Education in the Third Millennium:

Towards an Operational Model in Language Teaching

Hamed Barjesteh and
Lida Frouzandehfar

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BTS	bartlett's test of sphericity
CCDA	critical classroom discourse analysis
CDA	critical discourse analysis
CL	critical literacy
CLP	critical language pedagogy
CP	critical pedagogy
CT	critical thinking
CVI	content validity index
DDP	dialogic discourse pattern
ELT	English language teaching
FL	foreign language
GTM	grammar-translation method
HC	hidden curriculum
IRE	initiation-response-evaluation
IVI	item validity index
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
L2	second language
LPP	language planning and policy
NES	narrative education system
NS-NNS	native speaker-non-native speaker
PPE	problem-posing education
SLA	second language acquisition
SPSS	statistical package for the social sciences
SVI	scale validity index
TLMP	transformative L2 materials preparation
TP	transformative pedagogy
ZPD	zone of proximal distance

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PREFACE

The general dissatisfaction with the efficiency of the mainstream English language teaching (ELT) in teaching English as a foreign language context (TEFL) has been discussed in expanding and outer circle countries (e.g., Bangladesh, Ghana, the Philippines, China, Egypt, Korea, Iran, Japan, Russia, to name but a few) and at different national and international conferences and symposiums. The main dissatisfaction concerns the centralized, top-down educational management and policy. Most of the teaching models and materials fail to meet the needs of learners. Notably, they do not provide a linkage between the content and the real-life concerns (i.e., society) of learners. Thus, this dissatisfaction gives rise to adopt different internationally marketed materials in the classroom. The problem emerges due to the fact that internationally marketed materials disseminate western cultural values by providing a utopian environment to the learners. Accordingly, the need is felt to accommodate ELT materials in the EFL classrooms in the TEFL contexts to serve the local needs.

With the development of critical approaches in education and their application to the field of ELT and the hidden curriculum (HC), the local perspectives towards the ELT industry in the world are emerging worldwide. Considering the notion that ELT has been regarded as a political activity, it is crystal transparent that language policymakers should not contemplate ELT as a value-free or a mere educational concern. Notably, they should approach education, in general, and teaching methods as well as materials development, in particular, from the sociocultural and sociopolitical dimension. These perspectives realize the notion of a hidden aspect in education. This aspect is the hidden curriculum and value that is inherent in any educational material. Probably, one approach to meet such a demand for domesticating ELT and helping students think about their learning can be critical thinking (CT) and critical language pedagogy (CLP) with a hope to transform the knowledge in the real-world situation.

This book intends to provide a transformative effect on learners by changing their attitudes through looking at their social problems and real-life concern of the learners. More precisely, the book aims to propose the application of critical language pedagogy in ELT classrooms and to provide practical guidelines/principles for implementing such an approach. In so doing, this book looks at education in the third millennium and proposes an operational model in language teaching. Above all, the book has been arranged in two parts. Part I encompasses six chapters dealing with the political dimension of language teaching, dialogic teaching, critical thinking, and critical language pedagogy from a theoretical and operational perspective, and the critical

issues in materials development. Specifically, this section provides an overview of critical approaches to pedagogy, current and future trend in ELT, origin and historical perspective of critical pedagogical thought, syllabus design, materials preparation, developing counter-hegemonic materials, assessment, and grading in critical approaches to language teaching. Section II provides a practical conceptualization of critical language pedagogy. This part deals with postulating a dialogical model with the hope of implementing it in the classroom. This model provides transformative-based instruction. It comes into three parts, including format and presentation, content, and sequencing, monitoring, and assessment. This model can shed light on making a dynamic classroom and provides a springboard to implement dialogic teaching. As a note of caution, we would like to notify you that developing and implementing such a transformative model is not signposted. This model may create dilemmas and obstacles in the EFL context. Accordingly, teachers should plan for the risks it involves, since the proponent of transformative materials developers fly in the face of priorities of the status quo. The lack of interest of centralized institutions, the banking background of teachers, and students in transformative innovations might interfere with the dynamicity of the course.

We hope that the content presented here and the model generated as the cornerstone of the book open a new horizon to teachers, materials developers, and language policymakers.

—Hamed Barjesteh

Lida Frouzandehfar

PART I:
CRITICAL APPROACHES TO PEDAGOGY

CHAPTER 1

POLITICAL DIMENSION OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

CONTENTS

1.1. INTRODUCTION

The third millennium is characterized by breakthroughs in cultural, social, political, and many other fields of human life. This also holds true for education, in general, and applied linguistics, in particular. Some members of the English language Teaching (ELT) community who happen to be applied linguists (i.e., Crooks, 2009; Canagarajah, 1999; Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992), have recently raised questions about the lack of tendencies to address ELT and the role of English, as an international language, from a critical point of view. As part of an attempt to support their argument, they have tried to draw public attention to sociopolitical and sociocultural problems associated with ELT. The non-neutral nature of ELT and the cultural problems associated with that are among the main concerns of these linguists.

Second language (L2) material preparation procedures, for instance, have undergone some changes that mainly arise from shifts of focus. In fact, material preparation procedures, in the past, pivoted around the idea that students should be furnished with materials and skills that mainly focus on predetermined activities usually carried out in everyday life of people. Critical language pedagogy (CLP) is a new discipline that deals with education, in general, and applied linguistics, in particular. CLP actually adopts a *praxis-oriented approach* toward L2 material preparation. This discipline incorporates multi-dimensional educational approaches that have been known as the dialogic approach, radical approach, engaged approach, postmodern pedagogy approach, transformative approach, emancipatory approach, participatory approach, pedagogy of inclusion, and pedagogy of possibilities (Giroux, 1988; Hovey, 2004; Kincheloe, 2005; Pennycook, 1990; Shor and Freire, 1987). CLP actually has its roots in the neo-Marxist Frankfurt school's critical theories, including the post-colonialism, postmodern, feminism, and anti-racism and some other theories that are in sharp contrast with the traditional school (Heras, 1999), which recognizes societal conditions as the main building block of language teaching.

Education, from a CLP-based point of view, can be envisioned as a "vehicle for social control, ethnic assimilation, and reproduction of privileging norms" (McLaren, 2001, p. 129). This framework has colored ELT as confirmed by the hegemony of apolitical, asocial, and cognitive-linguistic view of language (Pennycook, 1990). The educational aspect of ELT and the ways it can favor the critical consciousness of learners has been the subject of many studies over recent years.

Critical pedagogy (CP) is inspired by the work of Paulo Freire (1972) in his classical writing of "pedagogy of the oppressed." His early contribution is a distinction between banking education and problem-posing education (PPE). In the banking model, students are regarded as a passive recipient of the predetermined knowledge, and teachers are considered as disseminators and unquestioned authorities who are responsible for filling "empty vessels" (i.e., students) with information, while in PPE, students are active and responsible participants in the appropriation of information concerning their existential life concern (Morrow and Torres, 2002). As a result of this paradigm in education, teaching turns to be more amicable wherein the class procedures, content selection, grading system, teacher, and students' role were negotiated. This movement invites students to be active and critical members of society (Freire, 1972).

Freire approaches the philosophy of education through the lens of "co-intentional education" to beak the "culture of silence." In this regard, he proposes that students' real-life concerns should be the cardinal course content, and negotiation should form the educational context. Students employ materials developed by themselves, and the "teacher engages in the process of knowing as a learner among learners" (Riasati and Mollaei, 2012, p. 223). Later, Giroux (1983) coins the term CP on Freire's work to criticize a "Reagan-era-educational culture of positivism that used the school as forms of social regulation to preserve the status quo" (Groenke and Hatch, 2009, p. 3).

As Giroux (2003, p. 1) asserts, CP "is an educational movement, guided by passion and principle to help students develop "consciousness of freedom," to disclose the hidden cultural values of an educational setting, to make both teacher and students transformative intellectuals, to recognize authoritarian propensities, and to connect knowledge to power as well as the ability to take constructive action. Although many definitions of CP have been proposed, scholars have realized that there does not exist an all-encompassing definition. Based on the different ways in which many scholars (Giroux, 1988; McLaren, 1995; Pennycook, 1990; Shor, 1992) have looked at this approach, CP can be defined as a dynamic framework of education promoting a reflective, contextualized, and critical-bound approach.

1.2. CURRENT TRENDS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

The emergence of different methods in second language acquisition (SLA) aims to facilitate and promote the learning process. Traditionally,

teachers are supposed to be unquestioned authorities, decision-makers, and knowledgeable individuals in a class who transmit information to the students without a questioning manner, and students are assumed to be passive recipients and consumers of given information (Freire, 1970). Current trends in language teaching seem to experience a critical turn toward the role of language, learning, teachers, and learners. In Kumaravadivelu's (2006) term, this critical shift recognizes language as an ideology than a system. It realizes language teaching and learning more than learning and teaching a language. In other words, it extends an educational setting to the social, political, and cultural dynamics of learning. While the main tenets of conventional education are to bring designated information to the mind of passive learners, several critical approaches as the progeny of post-method in language teaching, deeply rooted in Marxist approach and Frankfurt School, considered a paradigm shift in the assumed role for teachers and students (Giroux, 1988). The critical theories in language teaching gave prominence to learners' empowerment, critical consciousness, conscientization, and dialogism (Giroux, 1988; Kincheloe, 2005; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). From a critical perspective, the term authority implies a shared power between teachers and students. Teachers are likely to be what Giroux and McLaren (1996) described as transformative intellectuals who combine "scholarly reflection and practice in the service of educating students to be thoughtful, active citizens" (Giroux, 1988, p. 122). Students are active agents whose viewpoints are underscored through dialog and discussion (McLaren, 2003). The upholders of critical theory (Freire, 1970; Kincheloe, 2005; Morgan, 1998; Shor, 2012) encourage learners to act in a questioning manner, to construct their understanding, to be independent, and to develop their full potentialities in the classroom milieu.

Informed by the tenets of critical theorists, knowledge is no more realized as passive information. In fact, it is gradually constructed in interaction through a dynamic nature (Mortimer and Scott, 2003). Cazden and Beck (2003) posit that dynamic nature helps students collaboratively construct meaning in critical discourses and dialogical interactions. The dialogic teaching approach rooted in Bahktin's (1981) concept of dialogism is based on such teacher-student communication, in which higher forms of cognitive processes are dominant on the students' part. Students in this kind of teaching are actively engaged, endowed with high levels of autonomy, and empowered to influence the development of the classroom discussion to a certain degree. Discourse is a matter of the oral use of language in an instructional setting, which can encourage interaction or what Bakhtin (1981)

called a "responsive understanding" (p. 279). Bakhtin described instructional discourse patterns in two terms: dialogic and monologic discourse. From this perspective, a classroom discourse is monologic when the main speaker, typically the teacher, performs a prior script. It is often controlled by one individual, albeit two or more persons participate. By contrast, a dialogic discourse encourages the participants to develop or change the contributions of the peers as one voice "refracts" another.

For Bakhtin (1981), dialogic teaching encourages learners' voices, values, and perspectives. Bakhtin postulates that knowledge is not in an individual mind, but it is built by engaging participants in a critical interaction. From a Bakhtinian perspective, an interaction is dialogic when both teachers and students have the authority and the autonomy to voice their ideas. This perspective was supported by Freire (1970), who addressed that dialogic discourse can be created by discussing learners' real-life concerns to raise their critical awareness. Woods (2006) outlined L2 learners' role in a dialogic classroom. Woods maintained that learners initiate a conversation and engage in a discussion to pose reflective questions. Accordingly, within the framework of dialogic teaching, a teacher expects to work as a director, to control learners' discussion, and to authorize students for sharing their knowledge through interaction. Likewise, Shor (2012) believed that a teacher in a dialogic classroom makes use of learners' knowledge to commence the discussion and introduce deeper levels of knowledge.

Drawing on Bakhtin's (1986) conceptualization of classroom discourse, monologic and dialogic patterns are considered the opposing poles of teachers' discourse continuum. Analyzing discourse content in language classrooms and examining the nature of teacher and student interactions can be promising on how language is used and what kind of input and interaction affect the language learning process (Chappell, 2014; Cullen, 2002; Nystrand, Lawrence, Gamoran, Zeiser, and Long, 2010). Recently, numerous studies have been conducted into the quality of classroom interactions which delve into several issues comprising teacher talk (Thornbury, 1996), conversation analysis (Seedhouse, 2005), turn allocation patterns (Xie, 2010), reflective discourse analysis (Anderson, 2017), L2 interactional competence (Hall, 2018) to name but a few. A sizable body of researches (Alexander, 2008; Scott, Mortimer, and Aguiar, 2006) suggests that the acquisition of useful knowledge is linked to the quality of classroom interaction because students are provided with various inputs, discourses, and interactions in the classrooms (Maftoon and Rezai, 2013). Investigating the nature of discourse content from a critical perspective can

yield promising results; particularly, the application of Bakhtin's dialogic discourse pattern (DDP) in EFL classrooms can uncover how EFL students actively construct new knowledge. To date, only a few studies (Ahmadi, 2017; Cazden, 2001; Hemati and Valadi, 2017; Sedova, 2017) have been carried out to appraise the discourse contents of EFL classrooms. What is particularly novel in this study is appraising 12 classroom interactions adopting Bakhtin's instructional discourse pattern. To address this gap in research, both teachers' and students' naturally occurring interactions in EFL classrooms were observed and audiotape with the hope to explore if the interactions follow or violate the principles of DDP. To undertake the study, a qualitative research method was adopted. More specifically, a Non-experimental observational approach was employed to probe the classroom interactions. In educational research, one of the most common uses of direct observation is the study of classroom observation to determine the extent to which a particular behavior(s) is present (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, &Walker, 2013).

Given the pivotal role of teachers and students in classrooms and the importance of classroom spoken discourse features in the learning process, analyzing teachers' and students' interactions can provide insightful information on what type of interaction promotes learning outcome and how learners construct new knowledge (Seedhouse, 2005; Walsh, 2011). One pedagogical advantage of investigating classroom spoken discourse features would be determining whether or not the current classroom discourse provides students with critical awareness to transform knowledge and engage students in a cooperative dialog.

1.3. A NEED TO LOOK BEYOND THE NOTION OF METHOD

Mackey (1950), one of the eminent figures in the realm of language instruction, composed an article named *"The meaning of method."* The most significant issue has been used by him in this field. He declares that there is not any systematic reference to this assortment of knowledge despite its existence for centuries. The main issue is that a great part of the field of language teaching has gotten a matter of ideas as opposed to reality. He tried to take the method into account more logically, which led to various characteristics for any method. Mackay asserts that any good or bad instruction should contain several features, which are called selection, gradation, and presentation. It is essential to have the selection phase since

it is not feasible to teach the entire field at once. Also, gradation ought to be taken into consideration since the chosen material cannot be taught right away, and by presentation, ideas can be conveyed relationally.

Richards (1984) categorized several issues regarding methods that are worthy of mentioning: the role of language theory, instructional theory, and the implementation factors in methods. Two umbrella terms have been utilized by him, under which different methods can be placed: *Language-centered and learner-centered methods.* The first category, as its name suggests, is made out of those strategies which depend on a hypothesis of (the idea of the human) language, while the last mentioned, be that as it may, incorporates strategies dependent on a hypothesis of the learning cycle. In Richard's point of view, methods are like open doors for students who endeavor to obtain language. Nevertheless, it should be noticed that language can be defined differently with regard to various perspectives. A basic review of the language showing strategies from the turn of the 20th century up to now uncovers that methods depended on the agreement among methodologists and instructors to move towards the control of vocabulary during the 20s and 30s.

The mentioned structural syllabuses were all supported by several specialists (i.e., Faucett, West, Palmer, and Thorndike, 1936; Ogden, 1930; West, 1953). What Palmer believed about grammar was not the same as the idea proposed by the conventional grammar-translation method (GTM) because Palmer's view incorporates the framework underlying the patterns of speech. As a result, the coursebook "a grammar of spoken English" was written by Palmer and Blandford (1939) in order to work up based on this platform. Researchers like Hornby (1950) and others were motivated by their work, which resulted in creating a grammatical syllabus in 1954. This kind of syllabus manages a graded arrangement of patterns and structures for course materials. Afterward, the combination of the structural syllabus with the situational syllabus to contextualize things brought about what was later called the structural-situational approach.

Despite pursuing a long time, the applied linguistic foundation of language teaching prompted the same outcomes in the US. Charles Fries and his associates (1961) at the University of Michigan created both word lists and substitution tables, which are shown as "frames" for patterns practice and resulted in the emerging Aural-oral method (1961) from their work. Despite the fact that, during the 60s, Chomsky (1959) made an assault on the structural view of language, it was not until the late 70s and 80s that

the most genuine difficulties to the basic structural syllabuses developed as notional prospectuses from one viewpoint (Wilkins, 1976), and ESP development from the other perspective (Robinson, 1980). According to the *lexico-structural* syllabus, when learners become proficient in vocabulary and grammar of the target language, they have interaction in circumstances where being an expert in general English is a priority. Wilkins defined the content of the structural syllabus again by presenting items of notions and concepts the students need to discuss, the functional purposes for which language is utilized, the circumstances in which language would be utilized, and the roles that learners probably play.

New ways to deal with teacher advancement have been proposed and executed in classrooms from the beginning of the eighties until now; the most remarkable approaches are as follows: (a) the role of instructor as-researcher, (b) clinical management, (c) the view of CP and (d) reflective teaching which has a vital spot in this categorization. This term has been defined by Cruickshank (1984) as what the teachers think about happenings in the classroom and pondering methods for accomplishing objectives. Accordingly, by reflective teaching, students can have "an opportunity to consider the teaching event thoughtfully, analytically, and objectively" (Cruickshank and Applegate, 1981, p. 4). Inducing acceptable habits of thought can be regarded as the significant goal of reflective teaching.

Zeincher and Liston (1985) presented a unique view of reflective teaching by stating that the role of a reflective teacher is evaluating the outcomes of his works at different phases. Also, Van Manen (1977) mentions three degrees of reflectivity. His first step was the same as what has been stated by Cruickshank about this concept. Furthermore, step two and three of Van Manen (1977) was named practical and critical stages. It has been designed to empower teachers with skills by which they can have self-guided development so that they can effectively make educational choices.

The time of weakness, which was demonstrated by the method era and the philosophies beyond it, led to the post-method era. The main aim of the post-method worldview is to find a substitute to the method instead of finding an alternative method (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2001, 2003). It is trying to recognize the post method era and the foregoing heterodoxies. He draws on the distinction made by Mackey (1965) between *method analysis* and *teaching analysis* and goes on even further to claim that language teaching practitioners have more recently come up with "an awareness that as long as we are caught up in a web of the method, we will continue to get

entangled in an unending search for an unavailable solution, that nothing short of breaking the cycle can salvage the solution" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 28). Kumaravadivelu differentiated between knowledge-oriented theories of pedagogy and classroom-oriented theories of practice. The former is based on the traditional concept of method, while the latter is related to post-method. Three features of post-method were mentioned to mark: 1) searching a substitute to the method instead of alternative method 2) teachers' independence 3) principled pragmatism. According to Kumaravadivelu, such a need to look beyond the definition of the method has appeared from the inconsistency between method as fully comprehend by theorists and method as directly implemented by professionals. Again, the argument is not scientific on any account. His assumption pointed out that there is an inherent conflict between theorists and professionals.

It appears to be more rational to persuade both theorists and professionals to negotiate in more beneficial ways. Regarding the offered opportunities on the debate of the key contradiction, it seems that this negotiation can be resolved. One of the fundamental concepts in the post method era is teacher autonomy. According to advocates of the post-method era and some theorists, the important problem of the traditional definition of the method is an ethical one in a way that keeps professionals away from their potential practical capabilities. "The post-method condition, however, recognizes the teacher's potentials: teachers know not only how to teach but also know how to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula, and textbooks" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 30).

The manifestation of principled pragmatism generates the teacher's sense of plausibility (i.e., the teacher's subjective interpretation of the way he teaches). Teacher's plausibility signifies the participation of both educators and learners in the teaching process. Therefore, the value of teacher plausibility in language teaching pedagogy is crucial to highlight. Teacher plausibility should not be perceived as empowering and enabling teachers to adjust language teaching or learning process to a unidirectional transmission of knowledge from educators to learners. However, it should require the effort of the instructor to determine the needs of the learners and his effort to participate learners in the teaching and learning process. Principled pragmatism is founded upon the pragmatics of pedagogy of Widdowson (1990), which represents the instant action of teaching as a process or mechanism. This process demonstrates the relationship between theory and practice.

Kumaravadivelu (1994) proposed a strategic structure and considered it as a departure for the L2 teaching process. According to Kumaravadivelu's suggestion, this structure is both a doctrine for non-critical adoption and an alternative for critical evaluation of fresh and challenging experiences and experiments in a L2. Kumaravadivelu implies that the post method era consists of a descriptive, unlimited range of options and immediate strategy to be continuously updated, extended, and enriched by instructors in the classroom. The Post method condition has developed by Kumaravadivelu's (2003) description of the *post-method.* Kumaravadivelu categorizes the post-method era into a three-dimensional classification consists of three pedagogical parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility. This classification is known as the basics of post method pedagogy. The particularity parameter promotes the context-dependent language teaching process through a deep understanding of particular regional linguistics, socio-culture, and politics. The objective of practicality is to empower teachers to build up their practical theory. In this regard, the traditional role between theorists and professionals comes to an end. The parameter of possibility permits students, instructors, and teacher educators to be socio-politically aware and to seek the formation of identity and social transformation.

1.4. THE POLITICS OF LANGUAGE

Language planning and policy (LPP) is a field that concerns explicit and implicit policies that affect where, how, and by whom languages are spoken, or even the principles and issues connected to those languages. Generally, *four different types* of language planning are *1. Status planning (social class of language) 2. Corpus planning (a form of language) 3. Language in education planning (learning) 4. Prestige planning (image).* There are two levels in that language planning can occur: the macro-level (the state) and the micro-level (the community). Language policy and language politics are related to numerous main terms, such as linguistic imperialism, cultural imperialism, and English words.

According to the theory of *Linguistic Imperialism,linguicism,* the role of languages might be viewed as an authoritative or governed role in the general public. It is contended that English assumes a prevailing role globally and assumes a part in keeping up the financial and political predominance of certain societies over others. Numerous different languages have been kept from experiencing cycles of improvement and extension due to the view of English as the prevailing worldwide language. It has been believed that the

spread of English results in forcing parts of *Anglo-Saxon Judeo-Christian* culture. Also, it is menacing for both languages and cultures of non-English speaking countries.

The concept of Cultural Imperialism in language teaching alludes to the exchange of thoughts regarding a prevailing culture throughout teaching using materials, the decision about content, etc. In this way, certain social generalizations and qualities are introduced as widespread and unrivaled, while others are seen as minor by either oversight or direct introduction. Kachru identified the thought of World Englishes, which can be referred to as the way that there are different and fluctuated models of English across societies and that English is not restricted to nations where it has customarily been viewed as a native language. World Englishes consists of not only American, British, and Australian, but also English of the countries, which were at a certain time-dependent on the United Kingdom or the USA. These new Englishes are believed to have their spot as genuine assortments of English fulfilling particular capacities in pluralistic social orders, for example, Singapore, India, Pakistan, the Philippines, Nigeria, and Fiji.

1.5. THREE CIRCLE MODEL OF WORLD ENGLISHES

Kachru (1985) described the spread of English in terms of three concentric circles: the *Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle.* These circles represent "the type of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages" (Kachru, 1985, p. 12). More precisely, Kachru's *three-circle model* distinguishes the variety of English spoken and clarifies if these varieties should be the target of instruction. The nations like Australia, Britain, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, and the United States, in which English is the first or the predominant language, are parts of the inner circle. Whereas, those nations where English is not the native language known as post-colonial countries can be considered as the outer circle. It is worth mentioning that English had a major position in these countries in the realm of education, government, and culture. Kachru regarded several countries such as India, Nigeria, and Singapore as the outer circle in which English is the official language. Crystal (1997) states that China, Japan, Greece, and Poland are the countries that are in the expanding circle that uses English, known as a standard dependent.

Accordingly, several users of English in the *expanding circle* (e.g., China, Japan, Greece, and Poland) can be instructed to employ English

as an additional language. They can use English for different purposes to communicate in multilingual contexts. English is utilized fundamentally as a contact language (Canagarajah, 2006). This variety in the realm of English is known as English as a *Lingua Franca*, English as an international language or, global English, which has different characteristics in comparison to English used in inner or outer circles, whose standards are constrained by native speakers. Berns (2008, as cited in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 67) argues that the ELF movement, which focuses on non-native-to-non-native communication, marginalizes native speakers, who are an integral part of World Englishes (i.e., part of both the inner circle and outer circle). All possible combinations of native and non-native English speakers of different varieties are part of World Englishes-and learners should be exposed to them for comprehension (not necessarily for production). Berns believes that the variability and dynamics of international communication make it questionable to try to isolate the linguistic features of any variety of English without also taking into account the user's strategic, sociocultural, and discourse competence. Facilitating the comprehension and tolerance of varieties of English that differ from one's own is more important for Berns than teaching a simplified core of linguistic features.

1.6. COLONIALITY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE: FROM NATIVIZATION TO DECOLONIZATION

There have been several written about the nationalism of the English language. Today of all days, one point between an area of the applied linguistics community a vital perception of the fact that the English language, in its long progress to its current global status, was assisted and encouraged by colonialist and imperialist projects that disregarded the political, cultural, and linguistic heritage of millions of people over the world. The essence of English linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992), the colonial feature that still joins it (Pennycook, 1998), and the secondary tries to confronts its authority (Canagarajah, 1999) have all been noted in detail. Likewise, well-documented is the totality of the English language. A language achieves a genuinely global status," observes Crystal (1997), "when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country" (p. 2). English has a remarkable shape, responsibility, and distribution has connected with Kachru's *Nativization.* Diversities like Indian English, Nigerian English, and Singaporean English show to what degree a strange language can be virtually reassembled as a medium for conveying social

standards and systems that are commonly local. Agnihotri and Khanna, Chinua Achebe, Tollefson, and other innovative writers have indicated the way the Western language is applied for interacting social degrees that are wholly unknown to the Western culture. Ordinary people who speak English as a L2 regard it more as a language of communicative requirements than a cultural identification symbol. They utilize English for their individual and legal requirements and be held separately from their local cultural notions and habits.

What Krishnaswamy and Burde (1998) said about Indian English is mostly true of other varieties as well: Indian English has not "made any serious inroads into the social customs, ceremonies connected with births, marriages, and deaths, religious functions and rituals that go with festivals, worship in temples, intimate interactions in the family and the peer group even in urban areas." (p. 153). According to Kumaravadivelu (2002), different types of world Englishes have effectively nativized the colonial language and have indeed described their use in particular areas; however, *nativization* is not just like decolonization. As part of world Englishes, Nativization can be viewed as a property of a language, but decolonization is a manner of the mind. Nativization is defined as a fundamental process of *indigenizing* the phonological, grammatical, and practical characteristics of the linguistic system of the English language; it is a purpose that has been dramatically obtained. Decolonization is described as a rather tricky process of gaining control of the rules and procedures of planning, learning, and teaching English; it is a task that has not been entirely performed. Nativization indicates just the beginning, not the end of the decolonization process.

It is essential to move from *nativization to decolonization* to remove the persistent traces of English imperialism and declare ownership of the English language learning and teaching project. An expressive shift from nativization to decolonization inevitably requires meaningful turns in policies and schemes and processes and materials managing ELT. It includes both decentering the Western authorization interests have across the ELT industry, and mainly recovering agency to specialists in the margin communities. The pieces of evidence demonstrate that the ELT profession is moving, even if hard, slowly in that direction. Considerable professional involvement with issues recently connected to English language policies and planning. Nevertheless, a pedagogic domain that counts most is not received enough attention: classroom methodology, the concept of the method has been truly problematized before (Pennycook, 1989). However, no organized

try exists to examine the possible methodological potential to decolonize ELT as far as I know.

1.7. CRITICAL APPROACHES TO PEDAGOGY

The term *Critical* in CP has changed it into a new intellectual thinking paradigm dealing with education and applied linguistics, as well as materials development as a specific aspect of the praxis-oriented movement. From the viewpoint of Giroux (2003), CP can be defined as a pedagogical activity that draws on principle and enthusiasm to contribute to the development of consciousness of freedom, the revelation of covert cultural norms and values of a pedagogical setting, development of transformative intellectualism among teachers and students, recognition of authoritarian tendencies, and development of a link between knowledge, power, and ability as part of an attempt to pave the path for constructive action. Compared to *transmission-based pedagogy*, *transformational education, critical education, and humanized* ELT have received much more attention over recent years. *Transformative-based education* is deeply rooted in the constructivist approach.

With the advent of *a constructivist approach* to education, instruction takes a critical and socio-political dimension. More precisely, constructivist schooling challenges teachers and students to rethink the purpose of schooling and the role that they might play as *"cultural workers"* – a term borrowed from Freire (1998, p. 30). These *cultural workers* can think critically and act transformatively (Freire, 2005; Moreno-Lopez, 2005). Kumaravadivelu (2003) states that teachers in *constructivist orientation* can theorize about their practices and perform their *theories*. To him, personal theories are those that teachers can employ in the classrooms based on professional assumptions, i.e., those that are generated by experts and are transmitted from centers of higher learning. From this standpoint, teachers and students take a new identity in a classroom. Teachers as unquestioned authorities turn to be facilitators and act by posing problems wherein both teachers and students engage with different aspects of the class procedures, such as the selection of the materials, assessment, evaluation, and their role in the classroom (Freire, 1970; Giroux, 1988; McLaren, 1989). Teachers go further as *"reflective practitioners"* and embrace the position of *transformative intellectual* (Giroux, 1988, p. 125) who can engage in critical thinking (CT) activity where both teachers and students teach each other, and no one possesses authority over another. This reflects the constructivist notion

in which learners are not viewed as empty vessels to be filled with their teachers' knowledge (Freeman and Johnson, 1998).

Based on the different ways in which critical approaches are looked at in education, CP is a philosophy of education and a method of teaching that pursues to raise teachers' and learners' power that enables them to critique and challenge the problems by helping them to build critical consciousness. Accordingly, CLP can be operationally defined as a dynamic framework of education. That encompasses and encourages the ways of learning and teaching that are of adequate relevance to the cultural and sociopolitical realities (Giroux, 1997). This orientation rejects *banking education*, a term coined by Freire (1970), as the process of transferring information, and it embraces a view of education as consisting of the acts of cognition that occur through dialog. Students and teachers become critical co-investigators in which no one teaches one another, nor is anyone self-taught. CLP considers learning as a social event where teaching is mediated by the world and cognizable objects, which in banking education are manipulated by the teacher (Keesing-Styles, 2003).

1.8. TRANSFORMATIVE PEDAGOGY (TP): A PARTICIPATORY APPROACH

CLP has been used as an umbrella term in L2 professional literature, which assumes different identities for teachers and students. Transformative pedagogy (TP) has been used, a term by Giroux (1988), as a version of CLP. It is an activist pedagogy that combines the elements of constructivism and CP by empowering students to examine their beliefs, values, and knowledge critically. The goal is to develop a reflective knowledge and to challenge the status quo to promote a democratic and emancipatory learning context (Freire, 2005; Moreno-Lopez, 2005). In TP, teachers and students engage in dialogic relationships to empower each other for transformative intellectualism and offer students a perspective to voice their ideas (Clark, 2018; Kim and Pollard, 2017; McLaren, 1989; Shor, 1996). Teachers are seen as *transformative intellectuals* who should develop critical attitudes and skills among students (Kareepadath, 2018).

TP advocates a constructivist dialogical perspective of knowledge. It aims to disclose the connections between knowledge and the cultural norms of society. This perspective opposes the traditional theory of education that serves to reinforce certainty, conformity, and technical control of knowledge and power (Darder, Baltodano, and Torres, 2009). Dialectical constructivism

posits that knowledge forms interactions among people. From this perspective, Kincheloe (2000) asserts that knowledge is socially constructed through the dialog between "the world and human consciousness" (p. 107). Thus, TP seeks to support a dynamic interactive element instead of absolute dichotomies of thought or practice. This point of view is rooted in the dialectical view of knowledge. That is why Darder et al. (2009) maintain that TP endorses a flexible and flowing "view of human and nature that is relational; objectivity and subjectivity that is interconnected and a coexistent understanding of theory and practice" (p. 11).

A plethora of works (Atai and Moradi, 2016; Barjesteh, 2017, 2019; Bellis, 2018; Kincheloe, 2008; Shor, 1996) have been done in TP indicate that teachers can empower their students by incorporating the principles of CLP in the classroom context. Crooks (2009) notes the word empowerment has turned to be a password among critical pedagogists. In brief, TP is mainly concerned with the critique and elimination of human sufferings, the creation of consciousness, voice, hope, possibility, and the improvement of life through education. It results in the reconceptualization of the notion of education and transforms it into a means of justice. Giroux (1988) posits that empowering students to become critical and active citizens rests on teachers who have the potential to "combine scholarly reflection and practice in the service of educating students to be thoughtful, active citizens" (p. 122).

1.9. CRITICAL LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION PRACTICES

Critical theory mainly deals with elements of power in any community and is meant to serve justice by providing people with the means they need to free themselves from the unjust or cruel exercise of authority. CP, unlike critical theory, recognizes education as the instrument that can emancipate people from these forms of discrimination. Critical theory is mainly concerned with power relations in society and seeks to bring about justice by empowering people to emancipate themselves from oppression. CP differs from critical theory in that it views education as the way to emancipation of people from these forms of discrimination.

McDonald and Zeichner (2008, as cited in Hawkins and Norton) discuss the current move from multicultural education to social justice teacher education. Social justice teacher education seeks to address institutionalized as well as individual power differentials, intending to promote teacher's recognition and ownership of their roles as social activities. There is an

increasing body of literature within the fields of TESOL that addresses theoretical stances around language teaching and language planning (Pennycook, 2001; Phillipson, 1992), but there are few accounts of critical language teaching practices. These accounts can be categorized as *critical awareness, critical self-reflection, and critical pedagogical relations, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), Critical Literacy(ies) (Critical Literacy Pedagogy, and Literacy in the Third Millennium*. Barjesteh and Mozafari (2016) support that incorporating critical approaches in the classrooms can foster learners' consciousness and self-seeking activities. In each of the critical accounts, the notion of *praxis* is hidden.

1.9.1. Critical Awareness

The main emphasis of critical teacher educators is on encouraging critical awareness through raising the realization of how power relations are built and act in society and the degree to which historical, social, and political practices structure educational discrimination. This refers to a case in which teacher educators attempt to make visible to teacher-learners inequitable relations of power in their communities and how these affect the language learners they teach. Pennycook (2004, p. 341) offers an insightful reflection on what it means to be a critical teacher educator, coining the term *praxicum* to capture how theory and practice come together to create a new understanding of the TESOL practicum. Three critical aspects in the teachers-learners classroom were identified by Pennycook, taken from a) the activities of a disturbing male student, b) the use of rehearsal conversations, and c) the acknowledgment of non-standard English in the classroom. Each of these critical aspects increases greater questions of power in the community and offers a chance for critical argument and reflection. He recommends that trying to be a critical teacher is more than looking for and grasping small moments to open the door to a more critical viewpoint. So his account finds praxis in the developing critical awareness of teacher-learners for social revolution.

1.9.2. Critical Consciousness

Critical consciousness is one of the essential components of CLP and the key to people's emancipation. Barjesteh (2020) conceptualizes CLP as a philosophy of education and a method of teaching that pursues to raise teachers' and learners' power that enable them to critique and challenge the problems by helping them to build *critical consciousness*. Coming to critical

consciousness, Barjesteh maintains that it is a process whereby students foster a capacity to think critically. It is defined as a process by which students achieve an awareness of the social realities which discover their abilities to recreate them. Freire introduces the notion of *'conscientization'* and defines it primarily as "the effort to enlighten men about the obstacles preventing them from a clear perception of reality. In this role, conscientization affects the ejection of cultural myths that confuse people's awareness and make them ambiguous beings" (1985, p. 89). According to him, conscientization envisages people's gaining critical consciousness.

Freire (1970b) assumes different modes or levels of consciousness (i.e., semi-intransitive, naive transitive, and critical). At the lowest level or 'semi-intransitive' consciousness, people almost accept their lives as they are. This mode of consciousness does not have enough distance from reality to see reality concretely or critically. This consciousness has a distorted portrait of the challenges and problems of reality. Therefore, individuals with this type of consciousness attribute problems and misfortunes to super-natural powers or to their incapability, and consequently, they will not attempt to change their lives and transform reality. The next level is 'naive-transitive consciousness,' which moves away to some extent from blind myths toward awareness. People with naive consciousness perceive a little more accurately the source of problems in their lives and begin to take action (Freire, 1970). The third level is 'critical consciousness' therewith individuals can contextualize and analyze their problems deeply and view reality and their lives as changeable entities. Thus they can engage in both reflection and action, i.e., praxis. According to Freire (1985), gaining critical consciousness cannot be achieved only by reflection, but through praxis.

Heaney (1995) distinguishes *consciousness-raising* and *conscientization*. He points out that the former is the result of banking education. Thus, it is influenced by the transmission of knowledge. The latter implies achieving new levels of awareness as the subject in the real world rather than an object. He explains:

"In this movement from naivety to CP, individuals grasp the social, political, economic, and cultural contradictions that subvert learning. Teachers and students with a critical consciousness conceptually pull back from their lived reality to gain a new vantage point on who they are and how they came to be this way" (p. 73).

1.9.3. Critical Self-Reflection

Critical language educators inspire teacher-learners to reflect on their identities and situations in society analytically. *Self-reflection* opens a window into the link between the learner and the social world by the emphasis on the limitations and probabilities of changes in society. Pavlenko (2003) presented a self-reflective report that showed how she used the theory to supply authorization alternatives in a graduate language learning class in the United States. She discovered that many instructors engaged in learning interiorized traditional indigenous and non-indigenous speech. She offered the concept of multiple competencies to strengthen her reflection, which her students consider as legal customers of the target language, instead of the "unsuccessful native speakers" (Cook, 1999). Ikuku's idea, a Japanese female student, demonstrates the capability of theory to supply a wide range of identity alternatives for teachers who are engaged in learning language: I learn new perspicacities into the English and sociocultural aspects of the language day by day, authorizing our knowledge. For example, until recently, I did not consider myself as a bilingual person and constantly thought that my English knowledge was not good enough, and in the end, I must be able to use the English language like a native until I learn the notion of multiple competencies which is introduced by Cook (p. 262). In this sample, praxis can characterize the development of perception (by teacher-learners) in a way in which social discourses have framed self-perception and as well as their capability to perform on the world.

1.9.4. Critical Pedagogical Relations

If the purpose of critical education is to give power to students, the educational relationship between teacher educators and teacher-learners must be built on fair terms. Teacher educators should strive to rebuild power relations between their teacher-learners and themselves, not only to model important teaching methods but also to inspire teacher-learners to assume approaches in which their pedagogy can provide opportunities for language learners during the classrooms. As an account, Crookes and Lehner (1998) refer to a language teacher education course taught in Hawaii in which they intended to interrupt what Freire has referred to as the banking model of education in support of one in which all members are equally in charge of planning and taking part in learning. By starting the discussion of the educational program, they tried to revision the structure and environment of the class. They describe in detail their attempt to accomplish an important

educational program in a long-established setting. This is, to a large extent, a reflection of the anxieties between their positions of authority as instructors and their willingness to adopt participatory dialog. Thus, praxis requires a fundamental review and changes in the foundation of the educational programs and classes.

1.9.5. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

Discourse analysis is the general term for different approaches and different schools of thought to analyze discourse. Discourse Analysis is widely for the study of the *usage of languages* in texts and their contextual meaning. Nunan (1992) states that *discourse analysis* is carried out on both written and spoken language, but the conversation and interaction analysis is concerned exclusively with spoken language. *Conversation analysis* originated in the early 1960s at the University of California, Los Angeles. It has its origins in the *ethnomethodological tradition of sociology* and particularly the work of Garfinkel (1967); and Goffman (1967, 1981). Discourse Analysis is the review of how sentences are designed in spoken and written language in larger meaningful units (such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews). Discourse analysis deals with the following items:

- How is the structure of the discourse affected by choice of articles, pronouns, and tenses?
- The connection between utterances in discourse.
- The movements that speakers make for proposing a new topic, changing the theme, or claiming a role that is concerned with other speech discourse conversations are sometimes called conversational analysis.
- Text linguistics is the term that some linguists used for studying the written discourse.
- The discourse which is used in the classroom is another part of discourse analysis. Such analysis can be practical to know the productiveness of methods for teaching and different kinds of student-teacher interactions.

CDA is a type of discourse analysis that adopts a crucial position on the way a language is used and studies texts and other types of discourse to identify ideologies and their basic values. CDA is a school of thought that attempts to critically assess discourse. CDA is an interdisciplinary method for studying discourse, or in simple terms, it discusses it as an oral or written form that considers language as a form of social action. Interaction analysis

(the process of interaction analysis) is one of the numerous methods for the measurement and description of the performance of the learners and instructors in different classes, (A) to report what is going on during a class, (B) for the evaluation of training, (C) for examining the linkage between what the content of teaching and learning is, (D) assisting teacher-trainees to understand that what the teaching process consists of. In interaction analysis, the behavior of the learners during a class is observed, and by considering a classification framework, different kinds of learner and instructor activities are classified.

The analysis of critical discourse has its *critics*. One dispute against CDA is that it bears a strong resemblance to previous stylistic studies of literary criticism. For instance, it is argued that critical analysis should involve the analysis of text producers and their consumers, not just the analyst's view of the meaning of the text alone (Widdowson, 2005). Other scholars such as Van Noppen (2004) argued that in the analysis of critical discourse, the position of the reader in consuming and interpreting a text is not always defined, and they sometimes mistake themselves for a member of the intended audience of the text. Schegloff (1997) also asserted that the analysis of critical discourse is also castigated for not always being accurate and regular enough in the texts it examines. Toolan (1997) maintained that the analysts of critical discourse had been called upon to be more serious about their analytical tools and also to seek greater accuracy in the evidence they make. Nevertheless, other scholars such as Stubbs (1997) have argued in favor of analysis of critical discourse, arguing that its schedule is not trivial and of significant social importance, but some vital details and debates still should be considered carefully.

1.9.6. Critical Literacy(ies)

Literacy includes learners who are capable of interpreting and comprehending content from different contexts. Merriam-Webster defines it as the state's quality of being literate as the ability to read and write and also have the knowledge or competence. Literacy is defined as the ability to recognize, comprehend, interpret, construct, communicate, and calculate by printed and written material related to different fields (UNESCO, 2017). It is announced by UNESCO (2004) that it comprises continuity learning so that every people can achieve their goals, develops their knowledge and capacity, and also fully engaged in their society and the wider community. Some educators (Gee, 1996; Luke, 2004 as cited in Larson-Freeman and Anderson, 2011) conceptualized the term as plural literacy, rather than a

singular concept. They pinpointed the notion that participation in a literate English culture means more than reading and writing. When students learn a language, they go beyond reading and writing that language. They are not just learning to read that language. They would learn the norms, discourse of politics, communication, education, or business.

UNESCO (2004) declared that literacy is a potent and all-inclusive skill in life that goes beyond the traditional notions of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. In every society, being literate define as (1) availability, recording, creating, and interacting reflections; (2) understanding and constructing knowledge; (3) creative responding to produce works of social, cultural, esthetic, historical, and economic importance; (4) exploring, questioning, and responding to local, national, and global challenges, problems, and issues; (5) comprehending and interacting with bureaucracies and holding personal records; and (6) spending time pleasantly and sharing a wide range of entertaining texts.

Luke (2012) postulates that CL "an overtly political orientation to teaching and learning and to the cultural, ideological, and sociolinguistic content of the curriculum" (p. 5). Notably, Cho (2014) classified CL into the following features: (1) disrupting the commonplace, (2) interrogating multiple viewpoints, (3) focusing on sociopolitical issues, and (4) taking action and promoting social justice.

1.9.7. Critical Literacy (CL) Pedagogy

Critical language pedagogy (CLP) adopts a praxis-oriented approach. CLP has its roots in the neo-Marxist Frankfurt school's critical theories, including post-colonialism, postmodernism, feminism, and anti-racism and some other theories that are in sharp contrast with the traditional school (Heras, 1999), which recognizes societal conditions as the main building block of language teaching. Table 1.1 illustrates the schematic representation of the theme in CLP.

Table 1.1. The Underlying Themes of Critical Literacy Pedagogy

Themes of Critical Literacy Pedagogy	
Relevant	• Designing the class and curriculum to be relevant and inclusive of students' identities, lives, experiences, cultures, and current events.

Reflexive	• Acknowledging, exploring, and/or learning about one's biases, as well as how the bracket those biases.
Deconstructive	• Deconstructing or dissecting texts, videos, or other media to look at the language features; authorial bias, intent, and purpose; as well as the way the text, video, or media might perpetuate grand cultural narratives. It also involves working to deconstruct these grand cultural narratives.
Dialogic	• Exploring literacy as a social practice by exploring multiple perspectives and meanings of a text or media. In particular, this exploration may occur through dialog and questioning.
Empowering	• Examining issues of power in text, media, classroom, school, and/or society in order to counter deficit mindsets and empower students.
Transformative	• Considering how text, media, and/or society can be transformed to be more equitable and to create opportunities for social action.

1.9.8. Literacy in the Third Millennium

From the *new perspective*, literacy is a person's ability to make a change in one's life. Accordingly, literacy is not the ability to read and write or use a computer anymore. From the new trend, a literate is one who can make a change in one's real-life situation. In the third millennium, literacy skills encompass the abilities necessary to solve problems, collaborate, and enact information in one's life to make a change for a better situation.

Critical literacy (CL) is regarded as a growing range of practices of investigation and examination that change within the micro characteristics of texts and the macro circumstances of organizations, concentrating on how relations of power act through these practices. CL is the capability of reading a text actively in a way that encourages a deeper comprehension of socially made notions, like *power, inequality, and injustice* in human relationships. Paolo Freire is typically ascribed with its origin, and his phrase "reading the word, reading the world" (Freire and Macedo, 1987) is symbolic of CL all over the world. Freire's persistence that literacy could and should

put people in quarreling for their privileges supports much of the work of teachers devoted to CL (Giroux, 1993). Defining CL goes against its ethos of “debate, dissonance, and difference” (Luke and Freebody, 1997, p. 16), involving locally contingent, dynamic repertoires of practices negotiated in different situations.

CHAPTER 2

CRITICAL LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY

CONTENTS

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Teaching languages was advanced as a career in the 20th century. According to those novel advancements and modern technologies, numerous changes have been realized in education. The English language plays a role in the world that grows fast and ongoing; thus, the need for EFL teachers is growing. Furthermore, in the past three decades, linguistics, education, psychology, and anthropology have had an eminent impact on second/foreign language (FL) teaching and learning (Esmaili and Barjesteh, 2013). That is to say that EFL teachers carry more weight because they should try more than before to learn and understand about the process of education (Chase, 1988; Richards, 1996; Brown, 2001). Kumaravadivelu (2003) posits that among different people (e.g., administrators, policymakers, curriculum planners, teacher educators, textbook writers, and teachers) involve in each educational system, and teachers play a pivotal role in directing the learning outcome. Therefore, an instructor should be endowed with a sense of plausibility, and according to the latest studies, a teacher's *autonomy* has been mainly focused on foreign/second language (L2) teaching investigations (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). As a result of the emergence of CP and the development of language pedagogy, educators, and learners acquired new identities in linguistic education.

Regarding CP, educators are considered as facilitators and negotiators of classroom procedures, systems, contents, and grading requirements, along with their position with students in the classroom. CP seeks to make both students and educators aware of these socio-political issues involved in language teaching. Moreover, CP considers both students and teachers as agents of social change with the power to transform lives (Barjesteh and Niknezhad, 2020).

2.2. ORIGIN AND HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGICAL THOUGHT

The most prominent educational theory that should be studied to understand the historical background of critical pedagogy (CP) is *progressivism.* View of John Dewey, the American philosopher, is often referred to as the father of the progressive education movement. This movement is concerned with advancing democratic ideals. His ideology centered on different basic principles comprising the notion that education must engage with the experience that is both thinking and reflection are central to the act of teaching. He believed that students should interact with their environments in

case of constructing knowledge. McLaren (1989) maintained that Dewey's work was inconsistent in "his attempt to link the notion of individual and social (cooperative) intelligence with the discourse of democracy and freedom" (p. 199). Likewise, Darder, Baltodano, and Torres (2009) believed that Dewey provided a language of possibility as a philosophical construct to the emergence of CP.

The five key themes of *progressivism* were summed up by Darling and Nordenbo (2002) as a critique of traditional pedagogy, modern interpretation of the concept of knowledge, modern perception of human nature, democratic pedagogy, and the advancement of the whole person. According to progressive scholars, the children's inherent curiosity and interest build up their knowledge, and conventional education does not meet their needs and interest. Crooks (2010) clarified that an eminent person, who respected the historical tradition and practice of CP, was Dewey. Instead of standard curricula, Dewey stressed learning through experiences. He rejected bureaucratic methods. It has been assumed that his racial works and social reconstructionist theories are responsible for a shift in education from the institutions to the students that started in the 20th century in the united states (Darling and Nordenbo, 2002).

Historically, it was conceptualized to be the realization of the neo-Marxist Frankfurt school as a revolt to a traditional school (Gur-Ze'ev, 2005; Kincheloe, 2005; Lather, 1991; McLaren, 2003). The Frankfurt school was largely inspired by Karl Marx, especially his opinion on labor. Marx believed that the crucial issue in society was inequality in socio-economic. He also claimed that individuals should work in a socio-economic context in which each person acquired and invested according to their needs and their capacities (Eisner, 2002). He believed that societal equality is based on economic circumstances.

The critical theorists of the Frankfurt school founded in 1923. Although some of Marx's views related to school and education are endorsed, less unified social criticism is adopted by theorists of the Frankfurt school. Initially, Max Horkheimer, Theodor Adorno, and most notably, Herbert Marcuse asserted that the education method deprives learners to develop their goals and to formulate their priorities. In turn, it serves to de-skill learners (Kincheloe, 2004). The Frankfurt School stated that institutions fostering reliance, hierarchical conception of power, and providing a skewed version of life and other facts weaken the type of social awareness that is necessary for the transformation of the society (Eisner, 2002).

While several social activists like Myles Horton, Martin Luther King, Herbert Kul, Angela Davis, Cesar Chavez, Malcon X, and many others criticized the disapproval situation of the oppressed people in the United States, the most prominent figures formulated the Latin American liberation movement was Paulo Freire, who is commonly regarded as the inaugural philosopher of CP (McLaren, 2000). Freire's work with the poor in Brazil introduced him to the lives of *impoverished peasants.* His experiences compelled him to develop educational ideas and practices that would serve to improve the lives of these marginalized people and to lessen their oppression. Freire understood schools to be impediments to the education of the poor and thus sought to find strategies for students to intervene in what he considered to be a dehumanizing process (Kincheloe, 2004).

Freire (1970) conceptualized this educative process as liberatory action or praxis. He argued that people need to engage in a praxis that integrates theory, action, and reflection as a way to work toward social change and justice. He devised a literacy program based on this ideal as well as the practical needs of his students. The new left philosophers started to concentrate on CP as well. In the late 1970s and 1980s, Henry Giroux (1981) began to formulate a CP that synthesized the more progressive elements of John Dewey's philosophy and the critical theory of the Frankfurt School. Giroux, along with Simon, Apple, and McLaren, concentrated on the crucial role of schools in transmitting messages regarding political, social, and economic life. They contend that CP will help educators to conceptualize the possibilities of democratic social values within their classroom (Kincheloe, 2004).

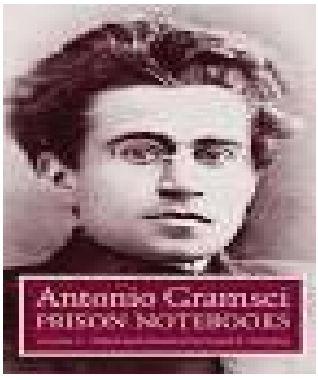
In the context of critical education, Lather (1991) described the relation between *feminist and critical pedagogy*, ethnography of women, and post-structuralism (Kincheloe, 2004). Lather believed that a number of the post discourses can support critical educators to examine and criticize the position of power and control in the development of information through the study of methods and modes. Post-structural deconstruction study connected to Derrida and post-modern activities connected to Derrida, Foucault, Lyotard, Ebert, and others (Kincheloe, 2005) has already debated the social problems, cultural, and economic backgrounds of information and pedagogy sources.

Shrewsbury (1987), Hooks (1994), and Weiler (2001), advocating the *feministpedagogues*, contend that education should offer alternative classroom practices by challenging the traditional perspective. Feminist pedagogy endorses the notion of both the content of the curriculum and the

methods of pedagogy in a classroom. Weiler (2001) argues that the feminist pedagogy highlights a number of issues, namely" (a) the importance of consciousness-raising, (b) the existence of oppressive social structure, (c) the need to change it, (d) the possibility of social transformation" (p. 68). Shor (1996) explicitly incorporates the notion of CP to the post-secondary classroom. She conceptualizes the same concerns to those that Lather (1991) expresses regarding the shortcomings of transmission-based pedagogies. Shor incorporates praxis-orientation in a classroom while emphasizing the potential for teachers and students to act as agents of social change.

While this historical overview may represent an oversimplification of many aspects of CLP, within this *history,* there is a contradiction, overlap, and resistance to the attempts of some *critical theorists* and *pedagogues* to identify the "one perfect" definition or a narrow set of prescriptive practices that constitute the field of CP. Notably, earlier CLP has been evolved mainly by numerous American educators (e.g., Giroux, McLaren, Apple, and Kellner). Their studies are grounded on the *Frankfurt School of thought* in Germany and *Freirean pedagogy* in Brazil with adult literacy and freedom from oppression. Drawing on the origin and historical perspective of critical pedagogical thought, various philosophical principles can be fleshed out for teaching. What follows provides early and contemporary developers of critical pedagogical thought, its version, and the corresponding philosophical construct from the historical perspective.

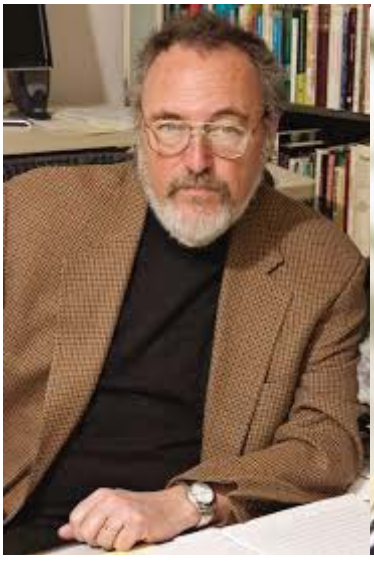
2.3. CRITICAL PEDAGOGISTS (TABLE 2.1)



Bell Hooks

Peter McLaren

Joe L. Kincheloe



Michal Apple

Antonia Darder

Ira Shor

Table 2.1. Versions, Philosophical Construct, and Activists in CLP

A.	**Early Developers of Critical Pedagogical Thought**			
Versions	**Classical Theorists(Black History;Esthetic Education)**	**Theory of Hegemony**	**Critical Social Theorists**	**Liberatory/ Emancipatory Education; Transformative Pedagogy**

Philosophical construct	Racialized inequality	Power on the construction of knowledge	Socio-economic Equality	Emancipation from oppression
Activists	John Dewey; W.E.B. DuBois; Carter G. Woodson; Myles Horton; Herbert Kol; Maxin Greene Leonard Cavello	Antonio Gramsci; Michel; Foucault	Max Horkheimer; Theodor Adorno; Herbert Marcuse	Paulo Freire
B.	**Contemporary Developers of Critical Pedagogical Thought**			
Versions	**Pedagogy of Possibility**	**Feminist Pedagogy**	**Post-discourse (Post/ Structuralist, Colonialism)**	**The Possibility of Pedagogical Practice**
Philosophical Construct	Disrupting dominant socioeconomic; privileged; discourse	disrupting dominant	Contextualization	employing the theory of CP in praxis
Activists	Henry Giroux; Peter McLaren Michael Apple; Rodger Simon	Bell Hooks; Caroline; Shrewsbury; Kathleen; Weiler	Patti Lather; Donna Haraway; Deborah; Sitzman	Ira Shor
C.	**Current Developers of Critical Language Pedagogue**			
Version	**Participatory Approach, Pedagogy of Inclusion, Dialogic, Radical Pedagogy**	**Engaged Pedagogy; Holistic Education Border Pedagogy**	**Postmodern Pedagogy Pedagogy of Possibility**	**Pedagogy of Democratization**

Philo-sophi-cal Con-struct	Radical social change	Self-actu-alization; Promote students well-being; dialogical approach	Language awareness, Learner autonomy Socio-political dimension; empow-erment, Learner autonomy;	Cultural poli-tics
Activ-ists	Giroux, McLaren, Shor; Pennycook, Cox, and Assiss-Peterson	Bell hooks	Giroux; Canagara-jah, Kuma-radevelue	Antonia Darder; Peter McLaren, Don-aldo Macedo, Giroux; Earnest Mor-rell; Douglas Kellner

2.4. IMPORTANT FIGURES IN THE EMERGENCE OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGICAL THOUGH

2.4.1. Paulo Freire

Although he seldom used the term CP, Paulo Freire (1921–1997) is believed to be the father of this educational perspective. Despite his death, his ideas still direct CP (Glass, 2001). In what follows, the researcher will go through some of his determining ideas that planted the seeds of CP and have become the premises directing this approach to education since its infancy. According to Freire, the notion of education has a political role in controlling the "language." He underlines awareness as a part and a condition for the subjugation of people and groups by leaders. He studies education as one aspect of the relationship between criticism and authority. He opposes the statement of the controlling group that objective and impartial knowledge are trained in school.

Freire stated that the bank is the model that describes the natural function-ing of education. Its purpose is to regenerate the power relations that govern today's society and to understand the hegemonic belief in the school. He claims that regular education will carry out the project while preventing dialog. In the dialog, he sees equal, overt, and critical inter-subjectivity be-

tween learners and their surroundings, between teachers and learners and their surroundings where they find themselves as an option for power relations in the academia and its principal levels. For him, turning these powers, levels, and actions into an anti-learning action is something that his CP is devoted to creating. At this point, his comprehension of critical theory and education come together.

The purpose of his CP is to return his stolen voice to downgraded groups so he can identify and give his name to the objects of the world. The resemblance to postmodern critiques is apparent in his recognition that making the right word is nothing less important than changing the world. Nevertheless, recognizing this perception with the postmodern situation is too rushed as the significance of language in his thought relates to his notion of "truth" and a class struggle to marginalize and suppress the real "voice," as if their obvious information is less wrong than the validity of their oppressors. He indirectly argues that the interests of all the worried individuals are identical. He mentioned a general theory for translating the suppressive truth and evolving the capacities absorbed in their mutual memory. According to him, simple "verbalism" is an additional evaluation of language that has no requirement to be degraded and monitored to formulate and articulate its knowledge and needs, and however, does not aim at their liberation.

"Praxis" is a usual goal of the teacher and the student, the organizer, and the supporters, in a conversation among alike followers. In education, praxis aims to fill the gap between reconstructive practice and theory that successfully alters human life. This notion of alteration contradicts the educational notion of critical theory. Learning and teaching are essentially the obligation and opportunity of the individual and are a permanent subject while being philosophically realized in a given historical and social framework. They are constrained by the personal ability to overcome the "father image," prejudgments, lifestyles, and external power relations that make up a set to achieve full private and social development. Based on Freire, this individual improvement depends on important knowledge and must take place as part of the revolutionary practice of society as a whole. It is only there that effective educational praxis can realize the principle of dialog. The conversation is a genuine meeting between two persons, a coach and a friend who wants to be trained to converse. The session should be erotic or not done at all.

2.4.2. Antonio Gramsci

Gramsci lived a very short life. Mussolini, in World War II, imprisoned him for his membership in the communist party and the rejection of fascism. He was profoundly committed to how domination was undergoing main alternation industrial society. He shed light on the notion of hegemony on his observation. He contends that teachers are the moral leaders of society who encourage the universal notions of what is thought of as "truth" in societies (Darder et al., 2009). In so doing, Gramsci believed that those in power cultivate certain notions, expectations, and value systems daily so that learners are socialized to adhere to them even though those norms might contradict learners' interests of socioeconomic class. Consequently, they lose their ability to reflect critically over the environment, become recipients of others' values, and thus, are involved in ideological hegemony. By stipulating the cultural awareness, he aimed to highlight the common sense that was meant to keep on the status quo into question and, therefore, develop the transformational possibilities of education (Darder et al., 2009).

2.4.3. Michel Foucault

Foucault, the French philosopher, extended the existing notion of power and its impact on the construction of knowledge. He provided the theoretical basis upon which to conduct critical readings of culture, consciousness, history domination, and resistance (Darder et al., 2009). Foucault objected to how knowledge was distributed among people. He criticized how power determined what kind of knowledge was legitimate, and he caused some "regimes of truth" (Darder et al., 2003, p. 7) to be perpetuated and other readings and types of truth to be removed to maintain the status quo. Foucault conceptualized the issue of power relations to account for such relations within the context of creative acts of resistance. He believes that the creative act is formed as human beings interact across the dynamic of the relationship. This will shape by the moments of dominance and autonomy. His point of view shed light on the phenomenon of student resistance within the classroom and open the door to a more perplex of understanding of power relationships within poor teaching practice (Darder et al., 2009).

2.4.4. Bell Hooks

Gloria Jean Watkins, better known by her pen name bell hooks, is an African-American social theorist. Her writings are not only educational and in the field of feminist scholarship, but they are also available, thought-provoking,

and appealing. She investigates various fields of research where she is loyal to making corrections to her readers' challenges. She is a feminist theorist whose plan is to revise teaching methods by merging them with desire and principles. She also seeks freedom through education and cultural, gender, and boundaries in the classroom. Hooks (1994) proposed *engaged pedagogy*. To him, engaged pedagogy was more becoming than feminist or CP. Hooks justified that engaged pedagogy "demands teachers to be actively committed to a process of self-actualization that promotes their well-being if they are to teach in a manner that empowers students" (p. 15). Teachers should be committed to their spiritual, emotional, and physical well-being to position themselves more properly to educate students in liberating ways. In sum, engaged pedagogy is an approach to holistic learning where educators must be a vivid example of their society. It is a practical theory formulated by a social critic which deeply concerned about education as freedom. It sees education as a liberation force and not a measure of memorization. Hooks posited that *"*School was the place of ecstasy-pleasure and danger. To be changed by ideas was "pure pleasure" (p. 3). It was the place she learned ideas that challenged her upbringing and made her think about her life in new ways.

2.4.5. Henry Giroux

Giroux, as a student of Freire, contributes to the development of critical theory in education. He believes that critical theory led educators toward a radical pedagogy that world reveals repressive ideologies and reconstructs a more emancipating relationship (Giroux, 2001). He maintains that CP is not a "magic bullet" for a society rife with inequality. Instead, critical education shows both an ideal and a strategy in the service of endeavoring for social and economic democracy. Giroux (2003) reflects on cognition as the main defect of radical teaching. He deals with that teachers must become more well-informed about how teachers, students, and other educational workers become part of the system of social and cultural construction, mainly as it works through the message and standards that are established via the social practices of the hidden curriculum (HC). This training calls for teachers to inquiry focus and integrates the cultural norms and resources of the society in their classroom training.

2.4.6. Peter McLaren

McLaren (2003) argued that the main tenet of CP is the notion that what learners and others might do to create change the cultural politics that

endorse this doctrine. He maintains the notion of accountability hidden in the critical theories to meet the logic of market demands. Malaren's ideology drew attention to articulate the framework of CP. He believed that the philosophers who aimed to advocate the CP must first become critical theorists. That is, the critical theorists advocate theories that "recognize the problem of society as more than simply isolated events of individuals or deficiencies in the social structure" (p. 69). This notion in CP prepares educators to act upon the nexus between knowledge, power, formal, and HC, and social reproduction. McLaren was a student of Freire. He believed that teachers who advocate the CP have the objective of empowering themselves and teaching for empowerment.

McLaren considered schools as a place that constructs knowledge in three ways *(a) technical, (b) practical, and (c) emancipatory.* The *technical knowledge* values practical and analytical methods to make forms of quantifiable knowledge. The culture of testing has placed technical knowledge at the center of professional discourse in most schools. The second knowledge demands learners to shape their daily actions in the world. It explains the social condition to develop learners' practical situational skills. He maintains that *practical knowledge* is transferrable in different forms, like functional literacy, time management, and conflict resolution in society. He maintains that *emancipatory knowledge* bears the bedrock for social justice, equality, and empowerment. This is the primary goal of CP. This is rooted in the study of past and existing social conditions to change the condition of oppression and domination through collective action. McLaren's framework demands action against social reproduction. He maintains that educators must be self-reflective and raise their awareness. McLaren believes that:

"CP does not guarantee that resistance will not take place. But it does provide teachers with the foundations for understanding resistance so that whatever pedagogy is developed can be sensitive to socio-cultural conditions that construct resistance, lessening the chance that students will be blamed as the sole originating source of resistance. A much more penetrating solution is to understand the structures of mediation in the socio-cultural world that form student resistance" (p. 93).

2.5. PHILOSOPHICAL PRINCIPLES

Liberalism, Marxism, existentialism, extremist Catholicism, phenomenology, and parts of *postmodern and poststructuralist* thought were a great variety of mental traditions proposed by Freire (1970). His perspectives on the

idea of the real world, his origination of being human, his hypothesis of information, and his thoughts on abuse and freedom can be regarded as a helper so that Freire's practical exercises can be understood. A dialectical approach has been taken on by Freire in the direction of perceiving the world, which has a twofold meaning. On the one hand, his thought of reality is rationalistic; on the other hand, he endeavors to be persuasive in his style of social examination (Robert, 2000). Freire set a unique connection between cognizance and the world by employing thoughts from Hegel and Marx (Freire, 1998). He explicitly rejected two positions that ignore the Education, Literacy, and Humanization dialectical nature of this relationship: mechanistic objectivism and solipsistic idealism. The former reduces consciousness to a mere "*copy*" of objective reality; the latter sees consciousness as the *creator of (all) reality* (Freire, 1970).

According to the requests of a dialectical approach, both problems and social phenomena are conceived not in unique confinement but rather as a component of entirety and estimated in worldwide terms. A genuine dialectician is continually endeavoring to relate one part of the world to another. Also, it is seeking to clarify the goal of the study more profoundly by standing it out with which it is not. This is a form of "*epistemological encircling*": a means of moving closer by gaining a certain kind of distance (Freire, 1997). Table 2.2 summarizes the major philosophical underpinnings of a critical language perspective.

Table 2.2. Main Tenets of the Philosophical Perspective in CLP

SL. No.	Philosophical Perspective	Major Tenets
1.	Dialectical theory	Knowledge is socially constructed though dialog between the world and human consciousness
2.	Dialog	No one teaches another, nor is anyone self-taught.
3.	Conscientization	A process by which students achieve a profound awareness of the social realities which shape their lives and discover their own capacities to recreate them

4.	Problematization	To problematize is to engage a group in the task of codifying reality into symbols which can generate critical consciousness and empower them to alter their relations with nature and oppressive social forces
5.	Praxis	The alliance of theory and practice
6.	Humanization	The ethical ideal in Freirean pedagogy
7.	Hegemony	A process of social control carried out by a dominant social class in order to maintain the status quo
8.	Cultural politics	Legitimizing as well as challenging, experiences, and perceptions shaped by the histories and socioeconomic realities that give meaning to everyday life
9.	Political economy	The concept refers to economic, social. ethical, political relationships that govern particular sectors of the social order
10.	Historicity of knowledge	Schools must be discerned not only within the limitations of their social practice but within the horizon of the historical events that inform educational practice

2.5.1. Dialectical Theory

CLP advocates a dialogical perspective of knowledge, dialectical constructivism that aimed to disclose the connections between objective knowledge and the cultural norms and value of the society. This perspective opposes the traditional theory of education that reinforces certainty, conformity, and technical control of knowledge and power (Darder, Baltodano, and Torres, 2009). Dialectical constructivism posits that knowledge forms from interactions between people.

From this perspective, knowledge is socially constructed through the dialog between "the world and human consciousness" (Kincheloe, 2000, p. 107). Within the dialectical perspective, all analysis initiates with human existence. The problems of society are not considered as random events but rather a moment that arises out of the interaction between individual and society (McLaren, 1989). CP seeks to support dynamic interactive elements instead of absolute dichotomies of thought or practice. This point of view is rooted in the dialectical view of knowledge. That is why Darder et al. maintain that CP endorses a flexible and flowing "view of human and nature

that is relational; an objectivity and subjectivity that is interconnected; and a coexistent understanding of theory and practice." (p. 11).

2.5.2. Dialog

In this procedure, pupils are involved in a process that Freire (1970) refers to as the dialog with the teacher. According to Freire (1970), dialog is one of the critical aspects of CP. Dialog deals with an emancipatory educational process that challenges dominant pedagogical discourse in an attempt to empower the pupils. When dialog is used, the concepts "teacher-of-the-students" and the "students-of-the-teacher" give way to new concepts known as "teacher-student" and "students-teachers" relationships. In the dialog methodology, the teacher serves simultaneously as a teacher and as a student who is being taught through dialog. Teachers and students jointly play a role in a process that helps them grow at the same time. Freire (1970) argues that in dialog methodology, no one is supposed to serve merely as a teacher, nor are they supposed to engage in a self-teaching process. In other words, People teach one another while making use of the intermediary role of the world that is represented by the objects that belong to the teacher.

Freire's dialogism is the cornerstone for critical education because it restricts teacher talk and encourages students' voices. Freire endorsed the role of dialog because he believed that dialog formulates a form of rapport between teacher and learner. He maintains that without dialog, there is no communication, and without communication, there is no true education. According to proponents of CP, education should be a liberatory practice. Freire argues that education is required to be *dialogical* (dialogical pedagogy) because emancipation is fulfilled through dialog. According to Shor and Freire (1987), a teacher is not recognized as the knower in CP, nor is a student known as an empty vessel to be filed by a knowledgeable teacher. Rather, the information and materials students put forward are placed at the center of attention in the process of teaching; therefore, the students are recognized as active subjects rather than passive objects of education. They, instead, challenge what they receive, and together with the teacher, are involved in the creation of knowledge. Giroux (1992) maintains, "Pedagogy is implicated in the construction and organization of knowledge, desires, values, and social practices" (pp. 64, 65). He also claims that "a critical pedagogical practice does not transfer knowledge but create the possibilities for its production, analysis, and use." From the viewpoint of CP, education doesn't deal with the transition of deposits to pupils. It is rather recognized as a dialogical process in which both teachers and pupils

get involved to learn and know. That is why Freire (1970) deems banking education, namely, transferring deposits of information to learners, as anti-dialogical (p. 93).

According to Heaney (1995):

"The dialogical approach to learning is characterized by co-operation and acceptance of interchangeability and mutuality in the roles of teacher and learner, demanding an atmosphere of mutual acceptance and trust. In this method, all teach, and all learn. This contrasts with an anti-dialogical approach that emphasizes the teachers' side of the learning relationship" (p. 45).

Heaney continues that the dialogical approach constitutes an educational strategy that centers upon the development of critical social consciousness or what Freire termed." *Conscientizacao*."

2.5.3. Conscientization

Critical consciousness (referred to as conscientization by Freire) is a process that enables individuals to boost their critical thinking (CT) power. Conscientization is the process that gives pupils an insight into the social facts that constitute their lives and enables them to explore the capacities which help them recreate them. According to Darder et al. (2009), *conscientization* is associated with interactions that are used to consistently clarify reflections. This interaction initiates in the classroom as pupils, and the teacher freely discusses their experiences through dialog. Speaking of differences between "*consciousness-raising*," and "*conscientization,"* Heaney (1995) argues that consciousness rising is the result of banking education and mostly deals with the transmission of knowledge, but "conscientization" deals with the development of awareness of being a subject rather than an object in the world.

According to Boyce (1996), critical consciousness plays a central role in Freire's CP because it highlights the development of critical consciousness. CP is primarily intended to provoke pupils' critical consciousness, so they freely express their status quo. Freire (1972) divides consciousness into *three levels: intransitive, semi-transitive*, and *critical consciousness*. In intransitive consciousness that is the lowest level of consciousness; people find a way to get along with their status quo and try to attribute any potential change to magic or miracles. At this level, people do not make any attempt to change their living conditions or react to the injustices they have suffered. Semi-transitive consciousness stands one level above the intransitive level.

At this level, people are cognizant of their problems and may learn a way to change their status quo. They usually find themselves unable to make contact with the outside world and usually see problems as accidental or ingredients of their life. People with this kind of consciousness usually take shortsighted actions.

Critical consciousness, known as *critical transitivity or sensitivity*, is the highest level of consciousness. People with this kind of consciousness believe that their problems are structural and usually find themselves able to link their problems to the social context that embodies their problems. They can also interpret their problems and analyze reality. According to Heaney (1995), learners who are willing to gain this level of consciousness are required to reject passivity and participate in the dialog. Heaney also argues that this level of consciousness arises from collective action, rather than personal or intellectual endeavor. Freire (1970) has developed several famous methods for achieving conscientization, among which are codifications, generative themes, and problem-posing education (PPE). What follows is a summary of the terms:

1. **Codification:** It can be defined as *the representation of a learner's everyday situations*. The situations can be codified by a single drawing, photo, or word (Heaney, 1995). The represented photo or word is recognized as an abstraction that provides the ground for dialog and, consequently, the analysis of a given concrete reality. Codification was first used by Freire as a means to improve the literacy and political consciousness of the Brazilian peasants. According to McLaren (1989), the basic version of the codification system was drawn on dirt using a stick. The represented codes gave rise to some sort of dialogs that could be used as a means to analyze the concrete reality (Heaney, 1995). The Codification system comes between reality and its abstract form. This system can also be used as a mediator between instructors and pupils who usually try to unveil the meanings of their existence.
2. **Generative Themes:** Discussions and analyzes in this system owe their existence to a generative theme (usually a single term or phrase) that can be recognized as the milestone of the whole system. According to Heaney, *generative themes* can be defined as complex experiences that have been codified and are usually of political significance. These themes owe their existence to a thorough analysis of learners' history and circumstances. Generative themes were used by Freire to arouse a problem-

posing dialog. In educational cases, these themes are subdivided into generative words (tri-syllabic words) that can be further divided into smaller syllables and used to "produce" a wide spectrum of words. The application of generative themes in Freire's CL method is mentioned in subsections.

2.5.4. Problem-Posing Education (PPE)/Method

In Problem-posing instruction, unlike banking education, the process of transferring information to learners gives way to a specific education technique that mainly pivots around the practice of dialog. The problem-posing method, as Freire (1970) believes, does not "dichotomize the activity of the teacher-students: he is not 'cognitive' at one point and 'narrative' at other" (p. 54). Through dialog, he continues, "the teacher-of-the-students and the students-of-the-teacher cease to exist, and a new term emerges; teacher-student with students-teachers" (p. 53). And this is when "all become jointly responsible for a process in which all grow" (p. 53). According to Auerbach (1993), problem posing, as a technique of developing critical-thinking skills, consists of 5 steps that are presented below:

1. **Describe the Content:** In this step, the instructor provides the pupils with a code (a photo, a drawing, or even a word) about the important concerns of pupils. The code presented to pupils is used to elicit feedback from them.
2. **Define the Problem:** The pupils try to find a way to unravel the issue(s) or problem(s) in the code.
3. **Personalize the Problem:** At this step, the instructor asks the pupils to describe their feelings about the problem to help them relate the issue(s) or problem(s) to their own lives.
4. **Discuss the Problem:** The instructor makes the pupils discuss social/economic reasons for the problems.
5. **Discuss Alternatives to the Problem:** At this point, pupils are required to find solutions to the problem.

2.5.5. Problematization

Problematization is the direct opposite of problem-solving. In the latter case, an expert subdivides the reality into constituents that can be subjected to treatment as though they were mere difficulties to be solved. "problematization" is actually about the involvement of a team in the process

of reality codification into symbols that can enhance critical consciousness and enable them to change their attitudes towards nature and oppressive social forces. Problem-posing is a task that allows the individual to question previous conceptualizations of a problem in an attempt to seek treatment. In Problematization, problems are usually difficult to solve because the problem being addressed is not the right problem in most cases.

2.5.6. Praxis: The Alliance of Theory and Practice

Freire (1970) constantly emphasizes that the goal of CP-that is, people's emancipation and social transformation, cannot be achieved unless the individual engages in action and reflection. Freire defines praxis as "reflection and action upon the world to transform it" (p. 60). He contends that a real praxis is unattainable in the *undialectical* vacuum driven by a departure of the individual from the object of their study. Within this context, both theory and practice give up their power to transform reality. To him, theory becomes "*simple verbalism*" and practice turn to be "*blind activist*" when they are separated from each other. In other words, he favors an alliance of theory and practice or what he termed "*praxis*."

Boyce (1996) views praxis as" what connects liberatory action to social transformation. *praxis* is an iterative and reflective action approach. In this process, the individual may repeatedly shift between evaluative reflection, theory, application, and finally, move back to the theory" (p. 12). Praxis is characterized by a lasting partnership or shift between action, reflection, and dialog. Focusing on this kind of partnership, Freire defines problem-posing instruction as the process of producing knowledge that emerges from invention and reinvention. Knowledge acquisition in praxis mostly deals with a dialog that makes one keep shifting between reflection and action. Heaney (1995) views praxis as a complex activity by which learners create culture and society and develop consciousness through a cycle of *action-reflection-action* that is central to the liberatory education. Freire (1970) concludes that learning and knowing take place through praxis. The act of knowing involves a dialogical movement that moves from actions to reflection and reflection upon action to a new action. Pennycook (1999) view praxis as a "mutually constructive role of theory grounded in practice and practice grounded in theory" (p. 342).

2.5.7. Humanization: Freire's Ethical Ideal

Just as Freire sees knowledge as necessarily incomplete – as always evolving – so he sees human beings as ever in a state of "*becoming*." *Humanization* is the ethical ideal in Freirean Pedagogy. From his perspective, one can never turn into fully human. Freire sees this calling to "be more" as an expression of human nature, making itself in history. Freire (1972) maintains that human beings are necessarily incomplete, undeveloped beings, who "exist in and with an ever-changing world" (p. 57). From Freire's perspective, one needs to be involved in a constant process of searching. Freire considers both an ontological and a historical vocation of human beings for humanization. He believes that Humans seek their vocation of becoming more fully humanwhen they involve in true praxis, through dialog with others, in a critically conscious way.

Freire pursues that this reflection and action upon the world makes us distinctly human. Thus, only human beings can employ in praxis. He compares animals and humans. He maintains that animals' adaptation of the material world is purely instinctive. In contrast, we possess the power to transform the world consciously and intentionally; moreover, we are the only creature to treat not merely our actions but ourselves as the object of reflection. Animals are submerged in reality: they cannot stand back from the world and consider themselves about it. They simply adapt to the world. Humans, by contrast, can ponder on the world and to transform it regarding this reflection. They can become both adapted to the world and integrated with it. Animals have no conception of time; they live in a permanent today. They cannot "confront life," give meaning to it, or become committed to it humans, though, are historical beings, aware of the past and able to conceive of a future. For human activity to be paraxial, there must be a synthesis of reflection and action. Freire posits that action which is practical "envelopes the whole being of the actors, their emotions, their feelings, their 'language-thought-reflection" (p. 1).

To live well, on the Freirean view, is to transform the world through reflective, critical, dialogical action. Not all forms of praxis, though, are humanizing. Freire (1972) distinguishes, for instance, between "revolutionary praxis" and "the praxis of the dominant Elites," the former being humanizing and the latter dehumanizing. The crucial element fundamental to the first form of praxis but absent in the second is *dialog*.

2.5.8. Hegemony

Hegemony can be defined as the process of maintaining the social dominance of a specific social class, in other words, *hegemony* can be described as the intellectual superiority of a specific sociocultural class to subordinate classes (Darder et al., 2003; Kanpol, 1999). Darder et al. (2009) argue that CP applies this assumption of hegemony to "demystify the asymmetrical power relations and social arrangement that sustains the interest of the ruling class" (p. 12). Put differently, this philosophical principle supports a strong relationship among politics, economics, culture, and pedagogy. Concerning how hegemony occurs, Freire (2005, p. 10) observes, "the dominant ideology veils reality" and, accordingly, "makes us myopic and prevents us from seeing reality clearly." By making explicit hegemonic processes in the context of education, hegemony sheds light on the strong relations between politics, economics, culture, and education. Therefore, critical pedagogues usually try to challenge educators to question and transform that classroom ethos that is tied to hegemonic tendencies of dominant elites and, therefore, emancipate themselves and the society from the dominant hegemonic shackles and constraints mentally and socially (Darder et al., 2003; Freire, 2005; Kanpol, 1999).

2.5.9. Cultural Politics

CP is primarily intended to promote the culture of education in an attempt to empower culturally marginalized and deprived pupils. Promotion of humane participation, interaction, and social action within the classroom, which is a key element of CP was overlooked in the Traditional education theories. This goal is somehow associated with linked to the implementation of "*vocation*," which is defined by Freire as the process of serving as humanized social (cultural) agents in the world. According to Darder et al. (2009), CP requires teachers to endorse the procedures through which schools employ theories and practices that are meant to link literacy and power without undermining asymmetrical power relations. Therefore, it can be argued that Schools serve as a domain of continuous cultural endeavor to obtain so-called legitimate knowledge. On the other hand, CP approves the "cultural politics*"* by both affirming and challenging experiences and perceptions that owe their existence to the background and socioeconomic realities, giving a touch of color to the everyday life of students.

2.5.10. Political Economy

Critical education, unlike traditional perspective, holds that schools are often heedless of or act against the class interests of politically vulnerable and economically deprived learners. The class reproduction, as well as the way educational procedures, can give rise to and perpetuate racism, is also among the controversial matters in this field. In other words, it can be argued that from the viewpoint of CP, the culture-class link is too strong to be broken within the context of daily life at schools. The concept of class here refers to *economic, social. Ethical, political* relationships govern particular sectors of the social order (Darder et al., 2009).

2.5.11. Historicity of Knowledge

All information is made inside a verifiable setting which has been embraced by CP. This perspective has several considerations. First, both life and significance are given to the human experience according to this context. Observation of schools is necessary not just inside the constraints of their social practice yet inside the view of the authentic occasions that illuminate instructive practice. What is in line with this perspective is that students and the information they bring into the classroom must be served as historical, which means being created inside a historical moment and conditions. As Freire (1972) notes, CP encourages teachers to provide opportunities in which students can come to explore that "there is no historical reality which is not human" (p. 125). By so doing, students consider themselves as subjects of history and come to recognize that human beings can also transform injustice conditions. This concept is tied to a process of collective and self-determined activity (Giroux, 1983).

CHAPTER 3

CRITICAL PEDAGOGY IN A CLASSROOM CONTEXT

CONTENTS

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The proponents of critical theorists advocate that CP postulates learning as a social event. They believe that education is interwoven with social, cultural, political, and economic construction in everyday life to be questioned and urged for progress in society. They posit that CLP is a new paradigm in thinking about education. This paradigm contends that education is influenced by the social structure; therefore, it can lead to the development of the status quo (Kincheloe, 2008 as cited in Barjesteh, Birjandi, and Maftoon, 2015). While there are different versions of CP (e.g., participatory approach, pedagogy of inclusion, pedagogy of possibilities, emancipatory, dialogic, radical, engaged, transformative, postmodern pedagogy), Barjesteh et al. (2015), postulate that most of them fall in the following *axioms*: (a) social fact can never be separated from the domain of value, (b) the nexus between a concept and object is never fixed, (c) dialog is the pillar of conscious and unconscious awareness, (d) knowledge is mediated by linguistic relation that socially and historically constituted, and (e) some groups in society are unjustly advantaged over other groups. Notably, the central mission in a CP classroom is to educate all people without considering their gender, race, and class (Vandrick, 1998). CP incorporates the problem-posing method by interrogating the received knowledge, which led students not to be the only consumer of knowledge. Freire (1970, p. 77) criticized a model of language teaching what he coined the "banking model." He posits that this model endeavors to "control thinking and action, leads men and women to adjust the world, and inhibits their creative power" (Freire, p. 77). From this perspective, education took a critical-oriented shift. This perspective changed the role of teachers, students, and classrooms. A teacher's role changes from an instructor to a reflective practitioner and a student is considered an active agent of his/her learning, and a classroom is a place for identity endeavor. The assumption underlying such an approach conceptualizes education as a means for social control, not separated from social and cultural influences**.**

3.2. WHAT IS CRITICAL PEDAGOGY (CP)?

Giving a clear-cut definition for CP seems difficult, for their nature, critical approaches tend to stay away from prescription (Hall, 2000). Kanpol (1999) envisions CP as the application of critical theory to education. He defines CP as "the means and methods that test and hope to change the structures of schools that allow inequalities and social injustice" (p. 27). Kanpol (1999) goes on to say that "critical pedagogy (CP) is a cultural, political tool

that takes the notion of human differences seriously, particularly as these differences relate to race, class, and gender" (p. 27). Canagarajah (2005) writes:

"Critical pedagogy is a practice motivated by a distinct attitude towards the classroom and society. Critical students and teachers are prepared to situate learning in the relevant social contexts, unravel the implications of power in pedagogical activity, and commit themselves to transform the means and ends of learning in order to construct more egalitarian, equitable, and ethical education and social environments." (p. 932)

Canagarajah (2005) introduces CP, not as a theory, but as a way of doing learning and teaching borrowing Pennycook's (2001) terminology. It is teaching with an attitude. Canagarajah believes that CP is not a set of ideas but a way of doing "learning and teaching. It is a practice motivated by a distinct attitude toward classrooms and society (Barjesteh, Alipour, and Vaseghi, 2013). According to Akbari (2008), CP in ELT is an attitude to language teaching, which relates the classroom context to the wider social context and aims at social transformation through education. Recently, CP has gained much interest, and much practice has been done in this area. McLaren (2003) defines CP as "a way of thinking about, negotiating, and transforming the relationship among classroom teaching, the production of knowledge, the institutional structures of the school, and the social and material relations of the wider community, society, and nation-state"(p. 35). For Kincheloe (2005), CP is concerned with transforming relations of power that are oppressive and lead to the oppression of people. Kincheloe (2008) considers identifying sources of power; the political nature of education, the understanding of the politics of knowledge, justice, and equality in education; the rejection of economic determinism; the lessening human suffering; change in relationship between student and teacher; and the promotion of emancipation and intellectual growth as central characteristics of CP. In Pennycook's (1990) words, CP can be defined as an approach to teaching and curriculum that seeks to understand and critique the historical and sociopolitical context of schooling and to develop pedagogical practices that aim not only to change the nature of schooling but the wider society. Giroux (1997) writes:

"Critical pedagogy is not physically housed in any school or university department, nor does it constitute a homogeneous set of ideas. Critical educational theorists united in their attempt to empower the powerless and to transform social inequalities and injustice." (p. 25)

In brief, CP is mainly concerned with the critique and elimination of human sufferings, the creation of consciousness, voice, hope, possibility, and the improvement of life through education. CP results in the reconceptualization of the notion of education and transforms it into a means of justice-seeking.

3.3. DICHOTOMIZATION OF EDUCATION

In the traditional model of teaching, the teacher is conceptualized as *the knower* in the class, and students were considered as having *nothing to offer*. That is why teaching in the traditional perspective is that of transferring the knowledge from the mind of one who knows everything to the minds of learners as the receiver of knowledge. Teachers in this model are the pillars of knowledge who disseminate knowledge in students' minds. Freire (1970) refers to this view of education as the *'banking' model of education* wherein students are viewed as "empty vessels waiting to be filled by the teacher" (p. 72). In this model, as the name implies, education "becomes an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories, and the teacher is the depositor" (p. 72). This model considers knowledge as a package that can easily be *transferrable.*

Thus, in the banking model of education, the teacher is the only source of information and decision-making in the class. Kumaravadivelu (2003) comments on the teachers' role in the banking model by arguing that their "primary role in the classroom is to function as a conduit, channeling the flow of information from one end of the educational spectrum (i.e., the expert) to the other (i.e., the learner) without significantly altering the content of information" (p. 8). Correspondingly, students are passive in the traditional model of education, in that students are only expected to receive the information and memorize it. This information doesn't have anything to do with learner real-life situations and thus, don't foster their awareness. Instead, they reflect the world as a fixed reality that cannot be critiqued or changed (Freire, 1970). He maintains that students, this way, become passive obedient receivers of the knowledge that they are not encouraged to think about or allowed to question. They are hindered from becoming either conscious or critical. The more students get the passive role of deposit receivers, the more they will adapt themselves to the world and reality as given.

Shor (1999) criticizes this notion for its monolithic discourse that establishes educational programs in a top-down manner. The prevalence of this top-down discourse stems from the common belief that there is only one

right and legitimate method of doing things, and this method is transmitted by certain experts who can theorize to practitioners and consumers who are believed to lack the ability to theorize and, therefore, must practice experts' theories (Clarke, 1994). To Freire, this *transmission-oriented pedagogy* leads to the abrogation of critical consciousness on the part of men and women who will not be able to rethink their original reading of the world (Freire, 2005). Freire maintains that this model hinders creative power, which causes the submersion of consciousness.

Freire (1970) contends that "the dominant elites utilize the banking concept to encourage passivity in the oppressed" (p. 95). If students get used to accepting passively whatever decision is made for them in the class, they can never dare to question the discriminations and injustices in the real world in the future. Freire offers problem-posing education (PPE) as an alternative to the banking model of education. He highlights learners' real-life problems as the main issue in a curriculum instead of prepared, static, and dissociated knowledge. He believes that this model aims to raise learners' critical awareness, critical consciousness and make them aware of the injustices in their society. He advocates a liberatory education by posing problems (Barjesteh and Niknezhad, 2020). McLaren (1995) believed that the overall mission of CP is to encourage students to critically analyze the relation between their quotidian experiences, the knowledge they produce, and the social, political, cultural, and economic problems of their society. Duncan-Andrade and Morrell (2007) summarize the main philosophy of this model as:

"An approach to education that is rooted in the experiences of marginalized people; that is centered in a critique of structural, economic, and racial oppression; that is focused on dialog instead of one-way transmission of knowledge, and that is structured to empower individuals and collectives as agents of social change." (p. 183)

In PPE, the reality is not presented as fixed and given, rather as an ongoing process that can be intervened by an individual's action. Given such a perspective to the world, students learn to hope for possibility, change, and improvement. According to Freire (1970), in PPE, people develop their power to perceive critically the way they exist in the world with which and in which they find themselves; they come to see the world not as a static reality, but as a reality in process, in transformation. Students in this model are encouraged to reflect critically on the world and their society. They learn that they have the right to speak and that they can change and improve

their living conditions. Thus, both teachers and students are considered as the subject of interaction without any dichotomization of subject and object for the teacher and students as perceived in the banking model. In Giroux's (1997) terminology, teachers are conceptualized as transformative intellectuals who endeavor to transform the current inequalities in society. Giroux (1998) later calls this type of classroom a democratic public sphere who seek how learners can be provided with critical language awareness to appropriate English and withstand the dominant linguistic and pedagogical forms. He maintains that providing a situation for learners to express their voice and the choice is a prerequisite for a public democratic sphere.

3.4. EXPLORING KEY DIMENSION OF FREIRE'S EPISTEMOLOGY

Freire's epistemology can be seen as an extension of his ideas on the dialectical nature of reality. We come to *know* through our interaction with an ever-changing world (Freire, 1998). Knowing, for Freire, necessarily implies transformation; it is the task of human subjects encountering a world dynamically in the making. Knowledge arises not from abstract thinking or theorizing but human practice. The ordering of moments in the process of knowing is important in understanding Freire's philosophy. Freire is adamant that theory never precedes practice: "First of all, I have to transform; secondly, I can theorize my actions but not before" (Freire, 1971, p. 2). Freire (1972) talks of thinking becoming authenticated only when it is "concerned with reality," "generated by action upon the world," and carried out through communication with others (p. 50). Authentic thinking constitutes an act of knowing. Freire's position here is consistent with the fundamental tenets of dialectical materialism, one of which is that "the production of ideas, of conceptions, of consciousness, is at first directly interwoven with the material activity and the material intercourse of men" (Marx and Engels, 1976, p. 42).

There are different aspects of Freirean education: *authorization, politics, voice, conversation, awareness*. Authorization is the main aspect primarily related to the improvement of learners' and educators' confidence (McLaren, 2003; Peterson, 2003 as cited in Barjesteh et al., 2013). Heyman (2004) mentioned that the goal is to undermine the balance of power in society to consequently benefit a decent voice in the same society.

According to Chase (1988), the resistance notion, which is both a movement against the dominant philosophy and a movement towards

liberation, is in accordance with the authorization notion. Kincheloe (2008) stated that from the CP point of view, education is a political enterprise with the intention of increasing the students' awareness; the word is borrowed from Freire. Burbules and Berk (1999) remarked that awareness would inform them about power games in society and their position. Pennycook (2001) called it the inclusion education, which was generated to offer a "voice" to disregarded students (Pierce, 1997). Oppressed students resist authority and subjugation by cutting the principles of 'banking' education from teaching and mutual 'dialog' between teachers and students so that their goal is social transformation into class and on a larger scale in society and around the world (Akbari, 2008; Barjesteh, Asadpour, and Manochehrzadeh, 2018; Barjesteh, 2020; Freire, 1970, 1973; Pennycook, 1989; Sapp, 2000).

Knowledge, on the Freirean view, is necessarily incomplete: "[K] nowledge always is becoming. That is, if the act of knowing has historicity, then today's knowledge about something is not necessarily the same tomorrow. Knowledge is changed to the extent that reality also moves and changes" (Horton and Freire, 1990, p. 101). Knowing can be defined as a continuous process of exploration-searching, examining, questioning, and probing (Freire, 1985). Knowledge acquisition is not about getting to a destination, but is about the manner of taking a "trip." In more concrete words, knowledge acquisition can be defined as the process of co-existence and being in touch with others (through dialog). Knowing is the process through which people try to delve into what they know little about. According to Freire, knowing can be likened to praxis in terms of its constituents (reflection and action). Freire argues that for knowledge acquisition, one should adopt an inquisitive, solicitous, and discontented attitude toward the social realities and even have interaction with them.

3.4.1. The Key Dimension in Focus

Contrary to the belief that CP results in the hegemony ofits ideology, there seem to be different critical pedagogies (i.e., avariety of conceptualizations of CP proposed by differenttheoreticians). Nevertheless, there is a general agreement among themon some very fundamental premises. What follows is a brief discussionof a number of those major premises that, hopefully, provide readers with a more detailed account of CP (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1. The Dimension of Freirean Pedagogy

S L . No.	Key Dimension
1.	Education is filled with politics.
2.	Teachers are transformative intellectuals.
3.	Students are active.
4.	Students are active.
5.	Curriculum is Transformative.

3.4.2. Education Is Filled with Politics

Education has always had something to do with politics and has never been considered to be neutral. "ESL/EFL instructors are generally recognized as individuals trying to improve general welfare by the promotion of communication between people, and support the idea that teaching, rather than politics, is the only focus of instruction processes (Crooks and Lehner, 1998; Winks, 2000). Nevertheless, Freire and other researchers who have put forward theories about CP argue that factors related to education, including teacher, instruction, curriculum, book, testing, and … are never recognized as neutral. Personal and political values start to take effect as soon as decisions are made about instruction approach, curriculum, and syllabus, testing approaches, teacher-student relationship, and hiring/ firing criteria (Benesch, 1993; Wink, 2000). The syllabus and instruction procedures to be applied to marginalized classes will be determined based on the desire and wishes of the decision-making authorities (the dominant group). Since the dominant groups are invested in the decision-making authority and do not really benefit from changes in the status quo, they usually tend to adopt approaches that will not put their authority at stake. In such a system, learners are recognized as elements of the perpetuation of the status quo, which would not benefit them, neither would it undergo any change, thanks to the absence of elements that might challenge or question it (Auerbach, 1993).

3.4.3. Teachers Are Transformative Intellectuals

CP has assumed new identities for teachers, and what has been proposed as the umbrella term for such identities is the "transformative intellectual" (Giroux, 1988). Empowering students to become critical and active citizens rests on teachers who have the potential to "combine scholarly reflection and practice in the service of educating students to be thoughtful, active

citizens" (Giroux, p. 122). Thus, what teachers are supposed to do in order to be transformative intellectuals is to resist the assumption that teachers are simply transmitters of knowledge and that they are "high-level technicians who should carry out dictates and objectives decided by experts far removed from the everyday realities of classroom life' (Giroux, p. 121). On the contrary, teachers are required to be socio-politically conscious and strive not only for educational advancement but also for personal transformation (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

CP requires both instructors and learners to play new roles. According to Freire (1970), in CP, instructors are recognized as individuals who teach and learn at the same time, usually through dialog with the students. According to Kanpol (1998), education in CP is based on the idea that the meaning of "authority" varies from one situation to another and can be negotiated based on the principles of democracy. In more concrete words, instructors can be recognized as individuals with authority over the subject matter, but not as the only authority in the classroom. CP provides instructors and learners with the ability to share knowledge with each other. Instructors can, thanks to their authority, develop relationships (usually educational) that confront ideas such as dominant race, class, and gender.

3.4.4. Students Are Active

CP needs a democratic classroom environment in which students' perspectives are expressed through discussion and where *power and dialog* are shared between teachers and students. Empowerment is one of the main divisions of higher education. McLaren (2003); and Peterson (2003) emphasized that it is mainly the case with students' and teachers' self-confidence for challenging power relations in society.

As stated by Freire (1970), one of the goals in CP is to give back the lost voice and identity to the marginalized groups so that they can reflect on their situation and understand why it exists. CP focus is on power relations between different groups and power utilization. Kincheloe (2008) posited that students' should have the ability to identify winners and losers in certain situations. They should also be informed that favored groups are often interested in accompanying the status item in order to keep their benefits.

3.4.5. Curriculum Is Transformative

Degener (2001) mentioned that the CP program is in accordance with the idea that there is no single method that can work for the entire population.

Bartolome (1996), as cited in Giroux (1997); and Shor (1992), argues that there is no specific program or syllabus because all decisions about the curriculum and what to study are attributed to the students' requirements and benefits. Moreover, Degner (2001) emphasizes that the program is designed for the students' experiences and the realities of their lives. This application is revolutionary. Namely, Giroux and McLaren (1992) highlighted that students acquire the necessary approaches and skills to help them develop their social critics to have choices that affect their social, political, and economic realities.

Similarly, Keesing-Styles (2003) acknowledge that CP protects the understanding of the program as a political text centered on, she argues, the social and political assessments of life skills. Ohara, Safe, and Crooks (2000) stated that the CP lesson idea should be depending on credible content like TV, commercials, video clips, and so on, which represent a culture explored by students and operate as a center for critical discussion and consideration on culture. Kincheloe (2005) refers that these texts and their themes should be presented by teachers and students who bring their experiences to study and place knowledge in the context in which it is placed. Keesing-Styles (2003) indicates that students can choose the topics of their projects that make the most sense and are pertinent to their lives and the content of their work. As stated by Okazaki (2005), this content must be direct and expressive to students as a means to inform them of the nature of reproduction and the opportunity of resisting problematic content. Dependable material helps students relate their comprehension to the problems in the community and take steps to improve it. Ares (2006) noted that these transformational are performed to assist the learners in acquiring thinking and acting skills that enable them to identify and cope with the repressive circumstances of society. He added that with the possibility of transformative action, particular notice was paid to the cultural heritage, methods, information, and languages of the students. In addition, it is emphasized that the goal of transformational action is social alteration.

3.5. CP IN A CLASSROOM CONTEXT

CP, as an interdisciplinary field of education, has found its way into other disciplines. It usually applies an interdisciplinary approach, irrespective of the field in which it is involved. Moreover, the term *"critical,"* whose interpretation varies from one field to another, has received part of its meaning from original philosophical, sociological, literal, and political theories, each defining CP from a separate viewpoint.

Therefore, CP can, depending on the area on which it is focused, be defined in different ways. These areas may include education, sociology, politics, ethics, and even methodology. Therefore, the attitude adopted by CP towards teaching/ learning praxis it advocates may vary from one field to another. CP owes its robustness and innovative nature to Praxis, which actually covers the dynamics of theory and practice. Praxis stresses the adoption of an attitude other than that of methodology towards education (Barjesteh and Niknezhad, 2020).

CP is often very difficult to label, define, or describe. Nevertheless, this concept is easier to recognize by individuals with adequate knowledge of its theoretical foundations and enough experience in teaching/learning processes. CP is primarily recognized as "pedagogy," not a "teaching method" because: First, In CP, teaching is recognized as a subset of the teaching/learning process in which dialect and dialog are used as means of knowledge production. Second, CP's attitude toward knowledge is mostly an epistemological attitude which stresses critical knowledge comprehension and reconstruction. Moreover, CP, thanks to a shift in methodology, mostly stresses purposeful action. In other words, it mostly deals with the efficient employment of knowledge for improving society, rather than using interaction to acquire knowledge. Finally, execution of CP always calls for consideration of the individuals' temporal and spatial position, which needs to be recognized through concentric cycles (bilaterally linking local and global positions) and relative to their historical layers. Therefore, it can be argued that CP mostly deals with matters related to identity, individual, and collective heritage of learners, and consequently the social and political empowerment of individuals mainly because "CP identifies the subjects which form the discursive community of learners and knower" (Hovey, 2004).

One can easily sketch the principal constituents of practice, both in Frere's first language (L1) literacy work and in L2 language teaching, without any implication of the fact that these constituents collectively focus on one single "method." In PC, however, the constituents of language teaching curriculum are supposed to address life issues of learners which could be possibly solved or improved through literacy or second language (L2) learning, as well as consciousness that may arise from them.

With the introduction of Freire's original literacy courses to different communities, the pedagogical teams ended up having to spend some time in the destination communities to analyze the ethnographic needs of the

learners. These courses were characterized by the utilization of images (pictures or photos) or authentic objects concerned with different aspects of students' life. In these courses, instructors used images as a means to elicit commentaries and feedback from students in an attempt to help them talk about some language content they wish to learn or command. Taking into account that this approach is characterized by the underlying goal of giving freedom and the ability to act, the learners can significantly contribute to the preparation of curriculum materials. Soon Freire's work from the late 1970s on (especially those published from the mid-1990s onward) received a lot of attention among the L2 instructors. In America, the foreign language (FL) teaching approaches started to draw on academic works, which usually adopted a CP approach towards languages in high school or university. Crawford's principle of linguistic pedagogy (1978) owes their existence to Freire's work. These principles are recognized as the core elements of Crawford's CP and gave insights into the challenges of CP implementation. These principles are presented below:

- Education is primarily intended to promote critical thinking (CT) by giving students' insight into their status quo problems and help them reflect on them and take measures to solve them.
- The educational curriculum is actually comprised of students' life situations, which is expressed by them;
- The contents of the learning curriculum are developed or provided by the students;
- Planning is the process of developing generative themes and organization of subjects associated with those themes;
- The teacher actually acts as a learner;
- The teacher uses his ideas, opinions, and experiences to help with the dialogical process;
- The teacher is required to pose problems;
- The students are entitled to make decisions all by themselves.

Crawford proposed 20 principles of curriculum design informed by Freire's philosophy. The principles dealt with nine dimensions: (a) purpose; (b) objectives; (c) content definition; (d) learning strategies; (e) learning materials; (f) planning; (g) teacher role; (h) student role; and (i) evaluation (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2. Crawford's (1978) Principles of Curriculum Design: Derivation of Freire's Philosophy

Principle	Elements of Curriculum Design
A.	**Purpose**
1.	If conscientization seeks to develop learners' perceptions of the contradictions or problems present in their life situation, and if learners are to act on those problems, then the purpose of education is to develop critical thinking by presenting the learners' situation to them as a problem so that they can perceive, reflect, and act on it.
B.	**Objectives**
2.	If the human vocation is to transform the world by its continual creation and re-creation realized through praxis, then the primary intended outcome of an educational experience is creative action on the part of the learners.
3.	If the primary objective of education is creative action on the part of the learners, and if information and skills are acquired in the process of that creative action, then the acquisition of information and skills related to teaching is a secondary objective of education and the content of such acquisition is subject to creative action.
C.	**Content Definition**
4.	If the object of knowing is the person's existential situation, then the content of the curriculum derives from the life situation of the learners as expressed in the themes of their reality.
5.	If curriculum content is to be derived from the learners' existential situation as expressed in generative themes, and if that situation is presented as a problem, and if subject matter within the curriculum is subject to the existential situation, then the task of planning is first to organize generative themes as problems and second to organize subject matter as it relates to those themes.
6.	If curriculum content derives from the life situation of the learners, then that life situation and the learners' perceptions of it inform the organization of subject matter, i.e., skills, and information acquisition, within the curriculum.
D.	**Learning Strategies**
7.	If each person is a creative actor, and if each person has the right to name the world for him/her, then the learners produce their learning materials.

8.	If the aim of conscientization is to acquire a critical perception of the interaction of phenomena, then curriculum content is open to interdisciplinary treatment.
9.	If dialog in the context of the learner, and if the dialog is necessarily social, then the organization of the curriculum recognizes the class as a social entity and resource.
10.	If dialog is the context wherein knowing occurs, then dialog forms the context of the educational situation.
11.	If the purpose of education is to present the problems present in the existential situation to the learners so that they can perceive and act on them, then the content of the curriculum is posed as a problem.
E.	**Learning Materials**
12.	If the process of knowing requires abstraction, then the curriculum contains a mechanism by which the learners distance themselves from and objectify the reality to be known.
F.	**Planning**
13.	If curriculum content is to be derived from the learners' existential situation as expressed in generative theme, and if that situation is presented as a problem, and if subject the subject matter is within the curriculum is the subject to the existential situation, then the task of planning is first to organize generative themes as problems and second to organize subject matter as it relates to theme.
G.	**Teachers Role**
14.	If the purpose of education is to develop critical thinking, and if knowing is focused on the transformation of reality, then evaluation focuses on the ability of the educational program to develop critical thinking and foster transforming action in a particular time and place.
15.	If knowing as a process of transformation is participation in the human vocation, then the teacher participates in that process as a learner among learners.
16.	If the learners in dialog each contribute their ideas, experiences, opinions, and perceptions, and if the teacher is a learner, then the teacher also contributes his/her ideas, experiences, opinions, and perceptions to the dialogical process.
17.	If knowing takes place in dialog among equals, then the teacher becomes one with the students.
H.	**Student Role**
18.	If education is for the posing of problems, then the teacher's function is one of posing problems.

19.	In problem-posing education replaces banking education, then the student is one who acts on objects.
I.	**Evaluation**
20.	If each person is to fulfill his/her human vocation, and if each person has the right to name the world, then the student possesses the right to and power of decision-making.

3.5.1. Syllabus Design

Syllabus design is the main concern for teachers hoping to employ CP in their classrooms. To establish a dialogic nature in a CLP classroom, Barjesteh (2019) proposed that a negotiated syllabus can be best suited to encourage students to participate actively in the process of designing and running the course content in CLP because it is assumed that a predetermined syllabus contradicts the philosophy of transformative pedagogy (i.e., CLP). To make this happen, Barjesteh suggests that numerous topics pertinent to the course should be introduced to the students in a tentative syllabus as an initial roadmap. Barjesteh posits that the syllabus should follow egalitarian and democratic forms of interaction. To make the whole thing manageable, the readings and the sequence of the materials should be negotiated by taking into account the students' needs, interest, background knowledge, and their real-life concern. Some proponents of CLP (e.g., Crawford-Lange, 1978; Pennycook, 1999; Shin and Crookes, 2005) postulate that true CP necessitates connecting the material to the local context, with learners creating their materials and being involved in shaping their curriculum. Other proponents (Barjesteh and Birjandi, 2015; Sadeghi, 2005) postulate that students can choose from a given list of topics or to create their materials and presentations within predetermined themes. Other teachers had students determine nearly the entire content of the course, including picking the readings themselves. Moreno-Lopez (2005); and Wilhelm (1997) both state that students may need a transitional learning experience before moving into full-blown CP.

3.5.2. Assessment and Grading

In the philosophy of CP, assessment, and evaluation is considered to be a crucial issue due to its rejection of psychometric testing as they only " serve to fragment, narrow, deflect, and trivialize the curriculum, but they are used in school because it has been claimed that they are scientific tools that can measure students' progress" (Kincheloe as cited in Moreno-Lopez, 2005).

Shor (1996) believes that students should participate in the evaluation system through negotiation. He proposed that the teacher begins by designing a contract grading system. It is based on the quality and quantity of the work students are expected to complete during the course. Students sign a contract clarifying their desired level of involvement, amount, and quality of work. That is, if a student signs for A, s/he will conduct more work than the student who signs for a B or a C. The contract that should be confirmed by the teacher determines the student's grade at the end. *Contract grading* is an option for CP teachers who wish to blend traditional and alternative assignments and still assign traditional-style letter grades. Both Wilhelm (1997); and Moreno-Lopez (2005) used contract grading in their courses. Moreno-Lopez (2005) believes that this practice enables teachers to apply Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal distance (ZPD), which helps to shift the focus from only evaluating students' performance to assessing the amount of help s/he needs. Crawford-Lange (1981) advocates using self-assessment and evaluation of the performance of tasks to evaluate language skill acquisition as well as evaluating students' contributions to class and their critical skills in analyzing material (p. 267). As the content of the course should be based on local context and local needs, norm-referenced evaluation is inappropriate. However, Crawford-Lange suggests it could be used if there is a need to show that students in CP courses are performing as well as students in other courses (1981, p. 267).

3.5.3. Teachers' and Students' Roles

Kumaravadivelu (2003, as cited in Barjesteh, 2019) states that teachers in constructivist orientation can theorize about their practices and perform their *personal theories*. Teachers go further as *"reflective practitioners"* and embrace the position of *transformative intellectual* (Giroux, 1988, p. 125) who can engage in a CT activity where both teachers and students teach each other, and no one possesses authority over another. This reflects the constructivist notion in which learners are not viewed as empty vessels to be filled with their teachers' knowledge (Freeman and Johnson, 1998). Based on the different ways in which the main figures of the field, such as Freire (1970); Giroux (1997); Gore (2003); and Pennycook (2001) have looked at CLP, it is a philosophy of education and a method of teaching that pursues to raise teachers' and learners' power that enable them to critique and challenge the problems by helping them to build critical consciousness.

CP forces a change in how students' and teachers' roles are constructed in the classroom. Teachers must accept that teaching is a political act and

that they are "cultural workers" (Reagan and Osborn, 2002, p. 85). Irwin (1996) adds that teaching is essentially a series of moral decisions (as cited in Reagan and Osborn, 2002, p. 84). Teachers who subscribe to CP are sometimes construed as "*emancipated*" individuals, who understand the inner workings of the patriarchal, social-reproductive system of schooling, and whose task is to lead students to become conscious of this, who will then become empowered for '*creative action'* (Ellsworth, 1989, pp. 300, 308). The position of the teacher in a CP setting is quite precarious. They must lead the class, but not control it; they must be authoritative but not authoritarian (Shor and Freire, 1987, as cited in Johnston, 1999, p. 560). Increases in student input and alternative assessment also have the effect of creating much more work for the teacher (Wilhelm, 1997, p. 540).

3.6. A CRITICAL LOOK AT CLP

The main mission of CP is to develop the critical ability of learners aimed at transforming society. While having these missions for action, CP has been blamed on a macro-level system critic than engaging in action at a micro-level in a classroom reality (McArthur, 2010). Bruenig (2005) addresses the weakness of CP as it is only about theory and politics without sufficient action that it claimed to offer. Speaking of cons, CP, in its very nature, calls for a continuous study of its philosophies, desires, and practices. According to Giroux and McLaren (1992), the shortcomings of a theoretical project can be recognized as the building blocks of many current procedures of CP. In fact, CP is the result of the disapproval of injustice in American public schools. Unfortunately, this unilateral emphasis on critique can be likened to the lack of theoretical and pragmatic discourse upon which CP has grounded its insight of society and schooling and to form the direction of a critical approach.

Two definite parts inside CP have been contended by Gore (1993). They are distinguishable by taking those individuals into account who have controlled the discourse of every one of the segments. Giroux and McLaren advanced an educational approach against which Gore was more serious because she contends that the establishment of their methodology is in a political instinct. In fact, her preference was the concept of CP in comparison to critical educational theory. The inability to direct explicit practices for class use is considered as the fundamental issue (Gore, 1993). Their pedagogy, as a result, ought to be bound to the individuals who have the opportunity, energy, or inclination to battle with it and, in this manner,

restricts its political potential. Needless to say, Gore (1993) mainly focuses on realities from the perspective of instructors as well as the CP proponents' tendencies to develop abstract theories that are almost impossible to apply in practice. Empowerment, which is recognized as a central concept in CP, can be regarded as the main theme of this criticism. These two components can be distinguished from others by their ability to make instructors take the necessary measures for empowering learners, serve as the main implementers of empowerment, without offering much concrete guidance.

A similar limitation reverberated by Janangelo (1993, as cited in Johnston, 1999) in the illogical expectation CP places on teachers. Usher and Edwards (1994) believed that CP does not provide a clear link between its abstract philosophical stance and what happens in a real classroom setting. Freire required teachers to focus on the realities of life and experiences and develop educational experiences that are in line with them. A teacher's responsibility is to constitute or adapt the proper strategies most suited to learners' specific context. The following section addresses the weakness of CP from different aspects: *Political dimension, Feminist critique, Ecological stance, students' resistance, the nature of power in the classroom, constraints on empirical consideration, and theoretical and technical jargon.*

3.6.1. Political Dimension

Numerous liberal educators postulate that CP is concerned with the centrality of power and politics in education. Many practitioners excoriate CP for its political conceptualization. Accordingly, they maintain that it suffers from the empirical value of the radical approaches in the classroom. Problematizing such issues are often cultivates an atmosphere of concern, confusion, and fear among teachers, school officials, and universities whenever teachers and students voice oppositional perspectives that object to the status quo at work in an educational setting. This causes tensions when those in power try to hinder efforts by teachers, students, and parents to integrate their voices in the governance of the public school. Thus, opponents of CP endeavor to deflect the possibility of any dialog that might generate new ideas, new practices, and perhaps even new relationships of power in the context of schools (Darder et al., 2009). Johnston (1999) also objects to CP for its political notion. He believed that teaching is fundamentally about the moral, nexus between teacher and students. In other words, the nature of teaching is moral, not political. He maintains that although factors such as gender, race, and sexual orientation are crucially important in understanding the

processes of education, these can also be understood through the lens of moral interaction.

3.6.2. Feminist Critiques

Lather (1992) criticizes CP as a "largely male inscribe" and a "site men have constructed to serve themselves" (p. 129). A similar point echoed by Elizabeth Ellsworth's (1992) writing, a feminist. She suggests that the term critical is a repressive myth that bolsters the relations of domination and obscures a number of political agendas such as antiracism, anti-sexism, anti-elitism, anti-heterosexism, anti-ableism, anti-classism, and anti-neo-conservatism." She argued that theorists of CP suffer the paucity of any meaningful analysis for reformulating the institutionalized power imbalances between themselves and their students.

3.6.3. Ecological Stance

CP has also come in for criticism from an *ecological* point of view (Bowers, 1987). In his criticism, Bowers mostly focuses on *Marxist educational ideologies* that have, from his viewpoint, been unable to account for the problems associated with the nature of the world and the ecological crisis. According to Bowers, placing particular matters at the center of attention has led to failures to address broader issues. Amsler (2012) maintains that the transformative potentiality of CP has become a sacred matter of fact for many educators who care about transformative education. He contends that a critical approach should never be posited to have a fixed, unbiased perspective. Amsler stresses that fostering a critical attitude that incorporates the politics of CP itself is important. As Durst (2006) points out the looking at issues from a critical perspective should not depend on one's beliefs and preferences.

Similarly, Pennycook (1999) contends, "a self-reflexive stance on critical theory" (p. 345). According to him, first, we as TESOL professionals need to consider that critical theory comes to play an unchallenged role. Thus, CP in TESOL must be dynamic and open to question. This self-criticism is the main tenets of critical ideology. He maintains, "Critical approaches to TESOL, then, would do well to retain a constant skepticism, a constant questioning about the types of knowledge, theory, practice, or praxis they operate with" (p. 345). Canagarajah (1999) contents that we should be aware that "CP is itself motivated by social practice and brings with it the assumptions and influences of the communities where it is defined" (p. 190).

3.6.4. Students' Resistance

Some authors also criticize students' incompatibility with the recognition of their voices as obstacles for implementing CP. Fobes and Kaufman (2008) state. Helping learners re-embrace these learning experiences is one of the main challenges in this field. Students may usually have difficulties, especially at the beginning of each semester, to discover or redeem their power to express ideas, make inquiries, and even stand challenges arising from ambiguities and uncertainties. Learners, at the begging of semesters, find it easier to comply with the traditional note-taking models and incomplete digestion of "facts."

Kanpol (1999) reports the critiques of his students as they believe that a critical pedagogue is full of "opaque language and ideas" (p. 159). He argues that this is incompatible with their introduced vision of CP as "a means and method to undercut oppressive social relations and an attempt to end alienation and subordination" (p. 150). He adds that this opaque language of CP is due to "an authoritarian position," which is again a contradiction to the arguments made by critical pedagogues (p. 159).

3.6.5. The Nature of Power in the Classroom

A plethora of works done in CP is based on the notion that teachers are able to empower their students by incorporating the principles of CP in the classroom (Kincheloe, 2008; Shor, 1992). Johnston (1999) notes the word empowerment has turned to be a password among critical pedagogists. Based on his experience working with adults in different national contexts, he states that "unequal power relations are a permanent feature of educational setting" (p. 560). He believed that although students can be empowered in CP classrooms, for example, they take charge of their learning, they give more meaningful and less competitive activities, they design their course, they can evaluate themselves, and teachers are still the authority in the classroom. He agreed with Gore's (1998, as cited in Johnston, 1999) conclusion that it is useful to put this power to good use than the image it can be removed. Similarly, Freire and Shor (1987) postulate:

"Teacher authority is constant for me. The question is not for the teacher to have less and less authority. The issue is that the democratic teacher never transforms authority into authoritarianism. He or she can never stop being an authority or having authority. Without authority, it is very difficult for the liberties to be shaped." (p. 91). Johnston (1999) maintains that the problem here is the nature of power and the simplistic understanding of

the concept. As Gore (as cited in Johnston, 1999) notes, critical pedagogies conceive power as property, something that the teacher has and can give to the students.

3.6.6. Constraints on an Empirical Consideration

Freire (2005) highlights CLP teachers are cultural workers andtransformative intellectuals of society. This encourages them to go beyond the realms of possibility and turn to be socio-politically conscious and active agents of change. Giroux (1988) believes that teachers in CP should inspire their students to attempt to qualify as change agents. However, as criticized by some authors, it neglects the administrative aspect that leaves much responsibility on teachers.

3.6.7. Theoretical and Technical Jargon

The language used in CP has often been regarded as a point of contention both among feminist and working-class educators. More specifically, the discourse in CP depletes with jargon and elitism. The theoretical language and the jargon bear a new aspect of oppression. Thus, the working class finds the elitist language of CP difficult to follow (Darder et al., 2009). They maintain that the masculine language of CP produces a new form of oppression. In this regard, Gore (2003) contends that what CP scholars are engaged in is not "CP but critical educational theory" (p. 42).

On the contrary, those who have endeavored to address this shortcoming of CP through investing more of their educational momentum in preparing the ground for its practicality are placed into a campaign of critical educational theory. Philosophers, such as Freire and Shor, who addressed the pedagogical practice of CP by drawing up guidelines for implementation of CP strategies, in their classroom, stand on the latter campaign. Gore argues that proponents of the second group can avoid limiting their audience and the political potential of their enterprise.

CHAPTER 4

THE CRITICAL ISSUES IN MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT: HIDDEN CURRICULUM

CONTENTS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The banking approach has had different manifestations in educational institutions, one of which is "hidden curriculum (HC)." Contrary to the explicit curriculum that is clearly announced through course syllabi and textbooks, HC consists of the unwritten and unspoken assumptions of schooling that the dominant ideology has set and attempted to concretize. Lurking in centralized educational systems, this curriculum is hidden by those in charge. It plays a highly determining role in directing the process of education through the explicit curriculum basically meant to pave the way for its practical realization (Alexander, 2005). One of the main drawbacks of this curriculum is the divorce between the instructional materials and the reality it is supposed to prepare learners for. A palpable example of this separation is the adamant advocacy of commercially produced textbooks which are of little, if any, relevance to the real life of students (Peterson, 2003). That is, the contextual local issues are ignored in the production and selection of materials. This ignorance is quite observable in present language instruction, which still mainly involves traditional language arts like grammar drills and the five-paragraph essay (Shor, 1999), focuses more on asocial aspects of language learning like the psycholinguistic processes underlying language acquisition and language transfer, and has divorced itself from educational theories (Crooks and Lehner, 1998; Pennycook, 1990, 2001).

Having a lot in common with HC in terms of nature, the *anti-dialogical* approach adopted in traditional pedagogy is another manifestation of banking education. The Anti-dialogical approach, partly manifested in teacher-fronted instruction, encourages students' passivity and conformity to the wisdom transmitted to them by teachers, exclusion of their contributions and experiences, and thus, neglect of plurality of voice and subjectivity (Alford, 2001; Freire and Macedo, 2003; Ranson, 2000). A direct ramification of such the conditions is cultivation of a *culture of silence* (Freire, 1972), which embodies the marginalization of *voices* and ideas of students from certain socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds and, thus, disempowerment and social exclusion of them (Ranson, 2000) or, what Freire (1972) calls *oppression.*

4.2. HIDDEN CURRICULUM (HC)

HC, popularized by Jackson (1968), comprised hidden cultural and social values inherent in all course books (Cunnigsworth, 1995). It refers to the

tacit values, behaviors, and norms that reside in a system of education (McLean and Dixit, 2018). Giroux (1988) defines HC as a side effect of an education that is learned but not openly intended, such as the transmission of ideologies conveyed in the classroom. To develop a critical perspective of learners, teachers should be equipped with vital tools that enable them to identify and expose the unstated ideologies inherent in curricula (Canagarajah, 1999 as cited in Barjesteh, 2019). McLaren (1989) also refers to the nature of HC and the way it provokes learners to get along with dominant ideologies and social practices related to authority, behavior, and morality. HC is the side effect in a system of education where different potential intellectual norms, beliefs, cultural perspectives, cultural values, and curricular topics are transmitted implicitly. Teachers play a central role in forming ideas since students begin to learn ideologies and social practices from their teachers, peers, and environment. Giroux (1997) postulates that doctrines are not expressed verbally but tacitly embedded in each system of education. The HC, as conceptualized by L2 practitioners and researchers (Donnelly, 2015; Giroux, 1997; Kanpol, 1997; McLean and Dixit, 2018), consists of teachers' attitudes, their role and the nature of their interaction in the classroom, learners' autonomy, language awareness, school disciplinary, and classroom climates. While these are not the only areas in which voice can be developed, the HC is nevertheless essential for the students to recognize. Speaking of commonalities between different descriptions of HC, one can simply point to ideologies that are well incorporated into educational practices and materials. According to Gore (2003), doctrines can be defined as sublime filters that can help both learners and teachers experience social conditions. He holds that doctrines are not verbally expressed but tacitly impeded in educational practices, course books, and hence their hidden nature. Regarding the fact that ELT has been considered a political activity, there is no doubt that language policymakers in Iran should not consider ELT a neutral affair. In other words, decision-makers should approach education and materials development from a sociocultural and sociopolitical dimension. These views acknowledge the existence of a hidden aspect in ELT. The hidden layers, known as the HC, are inherent in any educational materials, including ELT materials.

McLaren (1989) also points to the tacit nature of the HC and its intention to make learners comply with the dominant ideologies and social practices related to authority, behavior, and morality. Referring to the uncovering function of the HC, Giroux (1983) points out the idea, along with critical theory, helps build a theory of education. He writes:

"I argued that the foundation of a radical theory of schooling can, in part, be developed from the work of Frankfort school and the more recent literature on the hidden curriculum. Whereas the Frankfort school provides discourse and mode of critique for deepening our understanding of nature and the function of schooling, critiques of the hidden curriculum have provided modes of analysis that uncover the ideologies and interest embedded in the message system, code, and routines that characterize daily classroom life." (p. 72)

The HC, as defined by Bennett (2001), consists of teacher attitudes and expectations, the grouping of students and the instructional strategies, school disciplinary policies and practices, school, and community relations, and classroom climates. While these are not the only areas in which voice can be developed, the HC is nevertheless important for the students to recognize. Without analyzing this area, their interpretations are incomplete and could lead to a misdiagnosis of the locus of the problem. What seems to be common among the variant description of HC is the existence of ideologies in educational practices and materials. Littlejohn (1992) argues that ideologies, in general, are unconscious filters through which people experience social conditions. That is, they are not verbally expressed but tacitly impeded in educational practices and course books, and hence their hidden nature.

4.3. THE CRITICAL SHIFT: HIDDEN CURRICULUM (HC) IN THE ELT CONTEXT

In the 1990s, the ELT discipline decides to turn into a critical perspective. Kumaravadivelu (2006) attributes the evolution of this vital position in ELT to Phillipson's (1992) *linguistic imperialism*. Such a necessary opinion is defined as the linguistic imperialism theory (Ghaffar Samar and Davari, 2011). As stated by Aghagolzadeh and Davari (2012), the aspect of a critical intellectual change in applied linguistics has considerably disputed the mainstream ELT. It has also dramatically introduced CLP as a substitute approach to the general ELT, particularly in the Periphery.

Within this framework, curriculum, and materials development would be based on the assumption that no one program fits all populations, and a set of the predetermined curriculum would ever be imposed in a program. It is assumed that foreordained program content contradicts the ideology of transformative teaching (Richards, 2013). Therefore, all curriculum decisions would rely on learners' needs in a program and the choices of

what would be studied through negotiation or dialogical interaction (Giroux, 1997; Shor, 1996). Accordingly, creating and adapting materials within the framework of TP could be vital for EFL teachers. While materials are the essential elements in ELT programs (Richards, 2010), few studies have been conducted on the transformative L2 materials preparation (TLMP).

Akbari (2005) also introduces linguistic imperialism as a recent development in foreign language (FL) teaching and as a concept that tries to sensitize language teachers to the political complications of what they do in the classroom. Reviewing the premises, mechanisms, and outcomes of linguistic imperialism, Akbari notes the fact that since ELT scholars had no real knowledge of what was actually taking place in other countries in which English was taught as a FL, they had to resort to the invention and promotion of theoretical knowledge that is basically of a linguistic nature. In his words, through the creation and application of theories that are thousands of miles away from the realities of the EFL classroom, center scholars could secure leadership in the profession, making big publishers their economic allies. Akbari maintains that while there is no overt resistance to the dominance of the Center in the Iranian academic setting, some modifications in the syllabus or textbook structures can be viewed as measures to counter this silent hegemony. Trying to introduce linguistic imperialism and its impacts in Iran, Aghaei (2009) aims at presenting the ideologies or, in his word, the false ideas currently exist in the field of ELT, especially with their probable impacts on learners and teachers. In his critical view, these impacts have made the Iranian English language teachers and learners have native-based opinions and attitudes about English language teaching (ELT) and learning.

Pishghadam and Naji (2012) presented a novel approach known as applied ELT as a kind of solution or, in their words, a panacea to linguistic imperialism. Taking a proactive stance towards the global spread of English, applied ELT offers insights on how English classes can be directed towards fostering national and cultural identity and enhancing life qualities in learners.

In sum, reviewing the works indicates some significant and new issues. Firstly, as new attempts, they have taken a look beyond the current state of ELT in the Iranian context and have not confined themselves to some purely pedagogical issues. Referring to cultural, ideological, political, and religious aspects of the context, these works mostly intend to shed light on the cultural politics of the English language, its role, and function both locally and globally. Secondly, avoiding an extremist view to reject English

as well as insisting on the importance of English and its instruction in the global context. What follows will provide some practical suggestions towards developing critical materials.

4.4. DEVELOPING COUNTER-HEGEMONIC MATERIALS

4.4.1. Application of a Critical Model of ELT Materials

One of the significant areas of ELT which requires critical scrutiny is the ELT curriculums and materials. As with the role of English and its spread in the world, it was previously assumed that the internationally-marketed ELT materials were not only neutral but purely beneficial knowledge packages that served the interests of English learners throughout the world. According to Baladi (2007), "indeed, in the past, the ELT industry was portrayed as one that benefits producers and consumers, and both exporting and importing countries." (p. 21) But the rise of critical issues in ELT led some scholars in the field to question the legitimacy of these widely trusted ELT goods and services (Littlejon, 1992; Hurst, 2007; Akbari, 2008; Banegas, 2010). Offering a critical analysis of ELT textbooks, Littlejon (1992) believes that they "constitute part of a struggle for *hegemony* in which (ruling class) ideologies are represented as 'natural' and 'commonsensical" (p. 256).

From a critical pedagogical perspective, curriculums should address learners' needs. This emphasis on individuals necessitates the localization of curriculums and materials. Canagarajah (1999) emphasizes the localization of ELT materials as well. He writes:

"It is very important to use readings from minority writers and even oral or folk texts from the students' communities. Such a practice will demonstrate to them that their cultural capital is valued. This will provide the confidence to tap their linguistic and discursive resources and further develop them" (p. 190).

Akbari (2008), too, believes that the application of a critical model of ELT in local contexts requires that decisions about *content, methodology, and testing* be made locally, hence decentralization of ELT. Akbari believes that "in CP there is no separation between the communicative needs of learners and who they are socially and politically, which means that what students are taught will differ widely depending on their locale and linguistic, economic, ethnic, as well as political affiliations" (p. 280). He claims, however, that "commercially produced course books, which

form the backbone of instruction in many mainstream language teaching contexts, lack the required sensitivity to be able to address such concerns." Akbari concludes that in these books, the social aspect of language teaching is attended to only superficially, and the real social problems in learners' lives and their society are not addressed.

Another source of the problem in ELT materials is the exclusion of *unpleasant issues.* In Banegas' (2010) opinion, ELT materials "are criticized not only for avoiding provoking topics but also for presenting a romantic view of countries such as Britain or the USA." He goes on to say that "even if textbooks do contemplate topics such as poverty, hunger, or even discrimination, they are contextualized in Africa or the Muslim world, creating the idea that poverty or discrimination is nowhere to be found in Europe or the USA." Consequently, ELT coursebooks become an ideal representation of a utopian culture, which is said to be the target culture. Hurst (2007) concludes that "coursebook writers/producers should aim at an accurate, factual, unbiased (ideologically) and contextualized (in time) depiction of social reality, an accurate depiction of the linguistic reality" (p. 8). As with English teachers and learners, they should be not only wary of the HC of their course books, but also able to recognize and address it. According to Baladi (2007):

"Critical approaches to ELT… are about learning to ask the right questions, about questioning the relevance and impact of a certain portrayed reality on the students' realities, about discovering whose interest a certain reality serves. Teachers, and eventually students, need to know how to question the topics, any, and all topics, and how to get to their deeper meaning, how to question their social context and how to expose their hidden ideology" (p. 99).

Baleghizadeh and Motahed (2010) examine the ideological content of three British and three American textbooks. In line with the previous study, their findings confirm the western ideology dominated in the textbooks. They suggest that teachers should endeavorto raise the learners' awareness about the link that English has with the global powers and social inequalities it brings about. In sum, reviewing these works indicate that to create counter-hegemonic materials, some practical implications and points for localized materials should be recommended. The following suggests some empirical aspects to localize the materials:

1. **Including Diverse Groups:** In developing a coursebook, there should be an assortment of different groups comprising various

races, gender, handicaps, age, and families such as single or divorced parents and gay couples. The inclusion of rather unique and "different" people works against reproducing the social norms of marginalizing them.

2. **Incorporating Local Socio-Political and Ideological Aspect:** During the last decades, the Iranian policymakers endeavor to highlight rich cultural norms and the social values of Iran. After the revolution of the Islamic Republic of Iran, the government attempted to publicize the cultural and political independence of Iran. Phillipson (2009) and Bourne (1996) confirm that the politics and economics of English are ELT, and the spread of English, especially through ELT, have played a key role in the expansion of the cultural, economic, and political influence of the Center in less developed countries. In such a situation, some authors maintain that the outer-circle countries are the only consumers of the book, including the expertise, methodology, and materials (Al-Issa, 2006). Phillipson (1992) believes that ELT provides the bedrock for political and economic goals.
3. **Developing One's Own Materials:** Developing learners' materials and the topic is another way to incorporate critical pedagogical thought in the classroom. In preference to using a coursebook for an advanced argument course, teachers are advised to incorporate the social/global issues that concern them. With clarifications and examples, it is possible to raise an issue, critically analyze the power relations embedded in society, discuss how that power is reflected and reproduced in our community, pose problems, and come up with at least one realistic and doable action that the student can take.
4. **Local and Global Topics:** A textbook should include the global, along with the local issues, and real-life concerns of the learners. In this regard, Gray (2002) contends that most imported textbooks are thematically and culturally inclusive and improper. Akbari (2008) argues that CP includes the overall actual experiences and needs of learners. In his view, the imported textbooks lack the required sensitivity to be able to address such concerns and disregard the localness of learning and learning needs.
5. **Integrate Learners' Culture:** Akbari (2008) regards the importance of authorizing learners by making them analytically

conscious of their culture as an asset. Reviewing the ELT textbooks taught in the outer-circle countries indicate the perception that students'; culture is inferior to the target culture. In this line, Gray (2002) argues that the target culture seems to uphold the Center values and living standards, avoiding the cultural hegemony of this language in the mainstream ELT materials. Integrating source culture in the local ELT materials might be introduced as an alternative approach. Akbari (2008) contends that the main rationale for applying CP is that successful communication is impossible without knowing learners' knowledge of the social standards of English speakers. However, due to the scope of English usage, both communicatively and geographically, most of the communication carried out in English is between non-native speakers of English with distinct cultural identities. Therefore, he concludes that there is little need in such a context for the Anglo-American culture since neither party is a native with whom the other interlocutor isgoing to identify.

6. **Use of L1:** The most popular hypothesis in L2 learning and teaching is declared that learners must not apply their L1 while in an L2 class. Phillipson (1992); and Akbari (2008), following the vital shift in ELT, have started to question the authenticity of this broadly adopted theory. Phillipson (1992) points to ELT's movement as the monolingual mistake, which maintains that English is best trained monolingually. It is assumed that Educators must improve extreme pedagogical structures that allow students to apply their reality based on literacy, so this contains the language they bring to the classroom" (Freire and Macedo, 1987). As mentioned by Akbari (2008), both the lack of proof to verify the complete exclusion of L1 from L2 classroom and the possible cases in promoting of L 1 use., Akbari (2008) supports that a " judicious" and "more liberal" use of L1 can simplify L2 learning; however recognizing the importance of the focus on, experience with, and practice of L2. In line with him, LI is associated with both learners' communicative experience and their identity; thus, its importance should not be ignored. Instead, by following the philosophy of critical pedagogy (CP), learners obtain voice and power; their worth and experiences, including their L1, need to be recognized.

4.5. MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

4.5.1. Principled Development of Materials

McGrath (2002) prepared a careful examination of the literature rules for materials improvers; he highlights the significance of recycling and locating. McGrath mainly concentrates on the scheme or *field-based approach*, the text-based system, and the storyline (Nunan, 1991). Tomlinson (2008) prepares an essential examination of ELT. The majority of its units refer to the rules and process of materials improvement. Additionally, it includes an introductory section about language skills and language-scholarship material that suggests how application accepted language skills theories to materials improvement. The principles contain:

- The language experience should be contextualizing and clear;
- The learner should be inspired, cheerful, easygoing, and involved;
- The language and discussion aspects that are useful for prospective acquisition should be notable, meaningful, and often experienced;
- The learner should obtain healthily and multi-dimension treated of the language.

4.6. KEY ISSUES IN MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

The following section explains some key issues in materials development for EFL/ESL contexts. Then some guidelines for designing effective materials are presented as in Figure 4.1.

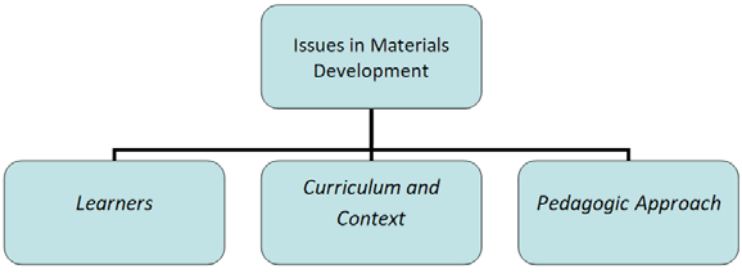


Figure 4.1. Issues in materials development.

4.6.1. Learners

Howard and Major (2005)believe that learners are the most important factors that should be considered in materials development. Teachers must ensure that they know their learners' interests, motivations, and needs through a needs analysis. The needs analysis should reveal leaner' needs in different aspects of language skills and their components such as vocabulary and grammar. It is not just learning needs that are related to the teacher as a materials designer, but students' life and educational experience, their level of language literacy, their interest, and their objective for language learning should be taken into consideration.

4.6.2. Curriculum and Context

The curriculum has a direct effect on the teaching materials. Nunan (1988) believes that many teachers are restricted to the mandated curriculum; therefore, they are bound to what to teach and what to do. They outline the goals and objectives to the learners by the school or through the top-down policy. Nunan continues that whatever the curriculum, the teachers must ensure the goals and objectives of overarching the curriculum when deciding the materials. The contexts in which teaching occurs will also have a direct impact on the type of materials that may need to be designed. For example, a basic level incorporates various curriculum materials that promote communication and improve cognitive academic language ability; however, foreigner adults require materials utterly different from the native speakers highlighting surviving needs and achieving employment.

4.6.3. Pedagogic Approach

Although methodology course books have changed frequently over the last 40 years, the pedagogy they adopted has changed a little. The advertisement in the back is steadily evolving. They emphasized they were teaching the language directly, without applying translation or interpretation in the 60s and early 70s. In the 70s, they said that they were following a communicative approach that attributed the learning of tasks or opinions or both. Afterward, they have declared to be following natural strategies regarding themes, topics, or lessons. Today, several course books highlight that their syllabus depends on the '; can do'; assertions of the Common European Framework. However, in the last 40 years, most course books are still using presentation-practice-production techniques by stressing different forms and everyday use of these low-level practice activities just as dialog repetition, listen,

and repeat, matching, and filling in the blanks. Several writers criticized such persistent use of approaches because no academic or research-based justification exists. For instance, Willis and Willis (2007) have evaluated the PPP approach.

Similarly, doubts about the quality of a focus on distinct forms have increased (Long, 1991; Ellis, 2001). Recently, different writers have suggested more practical approaches for applying language-learning materials. Tomlinson (2003) offered that in a language awareness approach, first learners encounter a text holistically and then examine it to make have findings for them about language use. Tomlinson (2003) suggested a text-driven approach where learners first answer a book personally before utilizing it for creative and rational activities. In task-driven methods, the learners' goal is task completion, and the teacher's purpose is language development (Ellis, 2011; Willis and Willis, 2007). Tomlinson (2003) advocated that the learners apply motor imagery, sensory imagery, emotion, inner speech, and thought to answer texts and perform tasks in multi-dimensional approaches to materials achievement.

4.7. DESIGNING EFFECTIVE MATERIALS: SOME GUIDELINES

To design effective materials through the main underpinnings of CLP; Table 4.1 provides some guidelines for designing an effective material.

Table 4.1. Some Guidelines for Designing an Effective Material

S L . No.	Guideline
1.	Materials should be contextualized to the curriculum.
2.	Materials should foster interaction and generate in terms of language.
3.	Materials should help learners develop learning strategies and integrated language use.
4.	Materials should focus on form and function.
5.	Materials should be flexible.

4.7.1. MaterialsShould Be Contextualized to the Curriculum

Nunan (1988) believes that the materials should be contextualized to the

curriculum they are intended to address. Objectives and goals should be specified. This is among the initial step materials should be contextualized to the learners' culture, the language they speak, experience, and reality. This demands teacher designer awareness of socio-cultural appropriacy of things such as the designer's style of presenting materials, arranging group, and so on (Jolly and Bollito as cited in Tomlinson, 2012). Materials should link explicitly to what learners already know to their first language and the culture. Besides, it should alert learners to cultural differences.

Moreover, the materials should be contextualized to the theme that provides meaningful use of language. Whenever possible, this should be relevant to the interned learners to ensure personal engagement. The topic may be old faithful to gear with some ages.

4.7.2. Materials Should Foster Interaction and Generate in Terms of Language

Hall (1995) believes that most people who can communicate fluently in an L2 language spend most of the time that provides a similar situation for an authentic communicative purpose. Materials should provide a situation where the learners interact with each other regularly in a manner that reflect on the real-life situation. According to Hall, the following situations are necessary to stimulate a real communicative situation: these are the need to have something we need to communicate, someone to interact with, and the interest in the outcome of the communication. Nunan (1988) refer to this as "learning by doing philosophy" (p. 8) and propose the procedure such as information gap and information transfer activities. Similarly, language learning would be enhanced when the material designer advocates communicative challenges in an interactive teaching approach and address the different norm of interaction. Material designers should ensure their materials provide enough scope for their learners to be stretched at least some of the time, to generate new language, and to progress beyond surface fluency to proficiency and confidence.

4.7.3. Materials Should Help Learners Develop Learning Strategies and Integrated Language Use

Materials should provide learners with an opportunity to develop meta-linguistic knowledge as well as the activities that help the learners to self-evaluate or assess their language development. Besides, Hall (1995) stresses the importance of providing the learners with an opportunity to connect

the word with the outside and the recall world situation. To this end, such strategies as rewording, using facial expression, and body language can be fined tune with well-designed materials. Language teaching materials can focus on one specific language skill, or some others may integrate different skills. Bell and Gower (as cited in Howard and Major, 2005) stated "at least we listen and speak together and read and write together" (p. 125). Ideally, materials should authentically integrate skills and provide an opportunity for the learners to become competent at integrating extra-linguistic factors.

4.7.4. Materials Should Focus on Form and Function

Frequently, the basic assumption for designing materials stems from the practitioner's designer to make more communicative activities, often as skill-based activities and artificial language use in the field of ESL instruction (Demetrion as cited in Howard and Major, 2005). Sometimes materials are developed which do not allow focusing on language form. Nunan (1988) states that material designers should help learners to be active and independent and encourage them to take an analytical approach to the language in front of and around them and to test their hypothesis about how language works.

4.8. CRITICAL SHIFTS IN MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

4.8.1. Glocalization: The Global, the Local, and the Hybrid

Every discussion of modern life, no doubt, incorporates the controversial term of *globalization.* Globalization, according to Giddens (as cited in Block, 2004), is defined as "the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa" (p. 75). In language teaching, this has manifested itself in the way English is widely used as the international language or "the shared linguistic code" (Block and Cameron, 2002, p. 1) in international communication.

Richards (2008) points out "English is no longer viewed as the property of the English-speaking world but is an international commodity sometimes referred to as world Englishes, a deterritorialized English detached from its geographical and cultural origins" (p. 2). Although there is no doubt that we are living in a globalized world, thanks to technological innovations that are

in fact "evaporating borders and distances" (Daly, 2009, p. 7), there is little agreement on the various aspects of the issue. In fact, as Sifakis and Sougari (2004) maintain, "there seem to be different interpretations, or versions, or realizations of it, depending on the observer" (p. 60). Blok (2004) believes that some see globalization phenomenon as "a done deal"; others view it as "a work in progress" which is developed in different parts of the world. Some see it "as both progress and progressive, benign, and good," others see it as "the steamroller of late modernity taking away all that is authentic and meaningful in our lives" and finally some see it as *"hegemonically Western"* or "*an extension of American imperialism*," others see the process as more *"egalitarian"* (p. 75). While many primarily acknowledged the advantages of globalization, the so-called problems it could cause have given rise to lively debates over its legitimacy.

Perhaps the view that has gained much attention and debate over the last decades is the one which considers globalization synonymous with "*westernization*," "*McDonaldization*," or "*Europeanization*" (Sifakis and Sougari, 2004) and which is accused of practicing a western HC imposing "sets of social and cultural values which are inherent in their make-up" (Hurst, 2007). Rogers (1982) maintains that one of the ethical issues of the ELT industry is the cultural imposition of non-neutral values by ELT professionals in host countries. Similarly, Vongalis-Macrow (2005) believes that "this phenomenon is particularly important to education because it impacts on how a national system, such as education, can be governed by supranational bodies rather than remaining a national concern" (p. 2).

The discussion about the merits and demerits of universalizing and the degree it needs to be considered as a homogenizing procedure goes on the *third millennium*; however, the arrival of more individual and student-centered techniques to learning, and the post-method refusal of one-size-fits-all system, has risen to the need to trace the teaching materials. This is accomplished to ideal match the specific language gains and desires of every particular context. McDonough and Shaw (2003) stated that localizing considers the global geography of ELT and awareness that what might work in one specific setting might not inevitably do so in another context. It is probably because of the same conflict among internationalize and positioning in modern life that the balancing phrase of "; internationalize"; which has been presented to the literature to offer the saying "; think globally, act locally." As defined by Weber (as cited in Gurko, 2011), *glocalization* is a blend of universal systems and local training. It highly grows the possibility of autonomous learning by combining global knowledge and

domestic knowledge. Still, according to Moss (2008), glocalization does not demonstrate the intermediate or temporary plan or a period between the local and the global level, instead of applying medium standards to explain the objectives and thus make local plans to obtain the universal models. Khondker (2004, p. 3) enumerates the following points as the main propositions of glocalization:

- Diversity is the essence of social life;
- Globalization does not erase all differences;
- The autonomy of history and culture give a sense of uniqueness to the experiences of groups of people whether we define them as cultures, societies or nations;
- Glocalization is the notion that removes the fear from many that globalization is like a tidal wave erasing all the differences;
- Glocalization does not promise a world free from conflicts and tensions but a more historically grounded understanding of the complicated-yet, pragmatic view of the world.

As far as language curriculum development is concerned, Daly (2009) believes that in this post-methods age, non-native speaker teachers are in the best position to act as mediators in the EFL profession to combine local knowledge and teaching strategies with CLT or other principles from second language acquisition (SLA) or Applied Linguistics. In this way, a more systematic (and hopefully less teacher-responsible) approach to FL teaching for exam-oriented contexts can be devised to better prepare EFL students for the needs of a globalized world (p. 14). Further, Daly refers to this globalizing activity as "a post-methods principled pragmatics," which is currently "cautious, tentative, and hazy" and which "places a terrific burden on teachers" (p. 15). Hence, glocalization is not an easy, straightforward path to take, and some requirements must be met to pave the way towards achieving it. In what follows, some of the necessities and requirements for a globalized language curriculum are presented.

4.9. CLASSIFICATIONS OF CURRICULUM PRINCIPLE

4.9.1. Nunan's (1987) and Grave's (1996) Classification

Nunan (1987) argues that the notion of the curriculum is clarified for teachers as a set of items to be taught, a process for developing materials and

methodology, along with the planning phase of a program. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define a course as "an integrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge" (p. 65). Thus, syllabus design is part of course development, and a course is part of a curriculum. Graves (1996) proposed the following principles for curriculum development:

- **Needs Assessment:** What are my students' needs? How can I assess them so I can address them?
- **Specifying Goal and Objective Setting:** What are the purposes and outcomes of the course? What will my students need to do or learn to achieve these goals?
- **I am Conceptualizing and Organizing Content:** What will be the backbone of what I teach? What will I include in my syllabus?
- **Selection and Developing Materials and Activities:** How and with what will I teach the course? What is my role? What are my students' roles?
- **Organization of Content and Activities:** How will I organize the content and activities? What systems will I develop?
- **Evaluation:** How will I assess what students have learned? How will I assess the effectiveness of the course?
- **Consideration of Resources and Constraints:** What are the givens of my situation?

4.9.2. Richards' (2001) Classification

Richards (2001) classified program, teacher, and learner, content, and pedagogical factors which to be considered for materials development. He enumerates the following five factors as the main concern: These factors:

- **Program Factors:** Questions relating to concerns of the program.
- **Teacher Factor:** Questions relating to teacher concerns.
- **Learner Factor:** Questions relating to learner concerns.
- **Content Factor:** Questions relating to the content and organization of the material in the book.
- **Pedagogical Factor:** Questions relating to principles underlying the materials and the pedagogical design of the materials, including choice of activities and exercise types (p. 259).

4.9.3. Tomlinson's (2010) Classification

Tomlinson (2010) suggests some principles while developing materials. These principles are as follows:

- Learners need to expose to a rich, meaningful, and comprehensible input of language in use;
- They need to be engaged both affectively and cognitively in the language experience;
- Language learners who achieve positive affect are much more likely to achieve communicative competence than those who do not;
- L2 language learners can benefit from using those mental resources that they typically utilize when acquiring and using their L1;
- Language learners can benefit from noticing the salient features of the input;
- Learners need opportunities to use language to try to achieve communicative purposes.

Tomlinson introduces planning and writing materials based on Hall's (1995) principles by the need for communication, long-term goal, authenticity, and student-centeredness.

4.9.4. Nation and Macalister's (2010) Principles of Materials Development

Nation and Macalister (2010) divided the principles of language curriculum development into three groups. The first group deals with content and sequencing. They are concerned with the order in which language items present in the course. These principles aimed to confirm that the students are learning something useful from the course that provides a rich return for the time invested in it. The second group of principles concerns the format and presentation. They deal with what occurs in the classroom during the learning. More precisely, they deal with the sort of activities utilized in the course and how learners process the course material. Thus, teachers at this phase of curriculum design may have their greatest influence on the course. The last group of principles is about monitoring and assessment and, to some degree, evaluation. Figure 4.2 depicts the schematic representation of the principles.

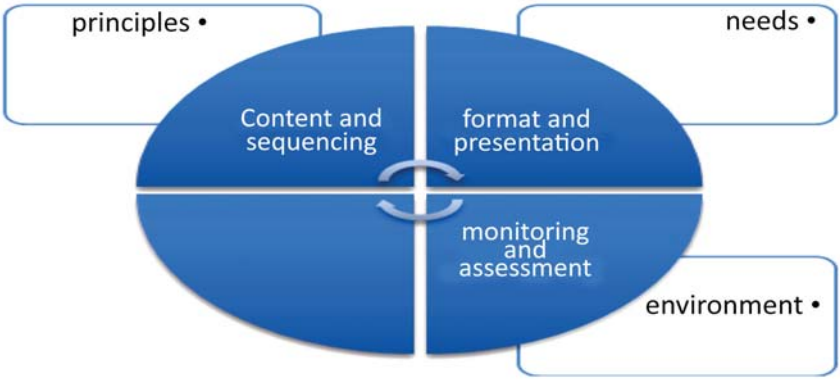


Figure 4.2. Nation and Macalister's (2010) classification of principle.

4.10. WHAT SHOULD BE INCLUDED IN A CURRICULUM?

Scott (2006) identifies six different justifications for determining what should be included in a curriculum:

- **Foundationalism:** This type of justification may be philosophical, psychological, or sociological. Curriculum frameworks are understood as logically and rationally necessary in philosophical justification; if it is possible to identify distinct forms of knowledge (e.g., Gardner's multiple-intelligence) and the possibility of universal social forms, then this justifies what should be represented in a curriculum and what should be left out.
- **Conventionalism:** Here, there are two competing traditions: "neo-conservative traditionalism" assuming curriculum as a given body of knowledge that should be preserved through its institutionalizing in schools; and "technical-instrumentalism" that constructs the curriculum is a means to an end, the end being a successful, efficient, and competitive knowledge-based economy.
- **Instrumentalism:** It argues that it is possible to include items in the contents of a curriculum in terms of certain experiences that children should have to lead them into 'the good life.'
- **Technical Rationality:** Whereas essentialist or logo-centric discourses act to prescribe the contents and form of a curriculum, technical epistemologies separate means and ends with an

emphasis on a notion of effectiveness and consider the knowledge of practitioners partial and incomplete and state they should adopt precepts based on the objective study of practical activities.

- **Critical Pedagogy (CP):** This justification that is learner-centered believes curriculum-makers should bring with them to the practice setting not only theories about the world, but also a desire to change; the curriculum should identify those human beliefs and practices that limit freedom, justice, and democracy.
- **Postmodernism:** This approach seeks to deconstruct curricular forms. They state any assumption is ambiguous and nothing is fixed or absolute; the only option is to 'play the game' without at any time taking up foundationalism or fixed positions about the curriculum.

4.11. A FRAMEWORK OF COURSE DEVELOPMENT

Tomlinson's preference for an approach to writing materials is a large team of teachers who aim at fast first draft production by many people followed by refinement by a smaller group of experts. This is the procedure that the Namibians, for instance, used in the writing of the Namibian coursebook, On Target (as cited in Tomlinson, 2003).

First, they were shown some innovative approaches to extend the teachers' repertoires of activity types and to stimulate thought and discussion about the principles of language teaching. Then, they worked out a flexible framework to use in producing the materials and made some decisions together about the use of illustrations, music, cassettes, etc. Then, the teachers wrote and monitored materials in small teams while a small group of facilitators supported them and cross-checked with the syllabus. That way, the teachers managed to complete the first draft of the whole book in one week, and then this was trialed, revised, edited, and published within a year. Tomlinson refers to the advantages of such and similar collaborative work, asserting that "the teachers managed to inspire each other with ideas, to maintain creative energy, to relate their materials to the actual learners who were going to use them and to suggest useful improvements to each other's materials" (p. 5).

A variety of principles have also been proposed to be taken into account when developing instructional materials. Some of them are *flexibility, novelty, maintaining natural language, emphasis on review, integrated skills, personalized practice, authenticity, stimulating interaction, focus*

on formal aspects of the language, developing learning skills, the need to communicate, facilitating self-investment, and attention to differences in learning styles and affective attitudes (Bell and Gower, 1998; Nunan, 1988; Tomlinson, 1998). Tomlinson (2003) proposed a *text-driven approach* to materials development that he believes is ideal for developing course books and supplementary classroom materials even by teachers with little previous experience of materials development. This framework is briefly described below:

1. **Text Collection:** At this stage, the teachers attempt to create a resource of texts with the potential for engagement. By engagement, Tomlinson means a willing investment of energy and attention in experiencing the text in such a way as to achieve interaction between the text and the senses, feelings, and views. They can come from various sources, including literature, songs, newspapers, magazines, books, and radio, and television programs and films.
2. **Text Selection:** In this stage, the teacher selects from her library of potentially engaging texts based on certain criteria that she has in mind.
3. **Text Experience:** In this stage, the teacher experiences the selected text again to avoid the danger of studying the text as a sample of language only. That is, s/he reads or listens to it again experientially to reengage with the text. Tomlinson believes that this re-engagement is essential so that teachers can design activities that help the target learners to achieve similar engagement.
4. **Readiness Activities:** This stage includes designing activities that help the learners to achieve the mental readiness that readers take to L1 texts and to inhibit the word fixation and apprehension that L2 readers typically face. A simple example of this can be asking the learner to visualize her first day at school if the text to be read is about a child's first day at school.
5. **Experiential Activities:** These are the activities given to the learners just before they start to read or listen to the text to help them to represent the text in their minds. For instance, taking the previous example of the text, and experiential activity may be asking the learner to think that she is a child and that she's standing alone in the playground on her first day of school. As she listens to the poem on the same topic, she should try to see in her mind what the child could see in the playground.

6. **Intake Response Activities:** These are activities that help the learners to develop and articulate what they have taken in from the text. There is no wrong response for these activities since the learners are asked to state their representation of the text and not their comprehension of the text.
7. **Development Activities:** These activities provide opportunities for meaningful language production based on learner's representations of the text. They involve the learners going back to the text before producing something new. For instance, after working out from an advertisement the good and bad points of a car called C5, they design an improved C6 and then write an advertisement.
8. **Input Response Activities:** They include activities that require the learner to go back to the text to help them to make discoveries about the purposes and language of the text. After designing the activities, the materials are trialed, evaluated, and revised to find out how usable and motivating they are, the effects of the materials on learners, and to achieve a closer match with the needs and wants of the learners. Tomlinson believes that this framework is best used flexibly. That is, the sequence of some of the stages may vary, or the teacher may decide to focus on a particular type of activity considering the learners' needs and the requirements of the course.

4.12. ELT MATERIALS AND THE PLACE OF CLP IN EDUCATION: PROBLEMS AND CHALLENGE

It is probably needless to talk about the significance of the instructional materials in language classrooms, particularly in settings where English is a FL and the language classroom and the coursebook may serve as the only sources to expose the learners to the English language. But *who should develop these materials? Should it be the professional material writers or the teachers?* In other words, given the expertise and knowledge required for developing the materials, can we expect the teachers to be good material developers, too? And on the other hand, given the necessity of considering the needs and wants of learners in particular settings, how can we make sure that the commercial textbooks developed by the field experts can fulfill our expectations?

White (1988) tends to emphasize the role of the teacher as the user of materials written by 'experts' and thus "established what some might see as a disabling tradition of the teacher as a consumer and the material producer as

the expert, each inhibiting rather different worlds and with communication between them being in one direction from the 'expert' to the practitioner" (pp. 14, 15). Nunan (1988) also pinpoints the fact that while some teachers have a relatively free hand in designing their syllabuses on which their teaching programs are based, most are consumers of other syllabus designers and that few teachers are in the position of being able to design their syllabuses. This standpoint is by the different view held by Allwright (1981) about one of the key positions about the role of materials in the classroom. In this view, materials are seen as carriers of decisions best made by someone other than the teacher because of the differences in expertise.

In contrast to the difference view, there is the deficiency view which sees the role of textbooks or published materials as being to compensate for teachers' deficiencies and ensure that the syllabus is covered using well-thought-out exercises. Underlying this view is the assumption that 'good' teachers always know what materials to use with a given class and have access to, or can create them. They neither want nor need published materials.

Several reasons can be identified for the language teachers spending a large amount of time writing their materials. As it was already pointed out, Tomlinson et al. (2001) believe that most of the commercial books written often lack energy and imagination and are sometimes considered irrelevant and uninteresting in the contexts in which they are used. Commercial materials writers cannot take care of the particular needs and interests of all various groups of language learners. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 106) believe that the occasional inadequacy of commercial instructional materials is manifest when it comes to ESP courses and they list several reasons for their claim:

- A teacher or institution may wish to provide teaching materials that will fit the specific subject area of particular learners. Such materials may not be available commercially.
- Even when suitable materials are available, it may not be possible to buy them because of currency or import restrictions.
- ESP materials may also be written for non-educational reasons: for example, to enhance the reputation of an institution or an individual. Materials are a visible product of the activity, regardless of whether such activity is useful or even necessary.

One other reason that may drive the act of materials development may be what McDonough and Shaw (2003) posit as the need to personalize, individualize, or localize the content when necessary. Personalizing refers

to increasing the relevance of the content concerning learner's interests and their academic, educational, or professional needs. Individualizing addresses the learning styles both of the individuals and of the members of a class working closely together. Madsen and Bowen (as cited in McDonough and Shaw, 2003) include a further category of 'modernizing' commenting that "not all materials show familiarity with aspects of current English usage, sometimes to the point of being not only out of date or misleading but even incorrect" (p. 78).

Felix (2005) enumerates several features to the curriculum in the third millennium as flexible, inclusive, collaborative, authentic, relevant, global, and effective. The educational system should provide conditions whereby learners might recreate their knowledge and skills. Therefore, Felix considers social constructivism as a clear pedagogical paradigm shift in education. Different materials developers (Akbari, 2008; Baladi, 2007; Brown, 1990; Canagarajah, 2005; Crooks, 2009) opposed the content of mainstream materials in the ELT world for *westernizing* young adults. Hurst (2007) argued that most of the commercially produced textbooks are accused of practicing a western HC imposing western sociocultural values that are hidden in their make-up. Suffered from inappropriate EFL materials, CP incorporates the controversial term of globalization to repudiate the use of instructional materials and commercially produced textbooks. Crawford (1978) asserts that such materials generate creativity and responsibility on the part of the learners. In Asian countries, CP isin the incipient stage as a new approach to language teaching. A large body of literature appreciated different theoretical underpinning of CP. However, little study has been conducted to practically consider the problems of CP in an EFL context (Barjesteh, 2017). Many Asian countries have been dominated by ideas of modernism, but there is no evidence of postmodernism in different levels of education. Barjesteh posits that the *top-down policy* and a *centralized system* of education made no room for learners to express their voice. The authorities in charge of the government take all decisions, and schools and teachers must conform to the pre-packed decision. Teachers are the performers of the governments' central policies. It is clear that individual differences are not taken into account, and all students are taught with a *one-size-fits-all policy*. For example, a uniform English textbook is used for all students around the country by taking into account their background and needs. Teachers have no right to select the materials that they think are apt for their students. This is what Freire (1970) refers to as the *banking model* of education in which learners are the passive and only recipients of knowledge. Students are only

expected to receive the information and memorize them. Students should memorize the teacher's ideas and what they include in their textbooks. They are hindered from becoming either conscious or critical because no room is given to the learners to reveal their talent and abilities. Their knowledge is controlled by the national high-stakes tests that are administered at the end of each year, before entry to university, and before being employed by any organization. This test is the most important test that determines the life of the learners. It is a provision for pursuing students' education. Not all of them have a chance to enter a university. Teaching to the test is an important issue in this system. The test in the English module is held in a multiple-choice format, and the focus is on grammar, vocabulary, and reading. Other skills such as speaking, listening, and writing are not catered to in both teaching and testing. ELT teachers all the time try to put a premium on these skills tested in the exam and disregard the other very important skills. This system has been discarded by the ideology of CP. We witness that due to the top-down policy in the system of education in Iran, teachers are not autonomous to decree any praxis-oriented action research, and, in most cases, they are not even familiar with the ABCs of reflective teaching. The search for the elusive best method is common in the form of 'a mad scramble,' as Brown (1990) puts it, in both schools and English language institutes.

Barjesteh (2017) summarizes the impediments of the practicality of CLP in the higher education system. Barjesteh classified the obstacles at macro and micro levels. More precisely, the external hindrances are labeled macro-level and internal obstacles are classified as micro-level. The following section outlines the hindrances arising at the macro and the micro-level from the practicality of transformative pedagogy (TP) (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. Problems and Challenges for the Practicality of CLP

Level	SL. No.	**Excerpts**	**Emerging Problems**
Macro	1.	• Using a uniform textbook for all students; • Dictating preplanned decision to teachers.	Centralized planning system

	2.	• Cultivating the culture of dialog and negotiation at national level; • Training teachers and holding national and international conferences on critical perspectives in education.	Macro planning and national willpower
	3.	• Implementing negotiated syllabus; • Culture bound nature of CP	Curriculum and syllabus
	4.	• Providing no room for teachers due to rigid rules and frameworks for evaluation.	System of evaluation
Micro	5.	• I should follow what has been imposed in the language institute.	Authoritarian nature of schools
	6.	• Teachers and learners should learn how to criticize the logic of argument; • The system of education needs a reform to train critical thinking.	Culture of critique
	7.	• We do not have infrastructures such as rich library, advanced internet, and enough educational space; • It is impossible to invite students to collaborate in a large class size; • Group work and dialog cannot be reached in a crowded classroom.	Instructional facilities and administrative constraints

CHAPTER 5

DIALOGIC DRIVEN PEDAGOGY: BAKHTINIAN'S CARNIVAL

CONTENTS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

Bakhtin (1981) postulated a theory of language focusing on the social nature of language. In his theory, the context of utterance shapes its meaning, and meaning only occurs inside a dialog. Bakhtin distinguished two types of discourses, namely authoritative and internally persuasive. *Authoritative discourse* is a *monologic discourse* which is the feature of traditional writing and thought. In *monologist*, one transcendental perspective or consciousness merges all the fields, consequently combines all the signifying practices, ideologies, values, and desires that are deemed significant. To borrow from Bakhtin, dialogic discourse is like a *carnival*. It lets learners go beyond authoritative dogma. Bakhtin's (1981) notions of authoritative and internally persuasive discourse afford a lens to analyze discursive classroom practices observed in this case. For Bakhtin:

"The authoritative word demands that we acknowledge it… [and] make it our own; it binds us, quite independent of any power it might have to persuade us internally, we encounter it. The authoritative word is located in a distanced zone, organically connected with a past that is felt to be hierarchically higher. It is so to speak the word of the fathers. Its authority was already acknowledged in the past. It is a prior discourse. It is therefore not a question of choosing it from among other possible discourses that are equal." (p. 342)

This authoritative word arises from the public legitimacy and recognition always already granted to it as well as from its having been the past (prior) foundation for all current knowledge. Bakhtin (1986) argued that the use of language paves the ground for a dialog accompanied by a speech plan calling forth an anticipated response from the addressee. Some constructs such as language, culture, context, and experience are the pivotal themes in Bakhtin's theory of language. The corresponding themes draw up people's understanding of the words utilized in a dialog. Dialog has long been favored as an efficient mode in classroom discourse to promote interaction. Dialogic teaching is defined by numerous scholars, practitioners, and policy-makers to show learning processes in which teachers and learners investigate the topic of study critically, listen to several voices and ideas, and build respectful relationships. To McLaren (2003), dialogic teaching is "a way of thinking about, negotiating, and transforming the relationship among classroom teaching, the production of knowledge, the institutional structures of the school, and the social and material relations of the wider community, society, and nation-state" (p. 35). Degener (2001) asserts that in a dialogic context, teachers should listen to the students to find out their

problems, which are significant in society. He adds that teachers should raise students' understanding of these problems from a social viewpoint by asking questions and finding the techniques to take political actions to solve them. An authentic dialog needs an association between educator and educated where one " knowing subject [his] face to face with other knowing subjects" (Roberts, 1998, p. 49 as cited in Degener, 2001).

5.2. BAKHTIN'S DIALOGICAL DRIVEN PEDAGOGY

Bakhtin (1999) postulates that dialog comprises seeking information from and with others. Skidmore explains dialogic pedagogy as an internally influential discourse with which the participants seeking the truth, "Truth is not born nor is it to be found inside the head of an individual, it is born between people collectively searching for truth, in the process of their dialogic interaction" (Bakhtin, 1999, p. 110). Freire (2004) claims that "dialog is the opportunity available to me to open up to thinking of others and thereby not wither away in isolation" (p. 103).

As Wells (1993) points out, dialogic pedagogy is defined by numerous scholars, practitioners, and policy-makers to show learning processes, in which teachers and learners critically probe the topic of study, declare, and listen to several voices and ideas, and build respectful and practical classroom relations. "In a monolog environment, the conscious interaction is impossible, and also dialog is impossible as well. Monologism is a single mode of cognitive interaction among consciousnesses: someone who knows the truth trains someone unconscious of it and in error; that is, it is the interaction of a teacher and a learner, which, it follows, can be only a "pedagogical dialog" (Bakhtin, 1999, p. 81).

Bakhtin (1981) assumes that knowledge is not just in an individual's mind, but it is built by engaging participants in a critical conversation and spoken communication. As Freire (1972), the father of CP, suggests that the dialogic discourse procedure can be formed by discussing difficulties of real-life to raise learners' critical consciousness. In dialogical communication, L2 learners initiate the conversation and participate in a dialog to ask critical questions. Here the teacher works as a leader from the back of the class to control learners, discussion, and permit them to share their knowledge through interactions (Woods, 2006).

5.2.1. Conversation and Dialog

Conversation and dialog mean talk. They are commonly regarded as synonyms in dictionaries in terms of dialogic teaching, but it is necessary to discriminate. According to Renshaw (2004), dialog as inquiry is dissimilar to talk as long as each inquirer keeps supplying their views. However, such beliefs are strongly challenged and questioned by other inquirers to illuminate and the fulfillment of a working consensus or tentative agreement. When an answer does not lead to a new question from itself; it drops out of the dialog (Bakhtin, 1986).

Dialog can be regarded as not only a type of instruction but also a relationship. It is, in fact, a method which leads to comprehension among people by being either agree or disagree with each other. The relationship between teacher and students is considered as a focal element of dialogic pedagogy which focuses on reciprocal respect and learning in a specific group (Wong and Grant, 2007). Dialog is something in which participants share their perspectives with others by carrying their subjectivity. Whether they win the contention or not is not the main matter, but they should think about the given ideas which result in the formation of new understandings.

Mortimer and Scott (2003) distinguished four categories of communicative approach in the classroom:

- **Interactive/Dialogic:** The teacher and student investigate thoughts, produce new forms of meaning, and ask authentic questions. They also analyze different perspectives.
- **Non-Interactive/Dialogic:** This typology focuses on the role of the teacher.
- **Interactive/Authoritative:** The instructor drives the attention of learners through a set of inquiries and answers to arrive at one explicit perspective.
- **Non-Interactive/Authoritative:** Only one perspective is introduced by the teacher.

5.2.2. Identifying Dialogic Discourse Pattern (DDP)

The concept of dialogic teaching and learning was originated in the Socratic Teaching method. Considering the role of inwardly persuasive dialog in establishing social personalities, extra dialogic discourse can highly open space for the learners' cognitive development. Xu (2012) postulates that the recent distribution of dialog has been provoked by the socio-cultural

learning theory of Vygotsky and Bakhtin's notion about the intrinsic dialog of language and thinking. More precisely, they emphasized the social bases of learning, the negotiating role of language (i.e., cognitive improvement and personality formation), and the connection between the individual as well as the social aspect. The authors have reckoned the theoretical system suggested by Alexander (2008) to recognize the features of a dialogic discourse pattern (DDP). Table 5.1 presents the 21 rules for DDP.

Table 5.1. Principles of Dialogic Driven Pedagogy

Rules	Description
R1.	Make connections between your lesson and students' concerns and interests outside the classroom.
R2.	Give room to your students' questions and responses and follow up on your students' contributions.
R3.	*Use authentic questions* as far as possible. (Authentic questions are those questions that you ask your students but you don't have any pre-determined answer in your mind).
R4.	*Use uptake* in your class. (Make your students ask questions related to what other students have said and direct your class in the directions of the raised questions by the students).
R5.	Have *high-level evaluation* for the students' responses to your questions. (Evaluate your students' responses by making them explain more, clarify or give more information rather than just giving them answers like " very good" or" you are right" and getting back your lesson).
R6.	Include questions *with high cognitive level.* (Such questions can't be answered neither by reporting an event or reciting others' voices nor using the students' own prior knowledge. These questions need more critical thinking involving students' own voice and perspectives. For example, instead of asking a question like "what happened in the paragraph?" ask "what do you think will happen?").
R7.	*Use referential questions* rather than display questions. (The teacher does not know the answer for referential questions and they are answered through negotiation and exploration of the topic; whereas, the teacher knows the answer for display questions and demand a single or short response of the low-level thinking kind. "Why" and "how" questions are more likely to be used as referential questions than display questions).
R8.	Ask questions that need longer answers.
R9.	Give *content feedback*. (Content feedback is the feedback on the content of what the student says rather than its form).

R10.	Provide your students with *wait time*. (Wait time is the time you allow your students to answer question).
R11.	Develop *student-initiated talk*. (Let your students sometimes start the talk).
R12.	Teach *collectively*. (Do learning tasks with the students as a group or as a class rather than make them work alone).
R13.	Teach *reciprocally*. (Listen to your students and make your students listen to each other very carefully and share their ideas).
R14.	Teach *supportively*. (Make your students articulate their ideas freely, without fear of embarrassment and make them help each other to reach common understandings).
R15.	Teach *cumulatively*. (Make your students build on each other's ideas and chain them into coherent lines of thinking and enquiry).
R16.	Teach *purposefully.* (Plan and steer classroom talk with specific educational goals).
R17.	Carefully manage the F move. (If we consider your question as initiation (I, the first move), the students' response as response (R, the second move) and your reaction as follow up (F, the third move), the last move can enhance a dialogic discourse. In other words, when you dominate the F move by evaluation, it suppresses students' participation. Conversely, when you avoid evaluation and instead request justifications, connections or counter-arguments and allow students to self-select in making their contributions, you change the discourse pattern of your class from a monolog discourse to a dialogic one).
R18.	Let your students self-select themselves or sometimes select other students.
R19.	Be a wise turn manager. (Under the IRF pattern, you have a variety of options for regulating turns. For example, in the I move, you can address the question to the whole class or select a specific student to reply. In the F move, you can choose to give the floor back to the responder by asking him/her to modify or elaborate his/her reply or give away the floor to other students.) In managing the turns in the class, remember the following issues: • Sometimes ask the less active and more silent students difficult questions. • Ask the more active students more open-ended questions. • Try to identify which turn-taking habits your students have in the classroom.
R20.	Try to frame and facilitate the class activities and keep your utterances and intervention to a minimum.
R21.	Negotiate topics and subtopics of discussion with your students and sometimes let your students choose the topics.

5.2.3. The Elements of Dialogic Teaching

A dialogic teaching system involves different conceptual tools that are discriminated against as principles, indicators, and dialogic teaching methods, in general. A broad framework of codes has recently been published to show dialogic education (Hennessy et al., 2016). We cooperated with five key indicators in our research: (a) the utterances of students' opinions by philosophy (Pimentel and McNeill, 2013) a student's logic through features of a text like a disagreement or reason; (b) a teacher's clear issue of large logical needs a real problem to discover a student's thoughts and feelings because no determined answer exists; this matter needs mental procedure of a greater rank than memorizing (Gayle, Preiss, and Allen, 2006) (c) absorb a condition where the talker develop what has been said by the earlier talker, a teacher makes a track issue typically according to a student's respond (Nystrand et al., 1997); (d) the circumstance of student problems (Nystrand et al., 2001); (5) talk openly a series, which has fewer three members who answer each other for more than 30s (Nystrand et al., 1997).

Boyd and Markarian (2015) claimed the existence of signs cannot ensure that dialogic teaching is happening. Instead, hands work just as clues (Alexander, 2006), and as the primary philosophy of the classroom, communications are critical. Therefore, Alexander (2006) suggests several principles that teachers need to chase in dialogic teaching. Figure 5.1 recapitulates Alexander's proposal for the main elements of dialogic teaching.

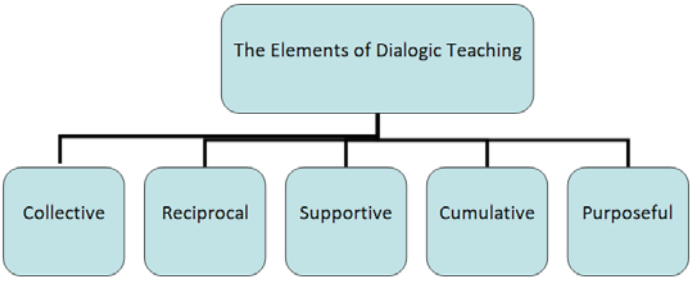


Figure 5.1. The key elements for dialogic teaching.

Alexander believes that a classroom dialog must be (a) collective as far as possible, and all students need to take part in classroom communication, (b) reciprocal, that is, students and teachers must pay attention to each other and share opinions and beliefs, (c) encouraging, for instance, liberty must exist at class to reveal one's thoughts with no the anxiety of making a

wrong answer or being embarrassed (d) collective as association needs to be controlled toward the progressive collection of knowledge via efforts that chase each other) (e) intentional communication must be an underprovided academic purpose. Thus, marks and rules demonstrate two various dialogic teaching features. We do not ask that such elements correctly explain dialogic education. Still, we assume that they are very complicated for attaining in the classroom in terms of the subsequent paragraphs show.

The first element (i.e., collective) means the communicative teaching needs to be collaborative, and so the entire class or, as a minimum, some of its groups need to take part in it. Alexander (2006) offers that instructive assignments should handle entire students. Still, our information shows that this element encounters a robust variety of students at small secondary schools. While students are not motivated to the subject, and they have different behavior. Nystrand et al. (2001) stated that this variety involves recognizing the collectivity standard. Teachers face difficulties to support as it requires a higher or lower personal identification of received understanding and ability. Teachers must involve students in tasks in the range of their proximate improvement; however, this is hard to perform because all students' zone of proximal improvement is unique and so different from the others.

Teachers who realize the heterogeneity of their students follow two strategies. First of all, they can involve low-track students out of the more challenging communication chains, collected data supported this by showing that some of the most motivated and gifted students take part in dialogic chains. Secondly, teachers can arrange their standards low, so that every student can pass them. The first strategy does not face the criterion of collectivity, but the second prevents dialogic teaching by choosing its social functions. Collectivity can motivate the teacher not to provoke extra progress of responses and rational arguments from the students. The teacher believes this task would be too much complicated for the students. In addition, her purpose is to involve a wide range of students in communication that can stimulate her to change her communication partners fast. The second feature suggests that communication instruction needs to be complementary. Alexander (2006) stated that teachers and students pay attention to each other, share their opinions, and regard substitute points of view. We suppose that the standard of teamwork could be greatly referred to as response, which means that conversion is just teamwork if its participants note each other's thoughts and improve them better. Alexander's second feature can still battle with the first one. Based on consideration, once the teacher focused on a

unique student's answer for a long time, the other students being slowly less and less interested in their communication exchanging; the rank of noise in the classroom enhanced so did off-task projects of the students. Thus we suppose that the activating of all students occurs over concentration at a student and the development of his or her opinions.

Alexander (2004) posted that when conversation instruction is helpful, students can exchange their opinions openly and take part in the association. The relationships of teachers and their students directly influence the level of support: when teachers worry about students misbehave, the level of their support decrease. It must be clear that the discovered teachers were helpful, and students did not have difficulty taking part in-class interaction. Nevertheless, this is probably debatable due to support results in the stress of the public tasks of teaching conversation. In the case of debate degenerate, and the student's merit, there are no major comments. Besides, teachers may not assess the comments rate or their authenticity. We believe that teachers perform thereby for being supportive, not discouraging students with vital explanation, and normally appreciate all of their notes.

Alexander maintained that the most demanding element is making dialogic teaching cumulative. When communication is incremental, so the process of obtaining new skills and knowledge proceeds. Such a process refers to previous stages and focuses on a simple and absolute consideration of the content matter. Alexander's last element of dialogic teaching is that it is purposeful. Hence a teacher teaches with particular educational purposes insight. The teachers' interviews reveal that such an aspect is specifically problematic in an effort at dialogic teaching awareness. The teachers repeatedly claimed that dialogic methods might not be used because they would not handle to address the subject matter they are expected to. They believed dialog is a relaxed conversation that aimed to make a lesson pleasurable instead of expanding students' understanding. We explain that this finding is an exaggeration of the helpful element of dialogic teaching. It was disclosed that the teachers' main goal was making students feel comfortable so that they would take part in the communication.

5.3. QUESTIONING IN DIALOGIC TEACHING

Alexander (2008) acknowledged that *questioning* is one of the most usual and essential forms of communication and instruction. Alexander proposed that *questioning* can be applied to develop students' communication, stimulate real conversation, and make learning more student-centered.

Teacher's utilization of questions and feedback strategies need to motivate mutual respect and students' participation to form meaning via talk.

In a "monologic" classroom, a teacher is a perfect authority who mainly applies factual and evaluative questions with specific answers and calls on students to "respond." Students give short, accurate answers, and a teacher assesses the response. Conversely, in a dialogic student-centered classroom, the questions are reliable, effective, and have multiple answers regardless of factual and "test" questions. Teachers are making their problems more attentively. According to Alexander (2008), items starting with, What?, Who?, and How many? Are resisting those starting with, Why?, and How?. Teachers are then equalizing authentic recall or test questions with those investigating thinking and stimulating analysis and speculation. Teachers should make communication more dialogic as the following:

1. **Referential Questions:** These are preferred to display ones because learners have to give more information which is motivating for producing oral language (Chaudron, 1988; Nunan, 1991). This classification has been used by Long and Sato (1983), which led to this conclusion that students can provide responses, which are not only long but also more intricate in terms of grammar by using referential questions. In general, most of the cognitive questions tend to be referential, because there is an overall inclination that an instructor is not aware of the students' attempts to answer these types of questions.
2. **Procedural Questions:** This classification has been proposed by Lockhart (1996, as cited in Chappell, 2014). Procedural questions are related to strategies and plans of the classroom. Second, convergent (closed) questions, which are posed to receive one definite answer, while divergent (open) questions, can prompt a variety of responses instead of just one, which can result in promoting dialog. Divergent or referential questions are challenging in the sense that they include various elements such as analysis, combination, assessment, giving ideas, and critical thinking (CT), while lower cognitive questions are not like that since students have to remember simple facts. However, the concept of language learning should not be assumed as just factual information that is transferred during brief meetings. It is, in fact, the linguistic framework, which is created as they are psychologically occupied with these interests while simultaneously building up the intellectual abilities for long-lasting learning.

3. **Create Dialog as a Chain of Questions:** Creating discourse as a chain of questions is considered as a metaphor used by Bakhtin. It refers to the thought which not only contains concrete language but also goes further by alluding to the continuous chain of questions and answers to portray the presence of humans (Bakhtin, 1984). Uptake questions consist of subsequent inquiries or building a reply of a student into a follow-up question (Nystrand et al., 1997).
4. **Provide Enough Wait-Time or Pause Time:** Giving sufficient *wait-time* or pause time is necessary for a talk (Nystrand et al., 1997) since it gives all learners' more opportunity to deal with the inquiry and to produce a reply. Furthermore, if the teacher expands this wait-time, learners can prompt longer answers. Also, the number of students who try to reply increases simultaneously (Richards and Lockhart, 1996). In this way, the teacher asks fewer yet more intellectually complex inquiries (Gibbons, 2007). Kamdideh and Barjesteh (2019) acknowledged that giving students more time think (i.e., wait-time) can promote learners willingness to communicate. They conclude that increasing wait-time gives more chance to learners for learning to take place.

5.4. TEACHERS' QUESTIONS

Brock (1986) stated that more display questions are asked when the situation demands data definitely known by the person who asks in comparison to referential questions. He also added that questions that are at lower *cognitive levels* are display question because they usually ask for facts. On the other hand, when questions are related to more details (i.e., assessment and judgment), they are probably going to be referential. Likewise, he recommends that in terms of response, those replies to factual information are both simpler and shorter in opposition to responses to higher cognitive questions, which ask for personal opinions and judgments. It is worth mentioning that the utilization of known data during display questions can create talk which is on a very basic level unique concerning the regular talk. When a lot of referential questions are asked by the teacher, a kind of conversation is generated in the classroom, which makes a progression of data from students to the teacher. This discourse is, in fact, like those typical conversations that students experience outside the classroom milieu. Since some learners have the chance to produce the target language just in the classroom context, especially in EFL environments, the utilization of

referential questions is highly recommended due to the increase in output of the learners.

5.5. CRITICAL PEDAGOGY (CP) AND DIALOGIC TEACHING

One of the ways to deal with language teaching and learning is CP (Kincheloe, 2005). Paulo Freire is regarded as the primary theorist of CP. According to him, the behaviors and actions of the students should be in line with both changing and developing their societies. A connection can be made among learners and teachers by CP, which deals with encouraging the consciousness of students (Crawford-Lange, 1981; Johnston, 1999; Pennycook, 1999).

A society in which people have political, financial, and social control of their lives is highly related to CT. There are a lot of disparities and abusive force relations in educational milieus for which CP acts as an instructive reaction (Kissing-Styles, 2003). In the same vein, Vandrick (1994) states that freeing and instructing all individuals without thinking about their differences in terms of sexual orientation, class, and race can be regarded as one of the main goals of CP. Three fundamental components as the reasoning for utilizing CP in ELT have been brought up by Aghagolzadeh and Davari (2012): a) variables of socio-political and ideological, b) cultural points c) local and worldwide subjects. Kanpol (1998) claimed that the kind of education used for residents should produce comprehension and tutoring structures that do not permit training to follow. CP is also germane to the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978), which indicates how individuals take in things with the assistance of others. Moreno-Lopez (2005) claimed that this learning process is provided for students where both the teachers and learners are cognizant of the methods, materials, and even evaluating measures.

CP is a *postmodernist educational movement* that intends to facilitate the process of education by trying to make learners familiar with the deep-rooted discriminations and unjust systems in the whole world (McLaren, 2003). Critical education described as a method for education that intends to check out the situation acutely in which language is used and also the socio-cultural goals of its usage,instead of conveying effective linguistic, cultural, and other types of defined information's point of view (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). Some principles such as freedom of speech, CT and commence, taking part in a language interaction, etc., are contemplated as the basis for education in this study. Critical theory is the base of CP. The

Brazilian educationalist, Paolo Freire, was one of the dominant characters who engaged in critical education. It is declared that CP is concerned with theoretical and practical development (Freire, 1970). Freire (1970), in one of the most dominant of his studies, argues that CP is a discussion of consciousness, a consciousness beyond the perception that is concerning to action. Critical education is described as an approach to think, debate, and transfer the relationship between instruction in the classroom, knowledge production, school institutional structure, and the social and material dependence of community, society, and nation-state at a large scale (McLaren, 1989). By considering the aforementioned description, CP can be viewed as an approach for thinking. The link between teaching and learning should be contemplated as more than the relations between instructors and learners.

5.6. TEACHING AND LEARNING IN DIALOGISM

Freire (1970) posted that teaching can't be regarded as the mere transfer of knowledge from one person to another. He believes that teaching is actually an endeavor to develop the ground for knowledge production or construction. From the viewpoint of Giroux (1988), CP can be defined as an educational theory that draws on humanity to modify academic education systems. To Giroux, CP draws on humane concerns to contribute to the empowerment of individuals and consequently emancipate *the oppressed*. Shor (1996) posited that instructors are entrusted with the responsibility of developing rational capacity and knowledge and developing critical citizens in society. Teachers, however, attempt to develop knowledge by giving insights into the matters and social injustices in such a way that guarantees educational empowerment at the same time. From Freire and Macedo (1987) perspective, CP is a process that encompasses both *reading the world* and *reading the word.* Giroux (1997) believes that critical, oppositional, and theoretical language will help teachers adopt a discourse that enables them to look for and put forward pedagogical criticism.

Deneger (2001) confirms that even in the classes with the same language, teachers should pay attention not to prefer one kind of interaction over another; because the instructor decides whose voice will be heard (Giroux, 1997; Lankshear and McLaren, 1993). As Norton and Toohy (2004) believe, language is an exercise that creates and is created the way that language learners comprehend their social environment, histories, and their potentials for the future. To Akbari (2008), the elementary phase of empowerment and constructive change is for the teacher to make a context in which learners' L1

is involved in the L2 setting as a teaching aid. Freire believes that dialogism is the base of critical training and as a means for engaging learners in their learning. In Freire's (1970) opinion dialogism "is the encounter between men, mediated by the world to name the world" (p. 69). Degener (2001) confirms that in a dialogic context, teachers should listen to the students and find out their problems, which are significant in the society and raise students' understanding of these problems from a social viewpoint by asking questions and find the techniques to take political actions to solve them. Authentic dialog needs an association between educator and educated where one "knowing subject [is] face to face with other knowing subjects" (Freire, 1998, p. 49). Education is the pedagogy of knowing rather than a practice of "narration sickness" (Freire, 1998, p. 57). The learning contexts, including reflection on objective reality, and authentic dialog, allow the learner to involve in praxis, objective action, and reflection. "Knowing involves a constant unity between action and reflection upon reality… [which is] why we must take our presence in the world as the focus of our critical analysis" (Freire, 1989, p. 52).

Shor (1996) believes that problem-posing needs to be tailored to the social experience and academic problems of students to provide the ground for instruction and development of interactions in an emancipating classroom environment. Giroux (1988) holds that CP-based instruction methods will not only help students get to know about CP capacity but will let them learn about the power of construction in society and consequently take the necessary measures to further resist injustice and hegemony. He argues that in CP both instructors and learners are entrusted with problem-posing, interaction, and dialog tasks. Life experience, change, and action are among other components of CP which share the same conceptual framework as CP. As McLaren (2003) has put it, CP is concerned both with the communication of critical thoughts in the classroom, and the utilization of them, as acquired habits, in everyday life. The CP path, as Giroux (1988) has stated, can be best followed by transforming the intellectual teacher. This technique can best contribute to the instruction of CP concepts and the development of an emancipating classroom.

5.7. SELF-INSTRUCTION AND EMPOWERMENT

Empowerment comparable with Dickson's (1987) self-directed learning refers to *Self-instruction* in which the learners have more responsibility for their learning:

"Self-instruction is concerned with responsibility in learning. Individuals who are involved in self-instruction have undertaken some additional responsibility for their learning which in other circumstances would be held on their behalf by a teacher" (p. 8).

Peirce (1989) divides empowerment and self-directed learning: the self-directed learner's goal is to be successful in learning by taking greater responsibility; the empowered learner's goal is to be successful in life by taking greater responsibility. The empowered learner seeks to address the paradoxes that might exist between the capabilities that teachers inspire and the forms a society makes available for these capabilities to be realized (Peirce, 1989). "Students are alive, and the purpose of education is to stimulate and guide their self-development. It follows as a corollary from this premise, that teachers should be live with living thought" (Whitehead as cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001). In content-based instruction, many scholars have known critical pedagogy (CP) with its roots in Freire's approach (1970, 1998, as cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001).

Critical teachers believe that students should study the world around them in the course of learning which they are and what has shaped them (Kincheloe, 2008). Using Freirean notions of teaching in everyday life of classrooms in general, and in institutional settings in particular, Shor (2012) develops some relevant themes. He suggests that the re-examination and reconstruction of classroom space is one of the pre-requisites of assessment. Shor holds that a change in the role of students (from a passive object to an active, critical subject) can significantly contribute to this process. Making students struggle for ownership of them is a highly-recommended mechanism in this process. In this procedure, students, who have already developed a sense of satisfaction with their everyday lives, begin to imagine and make attempts to achieve something different for themselves.Shor cites that this goal cannot be automatically achieved unless specific in-class practices and specific roles that are usually played by the teacher are taken into consideration. In this process, teachers are required to help students forget all about the lifestyle and existence they are accustomed to and then get ready for the re-examination of everyday life from a critical point of view.

Once this liberating goal is achieved, the students can, as one of the outcomes of the process, assume more intra-class responsibilities. This process leads to the distribution of power amongst the students causing the teacher to end up having to assume more mobile and challenging responsibilities. To Shor (1980), this can contribute to the development and

growth of intellectual character, rather than "mimicry of the professorial style" among students. As Shor has put it, *self-regulation* is a pre-requisite of this process, but it cannot be expected to be easy or automatic. A new critical consciousness is the only factor that can provide the ground for *problematization* and *reconstruction* of assessment issues. This is a critical point that must be reinforced.

The issue of assessment is recognized as an integral part of the everyday practices of the classroom, especially when complex issues such as power and relationships are addressed. Contrary to our belief, Shor has never criticized the current assessment environment, which is said to embody undemocratic approaches "A standardized testing instrument brought in from the outside, or designed by the teacher separate from the class, would only contradict the emergence of students as subjects" (Shor, 1980, p. 112). He believes that assessment falls within the category of learning activities that are consistent with the intra-class democratic processes. These processes usually take some time to establish as they often challenge all the preconceived notions of education and teacher power that students enter with from their previous experiences. These processes prevent students from having a comprehensive contribution to their learning.

Nevertheless, Shor believes that assessment must still be part of the democratic classrooms. In other words, Shor holds that assessment is a critical component of higher education that can be carried out frequently and rigorously. He also argues that teachers must set high standards for student development. Nevertheless, the curriculums from which student testing tools are derived need to be student-centered and co-operative. This indicates that the curriculum should encompass narrative grading, portfolio assessments, team-based projects and activities, individual exhibitions, and essay examinations that develop CT rather than standardized or short-answer tests (Shor, 1992).

Therefore, Shor, just like Freire, assumes that assessment is inseparably interwoven with the learning environment, process. Accordingly, equal attention needs to be paid to the roles of the classroom as well as the whole learning context. Student and teacher roles, as Shor has put it, are the central components of the process that must necessarily undergo *problematization.* Looking more closely, one can easily detect the *Freirean* influence in this process. By adopting this position, Shor is trying to imply that both curriculum and assessment need to be addressed dialogically. The self-assessment role is also recognized as a vital process in this environment. Speaking of Freire

and Shor's writings, there is mutually advantageous compatibility between them in terms of assessment.

Nevertheless, it can be argued that they have both tried to focus their attention on the broader issue of the whole learning environment. Adequate consideration of assessment may still bring about ineffective results in cases where problematization of the wider learning context, the role of the teacher, and the goals of CP don't receive adequate attention. One is implicated in the other. Even the non-CP assessment literature suggests that assessment needs to be integrated into both learning and curriculum. In other words, Shor has been trying to imply that no significant advances can be obtained in the field of assessment unless adequate attention is paid to the entire milieu of the classroom.

Although few, if not any, pragmatic suggestions have been put forward for an alternative pedagogy of assessment, more theories and suggestions are likely to surface in the future. The implications of a critical orientation suggest pragmatic new approaches to assessment in teacher education. Students playing the role of a teacher are considered to be able to put forward assessment strategies and criteria that can be easily and instantly applied in everyday life contexts. Finding a way to connect the experience to learning is not peculiar to CP, but it is also validated through current learning theory. Nevertheless, the appraisal of CP in terms of assessment supports an approach in which pupils actively contribute to the assessment process and development of assessment criteria. Assessment can more significantly improve learning when pupils are enabled to have active participation in the process. Moreover, in cases where students are allowed to participate in criteria generation through dialog, assessments can more optimally reveal the diversity of students and realities about their lifestyle.

Dehumanization (Freire, 1998), as identified earlier, is one of the consequences of this attitude. During the process of development, pupils need to receive the support of their teachers up to the point where they are enabled to achieve goals confidently and competently. This is usually the case when teachers use student-generated criteria to rate the students' practices. Some students find themselves able to generate appropriate criteria to be used for assessment purposes and delineate goals that are representative of their framework of activities as well as their learning and practice requirements. Some pupils, however, are not confident enough or don't have the knowledge, experience, or self-efficacy required to do so.

In some cases, practice suggestions that are supposed to fulfill the teacher-defined 'requirements' are made by pupils. Some pupils make statements that can truly represent teacher behaviors or dominant discourses applied by them. Some others, however, are characterized by a lack of in-depth thinking. The reasons and root causes of this lack of ability or confidence to engage in this process has been the subject of some investigations over recent years.

A *dialogic approach* to pedagogy is one of the techniques that can be applied to address student's lack of immediate efficacy in this field. Regardless of individualistic efforts, student teams are characterized by their remarkable ability to set criteria used to effectively evaluate practice and learning. Dialog, in its practical sense, can contribute to the comprehension of the meanings inherent in the assessment criteria. Therefore, during the process of criteria generation, pupils can, at the same time; more deeply comprehend desirable practice standards and even interpret them from their point of view. Thus, it can be argued that collective, rather than individualistic, criteria generation makes sense to all students and can even be used as a means for evaluation of dehumanization possibility. Engagement in criteria generation enables pupils to effectively pick the criteria that can best fit their practice and context. So, the meaningful and contextually befitting criteria are used as a basis for the assessment of students. In this approach, the odds of finding a theory in its abstract mode are almost zero. However, the possibility of engagement in a "transformative critique of their everyday lives is very high (Simon, 1992).

However, a word of precaution is needed. The instructor must be sure that this conversational process does not simply mean using a discussion approach. It is argued that since teaching conversation demands a variety of things, learners' engagement in conversation cannot be summarized as "simple to-and-fro questions that can be boring and fruitless" (Freire, 1998). Therefore, learners and instructors should be involved in knowledge of problem-solving, and the instructor has to motivate students to recognize how they can achieve this purpose acutely in their practice. For, as Shor and Freire (1987, p. 99) suggest, "Through dialog, reflecting together on what we know and don't know, we can then act critically to transform reality." Although the process of working with learner participation in the production of evaluation touchstone is not achieved, the linkage with practice is greatly expanded. Students whose field of study is teaching should also evaluate themselves against these norms which are produced by learners. Therefore,

they should develop their background and competence in vital and qualified behaviors and practices. This is not what is expected of teachers after qualification and enrollment. There is not much expectation that they will become proficient all of a sudden in their practice when they are considered as a qualified teacher, even if learners cannot participate in these processes in their whole process of learning.

5.8. CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Nunan and Carter (2001) simply define classroom discourse as a special type of discourse that happens in classrooms. To them, classroom discourse is often different in form and function from the language used in other situations due to particular social roles that learners and teachers have in classrooms and the type of activities they employ there. Likewise, Markee, and Kasper as cited in Kharaghani (2013, p. 859) characterized classroom interaction as institutional talks that is locally classified into conversational exchanges system collectively. Several authors proposed different approaches to classroom interactions. The framework for the classroom interaction includes Lier's (1998) L2 classroom interaction, Jarvis, and Robinson's (1997) verbal interaction, Ellis (1994) EFL classroom discourse, Kumaravadivelu (2006) framework of critical classroom discourse analysis (CCDA), and Walsh (2011) L2 classroom context using conversation analysis, to name but a few. The classroom interaction patterns have empirically theorized three-part exchange structure, namely Teacher's Initiation, Student's Response, and Teacher's Feedback/ Evaluation, as a conventional pattern of all classroom interactions and educational levels.

Reviewing L2 professional literature (Alexander, 2006; Cullen, 2002; Lemke, 1990; Scott et al., 2006; Tannen, 1981) on classroom discourse eludes triadic dialog sequence as initiation-response-evaluation (IRE). Others (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Waring, 2009) refer to it as initiation-response-feedback (IRF). Cazden (2001) illuminates IRF as 'I' stands for an initiating move; usually, a question puts forward by a teacher; 'R' represents the response; usually, a short response from the student(s) and 'F' stands for feedback, follow up, on the teacher's side. A number of studies (Nassaji and Wells, 2000; Thoms, 2011; Wells, 1993) identified the difference between IRE and IRF as two common classroom interactions. They are similar in that the teacher initiates the exchange, usually by raising a question in the first turn, and then the student responds to the question in the second turn. The main difference between the patterns lies in the last turn. In the IRE

pattern, the teacher evaluates students' responses in the third turn. However, in the IRF, the teacher provides feedback in a non-evaluative form by asking students to justify or illuminate their responses (Thoms, 2012). Some authors (Nassaji and Wells, 2000; Wells, 1993) conclude that evaluation in the traditional IRE sequence bounds students' ability to respond to their teacher in a meaningful way during the discussion. According to Thoms (2012), both IRF and IRE were acknowledged for the classroom interactions since they depend on several factors in the classroom, such as the nature of the activity, the participants involved in the discussion, and the purpose of the lesson.

Among various characteristics of good teaching, the teacher's turn management seemed to be the focal point in L2 classroom research (Cazden, 2001; Walsh, 2011). Allwright (1984) considered the successful management of interaction as the fundamental principle for victorious teaching. When teachers are consciously aware of classroom talk-in-interaction, students accordingly can take advantage of learning opportunities in a teacher's online decision-making process (Walsh, 2011). Foster and Ohta (2005) believed that a teacher can foster co-construction of knowledge, interaction, and dialogic discourse via turn management by allowing students to participate in forming utterances that they cannot be complete individually in a dialogic classroom. Hall (1997) indicated that different turn-taking management of F-move can pave the ground for a better learning context and foster dialogic discourse in the classroom. The quality interaction which is *acquisition rich* (Ellis, 1992) and *acquisition meditative* (Walsh, 2011), demand language teachers to consciously manage turn-taking sequences.

5.9. FEATURES OF SPOKEN DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Speech mode comprises a wide range of characteristics that should take into account before the analysis of spoken narrative. Concerning *paralinguistic* signs like body language, facial expressions, or *proxemics* (personal space), the speaker means more abilities for the transfer of meaning. Indeed, some other specifications are concerning supra-segmental elements of the language, such as sentences and word stress, rhythm, and intonation. According to Brown and Yule (1983), the speaker provides him the effect of a complete range of quality of voice such as facial expression, posture, and gestural processes. Therefore, he can always overcome the influence of the language he speaks. Armed with these, he can always override the effect of the words he speaks." If the interviewer or someone whose job is the

analysis of discourse captures the spoken narrative by a video camera, those impositions are quickly seen to figure out how they impact on emphasizing the meaning. Nevertheless, in the oral narrative text, it is not probable that the reader has the chance to see how those aspects affect the message unless "a fine-grained phonetic transcription" is provided.

In addition to the perspectives that define speech mode, you can make a pause on any occasion. Besides, the speaker can express his or her message differently by giving instances. Moreover, everybody capable of relating the content of their message to their listener's previous experiences. Besides, everyone can frame what the one who speaks with them said or conveyed. Accordingly, both speakers can simply convey what they mean, and also they can provide feedback. Everyone who is the listener in a conversation or is the receiver of information in dialog and his or her role in this communication process is very dynamic has more chance to understand what the other person intends to convey.

5.10. TRADITIONAL CLASSROOM DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Traditionally classroom discourse analysis was based on the study of teachers' talk. Because in a teacher-centered approach, the teacher was the only transmitters of knowledge, and the student had a very passive role. It was the teacher who initiates the speaking and corrects the student's errors. In this situation, students were like empty vessels to be filled with teachers' knowledge. However, in the 1970s, with the emergence of a learner-centered approach, students take a more active role in classrooms. The first role of the teacher in learner-centered pedagogies is to facilitate the communicative process between all participants in the classroom and between those participants and the various activities (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Based on these changes in language teaching, there was a change in the analysis of classroom discourse, from the main focus on teacher observation to a multi-facet observation which entails an analysis of multiple perspectives the teacher's, the learner's, and the observer's (researcher's) on classroom discourse (Kumaravadivelu, 1991).

5.10.1. Changes in the Study of Classroom Discourse

The study of classroom discourse has been a major of studies in ELT and especially in discourse analysis. However, in recent years there was a great shift in the study of discourse in general and classroom discourse

in particular. The shift was from linguistics study to a more social study (Christie, 2002 as cited in Dujmovic, 2007). The stress on the social context is very helpful for analysts of class discourse to view what is happening in a class as a social event and also consider a class as a small community with its rules and supervisions, habits, and formalities.

Their focus is the experience of teachers and learners within this mini-society (Kumaravadivelu, 1991). Such experience, as Breen (1985, as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 1990) writes, is a two-dimensional experience. The subjective experience of teachers and learners in a classroom is woven with personal purposes, attitudes, and preferred ways of doing things. The inter-subjective experience derives from and maintains teacher, and learner shared definitions, conventions, and procedure which enable working together in a crowd" (p. 140). Pennycook (1994) argued that this extent has been more limited to considering the class as a separated small comprehensive community from the outside world, not as an entire part of the broader community that produces a variety of dominance and persistence according to some factors such as class, gender, breed, ethnicity, nationality, religion, language, and sexual orientation which approximately occur every day. In the same manner, Kumaravadivelu (1999) asserted that the preferable method that classroom discourse analysts used in the "micro-ethnography" made them capable of covering the important topics in the classroom like input and interaction, form, and function, topics, and tasks, questions, and corrections, and how everyone communicates with each other. As mentioned by Kumaravadivelu (1999):

"The L2 classroom is not a secluded, self-contained mini-society; it is rather a constituent of the larger society in which many forms of domination and inequality are produced and reproduced for the benefit of vested interests; therefore, an analysis of classroom discourse must necessarily include an analysis of the discursive practices and discursive formations that support the structure of dominant discourses" (p. 427).

5.11. CLASSROOM DISCOURSE AND CLASSROOM INTERACTION

Rex and Green (2008) made a distinction between classroom discourse and classroom interaction. Classroom discourse studies seek to make visible how everyday life in classrooms is constituted in and through the linguistic and discourse choices of participants; "how language brought to and constructed in classrooms is consequential for social and academic

knowledge construction; and, how language use shapes, and is shaped by, processes, practices, and content demands of the curriculum" (p. 571). Conversely, classroom interaction studies mostly investigate the behaviors and strategies which are used by instructors and learners, with the exclusion of outstanding research in the fields of *ethnomethodology* and conversation analysis. Researchers engaged in classroom interaction mostly investigate to understand which behaviors and strategies are related to how much the proficiency or learning indicators of learners improved.

5.11.1. Classroom Conversations

Researchers claim classroom conversations are necessary for increasing a sense of participation for students. Students may learn from books, computers, other peers, but lots of their experience is mediated by their teachers? How could we improve this relationship? How could we develop the fullest potential out of the teachers' conversations? There are always conversations in every classroom. It is claimed by the researchers that dialogs in classrooms are needed as an assistant for the development of comprehension and making an impression of engagement in the process of education. Having said that, we also believe that encourage learners toward productive talk is better than talking to learners. We will review different kinds of conversations that can take place in different classrooms and how this conversation can encourage students to learn.

5.11.2. Item, Response, Evaluation Pattern

No one would deny that the most dominant classroom discourse pattern is the IRE pattern, where teachers initiate a question; students respond, and teachers evaluate the response (Ellis, 1994). The IRE pattern exists in classrooms across contexts and content domains but has been shown to push students to think of classroom discourse and the academic disciplines in terms of being right or wrong. But as mentioned by Cazden (2001), teachers should change these traditional conversations if they want to develop higher-order thinking in their students. While such exchanges seldom occur outside of a formal educational setting, it has been argued that in some ways, it is well-designed for instruction where the aim is to deliver certain ideas or facts. Gibbon (2007) argues that it enables teachers to lead students in certain preplanned ways, akin to the Socratic dialog. In addition, the student knows immediately if the answer is correct; it allows the teacher to better maintain control, and when used skillfully, can encourage students to think

more deeply and critically about their answers. It may also facilitate the student's response since the initial question may offer strong clues as to what is expected: it "strips away the work of turn-taking and utterance design." (Van Lire, 1996 as cited in Gibbon, 2007, p. 152) and this simplification of the exchange may be an important one for low-level L2 learners.

5.12. DIFFERENT DISCOURSE ANALYSIS MODEL

In the tradition of classroom research, the focus of investigation in most studies has been on the nature and characteristics of L2 classroom interaction in natural settings. They are usually explored from observation to the description. Some frequently addressed issues are turn-taking, teacher talk, learner participation, participation patterns, types of interaction, and topic development (Ellis, 1994). Wu (1998) explained four models for the study of classroom discourse. His models have been elaborated in subsections.

5.12.1. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) Discourse Analysis Model

In Sinclair and Coulthard's work, classroom interaction refers to "language interaction inside *the* classroom" (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975, p. 15 as cited in Wu, 1998). They developed a system of analysis "to examine the linguistic aspects of teacher/pupil interaction." This system can be seen as structural-functional because it is designed to investigate the function of utterances and the structure of discourse. In this discourse structure model, the utterances produced by the teacher and pupils are described as a hierarchically related system of discourse with a five-rank scale from lesson, transaction, exchange, move to act. The lesson is the largest unit of classroom discourse at the top of the scale and the act the smallest at the bottom, while the rest lie in between. In this hierarchical framework of classroom interaction, the basic structure is that of teaching exchanges with *Initiation (I), Response (R), and Feedback (F) as its structural elements.*

5.12.2. Long (1983) Discourse Analysis Mode

Long (1983) suggested another framework to consider the relationship between interaction and second language acquisition (SLA), which is supposed to be appropriate to all conversations inside and also outside the classroom. It is observed just as a better growth of Krashen's *input hypothesis.* Krashen claimed that *comprehensible input* results in an acquisition. Thus, Long offered it as a negotiated adaption in interaction that leads to *comprehensible input*, which successively, leads to acquisition

(Long, 1983, as cited in Wu, 1998). The framework manages research to focus on utterances associated with the negotiation of meaning rather than the process of interaction in general.

5.12.3. Malamah-Thomas (1987) Discourse Analysis Mode

As proposed by Malamah-Thomas (1987), there is a pedagogic interaction model for the analysis of classroom interaction, which considers the whole process of interaction. In that context, classroom interaction, as a pedagogic interaction, equals verbal interaction outside the classroom. It is regarded as a variable process where the teacher and students are interested in reciprocal actions and reactions. There are three distinctive features in this framework. First, unlike the discourse structure model, it focuses on the part of classroom interaction in students' learning. It fundamentally assumed that the internal process of language learning will occur because of the external interaction between the teacher and students. The role of classroom interaction is preparing situations for learning, such as helping an allowed function in SLA (Malamah-Thomas, 1987, as cited in Wu, 1998).

5.12.4. Wu (1992) Discourse Analysis Model

Wu (1992) contributed another approach to the investigation of classroom interaction as a dynamic process model. It evaluates the factors and aspects involved in classroom interaction. It handles the teacher-student utterances exchange as a vigorous process of linguistic information processing and transmission instead of a spread of discourse produced in a straight fashion but with a hierarchical structure. It is supposed that such a process has more and more cumulative influences on the learner's progression of acquisition and also on the teacher's construction and reconstruction of the learning environment. It is expected that such construction and reconstruction improve the learner's SLA.

In sum, Wu's dynamic process model gives a better view of classroom interaction. Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) approach is linguistic, focusing on a description of the structure of classroom discourse and the functions of its parts. Long's interactive hypothesis model deals with the external factors of acquisition from the perspective of social exchange, intending to establish the relationship between interaction and acquisition. Malamah-Thomas takes pedagogic perspectives to examine the factors of classroom interaction and explore their implications for pedagogic practice' (Malamah-Thomas, 1987, p. 1). Wu (1998) presented an approach as a psycho-linguistically-

based with a multidisciplinary perspective. This perspective examines the dynamic process of classroom interaction as a means to interplay between the external mechanism of verbal exchanges and the internal mechanism of linguistic processing.

5.13. DISCOURSE AND LANGUAGE

By analyzing transcripts of video recordings of classroom performance with pre- and post-observation interviews with participants, Kumaravadivelu (1991) attempted to indicate the usefulness of classroom discourse analysis. He believes that the classroom discourse analysis must be based on the analysis of the potential mismatch between the teacher's intention and the learner's interpretation, and between the teacher's and learner's intention and the observer's interpretation. Kumaravadivelu (1993) shows how classroom discourse analysis can facilitate an understanding of the degree to which classroom participants are able or unable to create and utilize learning opportunities in class. But in another study in 1999, Kumaravadivelu criticizes current classroom discourse analysis, and discourse perspective as being more limited and limiting than other discourse perspectives. Foucault (1972) believes that discourse is related to all actual texts or utterances, to specific formations or fields and to sociopolitical structures that create the conditions which govern particular utterances or texts. Classroom reality is constructed socially, motivated politically, and determined historically. This sort of pedagogy would take sociopolitical and historical conditions that create cultural forms and interesting knowledge that give meaning to the lives of teachers and learners. Critical pedagogies call for an "empowering education" that relates "personal growth to public life by developing strong skills, academic knowledge, habits of inquiry, and critical curiosity about society, power, inequality, and change" (Shor, 1992, p. 15) and aids students to explore the subject matter in its sociopolitical, historical contexts with critical themes integrated into students' language and experience.

5.14. INPUT AND INTERACTION AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION (SLA)

VanPatten and William (2006) state that all theories of SLA acknowledge a role for input and what they differ greatly in is the importance they attach to it. Ellis (2008) divides all approaches to input into four major ones; behaviorist, mentalist, socio-cultural, and integrationist. He proceeds to

maintain that "*behaviorists* propose a direct relationship between input and output with an emphasis on the possibility of shaping language acquisition by manipulating the input to provide appropriate stimuli and by ensuring that adequate feedback is always available" (Ellis, 2008, p. 205). This is all the control, external factors practice on learning and the learner is the passive medium. *Mentalists,* on the other hand, see input just as a trigger to human predisposed language capacity that sets off internal language processing. Learners are believed to be equipped with the innate knowledge of the possible forms, and then through being exposed to the input, they arrive at the forms they are trying to learn. Mentalists view the input, as insufficient by itself to enable learners to learn the language (Ellis, 1999). The advocates of *socio-cultural* SLA see both input and output as salient but define language learning as the learners' going from assisted production of linguistic forms and functions to independent control over the feature through social practice and interaction.

5.15. INTERACTIONISM

Interactionism is rooted in *constructivism,* mostly tied to Piaget's and Vygotsky's contributions. It argues for human's constructing their version of reality and thus accepts contrasting versions of the truth (Brown, 2000). A constructivist, thus, believe in the active processing of meaning and is interested in the nature of knowledge and its variations. Constructivist, and consequently integrationists, goes a little beyond natives in their emphasizing each individual's construction of reality through social interaction. Interactionism thus makes the two ends of constructivism meat, which based on Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), makes for constructivist theories being more powerful than other theories as they invoke both innate and environmental factors to explain language learning. This way, language is viewed as both a matter of syntactic structure and discourse. In introducing the idea of ZPD, Vygotsky introduces meaningful interaction as the basis for new knowledge acquisition, which is in turn, the foundation of integrationist theory.

Gass (1997) believed that the essence of the interaction between L2 learners has received specific attention from the *interactionist approach*. For example, its emphasis is on the investigation of the position of negotiation of meaning in NS-NNS (native speaker-non-native speaker) environment. Long (1983) holds that the requirement of *comprehensible input* for the acquisition of the L2 formulates the fundamental principle of

the interactionist approach. Nevertheless, the followers of the *interactionist approach* consider the ordinary communicative conversations between native and non-native speakers as a significant factor in the process of second language (L2) acquisition. Their emphasis is on the native speaker's strategies, modifying their speech, to make themselves comprehensible to other English language learners.

To deal with language learners' interactions, a distinction has been made between interaction modifications that involve discourse management and the interaction modifications that involve *discourse repair*. As pointed out by Ellis (2008, p. 221), discourse management is "motivated by the attempt to simplify the discourse as to avoid communication problems" and involve strategies like selecting salient topics, treating topics simply and briefly, making new topics salient, and relinquishing topic control. On the other hand, discourse repair occurs when "some form of communication breakdown has taken place to a learner's utterance that contains an error of some kind" (Ellis, 2008, p. 221). In this case, depending on whether the problem is a communication problem or a linguistics one, *negotiation of meaning* and *form* will arise. *Negotiation of meaning* takes place through the collaborative work which speakers undertake to achieve mutual understanding when there is some kind of communication problem. Negotiation of form takes place when one speaker (a native speaker or a teacher) addresses a linguistic problem in the speech of a learner. Pica (1987) believes that what makes negotiation worthwhile is the 'comprehensible input' that results, which is of particular benefit to SLA.

5.16. THE ROLE OF INTERACTION IN L2 LEARNING

Being an interactionist is merely believing in Gass (1997, p. 104) stating that "conversation is not just a medium of practice; it is also the means by which learning takes place." Gass (2003) maintains that interaction research starts with the assumption that language learning is stimulated by communication and thus wishes to examine the relationship between communication and acquisition and the mechanisms (like noticing and attention) that mediate between them. The interaction also can well be explored in terms of constructivism. Vygotsky's socio-cultural method to learning made for his applying *development* to mental development, such as thought, language, and cognitive procedure. These capabilities were assumed to improve through social communications with others and consequently symbolized the shared information of the culture.

Assuming Vygotsky as the starting point of paying attention to interaction, every scholar has viewed in from a different perspective. Vygotsky himself has emphasized how cognitive growth happens in children. Rather than allowing for a child's perspective regarding a static measure like an IQ2 score, Vygotsky felt that a growing measure was required to better evaluate children's educative potential. ZPD was thus defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1987, p. 86).

In Gass's (1997) idea, what is central to learning through interaction is receiving "negative feedback (as cited in Gass and Mackey, 2006). She proposes a model for following problematic utterances and the learners' success or failure in producing the language. In her model, negative evidence, which would be noticed through overt correction or negotiation, is on the way to bring about the learner's noticing the error and then determine how to modify the existing linguistic knowledge. The learner hypothesizes as to what the correct form can be and obtaining further input, or his production of output would be ways to confirm or reject his hypothesis on the problem.

Ellis (1994) assumed that interaction occurs when the members of an equal situation with common similar needs attempt to figure out each other. In this regard, the asymmetrical relationship between the members leads to the inhibition of negotiation of meaning. He mentioned that some different items, except status, influence interaction, such as the essence of the activity, member's characteristics, and their structure. Nowadays, regarding the process of language acquisition, it is said that negotiation of meaning and interaction develop language acquisition. This claim highlights the position of output in language acquisition and learning.

Input has an undeniable role in language learning from whatever viewpoint and in whatever paradigm we define language learning. The interaction also plays a crucial part as through interaction, a learner's attention resources are directed to problematic aspects of knowledge or production. The gap is noticed when the learner notices the difference in his production, and a native's (Schmidt, 1992). The learner further notices a hole in his interlinguas when he is not able to produce what he wishes to (Swain, 1998) and it's when interaction can direct the learner's attention to something new, be it a new lexicon or grammatical construction and thus the whole process helps with the development of L2 (Gass and Mackey, 2006).

5.16.1. Input: Characteristics of Input to L2 Learners

Ellis (1998) draws specific attention to the variability of native speakers' input, and the learner's target, therefore, achieving the same level of variability. This leads to having a variety of target language norms, which are all correct, and thus it's difficult for the researcher to select what he is to compare the learner's inter-language to.

Input, as said, is of crucial role in every SLA aspect. VanPatten (2002) defines SLA as a set of processes handling the input:

- **Input Processing:** Which is to convert the input to intake from which the learner is to develop an acquired system.
- **Accommodation of Intake:** Not all intakes are fed into the acquired system, and thus accommodating input involves the restructuring of the developing linguistic system.
- **Language Production Aspects:** Like monitoring, accessing, control, etc., all because the output is not a direct reflection of acquired competence.

In the interactional approach to L2 input proposed by Long, the input is defined as "the linguistic form (morphemes, words, and utterances) directed at the non-native speaker" (Long, 1983, p. 127). Ellis (1985, p. 127) completes this definition of input as "the language that is addressed to the L2 learner either by a native speaker or by another L2 learner and his interlocutors."

What discriminates interactionist view of input from its other definitions is the context in which it gains meaning. *Constructivism,* as the school of thought underlying the interactionist approach, according to Brown (2000), emphasizes the importance of social context because human beings develop their linguistic competence in interacting with others. Piaget and Vygotsky, as two important constructivists, emphasize the importance of social contexts in making the input comprehensible, but they have different views.

Dunn and Lantolf (1998) see the interactionist views of input traceable in many presentations of the phenomena. Krashen's construct of $i + 1$ is, according to Dunn and Lantolf (1998), similar to Vygotsky's zone of proximal development and that it might therefore be feasible to integrate the two constructs in a way that would be productive for SLA research. They have assumed that it should be feasible to integrate the two concepts in a way that would be productive for SLA research. Schutz (2004) also sees a great resemblance between *Krashen's input hypothesis* and *Vygotsky's*

ZPD as in both language acquisition takes place during human interaction in an environment of the foreign language (FL) when the learner receives language input that is beyond what his current linguistic competence is. The idea of *comprehensible input* thus is central to constructivism and thus to interactionism, which is its offspring.

Krashen (1982), though pinpointing a crucial characteristic of input in his theory, was not applauded for his clarification of the concepts *i* and *1*. *Krashen's i+1* has been criticized for not having a detailed psycholinguistic account of the perceptual mechanisms involved in noticing the differences between the interlanguage form and the target form, as well as for not having a clear linguistic scope of the hypothesis (Chaudron, 1985). Schmidt (1990), also, though accepts the notion of "noticing the difference between the current state of interlanguage and L2 form," maintains that this noticing the gap should be conscious to make the learner attend to it and consequently take action and rejects the foundation of *Acquisition/learning hypothesis*.

There are thus many commonalities in these two views of input, but Dunn and Lantolf (1998) reject combining the two because they are both rooted in incommensurable theoretical discourses. The word "*incommensurable*," taken from a Greek mathematical term meaning "no common measure," was introduced into philosophical discussions of science by Thomas Kuhn and Paul Feyerabend in the early 1960s (Hacking, 1983, p. 67, as cited in Dunn and Lantlof, 1998). Dunn and Lantolf (1998) argue that not only are the specific constructs of *i + 1* and ZPD non-translatable but also the respective theoretical frameworks in which each construct is embedded are equally non-translatable and hence incommensurable.

The remedy, thus, according to Gass and Mackey (2006), was sought in the *interaction hypothesis,* which subsumes some aspects of the *Input Hypothesis* (Krashen, 1982) together with the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985). Gass and Mackey (2006) see interaction hypothesis as ideal to handle the case as it has elements of a hypothesis (an idea that needs to be tested about a single phenomenon), the elements of a model (a description of processes or a set of processes of phenomena) as well as elements of a theory (a set of statements about natural phenomena that explains why these phenomena occur the way they do). This stance of the hypothesis has helped the interactionist approach witness growth in empirical research and has managed to convince SLA of a robust connection between interaction and learning.

CHAPTER 6

CRITICAL THINKING: TOWARDS AN OPERATIONAL CONCEPTUALIZATION

CONTENTS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

Chance (1986) defined critical approaches to language as the capability to examine *facts, make, and arrange thoughts, support ideas, draw comparisons, make conclusions, assess arguments,* and *solve problems.* Siegel (1988) stated that in critical thinking (CT), the educational purpose is developing CT, so the essential skills of reflection and tendencies need to inspire teaching and learning at all stages of schooling. Critical thinkers claim that particular rational skills empower the curriculum in general. In CT, the required person can search for reasons, facts, and proof, and he also inclines to find them. An indispensable person needs to find reasons and try to be knowledgeable; he also must have a disposition to do so (Ennis, 1987). Robert Ennis' opinion influences on enhancing CT activity in early 1960. This activity is essential to develop a learner's notion. Johnson (1995) declared the ultimate purpose of education is generalizing that can be received over CT and social communications out of the classrooms. Critical thinkers can wonder and consider an opinion or idea based on certain proofs by making reasonable associations between assertions or information. As Stapleton (2001) noted, students must realize the following:

- The goal of the text (its thesis);
- Several perceptions about context;
- Types of inferencing the book applies;
- The prove employing in the text;
- The power and flaws of a disagreement.

6.2. THE THINKING PROCESS

There is no one definition of Thinking due to the variety of definitions provided by theorists in this field. Nevertheless, Dewey (1997) looked at how persons think as one of the initial timeline and a necessary reflection in any debate of and consideration about the way individual presumes reflection to operate in learning. Additionally, Dewey defined *meditative thought* as the notion that we should prepare the thinking to think meditatively and cultivate the thinking routine that must be an educational purpose. He also assumed that it should be the employment of education to instruct the brain. He stated:

"It is its business to cultivate deep-seated and effective habits of discriminating tested beliefs from mere assertions, guesses, and opinions, to develop a lively, sincere, and open-minded preference for conclusions that are

properly grounded, and to ingrain in the working habits of the individual methods of inquiry and reasoning appropriate to the various problems that present themselves" (p. 28).

Dewey underlined that education of the mind would lead to regular meditative thinking. His opinion for teaching the mind to consider thoughtfully is a crucial and primary lesson about what establishes superior reflection and how to make full use of it. Smith (1990), similar to Dewey, asserted that thinking is a regular brain operation. He also considered that all people are typically prepared to think innovatively and seriously, so all people need chances to increase that essential skill. This approach of thinking and CT is the basis of the factual Socrates viewpoints explained below.

6.3. WHAT IS CRITICAL THINKING (CT)?

CT deeply rooted *Socrates and the Socratic Method* (Paul, Elder, and Bartell, 1997). The Socratic Method stimulates humans to improve variable and unreasonable thinking approaches, such as confusing senses, insufficient data, opposing ideas, and clear oral tasks. The Socratic Method developed the value of looking proof, carefully evaluating thinking and hypothesis, considering primary belief, and drawing implications. The CT of Plato, who achieved the thoughts of Socrates, established the practice of Socrates. Aristotle and the Greek skeptics follow Plato; they stressed that things are almost much different from what they look to be, and just the trained mind is ready to view by the way things consider us appear to how they are below the outside (Paul and Elder, 2014).

To date, the literature approves that defining CT is hard. CT has been debated and planned in academic groups over the last several decades. Ennis (1987) several explanations of CT have been suggested. The majority of commonly reported descriptions likely to be widespread defined CT as a right, thoughtful process, including both abilities and dispositions. He also recognized several typical characteristics of critical thinkers, as well as being liberal and aware of options; trying to be knowledgeably capable of judging well the reliability of the source; able to recognize results, reasons, and hypothesis; and competent of feeling well the quality of a disagreement containing its justifications, theory, and proof. Ennis also offered that critical thinkers could improve and defend a rational position; formulate logical hypotheses; ask clarifying questions; explain terms that are somehow appropriate for the context, arrange experiments well, and make findings when appropriate.

In support of a broader definition, Facione and Facione (2007) define CT as "reflective decision-making and thoughtful problem-solving about what to believe and do" (p. 44). Paul and Elder (2014), conversely, do not identify decision making at all in their definition: they concisely state that CT is "self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored, and self-corrective thinking" (p. 1).

CT involves the formation of logical inferences (Simon and Kaplan, 1989). Some scholars and educators erroneously assume CT to be higher-order thinking or cognitive processing (Paul, 2012). According to Paul and Elder, "CT is best understood as the ability of thinkers to take charge of their Thinking. This requires that they develop sound criteria and standards for analyzing and assessing their thinking and routinely use those criteria and standards to improve its quality."

According to Chafee (1988, as cited in Fahim and Barjesteh), CT is "our active, purposeful, and organized efforts to make sense of our world by carefully examining our thinking, and the thinking of others, to clarify and improve our understanding" (p. 29). According to Halpern (1989), CT is "thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal-directed. It is the kind of thinking involved, in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions" (p. 5).

Hedges (1991) distinguished CT from problem-solving. Problem-solving is a straightforward evaluation process. However, CT is an extensive set of abilities allowing students to facilitate every stage of the linear problem-solving process correctly. Therefore, CT is considered *a complicated process, and it is a higher-order thinking or cognitive process*. A critical thinker might make decisions, solve problems, assess information, and devise inferences so that CT requires the ability to use our minds to meet our aims.

6.4. CRITERIA FOR CRITICAL THINKING (CT)

CT generally should encounter a couple of criteria. As the first criterion, it must be logical rather than random or unreasonable. CT should depend on applying authentic supporting proof and suitable assumptions where the best outcomes are generally made. Second, critical thinkers must be meditative. They need to deliberately assess their own and others' Thinking to strengthen it. Third, CT is highlighted by thought. It is purposely thinking. That purpose is making the best decision about what to believe or do. Figure

6.1 (adopted from Norris and Ennis, 1989 as cited in Vaseghi, Gholami, and Barjesteh, 2012) provides a visual representation of the CT process.

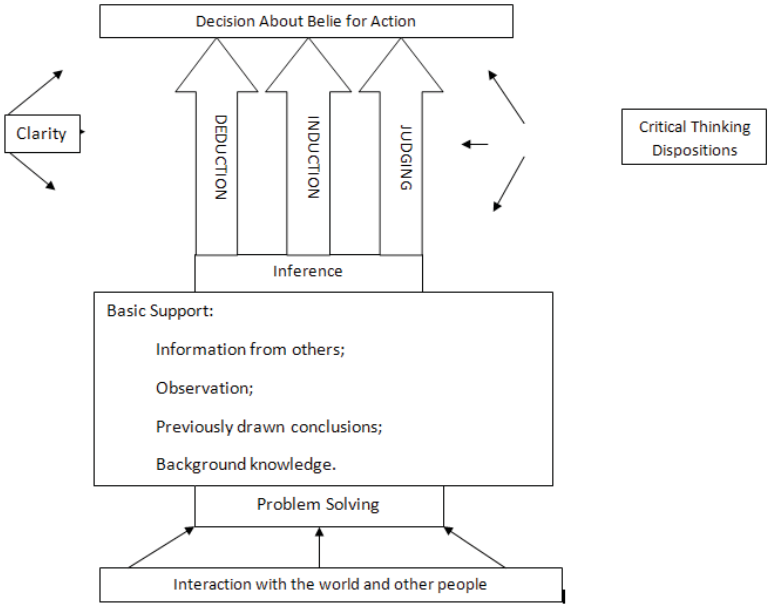


Figure 6.1. A visual representation of critical thinking.

Vaseghi et al. (2012) maintained that the model shows the main criteria (i.e., *reflective, reasonable, and focused*) for our CT definition. The whole process occurs in a problem-solving situation, so this highlights the thinking. The decision promotes some necessary help to conclude some conclusions logically. The deduction connection is so essential for CT to continue. A person should have the skills of the *reason assessment* factor and the "critical spirit" factor. Reflection operates as a quality check across the process. Still, we have debated in very public terms, and some particular details need to be useful now.

6.5. A CRITICAL THINKING (CT) MODEL: HOW THE MIND OPERATES

Birjandi, Bagheri, and Maftoon (2019) proposed a model of CT comprising six mental components (i.e., *Mental Constructs; Mental Operations (macro-skills); Mental Abilities (micro-skills); Mental Dispositions (habits of the mind); Mental Conditions (barriers), and Mental Activities (thinking types*). Table 6.1 illustrates the CT model, along with the corresponding constructs.

Table 6.1. Mental Components on How the Mind Works: A Critical Thinking Model

Mental Components	**Description**
Mental constructs	As the concepts are created in mind through the process of conceptualization.
Mental operations	Interpretation, explication, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.
Interpretation	As recognizing and explaining arguments includes: • **Identification:** It has two elements: *premise and conclusion.* • **Categorization:** It needs learners to comprehend and develop various types of arguments, represent these arguments like deductive and inductive argument. • **Expression:** It mentions the skill to interpret arguments that presented explicitly or implicitly.
Evaluation	As the assessment of arguments involves a decision about acceptance and strength of facilities.
Mental constructs	As the concepts are created in mind through the process of Conceptualization.
Mental Activities	Are a selection of essential behaviors or duties for the principles of thought and argument?
Thinking activities	• **Logical Thinking:**The appropriate manner of argument that employs logic correctly.
	• **Empirical Thinking**: Based on an objective sensory experience
	• **Pragmatic Thinking**: Reality which results in workable explanations.
	• **Skeptical Thinking**: Based on the doubt factor and demands to dispel it.
	• **Reflective Thinking:** The intellect actively deals with attitudes, principles, approaches, results, and happenings.
	• **Consequential Thinking**: A responsible intellect is involved in considering the potential consequences of believing.

	• **Statistical Thinking**: Refers to recognition that many experimental happenings are known only statistically.
	• **Strategic Thinking**: Supported by the production and implementation.
	• **Creative Thinking:** Basis of development of novel concepts
	• **Reasonable Thinking**: Use of reason to realize trustworthy understanding.
	• **Analytical Thinking:** Intellect's attempt is to understand various experiences through a conscious process.
	• **Realistic Thinking**: Consciousness happenings.
	• **Ethical Thinking**: Trust mainly moral principles.
	• **Suppositional Thinking:** Arguments and assumptions come first before dispute
	• **Spiritual Thinking**: Religion is the motivating force.
	• **Occupational Thinking:** A person's field of study will create a way of thinking about it.

Mental constructs as the concepts created in the mind through the process of conceptualization. The human mind reproduced real phenomena and items by way of mental concepts, which allows thinking and speaking about them. People think as regards concepts, and they necessarily make our lives to a significant degree, so every concept is included some ideas (Nosich, 2012). Humans consider the world via the concepts they form in their minds, and every concept contains three types of ideas: Facts, Assumptions, and Inferences.

Mental operations constitute the five Macro-skills of the mind: Interpretation, Explication, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation. Interpretation as recognizing and explaining arguments includes these sub-skills: identification, categorization, and expression. Identification applies to the skill to determine argument and has two elements: premise and conclusion, and identify argument from non-argument like clarification, explanation, and summary. Categorization needs learners to comprehend and properly develop various arguments, explain, and represent these arguments like deductive argument and inductive argument. Expression mentions the skill to interpret arguments that are presented explicitly or implicitly. Synthesis functions in arranging the analyzed components into the whole, contrary to the skill of analysis. This rebinding is not an easy

process of adding pieces together entirely, but it focuses on the singularity and creativity of the whole. Its first sub-skill is discovering the major status or viewpoint. It involves discovering hierarchical relationships between the arguments, and the way the various kinds of argument, integrated to support the significant status or viewpoint. The second sub-skill is designing arguments based on detailed analysis, which clearly states the process of the author's philosophy.

Evaluation as the assessment of arguments involves a decision about acceptance and strength of facilities and results of a given argument, concerning. A given argument depends on doubtful assumptions or hypotheses, and the specific strength of a given argument's outcomes. Also, it includes a decision about the worldwide structure of the complete reflection. The assessment and judgment need criteria, based on Paul's model, covering elements and patterns of thought. Elements of reasoning are just applied to assess the achievement of the structure of the complete worldwide thought. In contrast, the standards work in the assessment of historical arguments and also global thought.Humans consider the world via the concepts they form in their minds, and every concept contains three ideas: Facts, Assumptions, and Inferences.

6.5.1. Mental Activities

These are a selection of essential behaviors or duties for the principles of thought and argument. The set of thought exercises enables a person to employ his thought perfectly in different positions. Therefore, an analytical intellect is aware of these thoughts and would take advantage of them properly. The main thinking types, named thinking activities, are discussed as follow:

1. **Logical Thinking:** This is a kind of thought where logic is the base of an argument. This type of Thinking depends on the appropriate manner of argument that employs logic correctly, and the thinker can easily switch between his thoughts.
2. **Empirical (Scientific) Thinking:** This is a type of mental activity is based on an objective sensory experience that can be repeated, measured, and tested by others. Unlike empirical thinking, intuitive thinking depends on the superiority of the power of thought.
3. **Pragmatic Thinking:** It is a kind of thinking which depends on the knowledge that desires and hopes do not create a belief to be real or worthy. The basis of reflections and decisions for pragmatic thinkers is a reality that results in workable explanations.

4. **Skeptical Thinking:** MecPeck (1981) highlights the proper use of skepticism by reflection in his definition for CT. In general, raising suspicion is recognized as one of the main thinking skills. Skeptical thinking is based on the doubt factor and demands to dispel it. Being skeptical is not equal to being pessimistic. Doubting the truth of something guides the thought process in this kind of thinking.
5. **Reflective Thinking:** It is a mental activity where the intellect actively deals with attitudes, principles, approaches, results, and happenings. He is also ready to hold a belief and thinks about the adequacy of the place or logic of a belief for a temporary time. Reflective thinking is not only abstract but also conceptual. This type of intellect can assess his thought, which can generally improve the thinking value.
6. **Consequential Thinking:** In this, a responsible intellect is involved in considering the potential consequences of believing or acting on certain ideas. In contrast, irresponsible thinking happens when the intellect does not consider what he is thinking and doing.
7. **Statistical Thinking:** It refers to recognizing that many experimental happenings are known only statistically, which are probable and not certain.
8. **Strategic Thinking:** This is a way of thinking supported by the production and implementation of approaches that aid us in moving from our current place to the desirable one.
9. **Creative Thinking:** It is a kind of thinking where the intellect attempts to not only create novel and different thoughts but also perform the activities by involving new concepts and approaches. This model of thinking is the basis of the development of novel concepts. Besides, the creative imagination and tend to examine new techniques of performing conduct the thought. However, old-style thinking methods, where the new ideas and novel approaches have no place, is the basis of close-minded thinking.
10. **Reasonable Thinking:** The main feature of Reasonable Thinking is the use of reason to realize trustworthy understanding. This thinking depends on the fact that emotions are neither proof nor not reality. In Emotional Thinking, in contrast, the thought process is influenced by emotions and feelings. In other words, the personal feeling in every position is far more essential than the reasons and proof presented.

11. **Analytical Thinking:** It is a mental activity where the intellect attempts to understand various experiences through a conscious process, reasoning from analysis, interpretation, assessment, inference, and valuation. Contrarily, for the ordinary intellect, understanding is based on a thought process that has not been studied without regard to its precision.
12. **Realistic Thinking:** It is a mental activity in which consciousness happenings and substances are not dependent on thoughts, and they present a known objective reality. Furthermore, Idealistic Thinking depends on the assumption that true knowledge of reality resides only in realization.
13. **Ethical Thinking:** It is based on modalities that are visualized in mind by cultural training or planned learning works. The thinker trust mainly moral principles that are clearly understood.
14. **Suppositional Thinking:** Ennis (1987) mentioned that in Suppositional Thinking, for analytical intellects thinking and justification from circumstances, arguments, and assumptions come first before the dispute. When they are not sure, they will not allow their conflict and hesitation to affect their thoughts.
15. **Spiritual Thinking:** It is thinking where the intellect utilizes religious principles and thoughts to decide and to conclude. In this type of thinking, religion is the motivating force that causes the intellect to have holy thoughts.
16. **Occupational/Academic Thinking:** It is expected that a person's job or field of study will create a way of thinking about it, what is called Occupational/Academic Thinking. Law students should leave university when they learn to think like a lawyer. Actually, every profession needs to think and act differently. The emphasis of Paul's (2012) study was on the main mission of education, which is to create this type of intellect. He added that biology students should learn biological thinking, and history students should improve historical thinking. (In his opinion, every student should improve his special way of thinking).

6.5.2. Critical Thinking (CT) Skills

CT skills are considered as crucial factors in problem-solving thinking of higher-order level. Scientists recognized a list of CT skills, features, and aspects to specify the CT skills' types and approaches to life. Al-Ghazali Mustapha (1998) advocated that CT skills can be linked to the capacity of

the mind to evaluate and determine the logic of the idea, the sophistication of the concept, the ability to distinguish good idea from bad idea, and the capacity to make a logical and accurate judgment on the basis of proof. According to Facione's (1990) CT considers skills, interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation, and self-regulation. The inference is the understanding and representing a wide range of experiences, values, practices, laws, etc. The analysis is based on identifying of the interaction between assumptions, questions, ideas, or illustrations for expressing opinions, value judgments, or justifications. The experts found the assessment to evaluate the authenticity of the arguments and interpretations of others, along with evaluating the rational quality of the arguments, explanations, or questions. The inference was considered the capacity to make rational conclusions and, or assumptions based on reality, judgments, opinions, values, ideas, or other types of expressions. Experts in the Delphi study found that the explanation was to state and explain the consequences of one's justification by using each of the capabilities mentioned above, Self-regulation, the final ability, was the skill of a person to track their cognitive processes to ensure that they have participated in CT.

Dewey (1933) claimed that *open-mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness* are three approaches needed to create the act of reflection (i.e., CT). If someone listens to more than one side of any argument, it can be said that he or she is an open-minded person. Dewey asserted that responsibility concerned with accurately assessing the effects of a probable action and wholeheartedness urged critical thinkers to seek intentional truth in their examination. Moreover, Jones, Hoffman, Moore, Ratcliffe, Tibet, and Click (1995) confirmed an investigation of the use of CT skills across a national survey published in 1993/94, and a validation study that published by the National Center for Higher Education, Learning, and Evaluation at Pennsylvania State University. Correspondingly, these study skills, along with their inclinations, developed into the recommended conclusions of post-secondary education.

6.5.3. Critical Thinking (CT) Dispositions

CT emerges from the association of CT behaviors with a community of CT skills (Ennis, 1987). The CT that Ennis has indicated includes:

- Looking for the correct expression of the question;
- Reasoning;
- Striving for adequate awareness;

- Striving for staying in touch with the main point.

Paul (1992) believed that CT depends on a person's habit of using it. Facione et al. (1995) and Facione et al. (1997) admitted that the tendency to think critically could be described as a constant desire, incentive, tendency, and intention to participate in CT while thinking about the important issues making, and problem-solving. A student's frame of mind for criticizing is a prerequisite factor for CT, and it affects enormously the ability to think critically (Zoller, Ben Chaim, and Ron, 2000).

In developing the widely used Watson-Glaser CT Appraisal, Glaser (1941) defined CT as the "(1) attitude of being disposed to consider in a thoughtfully way the problems and subjects that come within the range of one's experiences, (2) knowledge of the methods of logical inquiry and reasoning and (3) some skill in applying those methods" (p. 5, 6). Subsequently, Taube (1997) revealed quantitative and experimental proof of ability and temperament as two individual aspects in CT. Facione (1990) established specific skills and sub-skills for the skills dimension and a specific group of attitudes for the dimension of inclinations. The concepts used are Truth-Seeking, Open-mindedness, Analyticity, Systematicity, Self-confidence, Inquisitiveness, and Maturity (Facione et al., 2001).

6.6. CRITICAL THINKING (CT) IN EDUCATION

Various scholars (Brookfield, 1987; Muilenberg and Berge, 2000; Moore, 2004; Paul and Elder, 2014; Facione and Facione, 2007) express the noteworthiness of instructing adult learners to build up their CT skills. Paul and Elder considered it as a fundamental objective in any academic context. According to Nelson (1994), "Enabling students to think critically is one of the central objectives of liberal and professional education."

CT authorizes students to evaluate their developmental thinking process while being educated (Kalman, 2002). CT has been considered as a move in pedagogy toward discovery learning. Schamel and Ayres (1992) believed that students get a better outcome when they explore experience and ask some questions, or carry out some tasks about that experience as opposed to taking an interest in some recommended exercises. Cooperative learning and group learning encourage students to have attendance in doing exercises and to have interaction between themselves (Ahern-Rindell, 1999).

The encouragement of enhancing CT skills has strengthened among students recently. The utilization of the term CT first rose at the beginning of the 1980s and turned into an ideal property for societies in the 21st century

(Ennis, 2003). William Graham Sumner published the establishment of sociology and anthropology within the 20th century. He reported strong evidence on the inclination of the human psyche to think socially, and he predicted the equal propensity for schools to serve the capacity of social influence, which eventually leads to a profound requirement for CT in everyday life. According to Smith (1997), John Dewey was another scholar that paid enough attention to CT in the 20th century. Dewey believed that education must develop educators by engaging them with experiences. The instructor's role is to inspire learners to think reflectively. Dewey's idea is noticeable in the work of Coyle, Kolb, Lindeman, and Rogers. These authors advocated that experiential learning should be utilized to such an extent that it concentrates on developing the student's critical and analytical thinking skills. Educationists have got interested in the idea of critical and analytical thinking. Other scholars such as Robert Ennis, Stephen Norris, John McPeck, Richard Paul, Harvey Seigel, Peter, and Norren Facione have empowered of CT in education. Although CT is seen as the main target in education, numerous instructional institutions come up short to energize their students to be critical thinkers (Schafersman, 1991).

6.7. CRITICAL THINKING (CT) IN ESL/EFL PEDAGOGY

Until now, different ways to deal with encouraging CT have been introduced. Ennis (1987) advocated that CT focuses on making decisions and helping people choose what they want to believe. Then again, in another definition, by the National Council for Teachers of English, CT describes as a cycle which accentuates on a disposition of suspended judgment and which fuses consistent request for discovery learning that leads to the evaluation of an action. Furthermore, the ERIC Clearing House on Reading and Communication Skills characterizes it as an approach to thinking. This approach amalgamates the interest of suitable help for one's who is reluctant to be convinced, except if the help is impending.

In the definition of Benesch (1993) and some different English instructors, CT is considered as an autonomous learning process that explores the power and social injustice. In such classrooms, learners are encouraged to have active participation in classroom activities and raise some issues that they concern in their real lives. Benesch suggests that English language teachers should ask students to investigate and to explore their experiences to find a relationship between their experiences and other

topics such as language, politics, or the historical backdrop of a new culture. Since native speakers require special instruction in CT, it logically follows that non-native speakers need it as well. Their need is even greater because CT strategies in English are possibly culturally alien to them. According to Atkinson (1997, p. 72), "not only is CT a culturally based concept, but many cultures endorse modes of thought and education that almost diametrically oppose it." Although Atkinson (1997) warned that CT could be an exclusive social exercise that may not change to another subject area, CT is essential for learners who seek great achievement in academic contexts. Reasons such as unfamiliarity, difficulty, challenge, etc., are unacceptable for those who believe these reasons are appropriate for them no to teach skills that is the instructor's obligation to assist non-native students in overcoming these challenges and tests. Therefore, the key element in academic and real-life contexts is CT because it appears to be a requirement to prepare particular instructions for enhancing learners' capabilities.

6.8. CRITICAL THINKING (CT) AND DIALOGIC TEACHING

The principal goal in education is to promote the academic success of students and prepare them to raise their CL. The goals are fulfilled only if teachers train students to become CTs and take charge of their learning (Milner, 2003). Most of the traditional approaches and methods in education acknowledge pre-established patterns to transmit knowledge to the learners. These approaches consider learners as passive receivers of knowledge and teachers as the authority in the classrooms who deposit knowledge in learners' minds (Hetherington and Wegerif, 2018). However, the current trend in English language teaching (ELT) deals with creating and developing critical skills, dialogic interaction, and reflective practices (e.g., inquiring, doing, imagining, and negating) at schools (Garcia et al., 2020).

This trend criticized the traditional ELT approach due to its monologic and lecture-based instruction (Li, 2019). Zhang (2018) postulates that monologic instruction promotes passive talk and keep students reticent. L2 professional literature proposed three skills categories (i.e., technical, behavioral, creative) to promote learners' CT mode. These skills are to help students act in a questioning manner, construct their understanding, and to be the agent of their learning process (LaGarde and Hudgins, 2018). Both teachers and learners have a bilateral role in which the learners are active, practice *exploratory talk, think reasonably*, organize their learning practices.

Teachers help learners voice their ideas, and share their authority with the students (Kissing-Styles, 2003). Bakhtin (1981) believes that they learn together. Using Freire's (1970) words, "no one teaches another, nor is anyone self-taught, men teach each other, mediated by the teacher" (p. 67). One of the recommendations evolved to incorporate talk effectively for students' learning process and to involve teachers and students for transforming and constructing knowledge is DT (García-Carrión, López de Aguilerta, Padrós, and RamisSalas, 2020). Alexander (2020) proposed the interaction and dialogic nature of instruction to alleviate some cliché topics for discussion. Alexander maintained that DT shifts teacher-student question and answer format to a dialogic pattern to improve students' learning and understanding. It has been argued that Asian learners are unwilling to write reflectively and to engage in problem-solving activities (Rear, 2017). Within the EFL context of Iran, it is assumed that teachers tend to use traditional approaches, and students are not trained to be critical thinkers. Teachers do not provide students to voice their ideas in the classroom contexts due to a top-down policy and the authoritative system of education (Barjesteh, 2020; Michaels and O'Connor, 2012; Pishghadam, and Mirzaee, 2008). It seems that some impediments at the micro and macro-level in the system of education of Iran are deterrent factors to foster higher-order thinking (Barjesteh, 2017).

PART II
PRACTICAL CONCEPTUALIZATION OF CRITICAL LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY

CHAPTER 7

TOWARDS POSTULATING A DIALOGIC MODEL IN THE CLASSROOM: PRACTICAL CONCEPTUALIZATION

CONTENTS

7.1. INTRODUCTION

The concepts of transformative-based, critical education and humanized ELT have been paid more attention than the transmission-based approach in recent years. Although transmission pedagogy has its potential implications in education, Abkari (2006) believed that its practical implications are not applicable, and is restricted to theoretical aspects. Some individuals who are keen on an extraordinary teaching method believe that CP needs more practicality. Thus, this investigation endeavors to create and execute a transformative model in materials development. Different factors that motivate any author to suggest a framework for an indefinite transformational L2 materials development include: a) the significance of the materials in teaching languages, b) the role of policy-makers in producing textbooks with local culture and social values, and c) lack of an inclusive framework for producing transformative materials. To fulfill the purpose of this study, Crawford's (1978) principles of curriculum development have been utilized for the theoretical aspect, and Nation and Macalister's (2010) model has been utilized for other aspects. To be exact, CP principles of Crawford's has been classified into Nation and Macalister's categorization meaningfully. By doing this, the order of the principles of Crawford changed, but the researcher attempted to keep the unified classification under the categorization of Nation and Macalister's model. The adapted proposal is presented in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1. Modified Components of Nation, Macalister, and Crawford Model

S L . No.	Models	
	Nation and Macalister	**Crawford**
1.	Format and presentation	Purpose; Objective.
2.	Content and sequencing	Content; Learning strategy; Learning materials; Planning.
3.	Monitoring and assessment	Evaluation; Teacher/Student role.

In the following, you can see a precise explanation about how to know each of the CP principles for preparing materials in the ELT based on the following elements: (a) format and presentation; (b) content and sequence; and (c) monitoring and evaluation which are discussed in subsections.

7.1.1. Format and Presentation

The previously identified principles of schedule design by Crawford (1987), which were considered as the purpose, were presented in the format and presentation in the second element of Nation and Macalister (2010). The following principle defines the purpose of CP, which were classified by Crawford (1987):

- **Principle 1:**If conscientiousness looking for developing learners' understanding of the discrepancies or issues in their lives, and if students are going to move towards these issues, the goal of education is to develop critical thinking (CT) by presenting learners' situations like a problem in case they can understand, reflect, and act on it.

  As stated above in theory, the object of academic achievement as established by the CP is to promote CT, the autonomy of learners through the problem of real-life situations of learners. Endangering learners' existential situations leads students to think critically and ultimately evaluate their living conditions. Principles two and three deal with the purpose of CP (Crawford, 1987).
- **Principle 2:** If the human vocation is to transform the world by its continual creation and re-creation realized through praxis, then the primary intended outcome of an educational experience is creative action on the part of the learners (p. 76).
- **Principle 3:** If the main objective of education is constructive behavior on the part of learners, and if knowledge and skills are gained in the course of creative thinking, therefore the development of knowledge and learning skills is among the main objectives of education, and the nature of this learning relies on creativity.

By considering what Freire (1972); and Giroux (1992) declared, it can be understood that critical reflection and creative action, or what Freire (1972) calls *"praxis and transformative intellectual,"* are the ultimate goals of the CP. They are highlighted in the best way in Freire's and Macedo's (1987) book "Reading the word and the world." Conclusively, they argue that CP allows learners to read between the lines to make a positive change by recognizing the factual information. By considering the Nation and Macalister (2010) model, the principles in Table 7.2 were accomplished.

Table 7.2. Nation and Macalisters' Adapted Principles of Format and Presentation in Materials Development

SL. No.	Components	Description
1.	Motivation	ELT materials should motivate students to reflect on their learning by linking their knowledge to their real-life situation in a dialogical method, interaction between teacher and learners.
2.	Four strands	ELT materials have learners focus on how to make meaning by incorporating their socioeconomic status.
3.	Comprehensible input	Materials should help the learners become critical reflective by providing comprehensible receptive activity in listening and reading through discussion.
4.	Fluency	ELT materials should make use of discussion through cultural and political topics of great concern to participants.
5.	Output	Critical ELT materials are co-built around problem posing by inviting learners to examine the course content from the practical context of the classroom in both speaking and writing.
6.	Deliberate learning	Materials should foster an enriched language-learning context by drawing an explicit linkage between theory and practice so that learners find the pedagogical application.
7.	Time on task	As much as possible should be spent focusing on reflective tasks to foster learners' intellectual ability.
8.	Depth of processing	ELT materials should help learners process the course content thoughtfully (develop their critical literacy) by in-depth analysis of the discussed topic.
9.	Integrative Motivation	ELT materials should integrate both social development and language skill development to go beyond the understanding of the texts.
10.	Learning style	Learners should have an opportunity to work the learning materials in ways thatmost suit their culture, society, and learning style.

7.1.1.1. Justification

The ELT lesson plans in CP do not support the sort of activities that only improve the skills of learners. The central goal in language teaching is to prepare students to read and read against (Crooks and Lehner, 1998). Thus, the major responsibility of materials planners in CP is to encourage students to develop a sense of autonomy in finding creative ways of challenging the actual situation and participating in a transformational activity. This aims to increase learners' knowledge of social constructions and literacy of the target language. To do this, Freire encouraged his students to acknowledge their cultures while they were investigating some of those cultural principles and practices at the same time. Freire (1997) considered the ability to *"read the word"*-as an end to illiteracy- and *"read the world"*-so that they can find social and political problems from a scientific viewpoint. Freire declared that the capability of questioning was insufficient, and learners must be able to act accordingly. Therefore, the important content in the CP content should help students to evaluate various dimensions of their lives. Shore (1992) acknowledged that this shows that defenders of the producers of critical ELT materials support a variety of contents that puts learners beyond themselves and reflect on the *cultural, social, political*, and *economic* aspects of their community by questioning the difficulties of their society. Correspondingly, the L2 content must provide learners with a set of intellectual understanding of their realities (Reagan and Osborne, 2002). Such materials followed the joint objectives through integrating language skills and social actions to which place each unit about subjects related to language with precise communicative consequences in mind tied with the formal syllabus in proper ways.

A one-dimensional understanding of content is argued by Crawford (1978). She stressed that proficiency in language skills concerning teaching is not the main goal of CP. She also stated that the main purpose of CP is to develop creative activities in students. Indeed, learning communication skills are meaningful when paired with language awareness and cultural growth in appropriate ELT materials. Crawford (1978) expostulated that the mastery of language skills related to teaching is the secondary objective in CP. She maintained that the primary goal in CP is to promote creative action on the part of the learner. Hence, learning language skills are only reasonable when they are integrated with language awareness and social development in critical ELT materials. Freire (1972) placed the banking model and problem-posing instruction to create their effect on education. Freire suggested the PPI challenging the theoretical underpinnings of

banking education. Contrary to the banking model, teachers, and students analyze their real-life experiences, feelings, and knowledge of the world together in problem-posing instruction. At the bedrock of PPI is the notion of "*conscientization,"* a term borrowed from Freire (1972). This is a process that leads to critical awareness by examining the reason for certain events to occur. Freire believes that the purpose of conscientization is to develop students' CT skills. PPI and CT are closely intertwined. When students can analyze the troublesome issues of their social life critically, they can be a "*transformative intellectual,"* a name coined by Giroux (1988). This implies that teachers have certain characteristics such as knowledge and skills for investigating and acting as agents of changing structural discrimination in their workplace. CP intends to combine a language of critique with a language of possibility. An instructor as a transformational intellectual must provide the opportunity for learners' criticism.

In line with Giroux (1988); Kumashiro (2000); and Mayo (2003) maintain that the objective of CFLP is to transform the status quo and make a democratic condition in a society. Freire believes that students' *historicity, experience,* and usual *distresses* must be investigated in the educational program to prepare them for the contemporary formation of power. This would be done by keeping them aware of critical viewpoints about the observation of the contemporary socio-cultural and socio-political role of the overriding culture. He continues that PPI users are no longer seen as an invisible force to be stimulated by the inner-circle nations' authorship. The materials should allow educators to go beyond perfect contemplation and to act on living circumstances to make them more enjoyable, and inclusive in the CP. This is called *"praxis"* (Freire, 1972).

Praxis is another core component of Freirean pedagogy. Learning begins with action through praxis (Freire, 1970). Therefore, it is formed by reflection, and this reflection stimulates action. Accordingly, learning is a continual process that increases the ability of learners to act in the world and change it. Freire assumed that no matter it is called literacy or learning, the main political task of any society is devoted to the power of the people. Praxis is a periodic process in which students are inspired to become a social agent and develop their capability to confront their existential issues. Regarding the notions of learning, literacy, and praxis Freire hold that being literate is going to be practical. It should be kept in mind that students must play creative roles from the beginning. It does not mean fixing in mind and reproducing the given syllables, words, and phrases, but students should have a critical reflection on the process of reading and writing and the

paramount importance of the language. More precisely, Freirean philosophy is motivated by *action, debate, reflection,* and *engagement* between learner's and teacher's learning in the classroom. To develop critical ELT materials, the transformative nature must be the foundation for the prepared materials. Students specify the form and content of their creative performance in CP by determining their needs for skills and information (Crawford, 1978). Thus, a terminology which is borrowed from Crawford (1978) in the provision of L2 CP materials offered that ELT materials' designer should consider productive contexts or some actions concerning the subjects.

The conversation is the next prominent confined element in Freire's education. *Dialog* is inherent in human nature, and dialogism is considered as a means of occupying students in their learning process (Freire, 1972). Correspondingly, having conversation and debate inspire students to make their voices heard in society and to limit the teacher's speech (Shor, 1992). As Freire (1970) notes, "dialog is the encounter between men, mediated by the world to name the world" (p. 69). He maintains, "Only the dialog which requires CT is capable of generating CT. Without dialog, there is no communication, and without communication, there is no true education" (p. 73). He labels the use of dialogical interaction as the pedagogy of knowing due to its authentic situation with different generative themes emerge in students' life experiences, concerns, and problematic issues in their society.

The aforesaid concept is paralleled with Vygotsky's theory of ZPD, in which people become familiar with others' help. Freire (1985) stresses the inclusion of a critical, authentic conversation in the syllabus because both teachers and learners enjoy a connection where one content subject is promoted with another content subject, through realistic conversations. The interaction of the Freire dialog provides an opportunity for the students to express their points of view, everyone respects the other's right to express his or her points of view, and all opinions are accepted (Robertson, 1997). This includes creating a democratic atmosphere in which everyone's voice is accepted. Robertson maintains the teacher empowers students and gives them a voice via dialogism that enables them to decode the hidden aspect.

Ebrahimi Dinani (2014) suggested that dialog should be the basis of coursebooks because of its importance. He considered dialog important because it shows how much someone comprehends what one's strengths and weaknesses are. He stated that dialog and negotiation are interweaved in human culture. Without dialog, nobody can identify literate and illiterate people. He holds that dialog can function as a symbolic image in students'

minds. He criticized many students for not thinking dialectically about the new concept. Thus, the new anonymous concept may be a "mental idol" in the students' minds without knowing it. Heaney (1995) maintained that in other words, in the dialog justified by CP, there is a crucial difference in inter-subjectivity between teachers and students.

Similarly, Akbari (2008) posited that the content of the course book, topics, and teaching method must be carefully selected to ensure that only socially filtered topics of discussion are manipulated through dialogism. He also criticized most of the course books because of some neutral topics such as travel, food, and shopping. To transform classes into more critical settings, Akbari (2008, p. 278) advised materials developers to "incorporate themes from students' day to day life concern to enable them to think about their situation and explore the possibilities for change."

7.1.2. Content and Sequencing

Content and sequencing can be considered as the main factors when it comes to classifying language curriculum development (Nation and Macalister, 2010). More specifically, three principles are assigned to the definition of content; five concepts are regarded as learning strategies, while only one of them is related to the planning group (Crawford, 1978). Despite these classifications, the remaining explanations are within the content category.

- **Principle 4:** If the object of knowledge is the person's existential situation, then the content of the curriculum derives from the life situation of the learners as expressed in the themes of their reality (p. 78).
- **Principle 5:** If curriculum content is to be derived from the learners' existential situation as expressed in generative themes, and if that situation is presented as a problem, and if subject matter within the curriculum is subject to the existential situation, then the task of planning is first to organize generative themes as problems and second to organize subject matter as it relates to those themes (p. 78).
- **Principle 6:** If curriculum content derives from the life situation of the learners, then that life situation and the learners' perceptions of it inform the organization of subject matter, i.e., skills, and information acquisition, within the curriculum (p. 85).
- **Principle 7:** If each person is a creative actor, and if each person has the right to name the world for him/herself, then the learners

produce their learning materials (p. 87).

- **Principle 8:** If conscientization aims to acquire a critical perception of the interaction of phenomena, then curriculum content is open to interdisciplinary treatment (p. 90).
- **Principle 9:** If dialog in the context of the learner, and if the dialog is necessarily social, then the organization of the curriculum recognizes the class as a social entity and resource (p. 90).
- **Principle 10:** If dialog is the context wherein knowing occurs, then dialog forms the context of the educational situation (p. 95).
- **Principle 11:** If the purpose of education is to present the problems present in the existential situation to the learners to perceive and act on them, then the content of the curriculum is posed as a problem (p. 97).
- **Principle 12:** If the process of knowing requires abstraction, then the curriculum contains a mechanism by which the learners distance themselves from and objectify the reality to be known (p. 99).
- **Principle 13:** If curriculum content is to be derived from the learners' existential situation as expressed in generative theme, and if that situation is presented as a problem, and if subject the subject matter is within the curriculum is the subject to the existential situation, then the task of planning is first to organize generative themes as problems and second to organize subject matter as it relates to the theme (p. 102).

The grouping of these principles leads to this deduction that the main content of the syllabus is dependent on the students' needs. Similarly, Akbari (2008) accepts this claim by stating that the content of the curriculum in CP should not only consider the real circumstances of the students but also the cultures of L1 and L2. This statement has been regarded as a "*generative theme*" by Shor (1992). It means that ideas coming from learners' problems, hopes, and culture uncover examples of inconsistencies. Crawford (1978) keeps up his argument by suggesting that the content, which is based on the circumstances and needs of the learners, can be combined in the process of praxis. Following what Nation and Macalister (2010) has classified, an adaptation of several principles has been carried out (Table 7.3).

Table 7.3. Nation and Macalisters' Adapted Principles of Content and Sequencing in Materials Development

SL. No.	Components	Description
1.	Frequency	Contents should be negotiated with the best possible coverage of humanizedpedagogy**.**
2.	Strategies and autonomy	Materials should help learners become self-directed through contextualization.
3.	Spaced retrieval	ELT materials should provide repeated opportunities for learners to retrieve information from authentic materials.
4.	Language system	The language focus should speed up both collective social transformation and cognitive development.
5.	Keep moving forward	ELT material should progressively help learners develop a critical awareness of their own sociopolitical context.
6.	Teachability	Teaching is a cycle of reflection and action by embracing learners' critical needs analysis.
7.	Learning burden	Materials should help learners challenge their assumptions concerning the course.
8.	Interference	ELT materials should sequence from more familiar to the less familiar hidden curriculum by incorporating learners' background experience into the new context.

7.1.2.1. Justification

The proponents of CP believe that both learners' L1 and culture can be utilized in the form of a starting point for the content of the course. Nonetheless, the sound judgment in the history of L2 learning refers to L1 as the negative power. Therefore, it is expected that EFL/ESL teachers prepare for obtaining L2 characteristics. Akbari (2008) contends that there is no proof on the side of the negative impact of utilizing L1. On the other hand, utilizing L1 can give a chance to make correspondence simpler in the L2. It is worth mentioning that using the first language by learners is not considered a way of instruction. It makes the process of learning easier by uncovering the elements of the language they are going to learn.

The derivation of the content in the CP classroom is based on the daily lives and concerns of the students. The active role of learners is emphasized

by which they can not only adopt but also adapt the materials, which means the creation of the content with the help of students themselves and their interests. This milieu is considered democratic in which students have the right to criticize their society. However, the coursebooks cannot address the interests of all the learners (Akbari, 2008). The blanket approach has been generated where all the learners are grouped under a single communicative category. Likewise, Gray (2001) states that these commercial textbooks use an ideal language; in other words, both culture and needs have been repudiated. Indeed, they disregard the local culture of learning and learning requirements. Similarly, Okazaki (2005) believes that the syllabus content should be reliable to make students conscious of both generative nature and confrontation toward the difficult content. To him, contextualized materials help learners unite their information to their real-life problems in society and take essential act in their community. Ares (2006) accepts that this change can help students improve their reflective action, CT, and independent learning. In this manner, special attention should be paid to different aspects such as cultural roots, knowledge, and information.

Developing a counter-hegemonic material is emphasized for EFL learners. Akbari (2008) states that instruction is germane to politics decision-makers can execute their values, whereas others do not have any right to express their voices. The emphasis of most books is on the target language because successful performance in the community relies on becoming familiar with cultural values to communicate appropriately and effectively. Akbari (2008) referred to this supposition as true because conveying effectively without knowing the objective social standards is not feasible, especially for those who migrate to the US and UK. This is due to different factors such as work, study, or other reasons. It results in the fact that English becomes an interactional language that is used by non-native speakers with their social personality to a large extent. Therefore, the need for learning Anglo-American culture is not high. He recommended that developing capability in talking about learners' culture is extremely respected. Correspondingly, McLaren and Leonard (1993) suggest that the transformative autonomous classroom is fascinated by the growth of human feeling, social investigation, and theoretical habit of mind. Freire (1972) claims that the idea of sharing specialist, intercession, and humanization in CP ideology asks students to be energetic and critical. Discovering thematic issues is possible to make education by students (McLaren and Leonard, 1993). Moreover, the thought and language of the learners are regarded as the main content of the course, starting from their words and comprehension of materials.

They pointed out that the materials should relate to students' life circumstances. They suggest that the content of the course should incite argument, inspire self-reflection, and social consideration on the learners' knowledge. The terms *needs* and *interest* connote differently from the points of view of CP syllabus designers. The principle for the choice of the content of the course in CP is as a result of the difficult truth in students' life instead of students' current awareness (Crawford, 1978).

Although the main focus is on increasing the educational program of the learners, they are not expected to be passive by accepting what the teacher says without any reflection. On the contrary, they are referred to as active performers; therefore, the content of materials should have this ability to generate discussion and analysis. The method of learning methodology is through including students in the course content through negotiation. Following the above statement, the advocates of CP propose that CP oriented learning framework intends to encourage students' basic reasoning, self-sufficiency, and self-guideline by problematizing generative topic from their concerns in life like some refined themes from society and academic topics.

7.1.3. Monitoring and Assessment

The third classification of Nation and Macalister manages observing and evaluation. Crawford (1978) put one principle into the grouping of evaluation, four principles into the role of teacher, and two of them into the category of students' roles. Both the role of teacher and student can be regarded as the last segment of the model. Crawford's (1978) standards about assessment, instructor's role, and students' role are indicated in detail:

- **Principle 14:** If the purpose of education is to develop CT, and if knowing is focused on the transformation of reality, then evaluation focuses on the ability of the educational program to develop CT and foster transforming action in a particular time and place (p. 104).
- **Principle 15:**If knowing as a process of transformation is participation in the human vocation, then the teacher participates in that process as a learner among learners (p. 104).
- **Principle 16:** If the learners in dialog each contribute their ideas, experiences, opinions, and perceptions, and if the teacher is a learner, the teacher also contributes his/her ideas, experiences, opinions, and perceptions to the dialogical process (p. 105).
- **Principle 17:** If discussions take place between learners of

similar abilities, the instructor may consider them to be one of the students.

- **Principle 18:** If learning is for the presentation of questions, then the teacher's job is the presenting issues.
- **Principle 19:** If problem-solving education alters investing education, then the student is the one who performs on the objects.
- **Principle 20:** If everyone wants to accomplish his or her duty as a human, and if every individual has the right to declare a name for the world, then the student has every right to decision-making.

The principles given in Table 7.4 are concerning the role of the teacher and students in the development and crucial evaluation of ELT materials (Nation and Macalister, 2010).

Table 7.4. Nation and Macalisters' Adapted Principles of Monitoring and Assessment in Materials Development

S L . No.	Components	Description
1.	Ongoing needs and environment analysis	Both students' critical language awareness and their linguistic skills should be evaluated through an alternative assessment.
2.	Feedback	Learners should receive implicit feedback that allows them to develop critical thinking.
3.	Teachers' role	Materials should take into account the teacher as co-learner, coordinator,and problem poser.
4.	Students' role	Students are active decision-makers who participate in assessing their performance.

7.1.3.1. Justification

CP influences various features of instruction in a society involving instructive practices, sociopolitical, and socio-social dimensions. Inside instructive practice, CP impacts educational plan, schedule, course content, classroom, and evaluation. Both terms of assessment and evaluation seem stimulating in the CP language classroom. The common preparation in critical language evaluation highpoints current assessment on students' growth and authorization that needs "evaluation not as a measure of linguistic skill, but as an expression of language awareness" (Reagan and Osborn, 2002, p. 72).

In the same vein, Kincheloe, Slattery, and Steinberg (2000) propose that assessment becomes a real understanding of the students and their use of learning, which means that the proponents of CP support a formative assessment. Since the content of the course is based on students' interests, the *norm-reference test* is not appropriate in CP classes (Crawford-Lange, 1981). However, it can be used to demonstrate that performance of the students in CP class is not the same as non-CP courses. In this manner, they recommend combining self-appraisal and performance evaluation to assess learners' language skills and their basic abilities. Thus, there is a paradigm shift from individual to group and program assessment. More explicitly, it is not needed for real accumulation in measuring the quality of the knowledge of all students (Freer, 1988). In the following, it is declared that continuous assessment of students and the educational program process should be the foundation of *transformational education* (Freer, 1988). Correspondingly, it is declared that assessment should not be according to *standardized test* scores unless the purpose of the students is related to achieving a general education development certificate (Degener, 2001). Additionally, he proposes the narrative education system (NES) as a performance evaluation that can be used as a replacement for the grading system. NES calls for a democratic evaluation in which teachers and students can determine what educational goals students are achieving. Reagan and Osborn (2002) proposed that critical assessment and evaluation depend on *language awareness*. The purpose of the evaluation is not to estimate language skills in the use of arbitrary language code. Besides, they contend that a valid evaluation should be the basis of assessment is an important foreign language (FL) education program. They maintain that "focusing on a student's expression of her or his emancipatory knowledge, the assessment seeks to understand the new ways in which student construct, deconstruct, and reconstruct the world as related to language diversity" (p. 79).

Similar to what Freire has stated, Shohami (2001) presents a democratic appraisal as a substitute for language assessment. Considering that the language test is not disinterested, it stresses the impact of the measures and their position in the educational, social, political, and economic domains. She contends that this effect differs from traditional psychometric testing in which the test task terminates at the point where the psychometric results are met.

The *role of teachers and students* is another major concern in CP. From the current practice of professional L2 literature, it can be concluded that in critical language classes, guidelines, and liabilities are shared between teachers and students. Particularly, CP's classroom divides power with students by entrusting the students to be energetic and liable for what they learn. More specifically, in a CP class, teachers, and students acquire knowledge from each other. Freire (1972) asserted that instructors performed as coordinators and administrators or *"cultural workers."*

Correspondingly, it is admitted that an instructor in CP transforms learners into cultural producers who can revise their background and understanding (Giroux, 1997). It is declared that *Freriean pedagogy* separates teachers from the dictatorial discussion of teachers in society (McLaren and Leonard, 1993); thus, they turn into dialog facilitators and problem solvers. Teachers help students in bringing up critical awareness that motivates learners to make decisions actively rather than the uninvolved receiver of information (Moreno-Lopez, 2005). Learners are motivated to discuss the content of the course is a crucial process, and instructors and learners are appointed in CT.

Crawford (1978) argues that "the dialogical teacher does not tell, order, or control, but act mutually with the student" (p. 106). She stated that an instructor listens to the learners and then challenge them by asking different questions. This addresses some problems related to ELT, such as social, economic, cultural, and political concerns. It is claimed that instructors and learners work in a learning group (Crooks and Lehner, 1998). They both are regarded as a social group who are involved in praxis or what Crawford (1978, p. 104) called a teacher in CP classroom as "a learner among learners." Degener (2001) believes that a teacher in CP is viewed as a problem poser who invites students to reflect on their lives that may seem unchallengeable. Freire (1970) proposes a flowing relationship between teacher and students. To him, teachers are learners, and learners are teachers. Therefore, teachers should plan for the risks it involves since the proponent of transformative materials developers fly in the face of priorities of the status quo. The lack of interest of centralized institutions, the banking background of teachers, and students in transformative innovations might interfere with the dynamicity of the course. To provide a better representation of the principles of the transformative L2 materials preparation (TLMP) model, Table 7.5 indicates the principles of the proposed model before validation.

Table 7.5. Tentative Model for Dialogic Teaching and Materials Development

A.	**Format and Presentation**
Motivation	ELT materials should motivate students to reflect by linking their knowledge to the existing problems in a dialogical interaction format.
Four strands	ELT materials embrace meaning-focused input/output, language-focused learning, and fluency activities by incorporating students' social, cultural, political, and economic aspect as a transformative practice.
Comprehensible input	Critical materials should provide comprehensible receptive activities geared to multiple perspectives within the home culture through contextualization.
Fluency	ELT materials should foster the learners fluency through negotiation and dialogism in order to make both teachers' and learners' voices heard in society.
Output	A critical ELT material is built around problem posing by pushing learners to invoke considerable discussion for communicative outcomes.
Deliberate learning	Materials should include language-focused learning to empower learners to become active and responsible learners, to promote learning achievement, critical consciousness, and self-regulation.
Time on task	ELT materials should foster learners' autonomy, self-regulation, critical consciousness, and critical thinking abilities by exploring the reason behind every phenomenon.
Depth of processing	ELT materials should help the learners process the items thoughtfully by reflecting on the problematic dimensions of their society and act on it.
Integrative motivation	ELT materials should integrate both linguistic skills and social development to go beyond the understanding of written words.
Learning style	Learners work with learning materials best suited their learning styles that encourage dialogical interaction through the generative themes.
B.	**Content and Sequencing**
Frequency	Contents provide the best possible coverage of humanized pedagogy that problematize generative themes from students' real-life situations and academic subject matter.

Strategies and autonomy	Reflective tasks should be included so as to develop literacy skills, learner autonomy, and social transformation through contextualization.
Spaced retrieval	ELT materials should provide repeated opportunities for learners to retrieve items in a variety of authentic materials and encourage them to be researcher inquiring into the thought-provoking problems.
Language system	The language focus should expedite both individual cognitive development and collective social transformation.
Keep moving forward	ELT material should progressively take into account students' awareness of social, economic, cultural, and political problems in society.
Teachability	Students' actual life experiences and needs should be the point of departure in materials preparation.
Learning burden	Learning process is interactive and cooperative so that students are involved in discussion by thought provoking questions.
Interference	ELT materials should sequences from lesser to greater complexity, more familiar to less familiar students' life themes, and from concrete to more abstract representation of ideas by codification and de-codification.
C	**Monitoring and Assessment**
Feedback	Learners should receive implicit feedback, which allows them to develop critical thinking and critical awareness.
Teacher role	The teacher is co-learner, coordinator, dialog leader, and problem poser who contributes his/her ideas, experiences, and opinions through negotiation.
Student role	Students are decision-maker and subjects of the act. Teachers and students teach each other. Students participate in assessing their performance through negotiation with their teacher.

7.2. PRELIMINARY VALIDATION FOR THE TLMP PRINCIPLES

To assure the content validity of the proposed principles, first, the supervisor and advisor of the present study confirmed the face validity of the principles. To be more confident, five PhD professionals holding TEFL degrees were inquired to read the suggested principles and characterize the validity of the content of the principles. For each principle, four indicators (i.e., comprehensiveness, relevance, clarity, and wording) were taken

into account. Experts were inquired to grade each index based on a four-point content validity index (CVI). They should have graded them from 1 to 4, corresponding to the poor (1), fair (2), good (3), and excellent (4), respectively. This calculation was performed by calculating the outcomes of the experts' group, who independently assess the principles based on the four indicators. To come up with the objective, a request letter accompanied the TLMP model that specified and exemplified the issue in detail. After completing the scores, the consecutive indicators were calculated: (A) The CVI case, which demonstrates the authenticity of each principle; (B) scale validity index (SVI), which indicates authenticity for the model entirely; (C) *An inter-rater mediator,* which specifies the extent to which authorities admit the authenticity of the principles; And (D) the *comprehensiveness score*, which indicates that the authorities have assented well on the comprehensiveness of the principle.

To calculate the item validity index (IVI), all the collected scores were distributed into two categories: (a) good/excellent, (b) fair/poor. IVI for each principle (comprehensiveness, relevance, clarity, and wording) was computed as the authorities who gave the principle good/excellent. A cut-off point of 0.75 was supposed as admissible reliability for each index. Principles with an IVI less than the cut-off point were modified or removed. Once the revisions were incorporated in the TLMP model, and the content validity was affirmed, the principles were put into a 5-point Likert scale format questionnaire and a near-final version of the model, TLMP Questionnaire, was prepared on paper and word software.

7.2.1. Content Validity for Items

Content Validity Item (CVI) for comprehensiveness was 0.93 for 22 principles, and the comparable index for the principles of relevance was 0.90. CVI for accuracy and wording were 0.84 and 0.91, respectively. The principles that scored less than 0.80 for the CVI case were adjusted by researchers and authorities. Thus, it turns out that three principles for comprehensiveness, four principles for relevance, five principles for clarity, and three principles for wording were not admissible. More precisely, the principles that did not meet the default benchmark were adjusted by the five experts' viewpoints. Afterward, three other experts in TEFL were requested to put their comments on the revised version. The justified items with a score higher than 0.79 were considered as appropriate. See Table 7.6 for CVI and CVR.

Table 7.6. Content Validity Index and Content Validity Ratio

Principle	CVI				CVR
	Comprehensiveness	Relevance	Clarity	Wording	
1	0.80	1	0.80	0.80	0.85
2	0.60	0.60	0.40	0.60	0.55
3	0.60	1	0.80	0.80	0.90
4	1	1	0.80	0.80	0.90
5	1	1	1	0.80	0.95
6	0.60	0.80	0.60	0.80	0.70
7	0.80	0.60	0.80	0.80	0.75
8	1	1	0.80	1	0.95
9	1	1	0.80	1	0.95
10	0.80	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.65
11	1	0.40	0.80	1	0.80
12	1	1	0.80	1	0.95
13	1	1	0.80	1	0.95
14	1	1	0.80	1	0.95
15	1	1	1	1	0.85
16	1	1	1	1	100
17	1	1	1	1	100
18	1	0.80	1	1	0.95
19	1	1	0.80	1	0.95
20	1	1	1	1	100
21	1	1	1	1	100
22	1	1	1	1	100
Total	**0.93**	**0.90**	**.83.5**	**0.91**	**0.88**

7.2.2. Scale Validity Index (SVI)

Using the average approach, the overall SVI for comprehensiveness, relevance, clarity, and wording was 0.88. The inter-rater agreement for the four indices were 0.89, respectively. All five experts rated the comprehensiveness of the questionnaire as good or excellent, thus yielding an overall comprehensiveness score of 93%. Table 7.7 shows the CVI for the principles of the TLMP model based on expert opinions.

Table 7.7. Content Validity Index for the Principles of TLMP Model

Item Content Validity Index				Scale Validity Index	Inter-Rater Agreement	Comprehensive Score
Comprehensiveness	Relevance	Clarity	Wording			
0.93	0.91	0.84	0.90	0.88	0.89	0.93

7.3. PILOT STUDY FOR TLMP QUESTIONNAIRE: RELIABILITY

To ensure that students grasp the meaning of the recommended principles in the TLMP model, Dornyei's guidelines were adopted. Dornyei (2007) suggested that a questionnaire should be administered to "a group of about 50 respondents who are in every way similar to the target population the instrument was designed for" (p. 117).

To pilot the principles of the proposed model, it was administered to 90 prospective EFL teachers, 60 private language school teachers, and 20 university instructors in 15 cities of Iran. In an introductory paragraph, the recipients were informed that a separate consent form would not be distributed, and their returning of the questionnaire would be an indication of their consent to take part. Ten questions were excluded, including 50 prospective EFL teachers, 45 instructors in private schools for language, and 15 qualified university instructors. After collecting the data, they were transferred to the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) version 20. Table 7.8 delineates participants' characteristics of the TLMP principles in the pilot study.

Table 7.8. Participant Characteristics for the TLMP Principles in the Pilot Study

Level of Education		Participants			Gender	
M.A.	PhD	1	2	3	Male	Female
95	15	50	45	15	43	67
110		**100**			**100**	

Note: (1) Prospective EFL teacher; (2) Private EFL institution teacher; (3) University instructors.

Three aspects of the pattern of response need to be considered, particularly, "removed responses or signals which show lack of understanding, the scope

of responses received by each case, and internal consistency" (Dörnyei, p. 113). The questionnaires were checked for responders who did not conceive the questionnaire clearly (like people who agree with all of the questions or strongly disagree with many of the questions) or did not answer most of the questions (the blank items are more than one appropriate number to replace with neutral).

The range of elicited responses by each item was checked by the SPSS software to "exclude items that are endorsed by almost everyone or by almost no one" (Dornyei, p. 113). The internal consistency enjoyed the reliability of 0.79. Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) claimed that this reliability index is admissible. They proposed that such an index in educational research is strong. The results are presented in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9. Reliability Coefficient for the TLMP Model

Cronbach's Alpha	**N**
0.79	110

7.4. FINAL VALIDATION: FACTOR ANALYSIS

Measuring the reliability and validity of content does not approve of the authenticity of the developed model. In other words, another phase is required to approve the model, that is, to approve its construction. Consequently, an analysis of the factor was performed. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is the most common method for the analysis of factors (Pallant, 2005). Accordingly, PCA was selected to uphold the structural validity of the TLMP model in this study. The TLMP questionnaire employed a five-point Likert scale; specifically, the ones who respond to the questionnaire choose from five options and for each item receive one to five points. Therefore, the least probable score is 22, and the most score is 110.

Nonetheless, some questions could be a concern with one variable and able to be gathered together. To put it another way, we can reduce 22 cases to a lesser number of factors that each of them is going to cover several cases which are concerning the same factor. Therefore, the researchers used factor analysis to decide which questions should be removed from the list that provides the principles of material production at the beginning to see whether researchers can organize different items concerning the same principles or not. To identify the inter-correlation between different variables, by performing correlation analysis, someone should gather a

correlation matrix. The decisive factor value is 0.001 in the case of TLMP, which is more than 0.00001. Based on the results visible in the correlation matrix, no items were omitted because there was a considerable correlation between all of the items, and it was not multilinear.

The feasibility of the information is another requirement. Therefore, Factor analysis was performed with the principal elements selected as the derivation method. Kaiser (as cited in Pallant, 2005) maintained that sampling adequacy from Bartlett's test of sphericity (BTS) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) assist in specifying the feasibility of the data. The results of the BTS and KMO are presented in Table 7.10. The collected results are of the value of 0.63 and 0.000. In simple terms, the first null hypothesis suggesting that the model of L2 transformational material provision that will not demonstrate good internal consistency was denied. Table 7.10 shows the BTS results and the KMO measurement of the sample sufficiency.

Table 7.10. BTS and KMO Measure of Sample Adequacy

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sample Adequacy		0.632
Bartlett's test of sphericity	**Approx. Chi-Square**	673.67
	Df	231
	Sig.	0.000

Communality refers to the percent of the variance in an observed variable that accounts for the retained components (or factor). In other words, one can learn how much of the total variance is explained by the retained factors. A given variable will display a large communality if it loads heavily on at least one of the retained components. The minimum requirement for loading is a value of 0.30, and this can be observed in Table 7.11, where the results of communalities for the data are displayed. All the loading factors have values greater than 0.30.

Table 7.11. Communality for the TLMP Model

Principles	**Initial**	**Extraction**
P1 motivation	1.000	0.598
P2 Four strands	1.000	0.691
P3 Comprehensible input	1.000	0.563
P4 Fluency	1.000	0.574

P5 Output	1.000	0.576
P6 Deliberate Learning	1.000	0.593
P7 Time on Task	1.000	0.581
P8 Depth of Processing	1.000	0.640
P9 Integrative Motivation	1.000	0.655
P10 Learning Style	1.000	0.432
P11 Frequency	1.000	0.513
P12 Strategies and Autonomy	1.000	0.625
P13 Spaced retrieval	1.000	0.823
P14 Language system	1.000	0.810
P15 Keep moving forward	1.000	0.527
P16 Teachability	1.000	0.773
P17 Learning burden	1.000	0.726
P18 Interference	1.000	0.652
P19 Ongoing needs	1.000	0.774
P20 Feedback	1.000	0.580
P21 Teacher role	1.000	0.571
P22 Student role	1.000	0.478
Extraction method: Principal component analysis.		

Table 7.11 shows communalities before and after extraction. As can be seen, the initial communalities are all 1. This is due to the fact that the PCA works in the initial assumption that all variance is common. On the other hand, the communalities in the column label extraction reflect the common variance in the data structure. So, for example, 0.598 in the first row of Table 7.11 indicates that 59.8% of the variance associated with the first principle is common or shared variance. In Table 7.11, all the extraction is relatively high. This indicates that the components account for a high degree of variance within the variables.

Table 7.12 demonstrates the total variance explained. Table 7.12 presents information about initial eigenvalues, extraction, and rotation data. Eigenvalue is the sum of squared loading for a factor. It conceptually represents variance account for by a factor. The three columns under initial eigenvalues show the eigenvalue for all the variables before the extraction of the component. The total column shows the eigenvalue or the amount of the variance in the original variables account for each component. The percentage of variance column shows the percentage of the whole variance is

accounted for each component. The cumulative percentage column adds up the percentages so that at each point, one can easily decide what percentage of the variance is explained by the variables so far. For example, the cumulative percentage of the third component is the sum of the percentages of the first, second, and third component. The results are presented in Table 7.12. In Table 7.12, only the first 7 components recorded eigenvalues above 1(4.05, 2.52, 1.62, 1.59, 1.39, 1.36, 1.18). These seven components explained a total of 62.52% of the variance. Table 7.12indicates that factor 1 accounts for 18.44%, factor 2 (11.49%), factor 3 (7.38%), factor 4 (7.25%), factor 5 (6.34%), factor 6 (6.22%), and factor 7 (5.40) in all 22 variables.

Table 7.12. Total Variance Explained for the TLMP Principles

Component	**Initial Eigenvalues**			**Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings**		
	Total	**Percentage of Variance**	**Cumulative (%)**	**Total**	**Percentage of Variance**	**Cumulative (%)**
1	4.057	18.442	18.442	4.057	18.442	18.442
2	2.527	11.489	29.930	2.527	11.489	29.930
3	1.624	7.384	37.314	1.624	7.384	37.314
4	1.594	7.247	44.561	1.594	7.247	44.561
5	1.396	6.347	50.907	1.396	6.347	50.907
6	1.369	6.223	57.130	1.369	6.223	57.130
7	1.187	5.396	62.526	1.187	5.396	62.526
8	0.971	4.415	66.941			
9	0.951	4.324	71.265			
10	0.843	3.834	75.099			
11	0.777	3.531	78.630			
12	0.679	3.085	81.715			
13	0.612	2.781	84.496			
14	0.553	2.515	87.011			
15	0.539	2.451	89.462			
16	0.486	2.210	91.671			
17	0.440	1.999	93.670			

18	0.385	1.750	95.421			
19	0.357	1.625	97.045			
20	0.286	1.298	98.343			
21	0.195	0.888	99.231			
22 0.169 0.769			100.000			
Extraction method: Principal component analysis.						

Pallant (2005) argues that by using the Kaiser scale, it is found that a large number of elements are derived, so it is critical to look at the Scree Plot presented by SPSS. The thing you need to seek is an alteration (elbow) in the configuration of the plot. The results are presented in Figure 7.1.

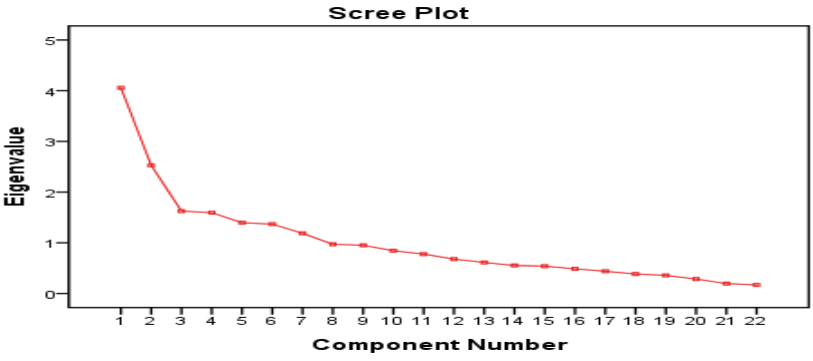


Figure 7.1. Scree plots of the eigenvalues for factor analysis on the TLMP principles.

The derived elements have value in themselves that is greater than one because, in the derivation method, the value inherent is at least set to one. Only the first seven elements certified for this view presented in Figure 7.1. It implies that 62.5% of the total variance is illustrated by these seven elements. Therefore, 22 main principles could be shortened to seven principles, and only 37.5% of the data can be lost. To aid the interpretation of these three components, Varmix rotation was performed. The rotated solution presented in Table 7.13 reveals the presence of a simple structure with three components, showing several strong loading.

Table 7.13. Rotated Component Matrix[a] for the Components of the TLMP Model

Principles Component			
Principles	**1**	**2**	**3**
P7 Time on task	**0.730**	0.061	0.072
P4 Fluency	**0.721**	–0.093	–0.109
P8 Depth of processing	**0.706**	0.060	–0.168
P3 Comp. input	**0.663**	0.051	–0.159
P6 Deliberate learning	**0.622**	–0.007	–0.246
P10 Learning style	**0.607**	0.003	0.181
P9 Integrative motivation	**0.603**	0.094	–0.234
P5 Output	**0.560**	0.112	0.085
P11 Frequency	0.143	**0.324**	0.308
P13 Spaced retrieval	0.143	**0.837**	–0.102
P14 Language system	0.193	**0.775**	0.098
P12 Strategies and autonomy	0.081	**0.647**	–0.184
P17 Learning burden	0.032	**0.525**	0.397
P18 Interference	–0.184	**0.409**	0.135
P21 Teacher role	–0.110	–0.153	**0.314**
P22 Student role	–0.165	–0.054	**0.562**
P1 motivation	**0.528**	–0.147	–0.003
P15 Keep moving forward	0.076	**0.514**	0.428
P20 Feedback	–0.270	–0.137	**0.444**
P16 Teachability	–0.011	**0.433**	0.145
P2 Four strands	**0.329**	0.223	–0.025
P19 Ongoing needs	–0.046	0.056	**0.059**
Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization.			
[a] Rotation converged in 5 iterations.			

As can be seen, component 1 encompasses principles 7, 4, 8, 3, 6, 10, 9, 5, 1, and 2. The set of principles is labeled format and presentation. The second component includes Principles 11, 13, 14, 12, 17, 18, 15, and 16. This group of principles has a content label and sequence. The third component includes Principles 21, 22, 20, and 19. This group of principles is labeled monitoring and evaluating. Table 7.14 summarizes the components and the corresponding principles.

Table 7.14. Components and Their Corresponding Principles

S L . No.	Components	Principles
1.	Format and presentation	7,4,8,3,6,10,9,5,1,2
2.	Content and sequencing	11,13, 14, 12,17,18,15,16
3.	Monitoring and assessment	21,22,20,19

The three-factor solution described 37.5% of the variances with 17% for the first component, 11.75% for the second component, and 8.5% for the third component. It is worth mentioning that because of the ignorance of the items with loading factors below three, the number of items in the questionnaire was authenticated to 22 principles. The principles proposed that the components are interrelated to each other. Figure 7.2 represents the interrelation among the dialogic model.

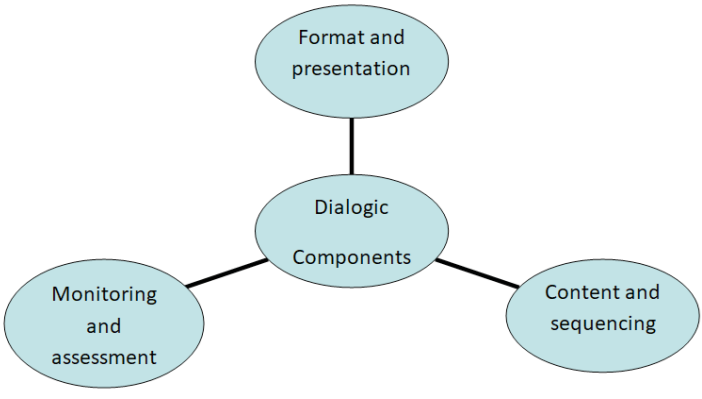
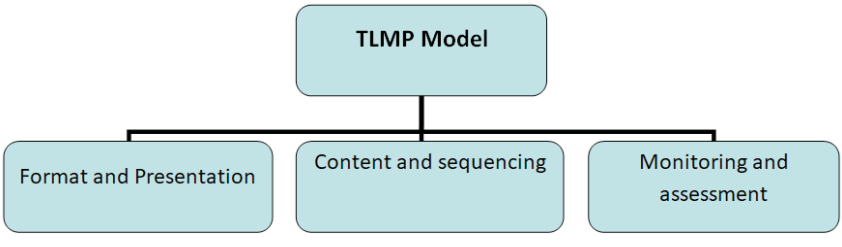


Figure 7.2. *Interrelationship among the components of the Dialogic model.*

Each component presented in Figure 7.3 encompasses different subcomponents. Figure 7.3 illustrates the TLMP model along with the different components.



•Motivation	•Frequency	•*Ongoing needs and*
•Four strands	•Strategies and autonomy	•Environment analysis
•Comprehensible input	•Spaced retrieval	•Feedback
•Input	•Language system	•Teacher role
•Fluency	•Keep moving forward	•Student role
•Output	•Teachability	–
•Deliberate learning	•Learning burden	–
•Time on task	•Interference	–
•Depth of processing	–	–

Figure 7.3. Components of the TLMP model.

The final validated version of the TLMP model was developed. Table 7.15 indicates the modified version of the proposed model.

Table 7.15. Modified Model for Dialogic Teaching and Materials Development

A.	**Format and Presentation**
Motivation	ELT materials should motivate students to reflect on their learning by linking their knowledge to their real-life situation in a dialogical method, interaction between teacher and learners.
Four strands	ELT materials have learners focus on how to make meaning by incorporating their status (i.e., social, economic, socioeconomic).
Comprehensible input	Materials should help the learners become critical reflective by providing comprehensible receptive activity in listening and reading through discussion.
Fluency	ELT materials should make use of discussion through the topic of great concern to participants (i.e., cultural, political, cultural, and political)
Output	Critical ELT materials are co-built around problem posing by inviting learners to examine the course content from the practical context of the classroom in both speaking and writing.

Deliberate learning	Materials should foster an enriched language learning context by drawing explicit linkage between theory and practice so that learners find the pedagogical application.
Time on task	As much as possible should be spent focusing on reflective tasks to foster learners' intellectual ability.
Depth of processing	ELT materials should help learners process the course content thoughtfully (develop their critical literacy) by in-depth analysis of the discussed topic.
Integrative Motivation	ELT materials should integrate both social development and language skill development to go beyond the understanding of the texts.
Learning style	Learners should have an opportunity to work the learning materials in ways thatmost suit their culture, society, learning style, culture, society, and learning style.
B.	**Content and Sequencing**
Frequency	Contents should be negotiated with the best possible coverage of humanizedpedagogy.
Strategies and autonomy	Materials should help learners become self-directed through contextualization.
Spaced retrieval	ELT materials should provide repeated opportunities for learners to retrieve information from authentic materials.
Language system	The language focus should speed up both collective social transformation and cognitive development.
Keep moving forward	ELT material should progressively help learners develop a critical awareness of their social, political, sociopolitical context.
Teachability	Teaching is a cycle of reflection and action by embracing learners' critical needs analysis.
Learning burden	Materials should help learners challenge their assumptions concerning the course.
Interference	ELT materials should sequence from more familiar the less familiar hidden curriculum by incorporating learners' background experience into the new context.
C.	**Monitoring and Assessment**
Ongoing needs, environment analysis	Both students' critical language awareness and linguistic skills should be evaluated through self-assessment, class assessment, and dynamic assessment.

Feedback	Learners should receive implicit feedback that allows them to develop critical thinking.
Teacher role	Materials should take into account the teacher as co-learner, coordinator**,** and problem poser.
Student role	Students are active decision-makers who participate in assessing their performance.

7.5. INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF TLMP PRINCIPLES

When the questionnaire was validated successfully, it was administered to the target population to gather the required information in the research questions. More than 120 questionnaires were administered to the participants via email. Out of this number, 90 questionnaires were returned. It should be noted that many of the questionnaires were not useable because some of the participants either had left many items blank or mark the same scale in all items. Consequently, 70 questionnaires were recognized as qualified for analysis. The researcher used estimated the internal consistency of the TLMP model through Cronbach's Alpha. Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the total scale came out to be 0.872, which is satisfactory. Making sure that the instrument is both reliable and valid; we can now go for the research questions to evaluate EFL learners' attitudes toward the TLMP model in their L2 methodology course. This brings us to the data analysis section. However, due to a large number of analyzes in this research, the discussion will come with the results.

7.5.1. Contract Grading System: The TLMP Assessment Rating Scale

In the philosophy of CP, assessment, and evaluation is considered to be a crucial issue due to its rejection of psychometric testing as they only " serve to fragment, narrow, deflect, and trivialize the curriculum, but they are used in school because it has been claimed that they a scientific tool that can measure students' progress" (Kincheloe cited in Moreno-Lopez, 2005). To comply with the objective, the researcher proposed a TLMP assessment contract rating scale.

The TLMP assessment rating scale, drawing Shor's (1996) contract grading system, blends conventional and alternative assessment. This

grading system is based on the course members' portfolios, which consist of reflective dialog journals, self-assessment, class-assessment, informed class participation, and final exam. Students are required to sign an assessment contract rating scale comprised sections (A, B, C, and D). Each section determines the students' level of involvement, quality, and quantity of works. Each student determines his/her grade at the end. Besides, they are asked to fill up a self-assessment rating scale comprised of 16 questions in a Likert scale format. The questions were extracted from the literature and students' writing about the self-assessment. Students should select the options based on the level of their involvement and the quality of their activity. The teacher finally approves what has been completed by the students. What follows illustrates a sample of assessment van is employed in a dialogic classroom.

7.6. TLMP ASSESSMENT CONTRACT RATING SCALE

Dear students,

The class grade will be determined as follows. Please note each class member should fill up his/her assessment-rating scale and determine his/her grade based on his/her assessment, that should be finally approved by the teacher (Tables 7.16 and 7.17).

Table 7.16. Assessment Contract Rating Scale in a Dialogic Teaching Classroom

For an "A" Grade	For a "B" Grade	For a "C" Grade	For a "D" Grade

1 Absence 2 Late arrivals to class (no more than 5 minutes late) No early departures from the class All written works handed in on time 8 Reflective journals 2 Self-assessments 2 Class assessments "A" quality on written work[a] Very active class participation[b]	2 Absences Three late arrivals to class (no more than 5 minutes late) One early departure from the class One late written work assignment 6 Reflective journals 2 Self-assessments 2 Class assessments "B" quality on written work Active class participation	3 Absences four late arrivals to class (no more than 5 minutes late) Two early departures from the class Two late written work assignments 4 Reflective journals 1 Self-assessment 1 Class assessment "C" quality on written work Little class participation	4 Absences Five late arrivals to class (no more than 5 minutes late) Three early departures from the class Three late written work assignments 3 Reflective journals 1 Self-assessment 1 Class assessment "D" quality on written work No class participation
Final exam	Final exam	Final exam	Final exam

Note: [a] A very active, informed class participant can ask and answer both the classmates' questions. She/he can offer his/her opinion in the class discussion and make comments.

[b] *An "A" quality on the written work means the course members can discuss the major assumptions of the course content critically through the reflective journals. Their writing indicates an in-depth reading of the course materials; they can voice their opinion in English that avoid careless and obvious language mistakes. In other words, it sounds scientific with clarity of formal structure. To avoid the subjectivity of no. 5 and 6, the course members are required to fill up the self-assessment rating scale questionnaire to specify what A, B, C, D quality means.*

Please determine your own grade (A, B, C, or D):
Full name: …….
Signature: ……
Evaluation: ……

Table 7.17. A Sample of Assessment Contract Rating Scale

SL. No.	Topic	Percentage	Teacher Assessment
1.	Attendance	5	
2.	Reflective journals	10	
3.	Self-assessment	5	
4.	Class assessment	5	
5.	Quality of the written work	15	
6.	Informed class participation	40	
7.	Final Examination	20	
8.		**Total**	

7.7. SELF-ASSESSMENT RATING SCALE

Please fill out this questionnaire by checking the appropriate box. You should rate the quality of your written work and your class participation as: 1 = Never; 2 = Seldom; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; 5 = Always.

SL. No.	Criteria	1	2	3	4	5
1.	I ask the teacher questions in the class.					
2	I ask my classmates questions in the class.					
3.	I answer the questions that my classmates ask.					
4.	I answer the questions that my teacher asks.					
5.	I offer my opinion in the class discussion.					
6.	I made comments on the readings and my classmates' journal.					
7.	I can write the major assumptions of the course content critically.					
8.	I can understand the course content, and I can relate it to my experience in my writing.					

9.	In my writing, I establish a connection between the topic discussed in the class and my real-life experience.					
10.	I could voice my opinion and my classmates' experience in my reflective journal.					
11.	I could critically analyze the ideas expressed by my classmates in the class discussion in my writing assignment					
12.	I reflect on different aspects of the course such as materials selection, teacher role, student role, and assessment.					
13.	My writing indicates in-depth reading of course and full participation in discussion.					
14.	My writing indicates a scientific soundness with the clarity of formal structure.					
15.	I wrote the reflective journal in English and avoid obvious language mistake.					

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Education in the Third Millennium: Towards an Operational Model in Language Teaching

The general dissatisfaction with the efficiency of the mainstream English language teaching (ELT) in teaching English as a foreign language context (TEFL) has been discussed in expanding and outer circle countries (e.g., Bangladesh, Ghana, the Philippines, China, Egypt, Korea, Iran, Japan, Russia, to name but a few) and at different national and international conferences and symposiums. The main dissatisfaction concerns the centralized, top-down educational management and policy. Most of the teaching models and materials fail to meet the needs of learners. Notably, they do not provide a linkage between the content and the real-life concerns (i.e., society) of learners. Thus, this dissatisfaction gives rise to adopt different internationally marketed materials in the classroom. The problem emerges due to the fact that internationally marketed materials disseminate western cultural values by providing a utopian environment to the learners. Accordingly, the need is felt to accommodate ELT materials in the EFL classrooms in the TEFL contexts to serve the local needs. With the development of critical approaches in education and their application to the field of ELT and the hidden curriculum (HC), the local perspectives towards the ELT industry in the world are emerging worldwide. Considering the notion that ELT has been regarded as a political activity, it is crystal transparent that language policymakers should not contemplate ELT as a value-free or a mere educational concern. Notably, they should approach education, in general, and teaching methods as well as materials development, in particular, from the sociocultural and sociopolitical dimension. These perspectives realize the notion of a hidden aspect in education. This aspect is the hidden curriculum and value that is inherent in any educational material. Probably, one approach to meet such a demand for domesticating ELT and helping students think about their learning can be critical thinking (CT) and critical language pedagogy (CLP) with a hope to transform the knowledge in the real-world situation.

This book intends to provide a transformative effect on learners by changing their attitudes through looking at their social problems and real-life concern of the learners. More precisely, the book aims to propose the application of critical language pedagogy in ELT classrooms and to provide practical guidelines/principles for implementing such an approach. In so doing, this book looks at education in the third millennium and proposes an operational model in language teaching. Above all, the book has been arranged in two parts. Part I encompasses six chapters dealing with the political dimension of language teaching, dialogic teaching, critical thinking, and critical language pedagogy from a theoretical and operational perspective, and the critical issues in materials development. Specifically, this section provides an overview of critical approaches to pedagogy, current and future trend in ELT, origin and historical perspective of critical pedagogical thought, syllabus design, materials preparation, developing counter-hegemonic materials, assessment, and grading in critical approaches to language teaching. Section II provides a practical conceptualization of critical language pedagogy. This part deals with postulating a dialogical model with the hope of implementing it in the classroom. This model provides transformative-based instruction. It comes into three parts, including format and presentation, content, and sequencing, monitoring, and assessment. This model can shed light on making a dynamic classroom and provides a springboard to implement dialogic teaching. As a note of caution, we would like to notify you that developing and implementing such a transformative model is not signposted. This model may create dilemmas and obstacles in the EFL context. Accordingly, teachers should plan for the risks it involves, since the proponent of transformative materials developers fly in the face of priorities of the status quo. The lack of interest of centralized institutions, the banking background of teachers, and students in transformative innovations might interfere with the dynamicity of the course.

We hope that the content presented here and the model generated as the cornerstone of the book open a new horizon to teachers, materials developers, and language policymakers.

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