rodgers, T. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (3rd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Ruivivar, J. (2022). Addressing sociolinguistic challenges in teaching spoken grammar. *ELT Journal*, 76(3), 320–329. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccab061>
- Ryan, J. (2022). Listening in interaction: Reconceptualizing a core skill. *ELT Journal*, 76(3), 367–374. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac006>
- Sakata, N., Bremner, N., & Cameron, L. (2022). A systematic review of the implementation of learner-centred pedagogy in low- and middle-income countries. *Review of Education*, 10(3), e3365. <https://doi.org/10.1002/rev3.3365>
- Sato, M. (2017). Interaction mindsets, interactional behaviors, and L2 development: An affective-social-cognitive model. *Language Learning*, 67(2), 249–283.
- Sato, M., & Ballinger, S. (Editors). (2016). *Peer interaction and second language learning: Pedagogical potential and research agenda*. John Benjamins.
- Schweisfurth, M. (2019). Learner-centred education in international perspective: Whose pedagogy for whose development? *Comparative Education*, 55(3), 273–292.
- Shrestha, S., Laudari, S., & Gnawali, L. (2023). Exploratory action research: Experiences of Nepalese EFL teachers. *ELT Journal*, 77(4), 407–415. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac029>

- Smit, U. (2023). English-medium instruction (EMI). *ELT Journal*, 77(4), 499–503. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccad018>
- Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471–483). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Sweller, J., Ayres, P., & Kalyuga, S. (2019). *Cognitive load theory*. Springer.
- Taguchi, N. (2019). *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics*. Routledge.
- Tai, K., & Li Wei. (2021). Translanguaging as inclusive pedagogy in multilingual classrooms. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 24(7), 1012–1028.
- Trudell, B. (2007). Local community perspectives and language of education in sub-Saharan African communities. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 27(5), 552–563.
- UNESCO. (2016). *If you don't understand, how can you learn?* (Global Education Monitoring Report Policy Paper 24). UNESCO.
- van Pinxteren, B. (2022). Language of instruction in education in Africa: How new questions help generate new answers. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 88, 102524. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2021.102524>
- Waddington, J. (2023). Self-efficacy. *ELT Journal*, 77(2), 237–240. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac046>
- Watson Todd, R., & Rangsarittikun, R. (2022). The hobby course: Towards a languaging curriculum. *ELT Journal*, 76(3), 387–395. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccab052>
- Yang, Z., & Brindley, S. (2023). Engaging students in dialogic interactions through questioning. *ELT Journal*, 77(2), 217–226. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac021>