People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Frères Mentouri University, Constantine 1

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of Letters and English

Investigating the Place of Critical Pedagogy in the Algerian Secondary School EFL classes

Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English in Candidacy for the Degree of

L.M.D. Doctorate in "Didactique des Langues Etrangères"

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2020/2021

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family

To my late father, Allah have mercy on him for setting a true example for me to follow

To my mother, The strong, the amazing, and all around awesome person

To my brothers: Bilal, Iheb, and Sami, each for being ,the best brother one could hope for

To my wife: Rim, the kind, loving and sweet partner in life, in studies, and everything between

To my son: Yazan, this work is an example for you to strive toward

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor

Professor Sarah Merrouche for the genuine guidance, and

sincere help she offered me since the first day she started

teaching me twelve years ago. I would also like to extend my

gratitude to the entire members of the board of examiners

for dedicating the time to examine my thesis.

Abstract

Critical Pedagogy is commonly defined as a philosophy of education and social movement that stems from critical theory and the field of education. It advocates for social justice and democracy and argues that both cannot be separated from the acts of teaching and learning. In this thesis, we explored the place that critical pedagogy holds within English as Foreign language Algerian secondary school textbooks, "At the Crossroads", "Getting Through", and "New Prospects" respectively. To achieve this, the place and principles of critical Pedagogy were explored in the three aforementioned textbooks through a specifically created checklist. In addition to that, the views of teachers regarding critical pedagogy were investigated. For this aim, a questionnaire was administered to a sample of 60 teachers at the Wilaya of Oum El Bouaghi-Algeria. It focused on the teachers' familiarity with critical pedagogy, its main elements, and principles as well as exploring their daily classroom activities and habits in order to better understand the obstacles they face every day. The findings of the checklist highlight the rigid structure and format that Algerian secondary textbooks follow. The textbooks follow a competency based approach with an element of project based learning. Themes are set prior to the start of teaching and by an external higher authority (the Ministry of Education). Thus, any room for adaptation is lost since the teacher is forced to remain relevant in terms of theme and language points. On the same line of thought, the marginalization of the learners is exposed and highlighted in the findings by the exclusion of their needs when designing lessons or setting aims. The goals of learning a foreign language are set by the ministry of education, and are limited to acquiring the ability to master the target language to communicate effectively. The analysis of the questionnaire has revealed major insights into the practices of the Algerian secondary school teachers. First, most of teachers follow the aims set in the textbook to the letter. Consequently, the needs of the learners are neglected or minimally considered at best. Most teachers are more

concerned with students achieving language skills than for them to be active agents who can lead social change movements. It all boils down to how teachers see themselves: the authority in class, the knower, the knowledge transmitter, unlike students who are delegated to secondary roles. Furthermore, the findings in this thesis provide pedagogical implications for both the need of critical pedagogy in textbooks as well as the need for teachers training to better include its principles in their teaching. These implications will be useful for critical pedagogy researchers and teachers who find themselves inspired and want to contribute to its theory and practice.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BA: Bachelor Degree

CBA: Competency Based Approach

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

CP: Critical Pedagogy

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ENS: Ecole Normale Superieure

ESL: English as a Second Language

N: Number

Q: Question

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Content

Introduction

Chapter One: Critical Pedagogy in EFL Teaching and Learning

Chapter Two: Textbook Evaluation in EFL Teaching and Learning

Chapter Three: The Place of Critical Pedagogy in the Algerian Secondary School Textbooks of English

Chapter Four: Teachers in Action: Field Investigation

Chapter Five: Pedagogical Implications

Appendixes

-Appendix I: The Evaluation Guide

-Appendix II: Teachers' Questionnaire

INTRODUCTION

1. Background of the Study

2. Aims of the Study

3. Hypotheses

4. Research Means and Procedure

5. Overview of the Thesis

1. Background of the Study

Critical Pedagogy (CP) is an approach to language teaching and learning which aims to humanize and empower learners (Aliakbari and Faraji, 2011). It does so by taking into account the differences in race, gender, age, and social class that divide humans (Knowles Jr and Lovern, 2015). For CP, knowledge is political and not neutral, that means it is a construct that is negotiated between the teacher and the learners. This knowledge is not transformable; it extends to the community beyond the school walls (Kinchloe, 2008). That is why learners must have the power and the critical thinking necessary to participate in this process. The former refers to the ability to do something or act in a particular way without being oppressed to do so, while the latter means not accepting norms as truths (Friere, 1970).

Furthermore, CP aims to cause social change, and that is done through empowering learners against oppression in their daily lives by taking into account their lived experiences and social context into the learning process. It also aims to grant learners the ability to identify problems in their own environment and to seek solutions based on that identification (Crooks, 2013). McLaren states that the aims of CP are: "to develop a microcosm of democracy within the classroom, a dialectical understanding of the world, and a critical understanding of the hidden effects of power and privilege on a society that claims to give equal opportunity to all" (as cited in Mencke, p 28).

The need for critical pedagogy practices stems from the fact that the Algerian school system at all levels adopts the Competency Based Approach (CBA) as its leading approach and teaching method. The principle aim of CBA is to facilitate communication by arming the

learners with competencies of different kinds to help them in real life context. The syllabus views The English language as a commodity to be acquired and passed along to learners to be used in the global market. This view to language and its users neglects the human side of the teaching and learning process, and allocates learners to mere receivers of knowledge. On the other hand, CP aims to humanize and empower the learners regardless of their age, gender, or race. Whereas CBA aims for communication, CP aims for social change. So, the question is how much of CP principles and elements are there in CBA. In other words, does CBA as it is implemented and presented in the Algerian EFL secondary school textbooks share any similarities with CP or not?

2. Aims of the Study

Through this study, we aim to have a better understanding of the history of CP, its evolution to what it is today, and its basic components. We Also aim to investigate the place of CP, its principles, and elements within the Algerian EFL Secondary school textbooks. Furthermore, we aim to identify the teachers' understanding of CP's elements and principles, and the way they actually set aims, design lessons, and teach in class. The information collected will serve to make recommendations as to how best to teach about the target language in the Algerian context.

3. Research Questions and Hypotheses

This thesis attempts to answer the following questions:

-What is the place of CP in the Algerian CBA based textbooks?

-What is the perception the Algerian secondary teachers have about CP and the roles it requires them to play inside the classroom?

-How much of CP do teachers apply in their classroom activities to promote awareness about the oppression and marginalization the Algerian learners are exposed to?

In line with the raised questions, the following hypotheses were made:

H1: CP would a vital place in the Algerian EFL secondary school textbook

H2: Algerian EFL teachers would demonstrate an acceptable level of understanding of CP's principles and elements in their teaching.

H3: Algerian EFL teachers apply little or no activities to promote awareness about the oppression and marginalization the Algerian learners are exposed to.

4. Research Means and Procedure

Our research is both qualitative and quantitative in nature. As such, we devised a two-way research method. First, we designed a checklist to identify the components of CP in the three secondary school textbooks. The checklist is divided into 5 sections: Program, Content, Learners/Teachers, and pedagogical factors. Each section investigates a factor of the teaching and learning process. The program factor covers the rationale and aim of the textbook. The content factor covers the authenticity, appropriacy and flexibility of the textbook. The learners/teachers factor covers the roles given to both in the textbook. The pedagogical factor deals with the methodology, design , type of teaching activities used in the textbook as well as the place of both the target culture and the native culture in the textbook.

We have also devised a teachers' questionnaire at the secondary school level. The questionnaire contains 37 questions divided into four main sections. Section one titled "general Information" seeks to have a general knowledge about the informants. Section two titled "Pre-Classroom Practices" deals with the practices teachers resort to prior to starting the lesson. Section three titled "Teacher's During Class Activities" deals with the type of activities and tasks teachers apply during the lesson. The final section is titled "Teacher's

After Class activities", as the name suggests, inquires about the activities and tasks teachers finish the lesson with.

5. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into five chapters: two theoretical chapters, and three practical chapters. The first chapter titled "Critical Pedagogy in EFL Teaching and Learning" deals with the birth of CP, its elements, basic principles, and its relationship with EFL teaching and learning. The chapter begins with an examination of the different definitions of critical pedagogy followed by a close look at its history and roots. The chapter then deals with the different elements of CP: power, knowledge, and conscientization as well as its governing principles: the problem posing education, learners' voice, and praxis. Major criticism towards CP was also covered next; the place of CP in EFL teaching and learning was touched upon in order to better understand how the hidden curriculum influences the teachers and learners' roles in the classroom. The chapter is then concluded by tackling CP and assessment.

The second chapter titled "Textbooks in EFL Teaching and Learning" deals with textbook evaluation in EFL teaching and learning. The chapter starts with an elaboration on the palace of textbooks in EFL teaching and learning, and the roles the textbook plays as well as its advantages and disadvantages in the teaching process. The chapter also covers why textbook evaluation is important, and lists a comprehensive list of the different types of evaluation types and models.

The third chapter titled "The Place of Critical Pedagogy in The Algerian Secondary Textbooks of English" explores the research methodology employed. Discussions in this chapter include the research design used, and methods of data analysis employed. The chapter investigates the place of CP in the Algerian secondary school textbook of English across all levels using the created checklist. The findings highlight the lack of integration of CP's

elements and principles within the secondary school textbook across all levels. Thus, CP has no vital place in the Algerian secondary school textbooks.

The fourth chapter is titled "Teachers in Action: Field Investigation". It investigates the perceptions of the Algerian EFL teachers towards CP, its principles, and application in their daily classroom activities. The analysis of the questionnaire has revealed that the teachers have little understanding of the basic elements and principles of CP. This lack of understanding is presented in how teachers monopolize power, transmit knowledge, and neglect critical thinking in favor of communicative competence.

The final chapter titled "Pedagogical Implications" closes the thesis with the implications of the findings both on the pedagogical front and the future studies that may aim to investigate the same topic.

Chapter One: Critical Pedagogy in EFL Teaching and Learning

Introduction

 1.1. Definitions of Critical Pedagogy

1.2. Historical Roots of Critical Pedagogy

1.3. Elements of Critical Pedagogy

1.3.1. Power

1.3.2. Knowledge

1.3.3. Conscientization

1.4. Principles of Critical Pedagogy

1.4.1. Problem Posing Education

1.4.2. Learners' Voice

1.4.3. Praxis

1.4.4. Dialogue and Generative Themes

1.1.5. Criticism towards Critical Pedagogy

1.2.1. Critical Pedagogy and EFL Teaching and Learning

1.2.2. Elements of Critical Pedagogy in EFL Teaching and learning

1.2.2.1. Critical Pedagogy and the Hidden Curriculum

1.2.2.2. Critical Pedagogy and the Teacher's Role

1.2.2.2. Critical pedagogy and the Learner's Role

1.2.2.4. Critical Pedagogy and Assessment

Conclusion

Introduction

Critical Pedagogy is a philosophy of education that is concerned with social change. As its name implies, CP is critical of the status quo. It seeks to demolish the old structures by shifting power from those who have it to those who do not.

This chapter covers the theoretical foundation of CP. It mainly covers the definitions, elements, and principles of PC. It also covers the criticism towards CP as well is its history within EFL.

1.1. Definitions of Critical Pedagogy

Critical Pedagogy (CP) is an old concept, a merger between educational philosophy and critical theory of the Frankfurt school (Aliakbari and Faraji, 2009, p5). It is concerned primarily with social change, negotiating power between teachers and students, and how knowledge is produced. This knowledge is not transformable; it is constructed with students and extends to the community beyond the school walls (Kinchloe, 2008). The end game of Critical Pedagogy is to cause social change (Kincheloe, 2004). The social change CP seeks to implement goes through empowering people against oppression in their daily lives (Hawkins and Norton, 2009) as well as the use of democratic and active means of teaching and learning (Shore, 1987).

Critical Pedagogy takes into account the difference in race, gender, and social class that divide humans (Knowles Jr and Lovern, 2015). According to Christensen and Aldridge:

> Critical pedagogy is theoretically grounded; realizes that there is no such thing
> as a neutral education; is aware of the political nature of education; does not view
> education and life itself from a reductionist or a deterministic point of view; seeks
> to comprehend the link between knowledge and power; is contextually attentive;

promotes human rights, justice, and democracy; is a process of transformation; is a way of thinking; pays attention to gender, class, race, and ethnicity issues and its relationship with oppression/liberation; moves both teacher and student in a horizontal relationship as subjects; challenges the status quo; and is continuously evolving. (Christensen and Aldridge, 2013, p 3)

Critical Pedagogy includes lived experiences and social context into the learning process with the aim of making social change happen (Loveless and Griffith, 2014). These varied situations allow learners to "more fully appreciate and accept people, their varied forms of knowledge, and the contextual situations beyond their familiar and immediate social and physical surroundings and lives" (Simon, 1988).

Critical Pedagogy in the context of language teaching also focuses on social values like justice, equality, and citizenship; It is based on a social justice that wants to cause change (Jeyaraj, 2014). It seeks to empower citizens through active learning in order to identify problems in their own environment and to seek solutions based on that identification (Crooks, 2013). According to Accbari: "Critical pedagogy in ELT is an attitude to language teaching which relates the classroom context to the wider social contexts and aims at social transformation through education" (2008, p 276). McLaren (2013) views CP as a movement involving relationships of teaching and learning so that students gain a critical self-consciousness and social awareness and take appropriate action against oppressive forces.

Critical Pedagogy is also a cognitive act, a thinking process about how to make change happen. Its scope of interests is so vast it covers: negotiating and, transforming the relationship among classroom teaching, the production of knowledge, the institutional structures of the school, and the social and material relationships of the wider community, society, and nation state (McLaren, 1997). It requires such a scope because it is tasked with

such a huge goal of causing social change through the creation of new knowledge in the world around us (Crooks, 2013). Shore (Empowering Education, p129) offers a lengthy definition of CP as an action that tries to understand how the world works. He states that CP is:

> "Habits of thought, reading, writing, and speaking which go beneath surface meaning, first impressions, dominant myths, official pronouncements, traditional clichés, received wisdom, and mere opinions, to understand the deep meaning, root causes, social context, ideology, and personal consequences of any action, event, object, process, organization, experience, text, subject matter, policy, mass media, or discourse".

Critical Pedagogy can simply be defined by what it wants to achieve. The major goal of CP, as Vandrick (1994) claims, is to educate all people regardless of their gender, class, race, etc. Critical Pedagogy is concerned with democratic education and social and individual improvement (Giroux, 1992). McLaren states the aims of CP as follows: "It aims to develop a microcosm of democracy within the classroom, a dialectical understanding of the world, and a critical understanding of the hidden effects of power and privilege on a society that claims to give equal opportunity to all" (as cited in Mencke, p 28). Freire identifies the aim of CP as to cultivate growth through the use of dialogue, for men and women to develop their own power and to also develop the critical perception of their own place in the world, and for them finally to understand the world is always changing (1970). Gor (2005) declares the major goals of CP to be awareness raising and rejection of violation and discrimination against people.

The different perspectives offered above highlight the huge scope CP occupies and still want to occupy. From cognition to reality and beyond, CP wants to change the individual in

order to change the world. It is thinking, action, and rethinking in a continuous process of change.

1.2. Historical Roots of Critical Pedagogy

Critical Pedagogy is the result of an impressive blend of elements from different theoretical standpoints (Guilherme, 2002, p22), mainly that of critical theory, postmodernism, and Paulo Freire's work (1970, 1983, 2000, 2005,). It did not start with Freire's work but it gained recognition because of it. Critical Pedagogy gained an international audience with the 1967 publication of Freire's Pedagogy of the Oppressed and its English translation 1970 (Kincheloe, 2012, p151).

Critical theory of the Frankfurt Schools was developed based on Karl Marx's ideas (Breunig, 2009, p 248), Hegel's work, Kant's critical philosophy (Abraham, 2014, p2). Critical theory challenges constructs such as naturalism, rationality, and neutrality, referencing instead the subjective, the social, and the partisan nature of reality, and the ways in which our understandings of the world are constructed by contextual factors that are ideologically informed (Hawkins and Norton, 2009, p1). All of that for the hope of better understanding how oppression works, and to challenge the status quo, or as Gordon (1995) asserts:

> "Critical theory seeks to understand the origins and operation of repressive social structures. Critical theory is the critique of domination. It seeks to focus on a world becoming less free, to cast doubt on claims of technological scientific rationality, and then to imply that present configurations do not have to be as they are" (p. 190).

Critical Pedagogy which was born at the hands of Paulo Freire took the principles of critical theory and implemented them in a real education setting. Freire is recognized as the founder of CP, the inaugural philosopher of critical pedagogy (McLaren, 2000). Giroux asserts that 'in some quarters his name has become synonymous with the very concept and practice of critical pedagogy' (1994a, p141). According to Kincheloe, "Emerging from Paulo Freire's work in poverty stricken northeastern Brazil in the 1960s, CP amalgamated liberation theological ethics and the critical theory of the Frankfurt School in Germany with the progressive impulses in education" (2007, p12).

Freire contributed a great deal of work to CP's body of work. Many if not all the terminology used today is coined by him. His famous dichotomies: the oppressor/oppressed, banking education/problem posing education, teacher/learner power, and Praxis are still used today. We can see that CP has developed from the merging of theory into a practical setting. This merger done by Freire was revolutionary in that it paved the way for using theoretical ideas and testing them in a real setting.

Freire (1970) may have laid the ground, but it was Apple (1983) who gave CP its name, put it under the spotlight, and had it take its place as the newest and most interesting teaching philosophy in recent years. Apple questioned the value of an education that did not address social injustices, and grappled with societal labels of "less than" with respect to people in poverty (Apple, 2012a). As a critical pedagogue, Apple postulates that traditional education is not neutral. Rather, it is political, designed to advance the interests of the groups in power and privilege (as cited in Kirylo, 2013, p3). Apple supports educational activism which embraces principles of critical pedagogy whereby rational educators are fully aware of societal power dynamics that illuminates abuses of power, domination, and exploitation, particularly as it relates to curricula practices (Apple 1996). Because power influences educational policies and practices, and because he critically questions neoliberal and

neoconservative philosophies, Apple supports a restructuring of traditional schooling to create a space for transforming education, one that does not romanticize the notion that "everyone is the same" (Apple, 2004, p27). Apple challenges educators worldwide to implement transformative education in order to nurture epistemological spaces essential to freedom, democracy and social justice. Additionally, he reminds educators to maintain their movement toward critical consciousness while confronting issues of power and privilege (Apple & Beane, 2007).

1.3. Elements of Critical Pedagogy

Throughout the literature, CP mainly focuses on three elements: how power is negotiated, how knowledge is transmitted, and how consciousness is formed. According to McKernan (2013, p425):" Critical pedagogy is a movement involving relationships of teaching and learning". As such, any power struggle, knowledge transfer between teachers and students is naturally going to be the focus in CP.

1.3.1. Power

A great deal of work in CP has focused on the helpless status of learners and has explored ways in which teachers can empower their students (Shor, 1996). McLaren (1989) asserts that the major concern of CP is the centrality of politics and power in our understanding of how schools work. Thomson-Bunn defines those who have power as the ones who have the ability to include or exclude in a classroom (2014). One of the central aims of CP is to give power to students to change their reality (Boegeman, 2013). Power greatly influences educational policies (Kirylo, 2013, p1); therefore, there is a need for an educational system where critical teachers are aware of their power and how it works to illuminate injustice, exposes exploitation and domination (Apple, 1996).

The question raised by CP is whether power can be transmitted from teachers to students, and if so, can we really imagine teachers giving up their power, and can we call that real transmission since teachers willingly gave up their authority. Gor (1998) thinks that it is more interesting and useful to work on putting this power to good use than to imagine it can be removed (pp. 247-249). To her, power is not to be imagined as a property that can be traded; instead, we ought to think of it as something more complex, as something that circulates (as cited in Johnston, 1999, p560).

We can see that there are two schools of thought on the matter of power. One where teachers are to give up power from the goodness of the hearts and let students take control or at least contribute; The other idea is for learners to take matters into their own hands and take what is theirs. A third stream located in the middle believes that It is up to the learners to empower themselves through taking advantage of learning contexts created by their teachers (Bartolome, 2003 as cited in MENCKE, 2010, p36). If teachers do share their power and the learner seized it that would lead to a democratic classroom characterized by dialogue between the two.

1.3.2. Knowledge

Whereas mainstream pedagogy treats knowledge as devoid of any moral, cultural or ethical character, CP regards everything as value-laden (Jeyaraj, 2014, p7). It views knowledge as something ever changing, negotiated, produced and reproduced over and over again, through a process of dialogue (Yulita, 2012, p31).

Freire stated that: «Knowledge was viewed as "a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing" (1970, p72). CP, however, sees that the teacher is not the all-knowing entity in class. He does not know everything, and he does not transfer everything he knows to his students. Students are not

14

passive;they do not receive what the teachers transmit and accept it at face value. Knowledge is spread horizontally rather than vertically (Freire, as cited in Boegeman 2013, p7).

CP takes interest in unknown, informal, obscure knowledge. A knowledge belonging to people who live on the fringes of life, a knowledge that is non-Western, subjugated, and indigenous, and knowledge from those groups whose lives are affected by the sting of poverty and oppression (Kincheloe, 2008, p11). The aim behind this Boegeman asserts, is:" not seek to assimilate but to empower, to recognize as legitimate the cultural contexts that make bodies of knowledge different from those of the status quo" (2013, p21).

The moment students are able to produce knowledge, therefore transforming their reality, they are then free of the dominant ideology forced upon them by others (Groves, Mencke, 2013). Unlike the traditional view to teaching where teachers deposit knowledge into students who receive it, keep it safe, and then turn it back in a system dubbed by Freire as the banking model (1970,2000) Freire proposes a new model called the problem posing education that encourages teachers to be learners as well and for knowledge to be produced based on the context the learners face and live every day which leads learners to:" 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" (1970, p64).

The link between knowledge and power is more evident than ever. Those who control knowledge, and mold it to their will control the power of perception, and therefore, reality. CP seeks to nullify this link, to neutralize knowledge from the daily struggles of life, and to offer multiple perspectives to the same reality because that is what reality is: multiple in perspective and non-static in nature. No one person can define it, nor can one perspective.

1.3.3. Conscientization

One of the aims of CP as its name suggests is that of being critical, to help one develop critical thought patterns in everyday life, so students do not simply accept norms as truth (Freire, 1970). Being critical also involves both "suspended judgment" and "reflection". The former deals with "delaying or stopping judgment from happening for a while, or until a decision is made about it" (Houghton and Yamada 2012, p57), while the latter involves "the ability to question what is presented, particularly reflection upon the experience; this is congruent with what critical pedagogy postulates in terms of reflecting on action and from reflection upon action to a new action" (Freire 1985, p50).

CP views students as agents of their own learning, as "critical intellectuals in dialogue with the teacher in a process whereby the "teacher presents the material to the students for their consideration, and re-considers his earlier considerations as the students express their own" (Freire 2009, p57). Such a practice allows students to dissect what the teacher presents as true knowledge through the lenses of their own reality, using the previously mentioned tools of delayed judgments and reflection, or as Mencke asserts: «Through critical analysis students are transformed by asking questions that challenge the contradictions of society and their lived experience. Contradictions become curiosities for student inquiry, and a dialectical view of knowledge helps to expose the half-truths of the dominant discourse" (2010, p42). Students need the opportunity to articulate and defend their ideas, theories, and beliefs, as well as have the opportunity to hear others' ideas and criticisms of their thoughts. (Devers, 2009, p24)

Freire states that there are four phases of critical awareness (1970, 1990, 2000) Intransitivity, semi-transitivity, naïve transitivity, and critical transitivity. First, Intransitivity that Freire labeled as "noncritical (in)action, where the individual cannot critically identify

the different social issues he faces, therefore becoming static in the face of an issue that demands him to be active. Second, semi-transitivity, where the individual's mind can move towards some sort of awareness about problems that are in his immediate biological and physical space; the person is able to identify the problems he faces, but he uses simple causality reasoning which leads him to oversimplification. The third face is what Freire called naïve transitivity, where the individual seeks magical, common, and oversimplified explanations. This phase is also marked by a belief that "good things will happen to good people just because they are good" (Avoseh and Shudak, 2015, p468). The last phase according to Freire (1997) is critical transitivity. The individual is at last at that phase where his mind is one with reality in a state of peace and love. The identifying of problems is deep and very perceptive, open to revision and ride of the magical element in explaining reality.

The process of Conscientization is very crucial in the transformation process CP seeks to implement. The process is layered and needs awareness from the teacher and the students as well as the will to enter a dialogue in which truth or what we think is the truth is evaluated and reevaluated constantly.

1.4. Principles of Critical Pedagogy

Seeing that Paulo Freire was the inaugural philosopher of Critical pedagogy ((McLaren, 2000), it makes sense that his terminology and principles would be used when describing CP. His pioneer work in describing the state of education, how it should be, teachers and learners' roles in it & the perfect way to achieve all of that still holds true today.

1.4.1. The Problem Posing Education

While teaching in the rural areas of North East Brazil, Freire was concerned how economic conditions affected the Illiterate Peasants there. That feeling of oppression turned

into classroom behavior where they sat facing him, waiting for him to ask and answer all the questions, to them he was all knowing, all powerful. Freire dubbed that the banking model of education (Tewell, 2015). He meticulously identifies the banking educations as:

"An act of depositing, in which, the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor. Instead of communicating, the teacher issues communiqués and makes deposits in which the students patiently receive, memorize, and repeat…the scope of action allowed to the students extends only so far as receiving, filing, and storing the deposits" (2000, p72).

Banking education assumes that knowledge is a possession that teachers need to give to students (Cozma and Popa, 2009, p5). Students are understood as empty receptacles, where the teacher makes various deposits of knowledge and information that the student should passively receive, store, memorize, and repeat (Freire, 1970). Teachers and curriculum have the "right answers" which students are expected to regurgitate onto tests (Peterson, 2009 as cited in Mencke and Price, 2013, p91). The teacher "deposits knowledge" in students and uses questions to "withdraw" such knowledge through examination. The knowledge does not belong to students, hence, the metaphor of banking. Freire identifies banking education as one in which "knowledge is a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those they consider to know nothing" (2002: p72). Such a system is a primary culprit of both creating and supporting systematic oppression (1972, p72).

To counter the negative aspects of banking education, Freire proposed what called the problem posing education. This model of teaching and learning is based on generative themes. Generative themes are themes extracted from the students' reality, and therefore teachers can relate them directly to the teaching process. Such themes can be agreed upon via dialogue which is always open between teachers and students. Educators must create opportunities for students to engage in dialogic co-investigations alongside the teacher, and

study problems identified by and of consequence to the learners (Freire, 2000, p81). Freire advocates the problem posing education because he believed it could lead to critical consciousness, which in turn leads students to take the necessary actions to improve their life conditions (1970). He also states that:

"In problem-posing education, 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" (2000, p64).

Problem posing education starts with the identification of a problem that comes from students (Naiditch, 1997). The aim here is to raise a discussion that will ultimately lead to change, that change is only possible if accompanied by some kind of action (Freire, 2006). Freire (p 64) also states that:

"In problem-posing education, 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" (as cited in Mencke and Pricep, 2013, p91).

Through problem posing education and questioning the problematic issues in learners' lives, students learn to think critically and develop a critical consciousness which helps them to improve their life conditions and to take necessary actions to build a more just and equitable society.

The problem posing education involves identifying the problem, understanding that problem, making meaningful relationships between that problem and other problems, then analyzing the cause and effects of that problem, and finally creating solutions (Naiditch, p97). This process is known as praxis, the process by which teachers and students commit to

education that leads to action and reflection on that action. This process has multiple stages (ANDRADE and, MORRELL, 2008, p25).

A. Identify a problem

The process of identifying real life problems and seeking solutions to is called Generative themes. Generative themes are real issues taken from students' immediate experiences and everyday life as the starting points for problem-posing and as central resources for critical learning in the curriculum. Freire's critical pedagogical approach involves teaching learners how to read the world, and employs students' language and experiences as the basis of instruction (Freire, 2000, as cited in Yulita, 2012, p32). Reflection is defined as: "exemplifying a greater consciousness of how lived experiences shape meaning-making and their relationship to others" (Givens, Generett & Hicks, 2004). Garvey Berger states that the importance of self-reflection lies in "its ability to push students to the edge of their knowledge" (as cited in MENCKE, 2004). This reflection will eventually lead to students generating themes based on their shared lived experiences which will lead to dialogue.

B. Analyze the problem

After recognizing a problem, it is time for some reflection defined by Givens Generett & Hicks (2004) as: "exemplifying a greater consciousness of how lived experiences shape meaning-making and their relationship to others ". Reflection leads to dialogue. The dialogue is a process of evaluation and revaluation done by both the teacher and the students; it is the key to putting the theory of critical pedagogy into practice (Freire, 1970). To Freire (1998), dialogue is the base of critical education in that it is one means of actively involving students in their own education. Problem posing education aims for "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" (Freire, 1970, p64). Such realization leads students to develop critical thinking skills (Shor, 1992, Quintero & Rummel, 2003).

The process starts with the identification of a problem that comes from students. It can be a personal, collective or social conflict that needs to be addressed. A teacher must be able to listen carefully to students in order to establish trust and to elicit the issues that the students bring to class (Naiditch, p97). The identification of a particular problem is done through reflection, that leads to action through a process of dialogue where students' voices are heard which leads to critical analysis that finally turns into action (MENCKE, 2010).

Dialogue must be founded upon love, humility, and faith, fostering a climate of mutual trust and respect. Rather than assuming their right to speak, the teacher learns to first listen to the students themselves, thus earning the right to be heard by their students. Freire argues that truly democratic classrooms must be open to students' curiosity, to their right to ask, disagree or criticize (Freire, 1998c). Dialogue is the key to putting the theory of critical pedagogy into practice (Freire, 1970), which in turn leads to the classroom becoming an inclusive environment that promotes multiple frames of knowledge as essential to the process of learning with and from one another.

C. Implement the plan of action

The long process will eventually end with critical analysis that begs students to ask questions, to transform consciousness, and be more challenging the status quo leading up to action. Action is the most important element for critical pedagogy to become transformative (Hicks et al., 2005). Freire (1970) refers to the action process as praxis, or theory leading to action. Praxis are the constant interplay between reflection and action such that one fuels the other in order to transform oppressive reality (ANDRADE, 2007, p49).

Freire (1970) distinguishes between banking education and problem posing education as follows:

Banking Education	Problem- Posing Education
- Reality as static and unchanging -The banking model consists of "transfer of information. -The banking model limits knowledge to vertical consumption. -The banking model "attempts to maintain the submersion of consciousness.	-Reality is a process, undergoing constant transformation. -The problem-posing model consists of "acts of cognition. -The problem-posing model expands knowledge to horizontal construction. -The problem-posing model "strives for the emergence of consciousness and critical intervention in reality.

Table 01: The Differences between the Banking Education and the Problem Posing Education

1.4.2. Learners' Voice

CP attempts to strengthen the voices of learners in order to promote social change through education (Jeyaraj, 2014). The aim is for "Teachers play a significant role in creating learning contexts in which students are able to empower themselves" (Bartolome, 2003, p 423). CP is able to play such a role because it possesses a transformative dimension that enables it to teach students to create social forms that are resistant to oppressive and anti-democratic ideologies (Brookfield, 2003). By listening to students the teacher once again becomes a learner and students are empowered as instrumental contributors to the learning process, leading to the creation of generative themes that will continue to mold how the course is formed and structured ((Brookfield, 2003).

CP requires a classroom environment that is democratic, where viewpoints of students are highlighted through discussion and debate and there is shared power and dialogue among teachers and students (Aliakbari & Allahmoradi, 2011 as cited in Bas, 2012, p28).

However, we may believe that CP as a student-centered, liberating education, and leave it at that, but the power teachers hold will not vanish just because teachers let go of it (Davari, 2012). Instead, a critical approach to education highlights the importance of having learners actively engaged in their learning process being able to find and develop their opinions and positions (Freire, 2005) and using their thoughts. Moreover, education changes its center from delivering well-defined knowledge to encourage critical thinking over the world, empowering disadvantaged students to change their lives, and to overcome the boundaries of a certain social class (Cozma and Laura, 2009, p 5)

1.4.3. Praxis

Praxis are the link between theory and action, and as such they hold a significant value in critical pedagogy. Praxis incorporates theory, action, and reflection as a means to work toward social change and justice (Breuing, 2011, p4). Praxis translate critical consciousness achieved through dialogue and reflection into action (Jennings and Lynn, 2005). Wink (2011, p144) defines "praxis" as the union of our theory and practice"; whereas McLaren (2009 as cited in Yulita, 2012, p33) defines it as "informed actions", i.e. actions based on our learning. Freire (1970) refers to the action process as praxis, or theory leading to action, and affirms that it is imperative to the transformational experience.

Aliakbari Faraji (2011, p82) notes that Praxis are the self-creative activity through which we make the world. In education praxis aims at bridging the gap between theory and transformational action. He added that Praxis are:" a critical reflection and action the purpose of which is to implement a range of educational practices and processes with the goal of

creating not only a better learning environment but also a better world (Kissing-Styles, 2003)." That means: "Praxis are an ongoing process enabling the intersection of theory and practice. In education, praxis acts as a site of social transformation—through informed conscientization and committed action toward humanity and the world (Freire, 2000 as cited in Rautins and Ibrahim, 2011, p31)

The importance of Praxis rises from the fact that without it the theory of CP, or any other approach for that matter becomes mere words, or as Freire put it "simple verbalism" and action becomes aimless because it has no background, it becomes "blind activism" (Darder, Baltodano, & Torres, 2003, p15). Freire (as cited in Naiditch, p95) visually expresses the link between dialogue, action, and praxis as follows: Action + Reflection = word = work = praxis.

1.4.4. Dialogue and Generative Themes

For Friere, " Education means dialogue" (1970,p30) because CP requires a classroom environment that is democratic, where viewpoints of students are highlighted, dialogue is seen as the perfect tool where the teacher is no longer the-one-who-teaches, but the-one-who-is taught-in-dialogue-with-the-students, the one who while being taught also teaches. As a result, the teacher-student relationship is horizontal instead of one-directional and vertical. (Jeyaraj). Critical Pedagogy regards students as critical intellectuals in dialogue with the teacher in a process whereby the "teacher presents the material to the students for their consideration, and re-considers his earlier considerations as the students express their own" (Freire 2009, p57). The importance of dialogue in CP stems from the fact that Dialogue can lead to critical awareness or as Darder puts it:" leads to reflection and action; which provide students with a deepened sense of awareness of the social realities that shape their lives, and allow them to re-create and act upon the forces around them" (2017, p.12)

Dialogue is the key to putting the theory of critical pedagogy into practice (Freire, 1970). Classroom dialogue must be designed around generative themes that come from the students and have relevance to their lives. Pavlenko (2005, p55) advocates Freire's pedagogy of organizing instruction around students" „daily experiences" rather than around a „fully predetermined curriculum", i.e. a pedagogy that focuses on „generative themes based on student life, not on didactic lectures based on teacherly discourse' (Shor, 2009, p 298). Freire saw "generative themes" taken from students" immediate experiences and everyday life as the starting points for problem-posing and as central resources for critical learning in the curriculum (Yulita). When student voice is honored as knowing and intelligent, it produces generative themes that are used to continually mold the fluid structure of the course.

1.5. Criticism towards Critical Pedagogy

Despite all the sophisticated goals CP aims to achieve, it still fell short in a big way. CP like every other teaching philosophy and method got under scrutiny, and few holes were up for poking as a result. First criticism aimed at CP was the sense of exclusivity it projects, the language it uses & the fact that all the prominent CP scholars are while and males made everyone else who's not male and white alienated. Such exclusivity is made by the use of "obscure", "over abstracted" and at times ``impenetrable" language of Critical Pedagogy (Guilherme, 2002, p59)   that can make it inaccessible to teachers (Apple 1996)

CP was also under fire for the fact it excludes issues and voices that other groups bring to educational settings (Ellsworth 1989; Gore 1993). Other critics note that the focus of CP on class struggle is based on Marxism ideology that most CP scholars are bound to make other struggles like gender inequality and racism marginalized (McLaren, 2000).

Ellsworth (1989) lays down in a famous and lengthy assay what she believes CP overlooks. She starts with the fact that the field of CP is populated by white, Christian men,

and that to her is contradictory because the white and Christian men cannot be part of a solution if they are already the source of the issue (p314); She continues by adding that CP suffers from an over achievement syndrome where high goals are stated, but the way to get there is never explained.

1.2.1. Critical Pedagogy and its Elements in EFL Teaching and Learning

Critical Pedagogy identifies itself through many lenses. CP can be a framework where teachers and educators can empower learners through problem posing education (Scorza, and Mirra, *2013*), with the ultimate aim of allowing learners to use their voices to navigate social barriers, or as a political reflection on education and the action of seeking liberation and social justice by offering alternatives against the capitalistic, oppressive, and exploitative political systems (Giroux, 1997; McLaren, 2002; Kincheloe, 2008). Critical Language Study, from which Critical Pedagogy stems, brings the political nature of language to the foreground (Parrado, 2015). Crookes (2012) states that CP is a teaching method that helps students gain transformative experience by problematizing the commonly accepted and taken for granted knowledge. Aliakbari and Faraji (2011) identify CP as an approach to language teaching and learning which is concerned with transforming relations of the oppressive power which leads to the liberation of people. CP looks at education as a political enterprise (Kincheloe, 2008) and aims to raise students' "consciousness". Freeman and Anderson (2011) believe CP is an approach to teaching that aims to create a more egalitarian society by raising awareness of social injustice as a necessary part of the curriculum.

Critical Pedagogy can also be defined as a cultural theory which views knowledge as the representation of those who produce and distribute it (Kincheloe, 2008). McLaren (2000) defines CP as a method of reflecting, negotiating, and transforming pedagogical practice, knowledge production and schooling institution relationships and the material and social

relations of wider community. Simon suggests that "the first premise of any form of critical pedagogy is that the knowledge claims are interested and are modes of intelligibility grounded in the struggles, tensions, and inequalities that mark history's bequest to the present" (as cited in Pennycook, 1990, p303). This approach to education involves a way of thinking about, negotiating, and transforming the relationships in 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 (McLaren, 2000; Keesing-Styles, 2003). It is not sufficient to view information and knowledge as separate parts of the larger entities such as power and culture. Information and knowledge are always socially constructed (McLaren, 2003). Therefore, awareness that there is no neutral information and that a political knowledge is also needed to be possessed by students to prepare them to become global democratic citizens in the future must be gained (Yulianto, 2015).

Critical pedagogues in second language teaching are interested in exploring the ways that social relationship and issues of power are settled in language (Norton & Toohey, 2004). Canagarajah (2005) lends critical pedagogy to a practice-oriented stance where critical pedagogy "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" (P. 932). Norton & Toohey add that:

> Language is not just as a means for communication rather it is "a practice that constructs, and is constructed by the ways language learners understand themselves, their social surroundings, their histories, and their possibilities for the future" (2004, p1)

To critical pedagogues, those who support critical pedagogy see schools as prime locations for the transformation of societal structures and their attendant discursive practices that place

limitations on students' perceptions of reality and obfuscate multiple mechanisms and forms of oppression (McLaren & Kincheloe, 2005). Teachers and learners should promote English learning in a way to achieve a critical spirit that leads to the achievement of two concepts of conscious awareness and critical awareness (Wallace, 1997). CP encourages educators to a mode of analysis, tensions, and discontinuities in history, all of which reveal both the significance of human agency and the gap between the society which exists now and the society which might exist in the future (Giroux, 1983)

The goal of education is social transformation towards an entirely democratic society, where each comment is shared and heard in an equal way; one critically investigates oneself and one's society, and one acts upon decreasing social discriminations. Critical Pedagogy supports pedagogical theories and practices that encourage both teachers and students to develop an understanding of the interconnecting relationship among ideology, power, and culture, rejecting any claim to universal foundations for truth and culture, as well as any claim to objectivity (Leistyna & Woodrum, 1996). It also motivates new theories and languages of critique and resistance, critically examining and transforming the traditional academic boundaries and social and pedagogical practices that maintain the de facto social code (Stinson, Bidwell, and Powel, 2011, p78).

Critical Pedagogy's final goals are Humanization, achieving a state of critical conscientization, and establishing a problem-posing education system. According to Freire (1970), humanization is done through love, humility, faith, and trust. Dialogue according to Freire is the key to reaching conscientization which is defined as knowing that includes understanding and the ability to act on the learning in such a way as to affect a change (Abrahams, 2005). The establishment of the problem posing education system is done through the rejection of the banking model of education, which is an emancipatory system that does not respect students' experiences and their culture. Freire (1970) suggests "problem-

posing education" instead, which is a bottom-up educational model and supports dialogs between teachers and students (Nouri and Sajjadi, 2014). Giroux (1981) believes that the most significant aim of CP is the principle of resistance which highlights Freire's belief (1970) that traditional pedagogy prevents teachers to grow the concept of resistance in the students' minds. This resistance leads to both the process of students' empowerment in the educational system and their social life. Critical pedagogy is a teaching approach that attempts to help students question and challenge domination, and the beliefs and practices that dominate. This is to say that, it is the theory and practice of helping students achieve critical consciousness *(*Riasati, Mollaei, 2012*),* by empowering students to actively generate and privilege their own historical tradition (Scorza, Mirra, 2013).

In educational practice, dialogue is crucial to be performed to create the ideal teaching learning atmosphere for teachers and students to teach each other. Moreover, dialogue is potential to avoid the existence of a threatening and dominating teacher, for the teacher-students' dialogic relation is based on hope, love, and faith (Shor & Freire; Freire, as cited in Yulianto, 2015). Through it, both teacher and students constructively learn and share their ideas and worldviews (Alvarez, Calvete & Sarasa, 2012). Negotiation through dialogue plays a central role in the classroom which applies critical pedagogy (Mochinski, 2008; Larson, 2014). It should be executed as a two-way process (Freire, 2005a) for every classroom activity. For Freire (1970), dialogue is a conversation with a focus and a purpose that shows the object of the study is not the exclusive property of the teacher.

The history of English language teaching has developed from the so-called traditional methods to communicative, learner-centered to the post-method era (Rahimi, Sajed, 2013). According to Pennycook (1990), language teaching lacked a view of the social, cultural, political and historical context. According to him "Language is reduced to a system for transmitting messages rather than an ideational, signifying system that plays a central role in

how we understand ourselves and the world". Maxine Greene (2007) argues that schools are capitalist media promoting passive reception of decontextualized content instead of active engagement with subject matter.

Non-critical approaches to education encourage students' passivity and conformity to the wisdom transmitted to them by teachers. In contrast, critical approaches like CP highlight the importance of improving students' critical consciousness and focus (Abednia, 2015, p78).

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) focused entirely on reading and writing as the prime skills while neglecting listening and speaking (Jin-fang, Qing-xue, 2007, p69). In other words, the communicative skills were totally abandoned. It focused on the study and translation of the written language, as it is considered superior to spoken language. Thus, Successful learners are those who translate each language into the other, though they cannot communicate orally (Sierra, 1995, p113)

The Direct Method, on the other hand, is a radical change from Grammar-Translation Method by the use of the target language as a means of instruction and communication in the language classroom, and by the avoidance of the use of the first language and of translation as a technique (Jin-fang, Qing-xue, 2007, p70). It marked a shift from the written language to the everyday spoken language. No textbook was used in the first years of learning and the teacher was the main medium of instruction (Richards & Rodgers 2007, p11). Consequently, a textbook used in the first years of learning focused mainly on oral skills (Kamhuber, 2010, p 14). An emphasis on communicative skills was obviously the goal of the direct method. However, it failed to consider the practical classroom realities. For example, the success of the teaching process meant using teachers who are native speakers or at least first caliber communicators (Richards and Rodgers 2007, p13).

The audio-lingual approach was marked by a separation of skills of listening and speaking reading, writing,. It assumed that "learning a language entails mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined, from phoneme to morpheme to word to phrase to sentence". (Jin-fang, Qing-xue, 2007, p 70). Its theory was based on the principles of behaviorism (Larsen-Freeman, 1990, p2), and that meant that:

*Language learning is a matter of habit formation

* Language learning is a process of habit formation.

*It is important for teachers to prevent student error since errors can lead to the formation of bad habits.

* Students should overlearn the sentence patterns of the target language.

*Positive reinforcement helps students to develop correct habits

As a consequence, from the approach and assumptions considered above, the main procedures put into practice by Audiolingualism gave a primary emphasis to an oral approach to FLT and focus on an accurate speech. The objectives then were to focus on oral skills in the early stages of learning with the gradual inclusion of other skills as learning develops (Richards & Rodgers 2007, p58). Oral proficiency was understood in terms of accurate pronunciation and grammar and the ability to answer quickly and accurately in speech situations such as conversations (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 58).

The decline of the audio-lingual method in the 1960's, with Chomsky's criticism in his book Syntactic Structures (Sierra,1995, p120) was marked by the rise of a new teaching method called the Communicative Language Teaching method (CLT)

CLT aims to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching, and develops procedures for teaching the four skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. (Jin-fang, Qing-xue, 2007, p71). Larsen-Freeman (1990, p9) details the main principles of CLT in the following points:

*Students are whole people.

* People learn best when they feel secure.

* Students should have the opportunity to generate the language they wish to learn.

* The teacher should "understand" what the students are feeling.

Learners' needs are defined in terms of four language skills of listening and speaking reading, and writing. Each skill is approached from a communicative perspective. (Richards & Rodgers 2007, p163)

1.6.1. Critical Pedagogy and the Hidden Curriculum

As listed in Oliva (1997), a curriculum:

Is everything that goes on within the school, including extra-class activities, guidance, and interpersonal relationships everything that is planned by school personnel A series of experiences undergone by learners in a school that an individual learner experiences as a result of schooling (p 210).

Curriculum is not only "any experience students have under the guidance of teachers", (Caswell & Campbell, 1935) but it is the sum of formative student experience. (Oliva, 1997, p210)

Wilson, (1990) describes a curriculum as:

> Anything and everything that teaches a lesson, planned or otherwise. Humans are born learning, thus the learned curriculum actually encompasses a combination of all of the below – the hidden, null, written, political and societal etc. Since students learn all the time through exposure and modeled behaviors, this means that they learn important social and emotional lessons from everyone who inhabits a school -- from the janitorial staff, the secretary, the cafeteria workers, their peers, as well as from the deportment, conduct and attitudes expressed and modeled by their teachers. Many educators are unaware of the strong lessons imparted to youth by these everyday contacts. (Wilson, 1990, p.1)

The curriculum then must act as an epistemological bridge between students and teachers for students to generate a transformative ontology: this is the machine of production meeting the trans-historical capacity or nature of human beings (as cited in Magill, 2014, p211)

Critical Pedagogy attempts to move away from teacher-and-text-centered curricula by focusing on students' interests and their situated identities to instill in students a critical mind-set to become agents of change (Mahmoodarabi Khodabakhsh, 2015).

Curriculum in emancipatory pedagogy is understood as a contextualized social and political process. CP aims to reveal what is sometimes known as "hidden curriculum". The term hidden here is used intentionally in distinction to the covert or implicit curriculum. It consists of the messages given to children by teachers, school structure, textbooks, and other school resources. These messages are often conveyed by teachers who themselves are unaware of their presence (Eisner, 1994).

Phillip Jackson (1968) is generally acknowledged as the originator of the term hidden curriculum in his book Life in Classrooms (Faezeh, Reza, and Seifi, 2017, p124). He argued

that the hidden curriculum emphasized specific skills: learning to wait quietly, exercising restraint, trying, completing work, keeping busy, cooperating, showing allegiance to both teachers and peers, being neat and punctual, and con- ducting oneself courteously (Jackson 1968, p10). Michael Apple (2004, p15) describes the hidden curriculum as those attitudes, values, and beliefs that are conveyed to students as part of the overall school culture but are not explicitly stated in the curriculum document. Dickerson (2007) continues with the same distinction stating that: "The hidden curriculum consists of those things pupils learn through the experience of attending school rather than the stated educational objectives of such institutions" (p14).

According to Emesini (2016, p81):" Hidden curriculum produces changes in students' values, perceptions and behaviors; hence, it serves as an agent of socialization that produces unique culture and functions. The hidden curriculum practice prepares students for various roles in the society after school by making them mature and prepared for adulthood and life in the society". The hidden curriculum also affects how students view learning, their teachers and the purpose of their education. Townsend (1995, p5) points to the fact that:

Social relations between [teachers] and students provide insight into a program's hidden curriculum. Between [teachers] and students, messages are sent by [teachers] treatment of students in the classroom. These messages may also affect relationships among students. If the [teacher] interrupts students, the implicit message is that student's words and thoughts are less important than the [teacher's] are.

Konieczka (2013) argues that the hidden curriculum as a socialization of schooling can be identified by the social interactions within an environment. Thus, it is in process at all times, and serves to transmit tacit messages to students about values, attitudes and principles.

Hidden curriculum can reveal through an evaluation of the environment and the unexpected, unintentional interactions between teachers and students which revealed critical pedagogy (p250).

Put simply, '' the hidden curriculum of banking education reproduces the dominant ideological hegemony and dehumanizes individuals to become docile objects, controlled by power structure'' (Hammer & Kellner; as cited in Nouri and Sajjadi, 2014, p82). The hidden curriculum is often believed to serve the interests of the power elite that the school, unwittingly, is thought to serve (Eisner, 1994). Every student has had a lifelong curriculum, developed consciously or unconsciously by family, society and other worldly interactions. The child left to society with little care or guidance has the scars of attempting to survive within a value system of commodification (Magill and Rodriguez, 2015). Hodge and Kress (1993) define an ideology as:

> a systematic body of ideas organized from a particular point of view. Ideology is thus a subsuming category which includes sciences and metaphysics, as well as political ideologies of various kinds, without implying anything about their status and reliability as guides to reality (p. 6)

Griffin (2006) views ideology as an innate structural human ability 'to plan, rationalize, and legitimize action or behavior '(p80). Brookfield (2005) states that ideology is a 'broadly accepted set of values, beliefs, …and justifications that appear self-evidently true,…personally relevant, and morally desirable to a majority of the populace' (p41)

Though the term ideology is used in many ways in EFL, it is important to keep in mind what the term tries to capture: namely, the implicit, usually unconscious assumptions about language and language behavior that fundamentally determine how human beings interpret events. (Tollefson, 2007, p26). Green (1997) defines standard language ideology as

"a bias toward an abstract, idealized homogenous spoken language, which is imposed and maintained by dominant bloc institutions and which names as its model the written language, but which is drawn primarily from the spoken language of the upper middle class" (p. 64).

Kadt states that "language, which pervades every aspect of our lives, is never neutral, it empowers and disempowers" (1991, p1); she adds that power is anything that is exercised over others. Luke identifies, "the supreme and most insidious exercise of power (lies in) . . . shaping (peoples') perceptions, cognitions and preferences in such a way that they accept their role in the existing order of things". (1974, p24)

According to Silverstein (1979) these ideologies ``accentuate the perceived ideas speakers have about language use, and how typically political and social characteristics are integrated into discourse" (as cited in Bovin, 2015, p2). Apple (1992) argues that the syntax of school curricula was ideologically biased since the existing political and economic power had considerable influence over the school curriculum to select and control the contents of student learning.

''The curriculum is never simply a neutral assemblage of knowledge, somehow appearing in the texts and classrooms of a nation. It is always part of a selective tradition, some-one's selection, and some group's vision of legitimate knowledge. It is produced out of the cultural, political, and economic conflicts, tensions, and compromises that organized and 'disorganized' people" (Apple, 1996, p22)

In language education, ideologies are often constructed through foregrounding certain discourses, cultures, beliefs towards language; these become hegemonic, while others remain in the background or were not even included at all (Wang, 2016, p3). Fairclough (1992) pointed out that a simple text can serve an ideological purpose of naming or wording the

social and natural world, shaping them for particular purposes and in the interests of certain privileged groups (p190). School curricula and textbooks serve to intentionally transmit selective knowledge, history, and culture in support of dominant social and political groups (2006, p46).

Olson (1989, p239) proclaimed that textbooks ``are taken as the authorized version of a society's valid knowledge" (p239). Apple (2004) pointed out that school textbooks transmitted the values and beliefs of those in power, effectively providing no voice to less powerful groups and strengthening the dominant ideology. Thus, determining who controls textbook content and design and what knowledge should be included or excluded can be very important to either group depending upon who controls the publishing power. (as cited in Bovin, 2015, p241). Textbooks are the dominant definition of the curriculum in schools and are a representation of political, cultural, economic and political battles and compromises. Textbooks are 'conceived, designed and authored by real people with real interests' and are 'published within the political and economic constraints of markets, resources and power' (Apple. 1993, p46). As they are based upon the cultural, ideological and political power of dominant groups, textbooks seek to enforce and reinforce cultural homogeneity; they seek to promote shared attitudes and shared historical memories (Crawford, 2013, p3)

Overcoming the hidden curriculum requires that students and teachers actively participate in the decision-making process of a curriculum in a true dialogue context. The dialogue process is inspiring because all the participants are able to describe the complexities of power within schools, challenge the hidden curriculum and critically reflect on the legitimatization of norms and values espoused in schools (Arce, 2004). In emancipatory pedagogy contexts, a curriculum should have as its focus of investigation the study of everyday, informal, and popular culture and how the historical patterns of power that inform such cultures are imbricated in the formation of individual subjectivity and identity (McLaren, 1995). It is vital,

from CP's point of view, to step away from an orderly, predictable and mechanized curriculum into one premised upon critical content, a dialogic and student-centered process, a democratic climate of shared participation and critical self-reflection (Martin, 2008).

A curriculum based on CP must give students agency. "Agency that is premised upon three conditions: free will, moral intelligence, and fallibility". Thoughtful consideration of each condition of human agency delivers a meaningful curriculum to students by enabling self-determined choices, moral understanding, and freedom of expression. However, as powerful social agents, it is teachers who make the choice of what to teach our students and ultimately dictate the visibility of the implicit, explicit, or null curriculum (Alexander, 2005). In the broader social context, students will understand curriculum variously through dialogue with their peers, receive culture with caregivers or parents and Socratic seminars as they reimagine the world with their teachers (Magill and Rodriguez, 2014, p 221).

A curriculum based on CP must also call for critical thinking to take center stage. Many educators agree that the ability to think critically is a key skill for survival in an ever-changing world and the foundation of the contemporary education system (Berliner, 2009; Lipman, 2003; Paul, 1995; Scheffler, 1989). Critical thinking is "making sense of our world by carefully examining our thinking and the thinking of others in order to clarify and improve our understanding.'' (Chaffee, 1988, p26) Another form of being critical, is considered the process of 'judging' and 'assessing' and this is reflected in the curriculum in which critical thinking is seen as the ability ''to recognize or develop an argument, use evidence in support of that argument, draw reasoned conclusions, and use information to solve problems'' (ACARA, 2015, p1).

In today's educational systems, complex and meaningful conversations have been removed from the classroom; critical instruction/analysis and the development of a personal

consciousness have been trivialized (Magill Rodriguez, 2014, p208). Students are discouraged from thinking critically with regard to outcomes; instead they are drilled with current epistemologies requiring they:

> achieve categorically successful test scores, requiring schools find creative ways to pass tests, including the elimination of students by expelling them from school or providing days off on testing days, further strengthening the school to prison pipeline. (Magill Rodriguez, 2014, p208)

This approach stresses memorization, rule learning, mechanical manipulation of new information, and subsequent regurgitation of learned material for testing purposes. (Sacco, 1987, p58)

The Organizing elements of the Critical and Creative Thinking General Capabilities have been deconstructed into four interrelated domains (McIlvenny, 2013):

• Inquiring — identifying, exploring and clarifying information

• Generating innovative ideas and possibilities

• Analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating information

 • Reflecting on thinking, actions and processes

Critical and creative thinking organizing elements from the Curriculum	Bloom's Taxonomy	The Inquiry Process	Habits of Mind	Framework/Tools/Instructional Strategies
Inquiring, identifying, exploring and clarifying information	Remember, Understand	Defining Locating Selecting	*Questioning and posing questions *Gathering data through all those scenes *Applying past knowledge *Thinking and communicating with clarity and precision	The information process Big six Mind mapping Six thinking hats Y chat Thinkers Key
Generating innovative ideas and possibilities	Create	Defining organizing and synthesizing	*Creating, imagining and innovating *Thinking flexibly *Taking responsible risks *Persisting	Mind Mapping Scamper Thinker's Keys Question Matrix 5Ws Decision making matrix SWOT analysis

			*Remaining open to continuous learning	Random Input Lateral Thinking
Analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating information	Synthesize Analysis Evaluate	Organizing and Synthesizing	*Applying past knowledge *Striving for accuracy *Thinking interdependently *Thinking about your thinking *Persisting	*Six Thinking Hats *Graphic Organizers *CORT Thinking *Scamper
reflecting on thinking, actions and processes	Evaluate	Evaluating	*Thinking about your thinking *Thinking interdependently *Thinking flexibly *Applying past knowledge *Managing impulsivity	*KWL *PMI *Six Thinking Hats *SWOT Analysis

Table 2: The Elements of Critical and Creative Thinking General Capabilities

Rodriguez (2014, p. 208)

Developing teaching practices faithful to core critical constructs such as equity, student voice, democracy and academic success are in need of development. As Giroux notes:

> "…Teachers need to learn how to create an affirmative and critical continuity between how students view the world and those forms of analyses that provide the basis for both analyzing and enriching such perspectives "(Giroux; as cited in Akutsu, Gordon, and, Noguchi,2014, p171).

Critical-thinking skills can be developed within the current framework of foreign language instruction without overburdening the already busy foreign language teacher. Critical thinking skills are enhanced if foreign language teachers provide students with the following types of opportunities:

1) to persuade an audience orally and in writing;

2) to accept, rebut, or refute these oral and written messages;

3) to analyze simple non-literary and literary texts; and

4) to manipulate and use language in creative and realistic contexts.

A three-part approach can be formed to help develop critical reading and thinking skills in the foreign language curriculum as detailed in the following table. First, cultivating a healthy skepticism requires the establishment of an open forum for critical inquiry and thought. Many students are unaccustomed to challenging what they read or hear because in many classes students receive one "official" interpretation of a work of literature, or one "official" method of solving a math or science problem (Sacco, 1987). Second, to develop a critical eye the foreign language class must serve at times as a critical dissection lab for readings. Like a biology class, the goal of the critical dissection lab is to dismantle an organism for the sake of examining its component parts through careful analysis and interpretation (Sacco, 1987, p59)

Principles	Steps
1- Cultivating a healthy skepticism	*Establish an open forum for critical inquiry and thought. * Dismiss myths of infallibility of published sources, institutions, and people in authority.
2- The implementation of a critical dissection lab for examining the printed word.	A. Create a critical dissection lab in the foreign language classroom. B. Provide a wide variety of texts for critical discussions. C. Design exercises that permit students to analyze and interpret texts. D. Supply students with multiple perspectives of an issue.
3-The means of sensitizing students to language use.	A. Supply samples of text for language analysis. B. Provide opportunities for students to manipulate texts in creative ways. C. Have students experience directly the process writers go through.

Table 3: The Steps of Developing Critical Reading and Thinking Skills

1.6.2. Critical Pedagogy and the Teacher's Role

Prospective teachers, regardless of their ethnic background, tend to uncritically and often unconsciously hold beliefs and attitudes about the existing social order that reflect dominant ideologies that are harmful to so many students (Freire, 1997). Unfortunately, this lack of political and ideological clarity often translates into teachers uncritically accepting the status quo as "natural". It also leads educators down an assimilationist path to learning and teaching, rather than a culturally responsive, integrative, and transformative one (Bartolomé, 2004, p100). Within such a system of education, learners have no say in what and how to learn. Rather, imparting knowledge is supposed to be the job of the teachers, but ironically the teachers do not have much of a say in what and how to teach either, as these are issues dictated by educational policies whose intent is to maintain and reproduce the dominant social order (Mohamed, Malik, 2014, p14). Freire explains that banking education is generally characterized by the following oppressive attitudes and practices:

-the teacher teaches and the students are taught

-the teacher knows everything and the students know nothing

-the teacher thinks and the students are thought about

-the teacher talks and the students listen-meekly

-the teacher disciplines and the students are disciplined

-the teacher chooses and enforces his choice, and the students comply

-the teacher acts and the students have the illusion of acting through the action of the teacher

-the teacher chooses the program content, and the students (who are not consulted) adapt to it

-the teacher confuses the authority of knowledge with his own professional authority, which he sets in opposition to the freedom of the students

-the teacher is the Subject of the learning process, while the pupils are objects

At the core of CP is the need to bring into focus the uneven power structure whose manifestations can be seen in every aspect of life (McLaren, 2000). CP reverses and reinvents the traditional roles of students and teachers. Within the mainstream model, teachers are seen as passive transmitters of knowledge that is not even theirs, while learners are seen as passive receivers of that knowledge. As a result, both teachers and learners are deskilled and disempowered. By contrast, critical pedagogy views teachers as intellectual transformative and learners as active participants in their own learners-initiated dialogues.

	Mainstream Pedagogy	**Critical Pedagogy**
Teacher's roles	Transmitter, Guide, Facilitator	Change agent/ Co-learner
Learner's roles	Passive receivers	Active participants
Teacher's authority	Sole power	Shared power
Teaching Method	Standardized method	Dialogic & problem-posing

		(CLT)	
Teaching materials	Standardized Textbooks		Locally-situated
Type of Dialogues	Set dialogues		Learner-initiated
Nature of EFL	Neutral		Value-laden

Table 4: The Teacher's Role in Mainstream Pedagogy V. Critical Pedagogy

As Leeman (2005, p. 36) states:

"Educators must make the relationship between language and sociopolitical issues explicit, provide opportunities for students to examine and interrogate dominant linguistic practices and hierarchies, and encourage students to explore the ways language can be used to perform a wide range of social functions and identity work."

In problem-posing education the teacher challenges the learners' existential situation by asking "simple but stimulating and probing questions" concerning the problems of learners' lives (Crawford, 1978, p96). Such questions derive from generative themes. The first stage of a critical literacy work is the identification of such generative themes by analyzing the realities of learners' life (Rashidi, 2010). The role of the teacher is also redefined in critical pedagogy as "transformative Intellectual", a term coined by Henry Giroux (1983) to describe educators who possess the knowledge and skills to critique and transform structural inequities. Traditional roles must be abandoned (Sadegh, 2010, p279*)*.

1.6.3. Critical pedagogy and the Learner's Role

Views about the place of young people in schools and society have changed over the past generation. Traditionally, the views and opinions of children were often discounted as having less legitimacy than the views of adults, but as attitudes towards children and young people changed, different views have arisen associated with these changes.

McLaren (2003, p211) states that CP identifies empowerment as one of its most important tenets and as a way to make the values of justice, social responsibility, acceptance, recognition, and respect concrete. Language is the only means by which students develop their own voice; at the same time, it is through voice that language becomes concrete (Gómez, 2010). Giroux stated that voice "refers to the multifaceted and interlocking set of meanings through which students actively engage in a dialogue with one another" (cited in McLaren, 2003, p 245). Voice' in this context is 'not simply about the opportunity to communicate ideas and opinions; it is about having the power to influence change' (West; as cited in Makewa and Negusa, 2014, p24). Ranson (2000) argues for 'pedagogy of voice', which 'enables learners to explore self and identity, develop self-understanding and self-respect and improve agency, capability and potential'

Freire's pedagogy is of specific interest when considering student voices. It focuses on a dialogical and interactive approach to learning and examines issues of relational power for students (McLaren, 2000), such as those revealed by the dominant discourse of assessment. The dialogue between learners and teachers should be thoughtful, reflective, focused to evoke and explore understanding, and conducted so that all learners have an opportunity to think and to express their ideas (Bain, 2010). Student voice covers a range of activities that encourage reflection, discussion, dialogue and action on matters that primarily concern students, and also, by implication, concern teachers and the communities they serve (Fielding; as cited in Bain, 2010). Burbules (2010) argues that the dialogic approach provides the most promising ground for approaches to student voice in assessment. Student voice ranges from the most basic level to sophisticated approaches. At the most basic level, young people share their opinions of problems and potential solutions through student councils or in focus groups associated with school strategic planning. At a more sophisticated level, young people share their 'voice' by collaborating with adults to actually improve education outcomes, including

helping to 'improve teaching, curriculum and teacher-student relationships and leading to changes in student assessment and teacher training' (Mitra 2004, p2). Since dialogue involves learners sharing their personal understandings with each other, it results in their exposure to their peers' beliefs and perspectives, helps them examine issues from different angles, broadens their views, and deepens their understanding of the text and, by extension, the world around them (ABEDNIA, 2015).

The development of student voice should not be viewed as a 'quick fix'. Rather, it should be about moving from a model of practice concerned with: ''…efficiency and hierarchical modes of accountability' [to one that is] 'characterized by metaphors of wholeness ... reflection and enquiry and collaboration and congeniality.'' (Rudduck and Flutter, 2004, p139). A number of writers suggest frameworks that might provide guidance in the fostering of student voice (Barnes et al., 1987; John, 1996; Shier, 2001; Fielding, 2001; Lodge and Reed, 2003). In seeking to make student voice in assessment more meaningful, Lundy (2007) proposed a model of four elements:

-Space: Students must be given the opportunity to express a view

- Voice: Students must be facilitated to express their views

- Audience: The view must be listened to

-Influence: The view must be acted upon, as appropriate (Lundy, 2007)

Batchelor (2006) argues that we should consider different modes of student voice and asserts that these may be viewed as three constituent elements:

-an epistemological voice, or a voice for knowing.

-a practical voice, or a voice for doing.

-an ontological voice, or a voice for being and moving forward. (p787)

Jackson (2005) maintains that the student voice is about valuing people and valuing the learning that results when we engage the capacities and multiple voices in our schools. It focuses on realizing the leadership potential inherent within all learners. In practice, there are five dimensions to pupil involvement:

1. student involvement in school and community development

2. students as researchers and co-enquirers

3. student feedback on teaching and learning

4. students as peer-tutors

5. student involvement as a manifestation of inclusion principles (as cited in Manefield, Collins & Moore, Mahar, Warne, 2007).

Students may feel uncomfortable with discovering and/or recovering their own voices, asking questions, and tolerating ambiguity and uncertainty. Initially, many students are more comfortable with the traditional model of compulsory note taking and the regurgitation of "facts" (FOBES & KAUFMAN). Shor (1992, 1996) proposes the participation of students in controlling learning activities and requiring them to critique educational techniques and content. Instead of transferring facts and skills from teacher to students, students are invited to think critically about the subject matter, doctrines, and learning processes. According to Canagarajah (2005),

Dewey (1938) described knowledge construction as a social process and by 1933 he was calling for teachers to engage in "reflective action" that would eventually lead to transforming their practice to be more inquiry-based. Muro describes the Deweyan pedagogy as a pedagogy that:

"Calls for students to become historians and geographers themselves and, as geographers and historians, students have a whole world to explore in their immediate surroundings. As historians and geographers, students have free reign of their intentionality to explore their own contexts by interviewing family members, mapping their neighborhoods, creating flow charts and genealogical trees, identifying the linguistic, social and cultural characteristics of their family members, antecessors, neighbors, friends and peers, and identifying and describing the geographical settings where family members, antecessors, neighbors, friends and peers live." (2012)

For Freire (1970), the classroom should be seen as a place where meaningful dialogue, grounded in the experiences of students and teachers, results in new knowledge. Asking authentic questions is likely to serve the goal of dialogic practice which is to have students experience becoming a part of knowledge construction (Mazdaee & Maftoon). In CP, students are encouraged to approach texts in a questioning manner, challenge received knowledge, and, instead of taking in knowledge passively, construct it actively and autonomously (ABEDNIA, 2015)

A curriculum which equips students for the challenging world of the twenty-first century needs to ensure that students are supported to take increasing responsibility for their own learning, their physical, personal and social well being, their relationships with others and their role in the local, national and global community. Crawford (1978) argues that in Freirean pedagogy, learners specify the form and content of their creative action by identifying their own needs for skills and information (as cited in Rashidi, 2010). CP "requires a democratic classroom environment, where students' viewpoints are highlighted through discussion and there is shared power and dialogue among teachers and students" (Kamali and Yamini, 2016).

1.6.4. Critical Pedagogy and Assessment

Old assessment methods contradict CP's Principles on more than one level. First, whereas old methods require the teacher to be the primary assessor of all what goes on in class, CP calls for a shared system between the teacher and the learners. Teachers are required to involve students in the decisions about what criteria to measure the students on. At first it may likely feel somewhat hypocritical when it comes time to grade and evaluate students (FOBES and KAUFMAN). Having students participate in the construction and selection of evaluative measures is one way to address this challenge (ibid). Braa and Collero (2006) adopted an alternative four-point evaluation policy, collectively defined by students through dialogue and consensus. One of the benefits of Braa and Collero's model is that "it promotes dialogue and assessment without jeopardizing the group solidarity so critical to community power" (p. 10). In the dominant discourses of education and assessment there appears to be little place for student voice. As Soo Hoo (1993:390) states: ''Somehow educators have forgotten the important connection between teachers and students. We listen to outside experts to inform us and, consequently, we overlook the treasure in our own backyards: our students.'' Traditional teaching methods highlight summative assessments, which is one of the outcomes of the hidden curriculum, that usually takes place at the end of a course of teaching to ascertain what students have learned (Chartered Institute of Educational Assessors (CIEA), 2009). It is deemed of value in the maintenance of standards (Dearing, 1997) and for diagnostic and certification purposes (Nevo, 1995). However, a predominant focus on summative assessment can be problematic. It may mean that large amounts of the time and energy are devoted to assessment that takes place after students have completed their learning. This results in encouraging students to study in negative ways, for example, surface-based learning or memorizing answers rather than understanding concepts (Knight, 2002; Elton, 2003; Falchikov, 2005).

Learners accustomed to the old teaching method, would inevitably be victims of the hidden curriculum these methods push for and thus, learners will pay attention to it only to get higher grades (Bain, 2010). Boud (1988, cited in Brown, 1999, p4) is forceful in his assertion that: 'assessment methods and requirements probably have a greater influence on how and what students learn than any other single factor.'' Brown, Bull and Pendlebury (1997, p6) highlight what matters to students in a learning context: ''Assessment defines for students what is important, it identifies for them what counts, it has a big influence on how they will spend their time and how they will see themselves as learners. Thus, if you want to change student learning, then change the methods of assessment.'' Giroux (1994, p30) states that:

> '[Critical] pedagogy … signals how questions of audience, voice, power, and evaluation actively work to construct particular relations between teachers and students, institutions and society, and classrooms and communities … Pedagogy in the critical sense illuminates the relationship among knowledge, authority, and power.'

Boud (1995, p43) states: 'If students are to become autonomous and interdependent learners as argued in statements of aims of higher education, then the relationship between student and assessor must be critically examined and the limiting influences of such an exercise of power explored. The new agenda for assessment research needs to place this as a high priority'.

Assessment feedback should be about particular qualities of the work, with advice on what learners can do to improve, and should avoid comparisons with other learners. For formative assessment to be productive, learners should be trained in self-assessment so that they can understand the main purposes of their learning and thereby grasp what they need to do to

achieve. The selection of assessment methods should be negotiated and broadened beyond the traditional written account to include methods that provide us with confidence in the capabilities of students as practitioners (Brown, 1999). These methods might include, for example, essays or final exams. it is argued that a focus on a broader range of alternative, or innovative, assessment methods, such as projects, portfolios and oral presentations, that are authentic, meaningful and engaging (Brown and Knight, 1994; McDowell and Sambell, 1999; Brown, 1999), is appropriate to assessment practice located in critical pedagogy. However, it is important to introduce students carefully to such innovative methods of assessment, so they are fully involved and aware (McDowell and Sambell, 1999). Resistance to introduction of innovative methods is often on the basis of manageability and workload (Brown, 1999). However, this valid concern can be reduced somewhat by the involvement of peers and the students themselves in feedback and marking (Brown, 1999). Askew (2000) asserts that feedback needs to engage learners and teachers in collaborative and reflexive dialogue and this concept of feedback might be argued to place Freire's (1970) notion of praxis at the center of assessment.

Learning and its subsequent assessment are intrinsically linked with student realities and lives (Simon, 1992). This view is supported by Harvey and Burrows (1992) who argue that the development of critical thinking, or metacognition, is one of the key ways in which students may be empowered and, therefore, become more autonomous. In his seminal work How We Think, Dewey (1909, p9) defined critical (or reflective) thinking as: '…active, persistent and careful consideration of a belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds which support it and the further conclusions to which it tends.' Harvey and Burrows (1992) assert that critical thinking requires students to be involved in their own assessment, to be able to recognize good quality work and to be confident when they have achieved it. In short, they state that a pedagogical approach that encourages metacognition treats students as

intellectual performers rather than as a docile and compliant audience. This view involves students taking more responsibility for their assessment and becoming more autonomous in their approach. Mayo (1997) describes critical thinking as not simply being concerned with overcoming individual and group 'ignorance' but with encouraging ways of thinking that are critical of the kind of status quo which supports inequalities, injustices and the abuse of power. Burbules and Berk (1999, p55) make this connection between critical thinking and critical pedagogy even more clearer and bring us back to a connection between students as critical thinkers and their relationship with academics. They state:

> Critical thinking is primarily aimed at the individual and largely ignores the pedagogical relations, which occur between teacher and learner, or between learners. Critical pedagogy is more interested in collective action so individual criticality is intimately linked to social criticality

In their seminal review of peer teaching in higher education, Goldschmid and Goldschmid (1976) argued that peer tutoring was particularly relevant in maximizing students' responsibility for their own learning. The role of peers in assessment is also explicitly valued and understood in many theories and philosophies of learning (Dewey, 1887; Bruner, 1960; Freire, 1973). It has been argued that self-assessment should be focused on throughout undergraduate education because of the role this type of assessment plays in enabling learners to evaluate their own performance after they have finished formal study (Brown and Glasner, 1999). Formative assessment in general, and self- and peer-assessment in particular, place importance on feedback as central to learning and high attainment (Black and William, 1998b; Hounsell, 2007). As such, it is asserted that feedback as a component of student voice must be developed as authentic dialogue.

Conclusion

Critical Pedagogy as a philosophy of education is rooted in critical theory. It manages to use the theoretical foundation of the Frankfurt school and infuses it with the practicality of a teaching setting. As such, the relationship between knowledge, power, and conscientization is front and center when it comes to how CP seeks social change. The interplay between the three elements determines how power is divided between teachers and learners.

In an EFL setting, other elements influence how CP views teachers and learners' roles. The hidden curriculum is what teachers are implementing without knowing so in most cases. A hidden curriculum seems to give domination to the powerful sectors of a given society at the expanse of the ones that are the most fragile and marginal.

Chapter Two: Textbook Evaluation in EFL Teaching and Learning

Introduction

2.1. Roles of Textbooks in EFL Teaching and Learning

2.2. Advantages and Disadvantages of using textbooks

2.3. Textbook Evaluation

2.4. Reasons for Textbook Evaluation

2.5. Types of Textbook Evaluation

2.5.1. Micro vs. Macro Evaluation

2.5.2. Predictive vs. Retrospective Evaluation

2.5.3. Pre-Use vs. In Use vs. Post Use Evaluation

2.5.4. Predictive vs. Retrospective Evaluation

2.5.5. Initial vs. Detailed vs. in use Evaluation

2.6. Models of Textbook Evaluation

2.6.1. McDonough and Shaw's Model

2.6.2. Sheldon's Model

2.6.3. Littlejohn's Model

2.6.4. Cunningsworth's Model

2.6.5. A Critical Pedagogy Based Analysis of EFL Textbooks

2.6.6. Textbook Evaluation Guide

Conclusion

Introduction

The previous chapter dealt with the foundation of CP, its elements, and principles, and its place with an EFL setting. This chapter deals with the place of textbooks in EFL teaching and learning. The chapter also sheds light on the most prominent models of textbook evaluations.

Textbooks are one of the most important tools of teaching and learning. They are a map of the goals and aims as well as methods of teaching. This makes them the perfect tool for teachers to use when in class.

2.1. Roles of Textbooks in EFL Teaching and Learning

Among the four important factors in the educational contexts, namely, teachers, learners, textbooks and contexts, textbooks play a significant role in English Language Teaching (ELT), particularly in EFL classrooms, where it provides the primary source of linguistic input (Razmjoo, 2010, p121). Thus, it is considered as one of the most significant elements of the EFL teaching and learning processes as it brings several benefits for teachers (Aydın, Yılmaz, 2015, p110). A textbook has always been the most preferred instructional material in ELT. It is best seen as a resource in achieving aims and objectives that have already been set concerning learner needs (Cunningsworth, 1995). Textbooks play a prominent role in the teaching /learning process and they are the primary agents of conveying knowledge to the learners. Besides, one of the basic functions of textbooks is to make the existing knowledge available and apparent to the learner in a selected, easy and organized way (Çakit, 2006, p12)

According to Ur (1996, p183), the term "course book" is used to mean a textbook of which the teacher and, usually, each student has a copy, and which is in principle to be followed systematically as the basis for the language course. A 'textbook' may be loosely defined as a

published book, most often produced for commercial gain, whose explicit aim is to assist foreign learners of English in improving their linguistic knowledge and/or communicative ability (Sheldon, 1987, p1). Tomlinson (1998) states that a textbook:

Provides the core materials for a course [as well as] provid[ing] as much as possible in one book and is designed so that it could serve as the only book which the learners necessarily use during a course. Such a book usually includes work on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, functions and the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking! (p9).

Brown (2001) states that, ''the most obvious and most common form of material support for language instruction comes from textbooks'' (p138). Brugeilles and Cromer (2009) defined a textbook as the core learning medium composed of text and/or images designed to bring about a specific set of educational outcomes; traditionally a printed and bound book including illustrations and instructions for facilitating sequences of learning activities (p14). The range of definitions of a textbook include books made and published for educational purpose or even any book used as a help tool in the classroom (e.g. a novel). The term textbook may also be linked to an even broader and more commonly-used term, teaching media, which include other teaching material as well (e.g. CDs, internet and videos) (Johnsen 2001, p50, Elomaa 2009, p18).

Brown (2001, p136) and Sheldon (1988, p238) suggest that the textbook represents the visible heart of any ELT program. It provides the primary and perhaps the only form of linguistic input, available for learners. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) suggest: "The textbook is an almost universal element of [English language] teaching. Millions of copies are sold

every year, and numerous aid projects have been set up to produce them in [various] countries…No teaching-learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook" (as cited in Hamidi, Mahmoudie, and Sarem, 2013, p373). Textbooks are a core part of any curriculum because they uniquely contribute to content learning. They are, perhaps, the most commonly used course materials in transmitting knowledge and skills. The growing popularity of textbooks can be justified through several pedagogical reasons (Demir, Ertas, 2014, p243). Tomlinson (2003) believes that "a course book helps provide a route map for both teachers and learners, making it possible for them to look ahead to what will be done in a lesson as well as to look back on what has been done" (p 39). Zohrabi, Sabouri and Kheradmand (2014, p95) states that: "textbooks are one of the elements that may promote or discourage learners depending on their materials. They are a kind of support for both teachers and learners. Textbooks provide students a kind of consistency." Textbooks are highly important teaching aides since they are used in classrooms on a regular basis; they have authoritative power and they are available to anyone. According to Sadker et al (2009, p88) "students spend as much as 80 to 95 percent of classroom time using textbooks and that teachers make a majority of their instructional decisions based on the textbook".

Some researchers believe that textbooks and instructional materials play a central role in every learning condition and help teachers with their responsibilities (Azizfar, 2009; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Riazi (2003, p52-68) believes textbooks to be the next important factor (element) in the second/foreign language classroom after the teacher (as cited in Nejad, 2011, p18). Brugeilles and Cromer state that textbooks are "still the cheapest of available media, and they are easy to carry and use" (2009a, p15).

Kramsch believes that learners and most educators believe that the textbook represents an authoritative source of information whose truth value often goes unquestioned:

[Textbooks] present the language as it should be spoken and written by the learners. The idea that a text could contain misprints or even errors is inconceivable for most learners…. The message it gives is, master the material between the covers and you will do well on the test and in real life situations (1991, p134).

According to Karvonen (1995, p12), the most important basic function of a school textbook is to transmit information. Furthermore, both Kalmus (2004, p1) and Lähdesmäki (2004, p271) point out that school textbooks are also considered important instruments for transmitting values, skills and even attitudes to the younger generation.

Textbooks can serve several additional roles in the ELT curriculum. They are not only an effective resource for presentation materials, but also a source of ideas and activities, of thoughts and ambitions which control learning. Textbooks serve in ELT classrooms as:

- a resource for presentation material (spoken and written)

- a resource of activity for learner practice and communicative interaction

- a reference source of learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc.

- a source of stimulation and ideas for classroom language activities

- a syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives which have been determined)

- a resource for self-directed learning or self-access work

-a support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence (Cunningsworth 1995, p7)

Schmidt, McKnight, and Raizen (1997) identified textbooks as playing an important role in making the leap from intentions and plans to classroom activities, by making content available, organizing it, and setting out learning tasks in a form designed to be appealing to students (as cited in Hamidi, Mahmoudie, and Sarem, 2013, p373). O'Neill (1982) enumerates four reasons for the use of course books: Firstly, most parts of course book materials are

appropriate for students' needs, even if they are not specially designed for them. Secondly, they make it possible for students to plan for future learning and also review the previous materials or lessons. Thirdly, course books provide students with high quality materials at a reasonable price. Finally, suitable course books allow teachers to adapt and modify them to meet the learners' needs and also allow for natural interaction to happen (as cited in Bafghi, Barzegar, and, Sarami, 2013, p2).

Hutchinson and Torres (1994, as cited in Walid, 2014, p14) mention that the good textbook, as long as it is properly used, can be an excellent tool for effective and long- lasting change. Richards (2001) states that textbooks act as a key component in most language programs, they provide the learners with the necessary input that the learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the class. They also serve as the basis for the language content and skills to be taught and other kinds of language practice that the learners take part in.

Romanowski (1996) stressed the authoritative power of textbooks. The ideas and values conveyed in the textbook "have power and authority because they are presented in printed and bound textbook with its aura of an authority that is beyond question and criticism" (as cited in Craeynest, 2015, p18).

2.2. Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Textbooks

Textbooks as one of the main teaching resources play a crucial role in most EFL/ESL classrooms, in other words, textbooks are the second most important factor, after the teacher in language education (Riazee, 2003, as cited in Khodabakhshi, 2014, p960). Textbooks offer a framework for teachers to work with as well as a sense of security by offering a road map of goals. They also are considered as the source of input (Aydın, & Yılmaz, 2015, p110). Textbooks not only make the teachers confident but also demonstrate the knowledge in an

organized, easy and selected way (Aydın, Yılmaz, 2015, p 110). Textbooks also provide EFL teachers with guidelines concerning syllabi, teaching methodologies and the materials to be taught (Kontozi, 2014, p1). Textbooks are useful from different perspectives in that they can not only help teachers, especially EFL teachers, to manage their course of teaching in a systematic way but also since they are always at hand, they can benefit learners as a good recourse even outside classrooms. Recently, the issue of textbook evaluation has grasped the attention of many educational administrations, syllabus designers, and teachers (Khodabakhshi, 2014, p959)

Hutchinson and Torres (1994, p232) identify four ways in which textbooks can help in class: first as 'a vehicle for teacher and learner training'; second because they provide 'support and relief' from the burden of looking for materials; third by providing 'as complete a picture as possible' of 'what the change will look like'; and fourth through the psychological support they give to teachers. O'Neill (1982) has indicated, textbooks are generally sensitive to students' needs, even if they are not designed specifically for them, they are efficient in terms of time and money, and they can and should allow for adaptation and improvisation. Ur (1996) states the advantages of textbooks as follows: (a)they serve as a syllabus which includes a carefully planned and balanced selection of language content if it is followed systematically, (b) they provide readymade texts and tasks with possible appropriate level for most of the class, which save time for the teacher, (c) they are the cheapest way of providing learning material for each student, (d) they are convenient packages whose components are bound in order, (e) they are useful guides especially for inexperienced teachers who are occasionally unsure of their language knowledge, (f) They provide autonomy that the students can use them to learn new material, review and monitor progress in order to be less teacher-dependent (as cited in Hamidi, Mahmoudie, and Sarem, 2013,

p373). Brown (1995) also believes that textbooks play the following roles: a source of language, a learning support, motivation, stimulation, and reference.

Tomlinson (2001, p67) states that proponents of the course book argue that it is the most convenient form of presenting materials, it helps to achieve consistency and continuation, it gives learners a sense of system, cohesion and progress and it helps teachers prepare and learners revise. Garinger (2001, as cited in Kontozi, 2014, p2) commenting on the usefulness of textbooks emphasizes that using a textbook is one of the most effective and readily available ways to relieve some of the pressures put on teachers, lessens preparation time, provides ready-made activities and finally provides concrete samples of classroom progress through which external stakeholders can be satisfied. Haycroft (1998) suggests that one of the primary advantages of using textbooks is that they are psychologically essential for students since their progress and achievement can be measured concretely when we use them.

Richards (2001) states that without textbooks a program may have no path; therefore, they provide structure and a syllabus. Richards (2001, as cited in ÇAKIT, 2006, p14) states that textbooks can serve as a tool to train them. Finally, he concludes that textbooks are efficient in that they allow much time for the teacher to focus on teaching rather than material's production. Richards (2001) also believes that instructional materials including textbooks act as a major component in most language programs. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) claim that the teaching-learning situation is not complete without its relevant textbook. Teachers according to Grant (1990) state that a textbook shows the order of what is to be taught and learned and in which order it is to be taught and learned. They guide the teachers as to what methods to be used and they act as a time saver.

Castell and Luke (1989, p246) point out that textbooks have the ability to make meanings more explicit in a way that places them above any criticism. Furthermore, as Karvonen (1995,

p23-28) continues, the language starts to direct our perception and it starts to look like the language would represent the actual physical world. Despite this fact, texts are above all written products, not images of reality. Because of the atmosphere that the learning situation creates, there is a power relationship between the textbook and the student. This relationship therefore determines the role of the reader as well as the meaning and the function of the text (as cited in Lappalainen, 2011, p10). As Kalmus (2004, p4-5) states, in some cases textbooks constitute the sole and trustworthy source of information, in which case they are most likely to affect pupils. Educational texts clearly provide frameworks for everyday understanding. However, a considerable part of texts in textbooks include the hidden, or unplanned, curriculum, which the pupils' may not notice or which they automatically take for granted.

On the other hand, using a textbook carries with it so many negative effects and consequences ranging from lack of authenticity, gender bias, stereotypes, and enslaving teachers. As Rösler (1994, p75) points out, publishers seek for financial benefits and therefore it is important that the textbooks also make profit. For this reason, they are made to serve the needs of as many learner groups as possible. While in fact, students have different needs, interests and learning styles. Therefore, a specific textbook cannot account for all of these differences. A specific textbook cannot account for all of these differences (Ghaderi, Jafarigohar, 2013, p195). Swales observes (1980), the textbook is a 'problem' evincing a complex of difficulties in its creation, distribution, exploitation and, ultimately, evaluation. Textbooks may cause few problems for learners; first, the lack of authenticity is one of the most crucial problems in many course books (as cited is Sheldon, 1987, p2). Richards (2014) argues that course books are specifically written for classroom usage and do not represent the real language (as cited in (Aydın, Yılmaz, 2015, p110). Second, course books may not satisfy the needs and interests of students. Third, course books may restrict the creativity of teachers.

In other words, they could have the tendency of following the course book in a strict way without adding any extra materials supporting and enriching the lessons. Last, the content in the book may not match with students' cultural values. Allwright (1981) believes that textbooks remove learners from negotiating the curriculum design process.

Researchers such as Porreca, Florent and Walter, Clarke, Carrell and Korwitz and Renner (1984, 1989, 1990, 1994, 1997 as cited in Hamidi, Mahmoudie, and Sarem, 2013, p374), have demonstrated that many EFL/ESL textbooks still contain rampant examples of gender bias, sexism, and stereotyping. They describe such gender related inequalities as: the relative invisibility of female characters, the unrealistic and sexist portrayals of both men and women, stereotypes involving social roles, occupations, relationships and actions as well as linguistic biases such as 'gendered' English and sexist language. Findings such as these have led researchers to believe that the continuing prevalence of sexism and gender stereotypes in many EFL/ESL textbooks may reflect the unequal power relationships that still exist between the sexes in many cultures, the prolonged marginalization of females, and the misrepresentations of writers with social attitudes that are incongruent with the present-day realities of the target language culture (Sunderland, 1992; Renner, 1997). Richards and Renandya (2002 as cited in Hamidi, Mahmoudie, and Sarem, 2013, p374) enumerate the disadvantages of textbooks as: (a) they fail to present appropriate and realistic language models, (b) They propose subordinate learner roles, (c) they fail to contextualize language activities, (d) they foster inadequate cultural understanding, (e) they fail to address discourse competence, (f) they fail to teach idioms, (g) they have lack of equity in gender representation. Some of the dangers of textbook use listed by Graves (2000) include the irrelevance or inappropriacy of content with the students, exclusion of important items, and imbalanced variety of task-types, un-motivating or outdated activities and unrealistic proposed timetables (as cited in Kontozi, 2014, p2)

Opponents of textbook based teaching also claim that even the best textbooks take away initiative from teachers. As Hutchinson and Torres (1994, p315) state "the danger with readymade texts is that they can seem to absolve teachers of responsibility… they make it easy to sit back and operate the system, secure in the belief that the wise and virtuous people who produced the textbook knew what was good for us. Unfortunately, this is rarely the case." Authors of global textbooks usually write for monolingual and multilingual classes. They also write for young and adult learners. This excessive scope poses some problems. For instance, students who use these textbooks may be encountered with topics which are culturally irrelevant or uninteresting to them (Ghaderi, Jafarigohar, 2013, p195).

Lähdesmäki (2004, p271) states that even though many teachers may feel that they could not survive without a textbook, some also feel that textbooks can be frustrating, irritating and even limiting since they have so great an effect on teaching. Textbooks and other teaching materials have become such central items in teaching that they have even started to take control of lessons, homework and the time pupils spend for their studies. The textbook, its texts and contents have become the targets of action instead of being just tools for the teacher: this can be seen for example during a lesson when the teacher explains and comments the textbook Karvonen (1995, p24).

Ur (1996) proposed five general points against using a course book: 1) inadequacy- every learner has different learning needs which cannot be adequately provided by a course book, in other words, no particular book can meet all the requirements of a specific learning situation; 2) irrelevance- topics presented in the book may not be interesting for a group of learners according to their culture, gender, age or etc.; 3) limitations- it may inhibit the teacher's creativity or autonomy; 4) homogeneity- course books do not satisfy various levels of ability and knowledge or learning styles and strategies; 5) over-easiness- teachers can follow a course book too easily without initiative (as cited in Khodabakhshi, 2014, p960). Allwright

observes (1981) that even with the best intentions no single textbook can possibly work in all situations (as cited in Sheldon, 1987, p1)

2.3. Textbook Evaluation

There have been many definitions of evaluation. Probably the most frequently given definition is by Trochim (2006) who states that "Evaluation is the systematic assessment of the worth or merit of some object.". According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p97), textbook evaluation is basically a straightforward, analytical matching process; matching "needs" to available solutions. Among the various definitions of textbook evaluation, the term's essence can be summarized as the judgment of a textbook's effect on a specific purpose (e.g., learners' academic literacy, curriculum implementation, or test preparation) by means of self-made or revised criteria (e.g., Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Littlejohn, 2011; Tomlinson, 2003). Textbook evaluation can also be defined as "a procedure that involves measuring the value (or potential value) of a set of learning materials. It involves making judgments about the effect of the materials on the people using them" (Tomlinson, 2003, p15).

The ability to evaluate teaching materials effectively is a very important professional activity for all EFL teachers. No course book or set of materials is likely to be perfect and even though it is clear that course book assessment is fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity, and that no neat formula, grid or system will ever provide a definite yardstick (Sheldon, 1988). Textbook evaluation provides the opportunity for the teachers, supervisors, administrators, and materials developers to make judgment about the textbooks and how to choose them for the learners.

2.4. Reasons for Textbook Evaluation

Sheldon (1988 as cited in Demir, Ertas, 2014, p244) mentions two basic reasons to evaluate textbooks. First, the evaluation will help the teacher or program developer make decisions on selecting the appropriate course book. Evaluation of the merits and demerits of a course book will also familiarize the teacher with its probable weaknesses and strengths. Tomlinson (ibid) regards material evaluation as another way of action research that develops our understanding of the ways in which the material works. It would seek to identify any weaknesses and strengths of textbooks and help in the selection process of a textbook with the scope to minimize the negative effects and maximize the positive ones. Textbook evaluation, according to Cunningsworth (1995), would involve the careful selection of materials examining whether they reflect the needs of the learners, the aims, methods and values of a specific teaching program. Textbook evaluation helps the teachers move beyond impressionistic assessments and it further facilitates them to acquire useful, accurate, systematic and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook materials (as cited in Kontozi, 2014, p3). Ellis (1997) alleging that evaluation can be considered as a means of conducting action research as well as a form of professional empowerment and improvement. It can also be a component of teacher training courses in which prospective teachers become aware of important features which they should search in textbooks (as cited in Bafghi, Barzegar, and, Sarami, 2013, p2).

Evaluation is used to serve different functions (Weir & Roberts, 1994). A summative evaluation is carried out to see if a program has met its objectives, checking, for instance, whether or not a certain proportion of students have achieved a specified level of language proficiency (Ghaderi, & Jafarigohar, 2013, p195). On the other hand, formative evaluation

investigates how far a program is on track to achieve its objectives (Ghaderi, & Jafarigohar, 2013, p195).

Speaking in favor of textbook evaluation, Sheldon (1988) resorted to two reasons: to decide on an appropriate book and to acquaint teachers with the merits and demerits of the textbook. He has offered several other reasons for textbook evaluation. He suggests that the selection of an ELT textbook often signals an important administrative and educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial, or even political investment. It would enable the managerial and teaching staff of a specific institution or organization to discriminate between all of the available textbooks on the market. Moreover, it would provide for a sense of familiarity with a book's content thus assisting educators in identifying the particular strengths and weaknesses in textbooks already in use (Hamidi, Mahmoudie, & Sarem, 2013, p375). According to Peterson (1998), there are several reasons to evaluate a textbook. First, we may want to decide if a textbook can be used or if in-house materials will have to be generated. Second, we may want to choose one textbook out of several possible candidates. Third, after choosing a textbook, we might want to examine it in detail to determine what areas will need to be supplemented (as cited in Bafghi, Barzegar, & Sarami, 2013, p2).

Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997) suggest that textbook evaluation helps teachers move beyond impressionistic assessments and it helps them to acquire useful, accurate, systematic, and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook material. Littlejohn (1998) asserts "materials analysis and evaluation enable us to see 'inside' the materials and to take more control over their design and use". Cunningsworth (1995) found textbook evaluation helpful for adopting a new course book or identifying particular strengths and weaknesses in course books already in use. Moreover, textbook evaluation can be conducted

in order to select textbooks for a newly started language program, to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the books and to retain, update and/ or substitute the books (Riazi, 2003).

Course book analysis and evaluation not only helps teachers to develop themselves but also helps them to gain good and useful insights into the nature of the material (Çakit, 2006, p19). Materials evaluation is of vital importance since it leads to a better understanding of the nature of a particular teaching-learning situation. Moreover, assessment and analyses of what's happening in the teaching /learning situation provide the teacher with gathering more information about the nature of a textbook or the material used. As mentioned by Hutchinson 'evaluation is a matter of judging the fitness of something for a particular purpose' (p41).

In general terms, material evaluation helps curriculum designers and material developers to consider key issues while designing language courses. In addition, evaluation studies are of particular importance in reexamining the deficient points in the existing materials and enhancing the quality of the materials. In the evaluation process, ideas and suggestions of teachers should be considered on the ground that they are the immediate users of textbooks and usually have good insights into course book usage and classroom dynamics (Ghaderi, Jafarigohar, 2013, p196)

2.5. Types of Evaluation Textbook Evaluation

Textbooks hold a paramount status as an indispensable ingredient of the language teaching profession; therefore, appraising and evaluating them seems to be imperative to assure their efficiency and consistency with the objectives defined and expected of the course. Materials evaluation is defined as "a procedure that involves measuring the value (or potential value) of a set of learning materials, it involves making judgments about the effect of the materials on the people using them" (Tomlinson, 2003, p15). Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1994) state that ''evaluation is an intrinsic part of teaching and learning'' (p4). Essentially, evaluation is carried out to determine the degree to which a program or intervention is worthwhile. It is the

process of purposeful gathering of information to make a sound decision which is analyzed and reported to stakeholders or interested parties (Ghaderi, Jafarigohar, 2013, p195).

Evaluation is a dynamic process which investigates the suitability and appropriateness of an existing practice (Rea-Dickens and Germaine 1992; as cited in Kafipour, Soori, and Soury, 2011, p481). Brown and Rogers (2002) define evaluation as "the process of seeking to establish the value of something for some purpose" (p289). Carter and Nunan (2001) further elaborate on the term evaluation stating that it refers to:

"A purposeful, cyclical process of collecting, analyzing and interpreting relevant information in order to make educational decisions. Evaluation may focus on the quality, appropriateness, or relevance of teachers, students, classroom instruction, in addition to the instructional materials and activities; or, the whole syllabuses or programs of instruction. In other words, evaluation in the educational field involves the teacher and his methods of teaching, the learner and his strategies, styles of learning" (p.221).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that "evaluation is basically a matching process: matching needs to available solutions; If this matching is to be done as objectively as possible it is best to look at the needs and solutions separately" (p97). It plays a key role in education and it is important for the teacher since it can provide valuable information for the future going of classroom practice, for the planning of courses, for the management of learning tasks and students. Finally, evaluation is essential for the use of instructional materials such as textbooks (ÇAKIT, 2006, p15). Brown (1989) gives a rather comprehensive definition of evaluation that focuses on why evaluation matters. He defines it as "the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a

curriculum and assess its effectiveness within the context of the particular institutions involved" (p223).

Evaluation methods differ as the intention behind them vary. From general to deep detailed evaluation, or predictive analysis vs. a retrospective one where the expectations are measured against reality. Finally, a pre, in, post use analysis can be conducted where the potentiality of the material is weighed against the effect of its actual and post use on the learners inside a classroom.

2.5.1. Micro vs. Macro E valuation

Ellis (1997) introduces two types of evaluation namely micro-evaluation and macro-evaluation. A macro evaluation calls for an overall assessment of whether an entire set of materials has worked. To plan and collect the necessary information for such an empirical evaluation is a daunting prospect. In a micro-evaluation, however, the teacher selects one particular teaching task in which he or she has a special interest, and submits this to a detailed empirical evaluation. A series of micro-evaluations can provide the basis for a subsequent macro-evaluation. However, a micro-evaluation can also stand by itself and can serve as a practical and legitimate way of conducting an empirical evaluation of teaching materials. A micro-evaluation of teaching materials is perhaps best carried out in relation to 'task' (Hamidi, Mahmoudie, and Sarem, 2013, p375).

2.5.2. Predictive vs. Retrospective Evaluation

Ellis (1997) differentiates between two types of materials evaluation: a predictive evaluation and a retrospective evaluation. A predictive evaluation is designed to make a decision regarding what materials to use, whereas a retrospective evaluation designed to examine materials that have actually been used. Ellis (1997) further states that predictive evaluation of materials helps in defining which materials are best suited to the teaching purposes and learners" needs prior to implementation whereas retrospective evaluation occurs

once materials have been used in order to determine which activities worked and which did not and find ways to make them more effective for future use. Retrospective evaluation can be performed either impressionistically or empirically by systematic collection of information. He emphasizes that such a systematic evaluation of materials after use may be encouraged through micro-evaluation by focusing on particular tasks (ÇAKIT, 2006, p24).

For Tsiplakides (2011, as cited in Walid, 2014, p20) Evaluating textbooks are carried out through either predictive or retrospective manner. The basic principles of each type are summarized in the following:

A-Predictive evaluation: It refers to evaluation with the aim of deciding what materials to use. It is conducted by experienced teachers and educators; they will need to read and consult books and articles dealing with materials evaluation, which provide a set of criteria for evaluating teaching materials using one of the following researchers' checklists such as (Cunningsworth, 1984; Skierso, 1991; McDonough & Shaw, 1993; Ur, 1996; Ansary & Babaii, 2002; Mackiely, 2005). Such sets of criteria assist teachers in conducting a predictive evaluation in a systematic way. Therefore, it is designed to inquire the future or potential performance of a given textbook.

B-Retrospective evaluation: an evaluation that is designed to examine materials that have actually been used. In this way, the teacher decides whether a specific textbook is worth using again, or if a new one has to be used. It can be conducted through two main ways. First, is to engage in what is known as 'impressionistic evaluation'. This involves teachers' summative judgment of the materials they have used. Second, is to try to collect information in a more systematic manner, and conduct an empirical evaluation.

2.5.3. Pre-Use vs. In Use vs. Post Use Evaluation

Textbook evaluation can also be categorized into three types on the basis of the different stages: pre-use, in-use and post-use evaluation (Ellis, 1997; Tomlinson, 2003). Pre-use

evaluation evaluates the potential effects of ELT textbooks that are ready to be selected and used (Cunningsworth, 1995; Tomlinson, 2003 as cited in Zhang, 2017, p74). Pre-use evaluation, probably the most common form, is designed to examine the future or potential performance of a material (Ghaderi, & Jafarigohar, 2013, p196). In-use evaluation examines a material that is currently being used as well as its effect on the actual classroom (Ellis, 1997; Tomlinson 2003). Post-use evaluation evaluates the effects of ELT textbooks that have been used for short or long term. Cunningsworth (1995) proposes pre-use, in-use and post-use evaluations.

Pre-use evaluation is mainly used for the purpose of textbook selection (Zhang, 2017, p81). It relied on the existent or self-made checklists (i.e., criteria) to rate the match of a given textbook with a particular purpose (e.g., learners' academic literacy development). It involves making decisions about the potential value of materials for their users (Kontozi, 2014, p 4).

In-use evaluation involves measuring the value of materials while using them or observing them as being used. When a newly introduced textbook is being monitored or when a well-established, but ageing textbook is being assessed to see whether it should be considered for replacement" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p14); It is different from pre-use evaluation. In-use evaluation measures the effect of an ELT textbook already in use by observing how it is actually being used in a classroom (McDough, Shaw, 1993; Tomlinson, 2003). It means that in-use evaluation is "more objective and reliable than pre-use evaluation as it makes use of measurement rather than predication" (Tomlinson, 2003, p24). In other words, in-use evaluation is able to provide a lens into the actual effect of how teachers use an ELT textbook on learners' academic literacy (Zhang, 2017, p83).

Post-use evaluation provides retrospective assessment of a course book and also serves to decide whether to use the same course book on future occasions (Demir, Ertas, 2014, p244). It measures the effect of an ELT textbook that has been used for a short or long term through

methods such as interviews and questionnaires (McDonough, Shaw, 1993). Tomlinson (2003) regarded post-use evaluation as a stage that provides further information on a textbook's value and its adaption or supplementation. Similar to in-use evaluation, there have been few studies on post-use evaluation in recent years (as cited in Zhang, 2017, p 85)

2.5.4. Initial vs. Detailed vs. In use Evaluation

Grant (1987) offers a three-stage process for the evaluation of material: Initial evaluation, detailed evaluation and in-use evaluation. First of all, initial evaluation is done by mainly looking at the appearance of the book without going into a lot of detail. Secondly, a detailed evaluation is carried out in order to find out whether the course suits students, teachers and syllabus. In doing so, questionnaires are provided to assess the suitability of materials. Once a textbook is adopted, an in-use evaluation is needed. In-use evaluation can be carried out to re-evaluate the particular material constantly. For this purpose, Grant (1987) suggests that it is possible to investigate the effectiveness of the materials through questionnaires, classroom observations and regular meetings between colleagues to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the material (as cited in ÇAKIT, 2006, p21).

2.6. Models of Textbook Evaluation

The choice of language teaching materials can determine the quality of learning-teaching procedure. As a part of the materials used in the language classroom, the textbook can often play a crucial role in students' success or failure (Hamidi, Mahmoudie, and Sarem, 2013, p375). Evaluating these materials, therefore, must be a priority. One of the common methods to evaluate English Language Teaching (ELT) materials is the checklist. An evaluation checklist is an instrument that provides the evaluator with a list of features of successful learning and teaching materials. Demir and Ertas (2014) define a checklist as an instrument that helps practitioners evaluate textbooks in an effective and practical way (p245). The

benefits of such checklists are considerable as to provide a way to ensure that all relevant items are considered for evaluation (Cunningsworth, 1995). Checklists can not only be systematic and comprehensive, but they are also cost and time effective and the results are easy to understand, replicate and compare (McGrath, 2002 as cited in Khodabakhshi, 2014, p961).

Checklists may be qualitative or quantitative. When designed in the form of quantitative scales, they allow for an objective evaluation of a given textbook. Qualitative checklists, on the contrary, elicit subjective information on the quality of textbooks by directing open-ended questions (e.g., Richards, 2001) (Demir and Ertas, 2014, p245). According to these criteria, evaluators like teachers, researchers as well as students can rate the quality of the material (Souri, Kafipur, & Souri, 2011). Such checklists include Cunningsworth's (1984) who touches upon the importance of relating materials to course objectives and the learner's needs and processes. Sheldon's (1988) checklist is very expansive and attempts to assess all aspects of content including such diverse factors as graphics and physical characteristics to authenticity and flexibility.

Review of the EFL material evaluation checklists reveals that they all have a global set of features. For instance, Skierso's (1991) checklist considers the characteristics related to 'bibliographical data', 'aims and goals', 'subject matter', 'vocabulary and structures', 'exercises and activities', and 'layout and physical makeup'. These domains are mostly in line with those in Cunningsworth's checklist which include 'aims and approaches', 'design and organization', 'language content', 'skills', 'topic', 'methodology', and 'practical considerations' (1995) as well as learners' needs and processes (Kafipour, Sourie, and Soury ,2011, p482). Although the headings of the sections in the two checklists appear to be different, a closer look at the items will reveal that they are more or less the same. For example, Skierso (1991) refers to the cost-effectiveness of the textbook in the bibliographical

data' section while Cunningsworth considers it in the 'practical considerations' section. Similarly, Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979) offer an evaluation checklist which is widely referred to for textbook evaluation and consists of five major sections including: (a) subject matter, (b) vocabulary and structures, (c) exercises, (d) illustrations, and finally (e) physical make-up. Each section is composed of several detailed strategies which can be utilized in evaluating and analyzing every textbook. Williams (1983) offered the following checklist where any EFL textbook should:

- Give preliminary guidance on the introduction of language pieces and skills (general)

- Propose procedures for teaching articulation

- Teach syntax in a way which is meaning oriented

- Differentiate the different goals and skills related to vocabulary teaching (vocabulary)

- Afford guidance on the primary introduction of texts for understanding reading (reading)

- Present strategies and devices for writing exercises

- Hold suitable pictures, graphs, tables, etc." (p253)

Another criterion of textbook usefulness was presented by TESOL (2002), which asserts that useful books should cover the subsequent reflections:

- They should be recent.

-They should include relevant subjects.

-They should reflect the linguistic and social variety of learners.

-The layout and arrangement (including the size of the fonts) should be suitable for learners.

-Images and illustrations should be precise and socially sensitive.

-They should show clear, genuine and suitable visual and audio materials.

-They should present various learning methods.

-They should be practical for various grouping plans.

-They should include exercises in which students share earlier practice with prior information of the textbook (as cited in Mahdi, Khalili, Teimouri, and Tayyebi, 2014, p190)

Demir, Ertas, (2014, p244) state that several models, methods and approaches have emerged in relation to course book evaluation. Grant (1987) introduced a succinct evaluative approach called CATALYST test; an acronym in which the letters stand for Communicative, Aims, Teachability, Availability, Level, Your impression, Students' interest and Trying and testing. Similarly, Tanner and Green (1998) offer a practical assessment form based on Method, Appearance, Teacher-friendliness, Extras, Realism, Interestingness, Affordability, Level and Skills. Initials of these features collectively make up the word MATERIALS.

Hutchinson (1997), on the other hand, proposes a model for the evaluation of language teaching material. He concerns materials evaluation as a matching process. This matching process has four stages.

1) Define the criteria on which the evaluation will be based.

2) Analyze the nature and underlying principles of the particular teaching/learning situation.

3) Analyze the nature and underlying principles of the available materials and test the analysis in the classroom.

4) Compare the findings of the two analyses (p41)

It can be viewed that not only the significance of analyzing teaching/learning situation is emphasized but also the materials required for it are emphasized in this model (Çakit, 2006, p23)

2.6.1. McDonough and Shaw's Model

McDonough and Shaw (1993) propose a two-stage model for a thorough evaluation of textbooks. They suggest that a brief external evaluation should be conducted firstly to have an overview of the organizational foundation of the textbook which includes criteria concerning

the organizational foundation of the textbook "as stated explicitly by the author/publisher" through the cover, introduction and table of contents statements. The external evaluation takes into account the criteria such as the context in which the materials are to be used, the presentation and organization of language into teachable units, and the author's perspectives on language and methodology (Ghaderi, Jafarigohar, 2013, p196).

The same procedure is also proposed by McGrath and it is labeled First Glance Evaluation which involves a consideration of relevant contextual factors and the gathering of information analysis of the material.

It should be followed then by a detailed internal evaluation "to see how far the materials in question match up to what the author claims as well as to the aims and objectives of a given teaching program" (p64). The internal evaluation addresses the issues related to the presentation of content and skills, the grading and sequencing of the materials, as well as the compatibility of tests and exercises with learners' needs (Ghaderi, Jafarigohar, 2013, p196). They propose a close investigation of at least two units of a textbook in order for effective internal inspection to take place. It can be seen that the evaluation model suggested by McDonough and Shaw (1993) focuses on the evaluation of English Language materials with a purpose of selection and adaptation prior to classroom use. However, Yumuk (1998, ac cited in ÇAKIT, 2006, p22) points out that although their model does not count for in-use evaluation of the material; they emphasize the importance of classroom use to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the material. The model is based on the view that an initial evaluation (macro evaluation) is useful to have an overview before the internal evaluation (micro evaluation) which requires an in-depth analysis of the material.

2.6.2. Sheldon's Model

Sheldon (1988) believes that every textbook should fulfill the following criteria: Rational, availability, user definition, layouts/graphics, user Definition, , accessibility, linkage,

selection/grading, physical characteristics, appropriacy, authenticity, sufficiency, cultural bias, educational validity, stimulus/practice/revision, flexibility, guidance, overall value for money

2.6.3. Littlejohn's Model

Littlejohn (2011) proposes a framework which provides a list of the aspects that need to be considered from a pedagogic viewpoint. His framework is divided into two parts: publication and design. The first section concerns the "tangible" or "physical" aspects of the materials while the second section relates to the thinking that underlies the materials. Littlejohn suggests that we need a general framework through which materials can "speak for themselves" (as cited in Barati, Karamifar, and Youhanaee, 2014, p923). He points out that the matching process between the result of textbook analysis and a set of criteria is the first aim of any textbook analysis (Littlejohn, 2001, as cited in Zhang, 2017, p81). He also observes that textbook evaluation serves the purpose of examining whether the methodology and content of the materials are appropriate for a particular language teaching context (Kontozi, 2014, p3). This detailed examination requires the analysis to be of multiple levels; therefore, he proposes a three level analysis.

At the first level of analysis the focus is on the physical aspects of materials and how they appear as a complete set or book, at the second level the focus of analysis is on the actual role of learners in the classroom activities, whether language form or meaning is focused, forms of activities and classroom participation and finally the contents of the tasks. The third level examines the implications derived by evaluating the overall aims of the materials, content, task selection and sequencing, teachers" and learners" roles, demands of learner knowledge, effects, skills and abilities and the role of materials as a whole (Kontozi, 2014, p3). The model Littlejohn (2011, p182) proposes draws extensively on Breen and Candlin and

Richards and Rodgers models in an attempt to provide the basis a more comprehensive listing of the aspects that need to be taken into account, from a pedagogical point of view, when analyzing materials.

The framework is divided into two sections: publication and design. The former relates to the concrete physical aspect of the materials and how they appear as a whole and in relation to any other components like video or audio files as well as the actual form of the materials (durable vs. consumable, worksheets, vs. bound books) all of which have direct implications for classroom methodology (Littlejohn, 2011, p3). The latter section titled "design" targets the theory behind the materials. It involves the aim behind the material, how the tasks are selected and sequenced and the nature and focus of the content as well as the nature of the teaching/ learning activities suggested by the materials.

The analysis afterwards moves through a three step process moving from the easily identifiable concrete to the more obscure abstract (Littlejohn, 2011). The first level of analysis is an objective description of the material ranging from '' the publication date, the intended audience" to the ''physical form of the material, number of pages, and the total number of components in a whole set". Looking into these aspects provides an idea about the role of the teacher and the learners inside the class.

The second level is a subjective description of the material where conclusions need to be drawn about what will teachers and learners have to do with the material (Littlejohn, 2011, p 190-194). This deep analysis requires a reduction of the material into its smallest parts, or what he calls ''tasks". A task according to Littlejohn is anything given to students to do inside the classroom. Such a classification of tasks allows for a more comprehensive way to identify the wide range of tasks applied within a material ((Littlejohn, 2011, p 190-194).

The final level of analysis proposed by Littlejohn is a subjective inference where we come to general conclusions about the apparent as well as the underlying principles of the material (Littlejohn, 2011, p197-198). Working based on the findings of the first two levels it is possible now to make a statement about the overall aim of the materials.

The aim behind such an extensive checklist is to cover the methodological and content aspects of any set of materials. Researchers and teachers armed with such analytical descriptions of a set of materials would be in a good position to make decisions about the nature, and usefulness of the materials (Littlejohn, 2011, p4).

2.6.4. Cunningsworth's Model

Cunningsworth (1995) have suggested that there are three different types of material evaluation. He argues that the most common form is probably the 'predictive' or 'pre-use' evaluation that is designed to examine the future or potential performance of a textbook. The other types of textbook evaluation are the 'in-use' evaluation designed to examine material that is currently being used and the 'retrospective' or 'post-use' (reflective) evaluation of a textbook that has been used in any respective institution.

The predictive evaluation called by Cunningsworth (1995, p1) an impressionistic overview is where we can" form a general impression of a course book" noting its significant features in order to determine its '' possibilities and strengths." He continues noting that this kind of evaluation is commonly done by all of us who ever attempted to buy a book of any kind. It is useful in the way that it gives us a lot of useful information; however, it will not point out any important weaknesses that need omission.

Cunningsworth (1995, p2) offers a checklist of the elements that need to be investigated in this early stage as follows: aims and approaches, design and organization, language content,

skills, topic, methodology, teacher's book, and practical considerations. The table below table further details the questions raised by each element.

Cunningsworth (1995, p15) offers more specific guidelines to follow when analyzing any textbook even if one decides not to follow his specific checklist. First, textbooks should meet learners' needs. Second, they should equip learners to use the language to whatever purpose they need. Third, they should facilitate the learning process taking into account the learners' needs. Finally, textbooks should support the learning process as an intermediate between the learners and the target language.

The first guideline is concerned with selecting textbooks that will attain the specific objectives and aims which the learners started learning the language for in the first place. Cunningsworth calls for the objectives and aims to determine the material used and not vice-versa (1995, p15). It is important that the material leads the learners towards achieving their goals as effectively as possible.

The second guideline deals with the fact that the textbook should have a clear idea of what learners need in order to make the best use of the materials itself. This insight forces the teachers to look for materials beyond the confinements of the classroom walls, and focuses on identifying what the learners will make with the language they have learnt. The end game of such a process is to give learners autonomy for them to use the language in real situations outside the classroom. Textbooks can help with this by offering authentic materials, creating realistic situations; thus, offering stimulation that will motivate them to become more independent in their use of English.

The third guideline is concerned primarily with the need not to dogmatically impose one rigid method. Because textbooks select the items to be learned, break them down into manageable units, it is crucial that we know that a principle of selection, criteria of some sort

must be used. Each criterion concerning learning styles or teaching methods should not impose learning styles, and instead, encourage them to use the one which best suits them.

The fourth and final guideline is mostly concerned with clarifying the role a textbook plays in the learning and teaching process. For learners, a textbook is a support, a provider of exercises and activities, as well as contexts in which the language is applied. For teachers, a textbook is also a provider of methodology, ready made presentations, ideas and topics. All carefully planned and graded.

2.6.5. A Critical Pedagogy Based Analysis of EFL Textbooks

Rashidi (2011, p253) proposes a model of textbook analysis based on the tenants of CP; which in turn is based on Richard's (2001) model. This model is divided into five main factors that are divided into sub-groups with each factor underlying certain principles as follows:

Factors	Sub-Groups	Principles
Program factors	**a. purpose**: relating to the ultimate goal of the program **b. objectives**: relating to the actual outcomes of the program	Principle 1: EFL materials should develop learners' communicative abilities while applying these abilities to raise learners' critical consciousness of the world around them and the ability to act on it Principle 2: If the materials have a joint goal, then EFL materials for critical pedagogy

		are expected to have two major outcomes: social development and language skill development on the part of the learner.
Content factors	**a. content definition**: relating to the definition of the themes used in materials **b. content source**: relating to the source of content selection **c. content arrangement**: relating to the sequence of the content	Principle 3: The topics and themes included in EFL materials should be generative to invoke considerable discussion and analysis. Principle 4: Source of the themes of the materials should be derived from the learners' life situations, needs and interests. Principle 5: EFL materials should take into account the intellectual advances of the learners in arranging the content.
Pedagogical factors	**a. the process of education**: relating to the method of knowing and education in the materials **b. the stance of source culture**: relating to	Principle 6: The way of teaching is via engaging students in the cycle of reflection and action by

	the position of local cultures in EFT materials	embracing dialogical problem posing practices. Principle 7: EFL materials base their content on source culture.
Teacher factors	**a. teacher role**: relating to the role that a material adopts for the teacher **b. expectations of teacher**: relating to the expectations which are assumed teacher brings to the classroom in using the materials	Principle 8: EFL materials should take into account the teacher's role as a co-learner and coordinator. Principle 9: In EFL materials, it is expected that teachers would not only bring to the class their language knowledge, but also their awareness of the implications of the internationalization of English.
Learner factors	**a. learner role**: relating to the role that a material adopts for the learner **b. expectations of learner**: relating to the expectations which are assumed learner brings to the classroom in using the materials	Principle 10: EFL materials should take into account the learner's role as a decision-maker and subject of the act. Principle 11: In terms of evaluative activities, it was expected that students develop

			their critical consciousness in line with their language mastery.

Table 4: Rashidi's Model of Critical Pedagogy Based Textbook Analysis

(2011)

2.6.6. Textbook Evaluation Guide

After reading the literature review mentioned above including the variety of textbook models of analysis, we have created a checklist of textbook analysis. One in which we combine the general elements of Littlejohn (2011), Cunningsworth (1995), Sheldon, McDonough and Shaw's Model (1988), combined with the detailed elements of Rashidi's checklist (2011).

We focused primarily on the place of CP in the textbook. Thus, we put a strong emphasis on its elements: the banking education, hidden curriculum, praxis, and learners' voice. In other words, we tried to answer the following questions:

-How does the textbook avoid banking education and how does it make use of the generative themes and dialogue to apply the problem posing education techniques?

-How does the textbook help teachers and learners alike to discover the existence of the elements, messages, and aims of the hidden curriculum, and how does it avoid them?

-How does the textbook use praxis to link theory to practice and how does it reflect on both?

-What is the place of the learner in the textbook? Is his voice present? Does he contribute to the knowledge produced within the textbook?

We also covered the basic elements of textbook analysis detailed in Littlejohn (2011), Cunningsworth (1995), Sheldon's (1988) models, primarily: The content, teachers' roles, learners' roles and the methodology used to create and use the textbook.

I- Program factors:

1-Rationale /Aims

*What is the rationale behind creating this book? (underlying approach, goals, targeted skills……).

*What are the aims of the textbook? Are the aims of critically raising good and empowered citizens, causing social change, and justice clearly stated?

II-Content factors

1-Authenticity

-Does the textbook use authentic or created texts?

2-Appropriacy

-Is the material substantial enough or interesting enough to hold the attention of the learners

-Is it pitched at the right level of maturity and language, at the right conceptual level?

3-Flexibility

-Does the textbook give freedom to teachers to choose from a variety of texts, activities and other resources?

-Does the material make too many demands on teachers' preparation time and students' homework time?

-Can the material be exploited or modified as required by local circumstances, or is it too rigid in format, structure, and approach?

- Is there a full range of supplementary aids available?

III-Learner Roles/ Teacher Factors

-What roles do learners take on? (followers, co-creators……)

-What roles do teachers take on? (authoritarians, co-creators……..)

V-Pedagogical Factors

-What methodology does the textbook follow?

-What design does the textbook follow? (structural, thematic….)

-Types of teaching/learning activities does the textbook make use of?

-Is the textbook culturally biased in favor of the target culture or the native culture?

Table 5: Critical Pedagogy Based Model of Textbook Analysis

Conclusion

Textbooks offer easy access to the language teaching process especially with novice teachers. The sheer amount of ready available resources offers comfort and reassurance of respecting the aims and objectives set forth by the curriculum.

The different models of evaluation offer a way of assessing whether a given textbook respects the aims it sat to achieve or not. Whereas few focus on content, others may shift the attention to form, while others are preoccupied with the textbook pre-usage, others choose to analyze the textbook post-usage. These differences in perspective offer the observer with many lenses through which to observe and evaluate a certain textbook

One perspective missing from all the previous models is, however, a perspective that highlights and values the learners', and their voice. The proposed Critical Pedagogy based model brings the attention back to the teacher and the learners and their respective roles given to both in the framework of the textbook, as well as the nature and source of the material used; all while also giving proper attention to the pedagogical and program factors that go in designing the textbook.

Chapter Three: The Place of Critical Pedagogy in the Algerian Secondary School Textbooks of English

Introduction

3.1. At the Crossroads (First Year Textbook)

3.1.1. Program Factors

3.1.1.1. Rationale

3.1.1.2. Aims

3.1.2. Content Factors

3.1.2.1. Authenticity

3.1.2.2. Appropriacy

3.1.2.3. Flexibility

3.1.3. Learner Roles/ Teacher Factors

3.1.4. Pedagogical Factors

3.2. Getting Through (Second Year Textbook)

3.2.1. Program Factors

3.2.1.1. Rationale

3.2.1.2. Aims

3.2.2. Content Factors

3.2.2.1. Authenticity

3.2.2.2. Appropriacy

3.2.2.3. Flexibility

3.2.3. Learner Roles/ Teacher Factors

3.2.4. Pedagogical Factors

3-New Prospects (Third Year Textbook)

3.3.1.-Program Factors

3.3.1.1. Rationale

3.3.1.2. Aims

3.3.2. Content Factors

3.3.2.1. Authenticity

3.3.2.2. Appropriacy

3.3.2.3. Flexibility

3.3.3. Learner Roles/ Teacher Factors

3.3.4. Pedagogical Factors

Conclusion

Chapter Three: The Place of Critical Pedagogy in the Algerian Secondary School EFL Textbooks

Introduction

On the basis of the published literature on textbook selection and evaluation in this thesis, we have designed a textbook evaluation checklist that focuses on the place of CP elements and principles in the three secondary Algerian EFL textbooks.

With this checklist we aim to investigate the presence as well as the absence of the most important elements and principles of CP within the three textbooks. The checklist details questions about power, knowledge, and conscientization, as well as the roles of teachers and learners and which voice of the two is heard often.

3.1. At the Crossroads (First Year Textbook)

3.1.1. Program Factors

3.1.1.1. Rationale

-What is the rationale behind designing this book?

According to the official syllabus of "At the Crossroads", the rationale behind teaching English at the secondary level is "To equip the learner with the essential assets to succeed in the world of tomorrow" (Ministry of Education,2005, p4). This is clearly stating that the designers have a goal beyond the mastery of language for the Algerian learners to achieve, and that is '' to integrate the learners harmoniously in modernity by joining a new linguistic community that uses English for all kinds of transactions'' (2005, p4). This implies that the designers see English as a world dominating language that needs to be used in order to fit in within the international community. This idea finds support when the designers state that the

end goal is for the learners to be able to "develop abilities and skills that will allow [them] to integrate into the society in which [they] live, to be aware of [their] being in relation with others, to learn to share, to cooperate and to be offensive without being aggressive". This offensiveness, according to the designers, is the desire to master the language without being affected by its culture; as stated below:

> By mastering an effective linguistic tool, each learner will have the opportunity to access science, technology and universal culture while avoiding the pitfall of acculturation. Thus, it will flourish in an increasingly demanding professional and academic world and develop a critical, tolerant and open mind (Ministry of Education, 2005, p.4)

Critical Pedagogy strives for EFL materials to develop learners' communicative abilities while applying these abilities to raise learners' critical consciousness of the world around them and the ability to act on it. Critical Pedagogy aims to cultivate this development through the use of dialogue, to reach a state where men and women develop their own power and to also develop the critical perception of their own place in the world, and for them finally to understand the world is always changing (Freire, 1970). The rationale behind creating "At the Crossroads" obviously succeeds in setting the first goal.

However, it fails to address how to achieve critical awareness for the learners because "At the Crossroads" views language as a tool, but only to the extent of helping its learners to integrate in the international community.

3.1.1.2. Aims

What are the objectives of the textbook?

"At The Crossroads" has three main objectives: linguistic, methodological, and cultural. The linguistic objective refers to the desire to provide the learners with the necessary tools to pursue graduate studies in English while fostering the development of basic skills for understanding and communicating. The methodological goals refer to the promotion of independent learning strategies for the learners to deepen and expand their knowledge by reinforcing "the learners' mental and intellectual abilities such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation through relevant activities". The cultural objective refers to the exploration of the cultural aspects of the English speaking communities in hopes of "promoting positive attitudes towards the other". The program designers believe that the aim of the textbook is to "stimulate the curiosity of the learner and contribute to his open-mindedness by exposing him to various contexts of civilization and culture conveyed by the English language" (2005, p6), and that entails:

1. To focus the methods on the learner and to see him as one responsible for his learning.

2. To place the learner in an environment that respects his needs, his age and his interests.

3. To create varied learning situations taking into account different styles of learning.

4. To consider English as a real tool of communication by advocating the use of language in meaningful contexts.

5. To design activities that respond to a need for authentic communication by avoiding monotonous and repetitive exercises.

6. To emphasize the importance of the message in relation to form by tolerating errors of form, that do not interfere with the transmission and reception of the message.

7. To develop oral and written communication by multiplying and varying listening and reading situations.

8. To foster the pedagogy of "success" by creating an environment in which the learner develops positive attitudes towards learning English and where he will not feel that he is in a situation of failure.

The curriculum makes a reference to "The Finalities of English" or the final objectives or goals that must be achieved knowing that the program of the secondary first year school is only a ring in a chain of rings starting from middle school. The textbook like its predecessors follows a competency based approach which gives "priority to the conscious construction of learning. "(2005, p5). This approach results in the curriculum giving much attention to communication as "the ultimate goal of learning the English language" by bringing the learners closer to the everyday life situation and helping them grasp it by producing semantically relevant messages. This emphasis on communication is translated into "both oral and written communication being given equal importance" (2005, p5)

EFL materials for CP are expected to have two major outcomes: social development and language skill development on the part of the learner. The program puts much focus on the second goal in the form of two sub-goals: first, the ability to communicate successfully with the target language in different and authentic contexts; second, to have a positive attitude towards the target language, its speakers, and the different cultures it represents. There is no clear mention of the aim of shaping good citizens or empowering the learners to think for themselves and by themselves. All that is mentioned is the language related objectives: how, why, and what to do with the target language. There is no indication that the program designers think of the learner and what he needs in terms of how to deal with the target culture in relation to his culture for example. Yet, there is so much planning on what he should want to do with the target language.

The objectives proposed by the program designers focus on the communicative aspect of language learning. It is clearly stated that making the learners communicate with the target language will lead into integration within the language speaking community itself. What the objectives fail to state, however, is how learning the target language would raise the learners' critical consciousness of the world around them, and how learning a new language would turn into social development on the part of the learner.

3.1.1.2. Content Factors

3.1.1.2.1. Authenticity

-Does the textbook use authentic or created texts?

The textbook makes use of both authentic and created material. The listening scripts are all created to match the language point the learners will tackle. The written texts are either quoted from or adapted from authentic extracts. The following table shows the nature of each text and its source.

Page	Source	Type
21	"English International "	Authentic (News Article)
52-53	"Things Fall Apart" (Heinemann)	Authentic (Novel)
57	"Hard Times" (Penguin)	Authentic (Novel)
59	"Alice in Wonderland" (Penguin)	Authentic (Novel)
83	"Look Ahead" (The Times)	Authentic (News Article)
86	"Reader's Digest"	Authentic (News Article)
91	"English International"	Authentic (News Article)
115-132	"Hutchinson Encyclopedia"	Authentic (Online Article)
126-145	"The Grolier Society Inc"	Authentic (Book)

129	"Gat Magazine"	Authentic (News Article)
156	"Forum "	Authentic (News Article)
162	"Hutchinson Encyclopedia"	Authentic (Online Article)
164	"Forum"	Authentic (News Article)

Table 10: Type and source of Texts used in "At the Crossroads"

CP demands that themes be derived from the learners' life situations, needs and interests to invoke considerable discussion and analysis on the part of the learners. In other words, the material should be generative, which is not the case with much of the material used in "At the Crossroads". The material is chosen from authentic sources, but it is nowhere clarified on what basis it is chosen. The only clear criterion is that it is both thematically and linguistically relevant to the unit it fits in.

3.1.1.2.2. Appropriacy

- Is the material substantial enough or interesting enough to hold the attention of the learners?

"At the Crossroads" was designed for learners between the age of 15 to 16 with the aim to "to consolidate and extend the competencies acquired at the Middle School level" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p.4). The textbook uses one key feature in each unit and that is step by step progress; From the "known to the unknown" in terms of language schema, "from easy to difficult" in terms of language structures, and from simple to elaborate in terms of cognition. Each unit follows the same structure with the level of difficulty of tasks increasing with each sequence.

CP requires EFL materials to take into account the intellectual level of the learners in sequencing the content. "At the Crossroads" clearly adheres to that requirement while moving from one element to the next in terms of language schema and structures as well as cognition.

3.1.1.2.3. Flexibility

-**Does the textbook give freedom to teachers to choose from a variety of texts, activities and other resources?**

The textbook is structured into units by theme. Each unit tackles specific language points in accordance to the theme it is assigned to. The teaching of units is done in a linear fashion: From "easy to difficult" and from "the known to the unknown".

This arrangement does not allow the teacher much freedom in terms of what to teach first. Each element is bound to the element before it and after it like a chain. Each unit follows an unchanged pattern:

Sequence 1: Listening and speaking. It is streamlined as follows:

- Anticipate

- Listen and Check - SAY IT CLEAR

- Your Turn.

Sequence 2: Reading and writing. It unfolds in a more or less similar pattern:

- Anticipate

- Read and Check

- Discover the Language

- Write It Right

Stop and consider

Sequence 4: Consolidation and extension. It is subdivided into two sub-sections:

- Write It Out
- Work It Out
Project workshop
Check your progress

Table 7: The Sequence of a Lesson in "At the Crossroads"

3.3.3. Learner Roles/ Teacher Factors

-What roles do learners take on? (Followers, co-creators……)

The program designers cast the learner as the sole responsible for his learning; Therefore, the learner has to engage in an approach to build knowledge, and play an active role in his training. The end goal is for the learner to be able to attain a certain autonomy, creativity, while having a sense of initiative, and responsibility.

Because "At the Crossroads" is designed according to the CBA principles, it makes sense that it is learner-centered. It gives learners time to reflect on "what they are learning". The learners are expected to "develop/construct by themselves their competencies through a process of classroom interaction. Thus, the classroom becomes a stage for learners' dress rehearsal of the targeted competencies." (Ministry of Education, 2005, p5)

Critical Pedagogy views students as agents of their own learning, and as "critical intellectuals in dialogue with the teacher" (Freire, 2009, p57), and the textbook casts the learners only as active agents, not as decision makers. The role extends only to reflecting on the language they learn and interact in class to build their language competencies. All while neglecting the need to raise their critical consciousness about the target language's culture and its impact on their views to their culture.

-What roles do teachers take on? (Authoritarians, co-creators…….)

CP asserts that there is a need for an educational system where critical teachers are aware of their power and how it works to expose injustice, exploitation, and domination (Apple, 1996). As a result, CP has focused on the helpless status of learners and has explored ways in which teachers can empower their students (Shor, 1996). However, the program designers cast the teacher as an "accompanist and a mediator between the learner and the knowledge" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p9) because he is the knowledge holder, and as such must "create an environment that promotes learning and learner development" (2005, p9). Therefore, he must "guide, assist and motivate the learner throughout his learning process.

The teacher's role is further elaborated in the teacher's book of the first year. CBA asks for "teachers in action"; As a result, the teachers are asked to "draw on their professional skills, skills in subject matter, in methodology, in decision-making and in social skills of various sorts to enable the learners to be language achievers" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p22). The approach demands of the teachers to have a style of teaching based on reflection, a reflection that implies the pre-planning of lessons, adapting lesson objectives to meet the unexpected and allowing learners the time to reflect. The approach also asks the teacher not to play the role of "knowledge transmitter" while casting the learner as a "knowledge receiver". Instead, the teacher is tasked with facilitating the process of language acquisition through helping the learners develop the appropriate learning strategies. The teachers play the role of a director

setting "stage directions, assessing, and giving directions" to the learners in order to "bring the final touch to the [learners'] performance "(Ministry of Education, 2005, p22).

CP requires the teacher to be a co-learner, and coordinator. However, the textbook designers view the teacher not as a co-learner but a holder of knowledge who has to facilitate and promote learning, but only to the extent of language mastery and acquisition. As a result, the teacher fails to bring a much needed awareness about the implications of the internationalization of English to his learners. Put in other words, learners shouldn't only be taught the English language, but also the power of the English language as a lingua franca, and the power its culture holds as a result.

3.3.4. Pedagogical Factors

What methodology does the textbook follow?

According to the program designers, society pressures the learners to acquire a functional language rather than a literary language. Therefore, the cognitivist and socio-constructivist conception that underlies the teaching / learning methodology of English aims at providing the learner with "irreversible skills such as interaction, comprehension, interpretation and the production of varied and significant written and oral messages." (Ministry of Education,2005, p.7)

To achieve this goal, it is no longer enough to "provide knowledge" but the learner must play a role in acquiring it. To insure this, the program was built around the learner and the construction of his knowledge by giving him the chance to answer questions on his own, steaming from his daily experiences resulting in him "adopting responsible and increasingly autonomous conduct and behavior" (2005, p4). This approach goes hand in hand with how CP views knowledge as being spread horizontally rather than vertically (Freire, as cited in Boegeman 2013, p7).

The autonomous behavior will reflect on his quality of achievements making it easy to acquire "a functional knowledge of English corresponding to school and extra school needs." This functional knowledge will not be out of context. The learner will confront "complex and meaningful situations" that will allow him to learn to listen, speak, read, and write in reuse what he learned in every new situation. These learning situations are built around competencies which every learner must acquire in order to successfully communicate with the target language. A competence according the program designers is:

> A knowledge to act that integrates a set of knowledge, know-how (abilities) and skills (attitudes) that can be mobilized to solve a category of problem situations. It involves the mobilization of these resources, their organization and coordination in order to deal with situations belonging to the situation. (Ministry of Education, 2005, p.7)

Critical Pedagogy envisions teaching as a way of engaging students in the cycle of reflection and action by embracing dialogical problem posing practices, that is, to use dialogue as the primary tool in teaching through a problem posing method where students are confronted not by an "integrational situation", but rather with a problem that requires the learns to engage in a cycle of action-reflection-action to confront the problem. CP urges teachers to stay away from the banking education where:

> The students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor. Instead of communicating, the teacher issues communiqués and makes deposits in which the students patiently receive, memorize, and repeat…the scope of action allowed to the students extends only so far as receiving, filing, and storing the deposits. (Freire, 2000, p. 72)."

103

Instead, the teachers are encouraged to embrace the problem posing education where they are welcomed to be learners as well, and for knowledge to be produced based on the context the learners face and live every day. This leads learners to:" develop their power to perceive critically the way they exist in the world in which they find themselves; they come to see the world not as a static reality, but as a reality in process, in transformation" (Freire, 1970, p. 64).

"At the Crossroads", however, uses real life situation for example (Write an e-mail) as a crutch or an excuse to use language points learnt in a very specific and limiting integrational situation; A situation that is created and bound to the specific language points used to express it in the first place. Thus, instead of a cycle of reflection about the problem, the learner is thrown into a cycle of "grammar point-integrational situation-grammar point "over and over again.

The methodology used in the textbook encourages the students to be involved in a process of reflection. However, this reflection is only concerned with task instruction and the acquisition of a functional language that will serve them well later on. It does not go further into the content itself, and does not push the learner into a dialogue with the teacher or the peers about the language or the context in which language learning occurs.

Is the textbook culturally biased in favor of the target culture or the native culture?

"At The Crossroads" has two sets of characters: local and foreign characters. The local characters are: Amel, Hicham, Fatima, Farid, Fouad, Hind, Djamila, Sihem, Rachid, Karim, Ali, Karima, Lydia. All of the characters are aged 15 to 16, the same age as the learners, but we do not know much more about them beyond that. There are no pictures of them, no description of their character or personality other than what is provided within the context of

the listening script. It is up to the learner to derive such information or keep it to his imagination.

Other characters that represent the native culture of the learner are both fictional and non-fictional people like: Sinbad, Aladdin, Okonkwo,. The first two represent the Arab-Islamic dimension of the Algerian culture, while the last one represent the African dimension. We also note that the geography of the native culture is presented along with the characters, cities like Baghdad, Basra, and the nine villages are mentioned because the titular heroes of the story live there too. Real life characters like Avicenna (Ibn Sina) are, however briefly mentioned in a line along with a list of inventors and scientists. Real life Algerian characters are never mentioned or depicted in pictures except once in an image depicting deprived poor women washing clothes at a river's bank.

The target culture's characters include: Kirsi, Edora, Peter, George, Nora, Mr. Johnson, Kenneth, Mr. Armestrong, and Joy. All of these characters are provided back stories with pictures depicting them in real life situations (playing basketball) or from the written texts (loving pets). Real life characters from the target culture are also heavily mentioned; characters like: Charles Dickens, William Shakespeare, Charlie Chaplin, Louis Pasteur, Alexander Fleming, Alexander Graham Bell, Albert Einstein (others include: William Herschel, Marie Curie, Kepler……). Places like London, Tikkakoski, Cocketown, England, Finald, and The United States of America are extensively referenced with maps, descriptions and pictures.

The target culture is depicted as advanced, developed and wealthy. Pictures of clean streets, monuments (the tower of London, and the Big Ben) with its subject playing sports like hockey, tennis, and skiing are all over the textbook. The target culture also has film stars like Chaplin, authors like Shakespeare, and popular media and news outlets like: The Herald

Tribune, USA Today, and Newsweek. It also has brilliant scientists who made huge advances in science and humanity, who invented many useful things like: the telephone, washing machines, and jeans. The advance of science is depicted as a jump from Egyptians, and Greeks to modern western countries while the contributions of the Islamic civilization are skipped over.

In CP, the EFL material should be based on the source culture, and should be critically examined and contrasted with the native culture. "At the Crossroads" largely succeeds in the first task while fails in the second. Most of the written texts come from authentic sources like: newspaper articles, novels, and plays. However, there is no critical examination of its effect on the learners and how they view the cultural elements embedded in it in relation to their own culture.

3.2. Getting Through (Second Year Textbook)

3.2.1. Program Factors

3.2.1.1. Rationale

-What is the rationale behind creating this book?

Like the course book before it, "Getting Through**"** states that the rationale behind teaching English is to help "our society" "integrate harmoniously" into modernity by fully engaging with the language community that uses this language. The knowledge acquired through such participation will allow the learner to better understand the other and oneself through the "sharing and exchange of ideas and scientific, cultural and civilized experiences" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p3). This understanding of others and oneself will allow learners to become agents of change instead of mere consumers of the English language by granting Algerian "access science, technology and universal culture while

avoiding the pitfall of acculturation." (Ministry of Education, 2005, p3)

The program designers view the English language as an agent of progress and development noting that it will be an "essential asset for the learner's success in the world of tomorrow". Thus, a logical link between the mastery of the language and the desired outcome is established. In fact, the mastery of the language gives the learner the chance to "share knowledge, science, technology and become the citizen of tomorrow, responsible and able to integrate harmoniously and effectively in the process of globalization." (Ministry of Education, 2005, p4)

Critical Pedagogy requires the textbook to fulfill two requirements: the first is for it to develop learners' communicative abilities and the second is to apply these abilities to raise learners' critical consciousness of the world around them. In other words, CP is concerned with democratic education and social and individual improvement (Giroux, 1992). "Getting through" puts much focus on the communicative objective but does not address the need to raise the learners' critical consciousness. Such failure is due to how the program designers view language as a bridge for success. A view that is the opposite of how CP aspires for an education that is for all people regardless of their gender, class, and race, etc. (Vandrick, 1994)

3.2.1.2. Aims

What are the objectives of the textbook?

"Getting Through" builds upon the objectives of "At the Crossroads", it aims to deepen the knowledge and skills acquired in the first year level and middle school. The targeted objectives in the second year are of three types: Linguistic and communicative, methodological/technological, and socio-cultural objectives.

-Linguistic and communication objectives:

The objective is to arm the learner with a solid linguistic base (grammar, syntax,

vocabulary, and pronunciation, oral and written fluency) with the aim of allowing the learner to pursue advanced training in English whether be it in a professional or an academic field.

The designers make a reference to the entrance and exit profiles. The entrance profile refers to what the learner is able to do before the start of the second year where he is able to "produce, from a pictorial text, oral or written, a statement of a dozen lines to report to a third party a fact or event closely related to the text (read or heard) and with the communication situation presented in the instruction" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p5). Whereas in the exit profile, at the end of the year, the student is expected to "produce a written message of about fifteen lines, in a chosen type of written discourse (descriptive, narrative, argumentative, expositive, injunctive) of about fifteen lines, correctly and legibly." (Ministry of Education, 2005, p5)

Methodological / Technological Objectives

These objectives relate to methodologies of learning and use of technology. The former tackles reinforcing reflection, deepening methods of thought acquired earlier in middle school, and teaches the learners the rational use of oral and written texts in English. The second aspect deals with the use of technology in the learning process to "teach the student[s] the use of technological tools (such as computer or the internet) essential for the documentation and research (in class and out of class)" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p4)

3-Socio-Cultural Objectives

The socio-cultural objectives work on two fronts. First, to relate the English language learning to other disciplines. The second refers to the process of stimulating the learner by" exposing [them] to various contexts of civilization and by raising their interest with the English-speaking culture (English, American, African) more particularly." (p4, 2005)

The objectives clearly cover both the communicative abilities of the students; they are

expected to share knowledge, experiences, and become agents of change; however, the nature of change is not specified. The development of the language skills is the focus of the program designers. Students are expected to have a solid linguistic base that allows them to write short written passages in any type of discourse. The social skills that accompany the language are limited to motivating the learner to learn more language skills by exposing him to various social situations. "Getting through" fails to incorporate the aim of social change with the aim of mastering the language.

3.2.2. Content Factors

3.2.2.1. Authenticity

Does the textbook use authentic or created texts?

"Getting Through" uses authentic material that offers students a variety of authentic reading texts. Some of the material, however, is translated from other languages or has been adapted to suit the learners' level of English resulting in some texts being simplified in terms of vocabulary and syntactic structures. The idea was to keep the students "motivated by saving them undue sophistication" (Ministry of Education , 2005, p9). The following table details the source of some of the used texts.

Page	Source	Type of the Text
32	"The Internet"	Newspapers Article
33	"Thames and Hudson"	Turner (Biography)
34	"Modern English International"	Article
56	"The United Nations Humans' Rights Declaration"	Legal Document
57	"American Friends, California Classic Books"	Julia Stiens (Poem)
74	"BBC's Modern English"	Article

| 106 | "Penguin Classics" | Story |

Table 8: The Type and Source of texts in "Getting Through"

As we can see the materials are sometimes simplified in terms of vocabulary and structure to suit the learners' level. However, this simplification shouldn't happen if the material is generated from the learners' real life situations, needs and interests. Thus, the topics and themes chosen in "Getting Through" fail to be generative of considerable discussion and analysis that would have happened, if the program designers had based the selection of topics on the needs of the learners first, and their life situations second.

3.2.2.2. Appropriacy

Is the material substantial enough or interesting enough to hold the attention of the learners?

The tasks included in the textbook are designed to " meet the students' interests and needs" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p7). These tasks are of two kinds, lower and higher order. The former refers to such tasks as acquiring new knowledge , understanding new facts and ideas and applying them to solve problems. Whereas the latter refer to skills that include:"analysing information by breaking it into small parts to understand it better, synthesizing knowledge by combining it into new patterns and evaluating new information by forming an opinion and judging the quality of that new information." (Ministry of Education, 2005, p7)

In CP, the themes of the teaching materials should be inspired from the learners' life situations, needs and interests, which is not the case in "Getting Through". The curriculum designers think that interest may be raised simply by raising the complexity of the tasks. Whereas, CP envisions interest to be invoked by incorporating learners' needs and interests into the activities.

3.2.2.3. Flexibility

Does the textbook give freedom to teachers to choose from a variety of texts, activities and other resources?

The teachers are advised to use the textbook selectively in parallel to the stream the learners are enrolled in;Thus, teachers have to adjust their classes in accordance with the appropriate stream. There are units which are more particularly geared to the scientific streams, while others are more literary' or language-oriented. Teachers also have the freedom to "change or ignore any material from the textbook that seems inappropriate to their classes, or unrelated to their students' interests." (Ministry of Education, 2005, p9)

The program designers state that "Getting Through" is devised in such a way that it becomes a handy and flexible pedagogic medium for use, and one which "does not seek to inhibit teachers from creating activities other than those included here" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p3).However, that does not mean that the teacher is not bound to a thematic and linguistic structure that he has to adhere to, one that follows the " guidelines and instructions of the Ministry of National Education regarding this stage of learning." (Ministry of Education, 2005, p3). It is important to note that the freedom teachers have is limited. The linguistic and thematic relevance of the new selected texts must match the ones of the omitted texts. The teacher is bound by thematic and structural elements that he cannot escape because they are specified in the national curriculum by the ministry of education. Teachers should have more control of what to teach and how to teach. The freedom to select the appropriate themes that best suit the learners must be granted to teachers along with the flexibility to choose the best methods to deliver it.

3.3. Learner Roles/ Teacher Factors

The program designers chose not to mention the roles of both the teacher and the learner again. This makes us assume that the roles have not changed from "At the Crossroads" to

"Getting Through". This assumption allows us to conclude that teacher/learner roles did not change. In other words, the learners are responsible for their own learning while the teacher is seen as the knower in the classroom.

3.4. Pedagogical Factors

3.4.1. What methodology does the textbook follow?

"Getting Through" is based on CBA principles, which in turn is based on a pedagogy of integration. CBA allows for the learning to have meaning while also prepares for later learning. The former refers to the process of making sure that learning is not "theoretical for the pupil but that it can serve him very concretely in his school and / or family environment, and later, in his adult life, of citizen" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p5) by making it more effective through the mobilization of knowledge in a context of constantly new problem solving situations. The latter (problem solving situation) refers to the investment of new gains into more complex skills each year.

"Getting Through" focuses primarily on three competencies, interacting orally, interpreting, and producing a message. The learner is asked to produce an oral utterance using all the necessary phonological aspects (intonation, stress) in response to a communicative situation. The mastery of the oral competence must allow the learner to "interact, negotiate, persuade, give his opinion, during the brainstorming (or unpacking of ideas in bulk) of the negotiation and the resolution of a problem in collective." (Ministry of Education,2005, p7). The student is also required to be able to interpret an oral or written message by himself while being able to produce a response either oral or written using all types of written speech in correspondence to any communicative situation.

Critical Pedagogy encourages teachers not to resort to the banking model of education where it is assumed that knowledge is a possession that the teacher needs to give to students

(Cozma and Popa, 2009, p5) where the teacher "deposits knowledge" in students and uses questions to "withdraw" such knowledge through examination. Instead, the teachers are asked to use Generative themes extracted from the students' reality which can be related directly to the teaching process. This is done by listening to students and empowering them as instrumental contributors to the learning process, leading to the creation of generative themes that will continue to mold how the course is formed and structured (Brookfield, 2003)

Critical Pedagogy views teaching as a way of engaging students in a cycle of reflection and action by embracing dialogical problem posing practices. The burden of creating such engagement falls on Educators who must create opportunities for students to engage in dialogic co-investigations alongside the teacher, and study problems identified by and of consequence to the learners (Freire, 2000, p81). The scope of such engagement, however, is limited to language mastery. The problem learners face is of a linguistic nature, and to solve it the learner has to use previously mastered language skill to communicate in a given situation. In other words, the reflection students go through and the action they take is only related to the communicative aspect: what, when, and how to use the language.

3.4.2. Is the textbook culturally biased in favor of the target culture or the native culture?

The native characters that inhabit the pages of the textbook are: Leila, Maya, Jamel, Ali, and Said. It is interesting to see that the number of characters declined from that of the first year textbook. The characters are used only in three listening scripts. We observe that they have no back stories other than that derived from the context of the listening scripts. Leila, Jamel and May are secondary school students presumably the same age as the learners. We do not know anything about Ali and Said from the context provided in their conversation.

Algerian culture is scarcely mentioned in almost all of the units. In the first unit there is a picture of a painting by the Algerian painter Mohamed Rasem called Ramadan Nights. It depicts Algiers in the 19th century during the rule of the Ottomans, but the discussion quickly shifts to European lifestyle in the rest of the unit.

Maya and Leila make their debut in the second unit "Make Peace" where they engage in a created dialogue with only one purpose: to be a pretext to the grammatical point that the learner will deal with later on. Another shift to the target culture happens once more in this unit when dealing with the subject of slavery; American history is discussed along with prominent figures like Martin Luther King and Abraham Lincoln.

In the third unit "Waist Not, Want Not", the local aspect of culture is totally abandoned in favor of the target culture. Pollution in the Amazons, accident of the Exxon Valdez takes center stage along with global and scientific subjects like noise pollution and photosynthesis.

In Budding Scientist, the contributions of the Islamic culture like astrolabe and geometry are included in the first rubric "Think It Over". Jamal and Maya make another appearance in the listening sequence again only to make inference to another language point (making suggestions). In "News and Tails", a unit devoted almost entirely to western civilization's literature. Newspaper and novels' cover appear at the first page of the unit. The topic of the Tsunami that hit The Pacific in 2004 headlines the Discovering Language sequence. Finally, the unit comes to an end with a story from the Grimm brothers' fairy tale classics.

Unit six (No Man is an Island) starts with a "think it over" rubric on Boumerdes' 2003 earthquake. This instance marks the only time a local event headlined a unit in "Getting Through", yet again the focus changes to worldwide topics like the youth survey, and the interview with Bill Gates (founder of Microsoft).

Science or Fiction is the most westernized unit in the book. Headlined by American movie posters like Star Trek, TV shows like The X-Files, and novels' covers like The Time Machine by H.G. Wells. The focus on the western aspects lends itself well since science fiction is a famous literary genre most associated with American literature.

The tasks included in the textbook stimulate the learners to reflect; However, this reflection is only limited to how to use the acquired language point in more complex situations. The material is mostly based on authentic material that showcases the target culture in a more detailed manner than that of the first and the second year textbooks. However, the way in which the target culture is presented is biased in favor of the target culture at the expense of native culture. The West is and has been always developed, and they are so because they have the best scientists and scholars, while the native culture is presented as merely a translator that passed the knowledge from the Greeks to the Europeans.

3-New Prospects (Third Year Textbook)

3.3.1. Program Factors

3.3.1.1. Rationale

-What is the rationale behind creating this book? (Goals, targeted skills). What are The aims of the textbook?

According to the designers of "New Prospects", the aim behind teaching English is to help our society "integrate harmoniously into modernity by participating fully in the linguistic community that uses this language for all types of interaction" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p3). Such knowledge will allow the learner to access all kinds of knowledge without falling for the negative aspects of acculturation.

This knowledge does not involve only the acquisition of linguistic items only "but also "of cross-curricular skills of a methodological / technological, cultural and social nature" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p3) that involves developing the learners mind with critical and analytical tools and making him appreciate local values and respect global ones at the same time.

According to CP principles, the topics and themes included in EFL materials should be generative to invoke considerable discussion and analysis. "New Prospects" limits its discussion to that of the linguistics side. All what learners can aspire to is to integrate in the global community while shielding oneself from the negative aspects of such interaction.

3.3.1.2. Aims

-What are the objectives of the textbook?

One of the central aims of CP is to give power to students to change their reality. This is done by developing their critical thought patterns in everyday life, so they do not simply accept norms as truth (Freire, 1970) and by engaging them in a cycle of reflection and action through a process of dialogue with the teacher where:" the teacher presents the material to the students for their consideration, and re-considers his earlier considerations as the students express their own " (Freire 2009, p57). This results in students asking questions that will challenge the contradictions of society and their lived experiences, which will turn into curiosities for student to investigate, and finally resulting in a shared knowledge (Menecke, 2010)

"New Prospects "has three types of objectives: linguistic and communicative objectives, methodological and technological, and socio-cultural and socio-professional objectives. The linguistic and communicative objectives refer to the desire to provide the learner with a "with a solid linguistic base (grammar, syntax, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency in oral and written codes)" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p4) that will enable him to communicate easily in the target language which in turn will allow him to pursue professional or higher education in English in the future.

Methodological and technological objectives refer to the objective of improving the learner's intellectual abilities of analyzing, synthesizing and evaluation by promoting his learning and self-evaluation strategies as well as encouraging his ability to reflect on his learning while also training him in the use of "technological tools such as information technology or the internet that are indispensable for the documentation and research in class and out of class.

The socio-cultural and socio-professional objectives refer to the objective of stimulating the learner's curiosity by including interdisciplinary themes tackled in other school subjects to his language learning that will allow the learner to have a professional career after finishing school.

The program also makes a reference to entry and exit profiles. The first refers to the learners' abilities upon starting at the start of the school year where he is expected to be "able to produce, from a pictorial text or not, oral or written, a statement of about fifteen lines to report to a third party a fact or event closely related to the text (read or heard) and with the communication situation presented in the instruction" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p5). The second refers to what is expected from the learner at the end of the school year and the secondary school cycle and that is to be able to correctly produce a written passage in a selected genre of a written discourse (descriptive, narrative, argumentative, expositive).

The material does indeed aim to develop the learner's communicative abilities not only in relation to the acquisition of linguistic items but also in relation to cross-curricular skills of methodological / technological, cultural objectives. The objectives, however, lack any social development depth into them. All what it focuses on is for the learner to acquire and master the use of the linguistic competencies: to listen, to read, and to write effectively. It also fails to tackle how to give power to learners to change their reality

3.3.2. Content Factors

3.3.2.1. Authenticity

-Does the textbook use authentic or created texts?

New Prospects uses "a mix of authentic and semi-authentic material "(Ministry of Education, 2005, p18). The following table details the nature and the source of the material used within the textbook.

Page	Source of the text	Type of the text
22-23	"Africana", Presus Books	A Text
37-38 196- 198	"Out of the Ancient World", Penguin	A Text A Text
54-55	"The Economist"	A Newspaper Article
66-67	"Business Vocabulary in English"	A Text
83-84 174- 175	"Guide to British and American Culture"	A Text
91	"English Puzzle"	A Game
98-99	"American Life and Institutions"	A Text
102	"Challenges"	A Chart
110	"Longman English Grammar"	A Text
126 208- 209	"Reader's Digest"	A Newspaper Article
131	"Advanced Writing"	A Writing Model
134	"Charlot et al/ Lets Go"	A Song
143- 144	"The Book of Popular Science " "The International Herald Tribune "	A Text A Newspaper

157-158		Article
189-190	"Fables of Our Time"	A story
201	"Cambridge Certificate: A Course for First Certificate"	A Dialogue
206	"Modern English International "	A Text
207	"The Good News" Magazine	A Newspaper Article
209-210	"Skills In English"	A Text
240	"The General History of Africa"	A Text
241	"Newsweek"	A Newspaper Article
242	"The Financial Times"	A Newspaper Article
243-244	"Heart of Darkness", Penguin	A Story
246	"The Times"	A Newspaper Article
247-248	"Nice Work", Penguin	A Story
248-249	"No Longer at Ease"	A Story
250-	"UNESCO"	An Official

251 262- 263 267- 268		Document
251- 253	"Hard Times", Charles Dickens	A Story
255	"Looking Ahead"	A Story
257 259- 261	"Daily Mail"	A Newspaper Article
265- 266	"The Fire Next Time"	A Story
266- 267	"Writing Themes about Literature"	A Text
268- 269	"The American Ways", Longman	A Text
269	"Modern English International"	A Text

Table 9: Type of Source of Texts in "New Prospects"

CP requires EFL materials to base their content on source culture which is the case with "New Prospects". Most of the used texts in the textbook are from authentic sources like newspaper articles, books, short stories, and official documents.

3.3.2.2. Appropriacy

-Is the material substantial enough or interesting enough to hold the attention of the learners?

The textbook designers view language learning as a progressive process through which the learners make errors; these errors are seen as a natural part of the learning process. As such, they put forth tasks that allow learners "to notice, reflect and analyze how English is used" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p9). These tasks require the learner to rely on previously studied aspects of language, skills, and strategies tackled during the previous years.

CP requires EFL materials to take into account the intellectual advances of the learners in arranging the content. "New Prospects" clearly adheres to that requirements while moving from one elements to the next in terms of language schema and structures as well as cognition.

3.3.2.3. Flexibility

-Does the textbook give freedom to teachers to choose from a variety of texts, activities and other resources?

Because of the variety of tasks provided in the textbook, teachers are expected to be selective. Thus, it is up to the teacher to "opt for the most appropriate tasks, in accordance with the needs of the classroom(s)" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p9). That means teachers are free to choose whether the emphasis should be more on vocabulary building or grammatical structures, or on reading and writing skills.

The teachers are urged to select themes that suit the needs of their learners. In that manner we can say that the themes can be generative of discussion and analysis, but only when the teachers are selective of themes that are derived from the learners' life situations. The themes included in the textbook as is cannot claim to be generative in nature. Finally, we can say that the content is arranged while taking the intellectual advances of the learners into account, moving from the known to the unknown while allowing learners to err and reflect on their learning.

3.3.3. Learner Roles/ Teacher Factors

The role of both the teacher and the learners is not mentioned in the official program of New

Prospects or in the teacher's book of the third year which mean that the roles are not changed. The teacher is expected to cooperate, guide, and mediate while the learners are expected to take responsibility for their own learning. However, the teacher is still viewed as the knower. The learners do not get to participate in making decisions about what and how to learn.

3.3.4. Pedagogical Factors

-What methodology does the textbook follow?

"New Prospects" is designed in accordance with CBA principles which in turn is based on a pedagogy of integration that offers a learning that features "discovery, observation, application, reformulation and control" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p.5) that gives learning a meaning, and a chance for more of it in the future.

Meaning is derived from the desire to make sure "the learning is not theoretical for the pupil but that it can serve him very concretely in his school and / or family environment, and later, in his adult life, to citizenhood" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p.6). This is done by making learning more effective through contextualization it and making it more responsive to every new problematic situation.

Because learning is progressive from one year to the next, learners are reinvested in more complex situations to gain even more complex skills every year. This is done through putting learners in new Learning and integrating situations. Each new learning situation promotes further learning (know what and know how) with the aim of reinvestment outside of school. It is composed of three elements:

-The support (presented to the student): which can be a text (oral or written), an illustration, a photo, a CD, from which a context is created

- The task: which is done in class or out of class and which anticipates the expected product

-The instruction: This is the set of work instructions that are given to the learner explicitly.

The situation of integration is the learner's outcome and it refers to any situation that asks the learner to reinvest his skills and knowledge to solve a real life problem. It uses authentic and real life settings, and is motivating to the learners because it allows him to use his knowledge to solve a problem individually.

There are three main competencies that the textbook focuses on; they involve the interaction, interpretation and production of diverse messages (2005). Interacting orally entails the learner's ability to produce "an oral utterance, using the pronunciation / intonation, structures and vocabulary corresponding to a given communication situation" (Ministry of Education, 2005, p7). It must also allow him to interact, give opinions, and debate with others. The second competence refers to the learner's ability to "understand and interpret an oral or written statement to inform themselves, answer questions, justify an answer, in a communication situation." (Ministry of Education, 2005, p7). The final competence refers to the production of oral or written messages using all types of written speech in order to give feedback in a situation of communication.

Instead of the banking education where Teachers and curriculum have the "right answers" which students are expected to regurgitate onto tests (Peterson, 2009 as cited in Mencke and Price, 2013, p91) CP requires teachers to use reflection to "question what is presented" (Freire 1985: 50), and to create a shared view of knowledge, a knowledge that is horizontal, from teacher to learner and back again, a knowledge that is co-created based on the situations and contexts students go through and live in.

"New Prospects" does put learning in a context, a context that is created and far from authentic. Instead of reflection, "New Prospects" resorts to integration. A situation designed to force the learners to use his communicative skills to answer a question, to have a

conversation or to write a composition. Reflection takes a back seat to the aim of communicating with the language. There is no creation of knowledge, but the knowledge the teachers assert is true, and more importantly there is no context based on the learners' lives to extract or create knowledge from.

-Is the textbook culturally biased in favor of the target culture or the native culture?

There are no created characters in "New Prospects", neither native or foreign because of the complexity of the texts provided as well as the fact that learners are expected to have a much higher level of language communication to be able to read and comprehend authentic texts.

Instead, we have authentic texts with authentic settings and historical events, and people from authentic backgrounds. In the first unit "Signs of Time" which deals with ancient civilizations; we have texts about the Greek, Egyptian, and the Sumerian civilizations. The prehistoric civilization that existed in the Algerian desert is also mentioned in a separate text. The focus, however, quickly shifts back to other civilizations like the Easter Islands, the Egyptians; and the Phoenician civilizations in later texts. The unit closes off with a story of the Trojan war.

The second unit "Ill Gotten Gains Never Prosper" focuses on ethics in business, and as such its theme is more related to corporate culture with mentions of counterfeiting of cloths, food, and famous paintings. The unit discusses ethical concepts like imitation, child labor, and bribery with texts that showcase the two side of each debate, whether with or against along with arguments to support each side; However, all of this discussion takes place in a foreign setting, child labor being a phenomena depicted mostly in south east Asian countries, while counterfeiting is depicted being hurtful most to the European Union countries. The take from these texts would be that everything that is wrong comes from outside of the western

countries but they are the most ones affected by it.

The third unit "Schools: Different and Alike" focuses on the subject of education. It deals with the philosophy of education in countries like Britain and the United States of America with the goal of allowing the learner to compare and contrast such situations to his own country. The unit depicts western kids playing music or working as cooking chefs and being happy regardless of the career path they choose. The unit showcases western schools to be an organized and clean environment where students wear matching uniforms and walk in straight lines to enter their classes.

The fourth unit "Safety First" deals with consumers' food safety. Big multinational corporations are depicted in pictures, companies like Sony, Nikes, and Coca Cola. Consumers' safety and how it is protected is the dominant theme in the unit is shown being defended only by western organizations like GreenPeace. The problems that come with the western consumer's habits are also given first priority, problems like obesity that is ravaging western countries instead of food deprivation like most third world countries face. The unit also makes reference to the concept of advertising using western actresses and companies like Cindy Crawford, and Toshiba respectively to make a point about the importance and effect of ads on consumers.

The fifth unit "It is a Giant Leap for Mankind" deals with the theme of astronomy and the solar system. The texts make references to telecommunication satellites and astronauts like Yuri Gagarin, and western astronomers like Galileo, and Kepler depicting astronomy as a science first developed and led by western scholars. The unit also deals with the topic of alien life and it uses a shot from a famous American film E.T depicting first contact between aliens and humans to take place in a western country (always America). N.A.S.A, the American

space agency is always shown to be the only agency to explore space, and that is not the case in reality.

The final unit in the "New Prospects" is titled "We are a Family"; It deals with the theme of feelings and emotions. The unit makes a reference to Algerian comedy and famous Algerian comedians Saleh Oughrot and Beyonna while discussing the concept of humor and comedy. The discussion turns then to how American and British people deal with emotions as if they are two separate entities instead of making a contrast between them as a whole and the Algerians or Arab people. Real life personalities like princess Diana of Wales are referenced in a text talking about her life story. The task that follows the text asks the learners to write about expected reactions from Algerian men and women to different happy and sad situations. This task reinforces the idea that men are stronger than women in terms of how they react to the same things. The last sequence in the unit deals with myths and mentions two mythological creatures: the dragon and the unicorn, both of which belong to a different culture than the Arab-Islamic culture.

We can observe that in all of the units throughout the book, the western culture was presented first either in the form of a picture or a written text, as a preview task or as the main task. The learners were exposed to the western values and symbols without a filter. That means in a way subconsciously, the learners are fed the fact that these values are true as they are because they were not challenged at least with a counterpart picture or a text from the Arab-Islamic culture.

Discussion of the Findings

The checklist investigates the five factors of the textbook: the program, the content, the pedagogy, the teacher, and the learner. Each factor covers principles that CP adheres to. All three textbooks have a purpose relating to the ultimate goal of the program and that is to develop the learners' communicative abilities. This purpose, however, is lacking the need to

raise the learners' critical consciousness of the world around them. Thus, it lacks the aim of achieving social development that should come with language skill development. In another word. The program focuses exclusively on the language front while neglecting the social aspect all together.

The content in these textbooks is defined by themes. Each textbook contains different units with unique themes embedded with the reading and listening texts. The majority of these resources are authentic and arranged in sequences that mirror that of the language learning process: listening and speaking first, and then reading and writing. The evaluation reveals that the content across all levels is not generative in nature. As a result, it doesn't invoke much needed discussion between the teacher and the learners or among the learners themselves. CP requires that the material should be derived from the learners' life situations, needs and interests. This is clearly overlooked since most of the material is authentic in nature. The only principle respected in the textbooks is that it is arranged in a manner that respects the intellectual advances of the learners going from the easiest to the most difficult as it moves further.

The pedagogical factor covers how the teaching is done in a way that engages the learners in a cycle of reflection and action. This is done by embracing dialogue as the main tool for implementing the principle of the problem posing education. All three textbooks apply a form of reflection; however, it is only limited to the grammar part. Each time learners are presented with a grammar point, they are asked to use it in a made up situation. This reflection misses the true aim of the cycle in that it (the reflection) has to come from the dialogue between the learners and their teacher.

The factor of the teacher deals with how CP views him as a co-learner, a co-decision maker. Each time a teacher brings a certain material, he brings with it certain expectations.

Using dialogue, the teacher signals that he seems himself in pair with his learners: co-creating the knowledge they acquire in class by sharing his power. This power entails the decision he makes to choose what and how to teach. This element is obviously missing from the textbooks as it is clear that the theme, source, and language points of each material are already decided. The teacher cannot choose otherwise, and subsequently, his learners cannot either.

The learners are the final factor in this checklist. It relates their roles as co-decision makers to the expectations assumed of them while in class. In other words, the material should elevate the learners' critical consciousness in line with their language mastery. The analysis reveals that learners have no say in what to learn or how to learn. Since there is no dialogue between the two, there is no way to know what are the interests or needs of the learners. Thus, it is only natural that the social development and critical consciousness of the learners is overlooked.

Conclusion

The checklist was created to investigate the place of CP's elements and principles with the Algerian EFL secondary school textbooks. The analysis has rejected the first hypotheses set forth at the beginning of this thesis. Critical Pedagogy has no vital place within the three EFL secondary school textbooks: At the Crossroads, Getting Through, and New Prospects.

The content of the three books is arranged in units based on themes and language points taught. This structure leaves no room for teachers to adapt new material that generates discussion among the learners. The pedagogy the textbooks adhere to apply a form of reflection limited to grammar. Critical Pedagogy, on the other hand calls for a pedagogy that engages the learners in a cycle of reflection and action. Whereas CP views learners as co-creators of knowledge and decision making, the textbooks are missing this element.

Critical Pedagogy (PC) is the newest philosophy of education around; as such, it is

understandable how unfamiliar it is to Algerian EFL textbook designers. This unfamiliarity is translated into how obscure the elements and principles of PC are integrated within the activities and texts presented throughout the three textbooks covering the secondary level, which is the main concern of this thesis.

Chapter Four: Teachers in Action: Field Investigation

Introduction

4.1. Means of Data Collection

4.2. The Sample

4.3. Results and Discussion

Conclusion

Introduction

The field investigation is the principle focus of this chapter. It aims to answer the question of whether the Algerian secondary EFL teachers are aware of the main principles and elements of CP or not.

A single questionnaire was designed to explore Algerian teachers' views and knowledge of CP.

4.1. The Questionnaire

In the framework of this study, we have devised a teachers' questionnaire at the Secondary Level. The questionnaire is of 37 questions divided into four main sections. Section one titled "general Information" (Q1-Q6). Section two titled "Pre-Classroom Practices" (Q7-Q12). Section three titled "Teacher's During Class Activities" (Q13-Q33). The final section is titled "Teacher's After Class activities" (Q34-Q37).

-Section One: "General Information" (Q1-Q6): this section aims to obtain information about the teachers (respondent) namely their age (Q1), teaching experience (Q2), Gender (Q3), university level and degree (Q4, Q5), and teaching ours (Q6).

-Section Two: "Teacher's Pre-Classroom Practices" (Q7-Q12): this section deals mainly with teachers' preparation before entering the classroom from tackling the pupils' needs (Q7-Q8-Q10-Q12), and their perspective towards the official curriculum (Q9-Q11)

-Section Three: "Teacher's During Class Activities" (Q13-Q33): the longest section in the questionnaire. It deals with teachers' practices during the classroom activities, from their stand on the pupils' place and their own.

-Section Four: «Teacher's After Class activities" (Q34-Q37): this final section deals with the role of the teachers as evaluators.

4.2. The Sample

  Seeking to select a sample size that is an unbiased representation of the population, we opted for random sampling where "Subjects in the population are sampled by a random process, using either a random number generator or a random number table, so that each person remaining in the population has the same probability of being selected for the sample." (Frerichs, 2008, p3). 60 teachers could be contacted and randomly selected out of 193 teachers currently working at the district of Oum El Bouaghi. The sample represents 30% of the entire population.

4.3. Results and Discussion

1-Age

Age	N	%
26	8	13
27	12	20
28	12	20
29-42	28	47

Table 10: Teachers' Age

  Less than half of the sample 47 % is aged between 29 years old and 42 years old.40% is aged between 27 and 28. 13% of the teachers are aged 26 years old. Assuming that teachers start working right after graduating college, it would be correct to assume that most of the sampled teachers have less than 3years of working experience.

2-Teaching Experience

Teaching experience (years)	N	%
1-3	32	53
4-6	28	47

Table 11: Teachers' Working Experience

More than half the sample has a working experience between one and three years. The

results collaborate with our earlier assumption that the majority of teachers do lack a

substantial working experience.

3-Gender

Gender	N	%
Male	8	13
Female	52	87

Table 12: Teachers' Gender

Females make up the majority of the sample. Male teachers, on the other hand, account for

only 13% of the sample.

4-Major

Major	N	%
Linguistics	48	80
ENS	4	7
Literature	8	13

Table 13: Teachers' University Major

93% of the teachers graduated from university. Only 7% of the sampled teachers have a specialized training in teaching being graduates of the ENS (Superior National School for teachers). Would this lack of training explain the teachers' response towards CP?

5-Degree

Degree	N	%
BA	0	0%
Masters	60	100%
PhD	0	0%

Table 14: Teachers' University Degree

100% of the teachers have a Master's Degree. All teachers at the secondary level are required by law to have at least a Master's degree to be able to teach at the secondary level.

6-Teaching hours

Teaching Hours	N	%
16-21	60	100
22-27	0	0
28-33	0	0
Above 33	0	0

Table 15: Teachers' Weekly Hour Load

All teachers work between 16 to 21 hours a week. This range is a standard range at the secondary level. It is clear that there is no excess of workload put on teachers.

7-In planning what to do in the classroom, I consider my students' expectations and immediate needs

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	20	33.33
agree	40	66.37
disagree	0	0
strongly disagree	0	0

Table 16: Justifying the Inclusion of the Students' Expectations in Lesson Planning

Figure 01: Justifying the Inclusion of the Students' Expectations in Lesson Planning

The vast majority of informants agree that they do in fact consider their learners' needs and expectations while planning the lessons. Moreover, one third of the teachers strongly support that statement. There is a clear consensus about the importance of needs analysis.

8-The students' future needs and interests are considered while organizing my class goals

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	12	20%
agree	48	80%
disagree	0	0
strongly disagree	0	0

Table 17: Justifying the Inclusion of the Students' Needs in Lesson Planning

As with the previous statement, the teachers do agree about the need to include the learners' needs and interests while forming the class goals. It is only natural to assume they do if they already acknowledged how important it is to include the same element in planning the lesson.

9-The curriculum I follow tend to make students effective decision makers

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	4	7
agree	28	47
disagree	24	40
strongly disagree	4	7

Table 18: Teachers' Beliefs About the Role of the Curriculum in Making the Students Effective Decision Makers
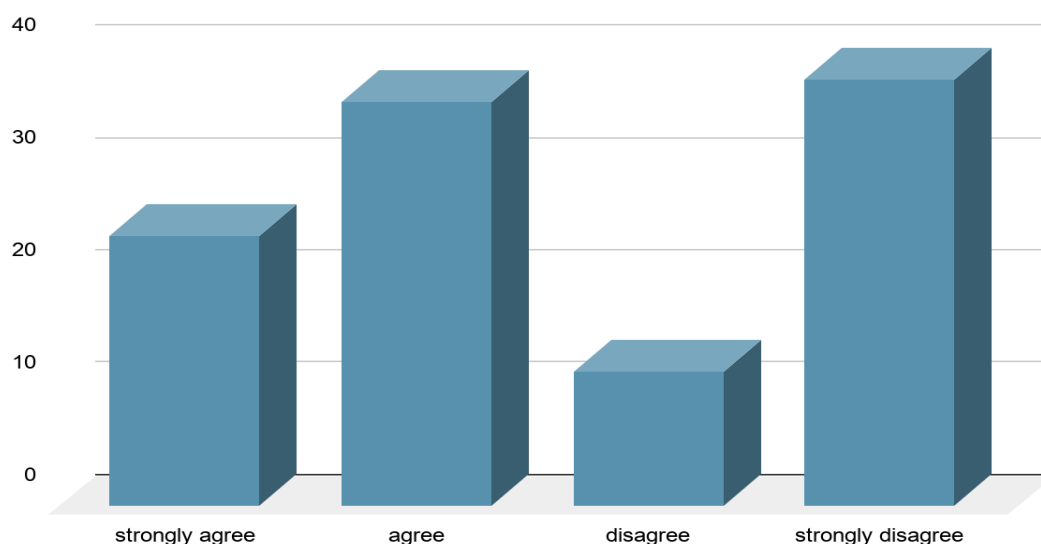
Figure 02: Teachers' Beliefs about the Role of the Curriculum in Making the Students Effective Decision Makers

The bulk of the responses (64%) agrees that the curriculum makes students effective decision makers. The remaining percentage oppose such a view. There is a real divide between teachers about what constitutes an effective decision maker.

10-Needs analysis is an essential part of my lesson planning

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	12	20
agree	48	80
disagree	0	0
strongly disagree	0	0

Table 19: Teachers' Belief About the Role of Needs Analysis in Lesson Planning
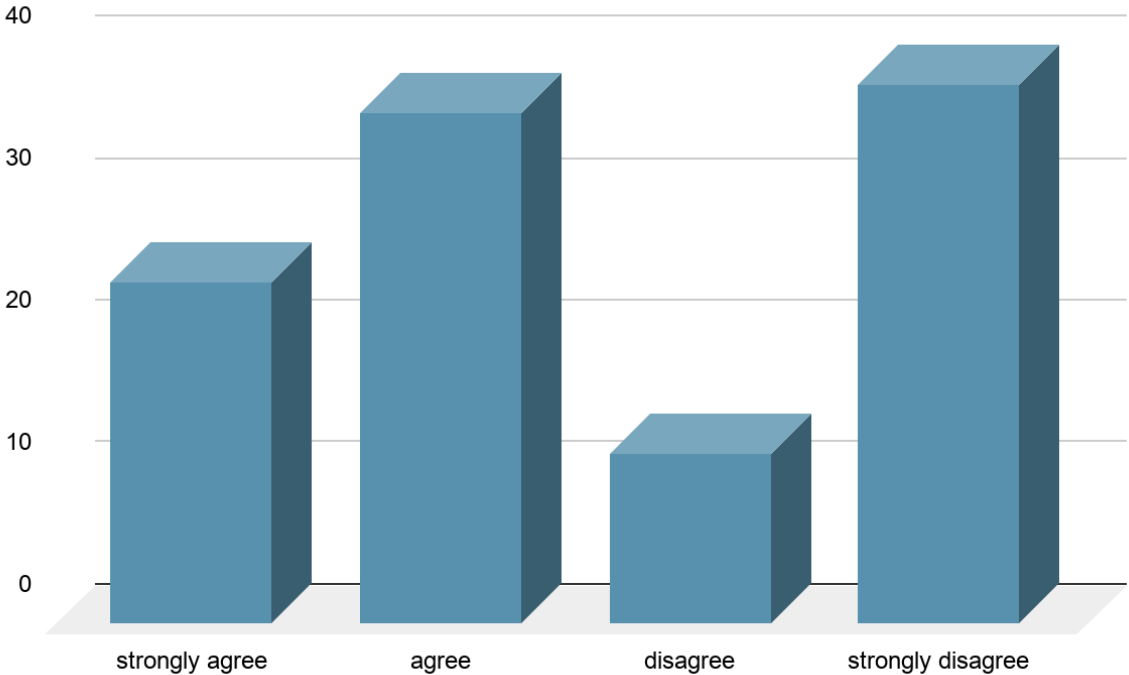
Figure 03: Teachers' Belief about the Role of Needs Analysis in Lesson Planning

All teachers agree that needs analysis is an important part of lesson planning.

11-My curriculum is strictly formal, paying little attention to underlying values (like freedom and multiculturalism)

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	8	13.3
agree	32	53.3
disagree	12	20
strongly disagree	8	13.3

Table 20: Teachers' Beliefs about the Nature of the Curriculum
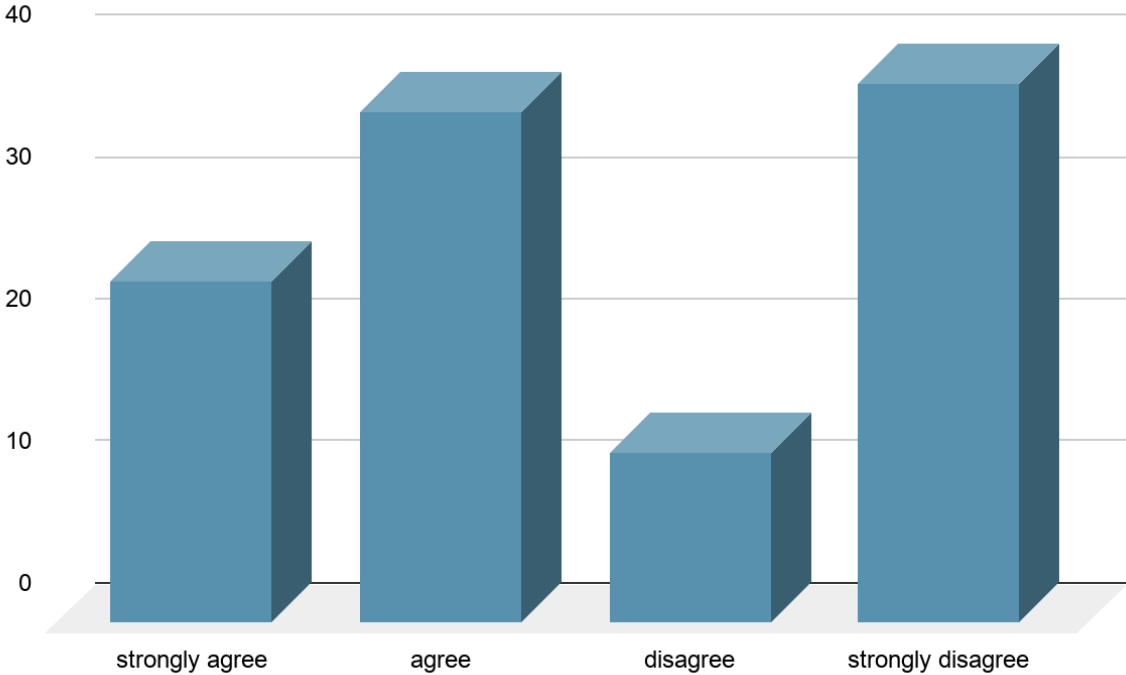
Figure 04: Teachers' Beliefs about the Nature of the Curriculum

The majority of the informants (66.6%) think the curriculum is strictly formal and does not pay attention to values like freedom and multiculturalism. The remaining one third (33.3%) thinks otherwise. It would be interesting to try and justify the apparent conflict

138

between the teachers' views on the same curriculum; on one hand, seeing it too formal and

negligent of values like freedom, and on the other making learners good decision makers.

12-I involve my pupils in lesson planning

Answers	N	%
Always	12	20
Often	8	13.3
sometimes	4	6.7
rarely	24	40
never	12	20

Table 21: Students' Involvement in Lesson Planning

60% of the sampled teachers state they rarely if never do include their learners in lesson

planning in contrast to a previous statement where they stressed the importance of doing so.

How can such a contradiction exist let alone be explained?

13-I think teachers should not address the political and ideological issues whatsoever during

classroom activity in the hope of changing society:

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	0	0
agree	20	33.33
disagree	20	33.33
strongly disagree	20	33.33

Table 22: Teachers' Beliefs about the Place of Political/Ideological Issues in Class
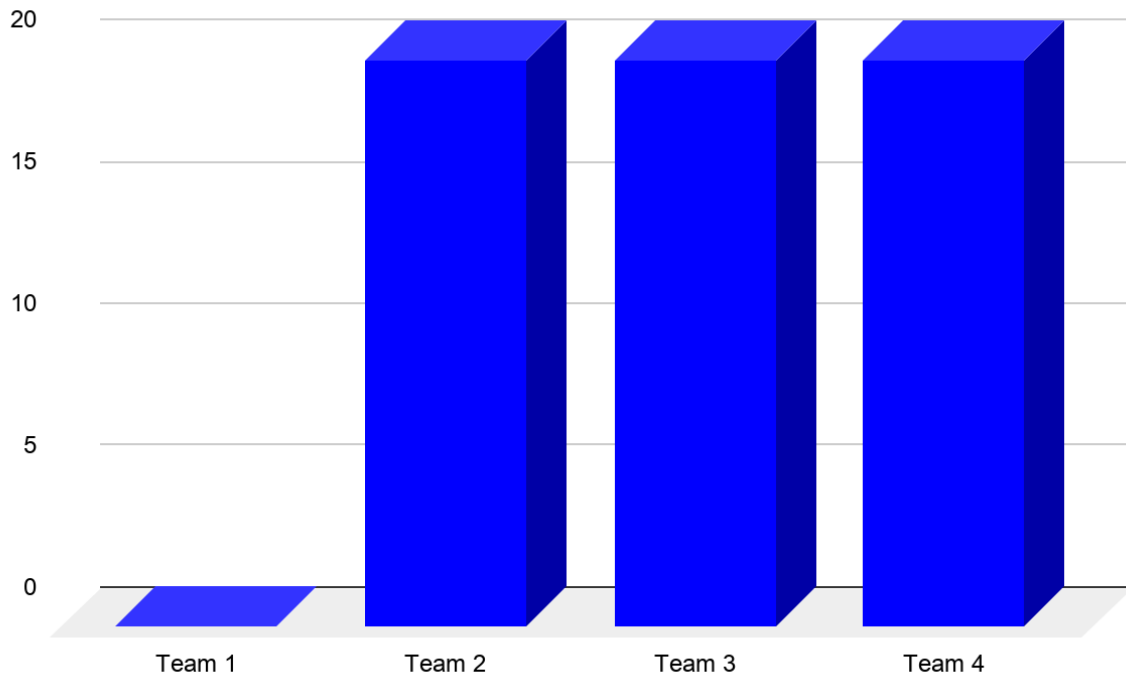
Activities

Figure 05: Teachers' Beliefs about the Place of Political/Ideological Issues in Class Activities

66.66% of the sample supports the inclusion of political and ideological issues in classroom activities. The same percentage thinks the curriculum is formal and rigid. It would be safe to assume that the curriculum does not allow teachers to include these aspects in lessons.

14-I think teachers should be only authority in the classroom

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	0	0
agree	8	13
disagree	48	80
strongly disagree	4	7

Table 23: Teachers' Beliefs about their Role as the Authority Figure in Class
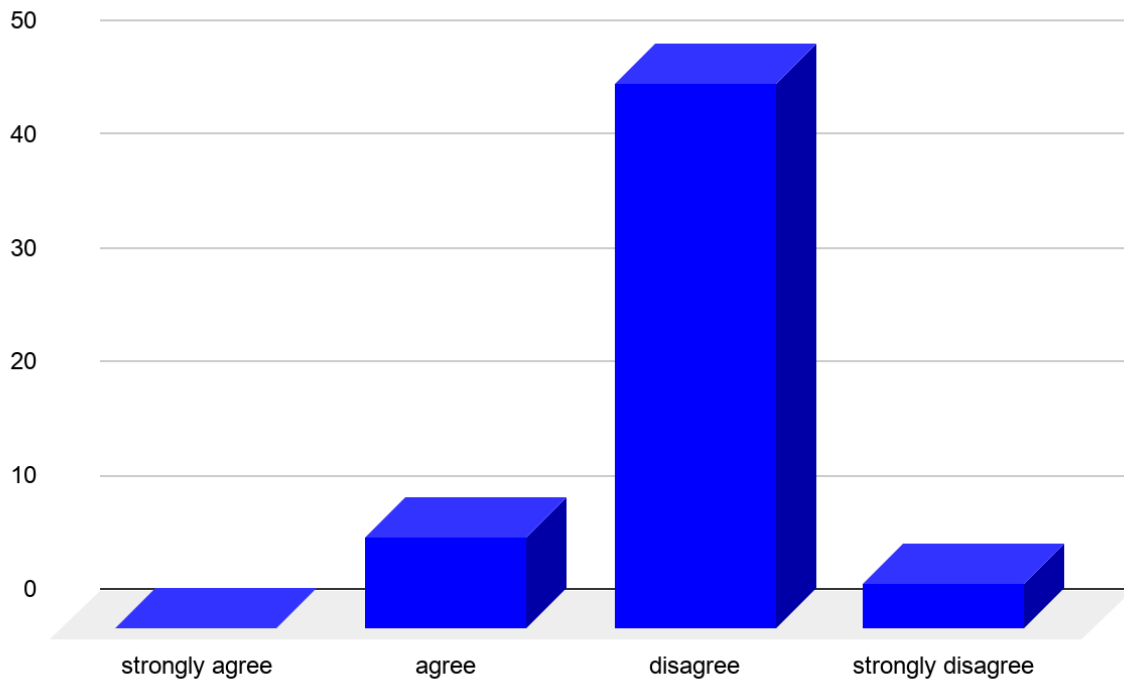
Figure 06: Teachers' Beliefs about their Role as the Authority Figure in Class

A huge portion of the informants think the teacher should not be the only authority in class. It is reasonable to hypothesize that the teachers do in fact believe in some sort of shared authority between the teacher and his learners.

15--I motivate my students to think critically about their own culture or previous experiences in life

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	32	53.3
agree	24	40
disagree	4	6.7
strongly disagree	0	0

Table 24: Motivating Students to Think Critically About their Own Culture

93.3% of teachers do in fact motivate their learners to think for themselves about their own culture and personal experiences.

16-I believe the main goal in my class is to convey information

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	4	7
agree	16	27
disagree	28	47
strongly disagree	12	20

Table 25: Teachers' Beliefs about their Main Goal in Class
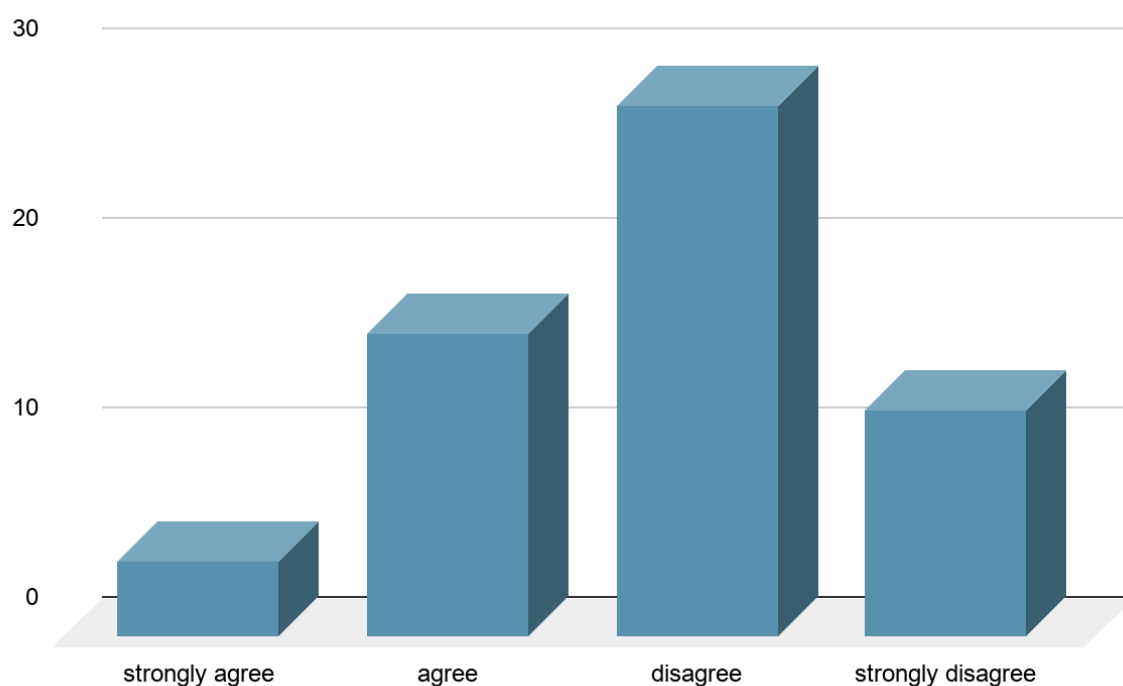
Figure 07: Teachers' Beliefs about their Main Goal in Class

Table 25 shows that more than two thirds of the teachers do think their role extends beyond conveying information. The results correlate with the previous statement where

teachers expressed their support to encouraging students to think critically about their culture and their own experiences.

17- I am against injustice whether in the classroom or in society

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	52	86.7
agree	4	6.7
disagree	4	6.6
strongly disagree	0	0

Table 26: Teachers' Position on Injustice in Society

93.4% of the sample shows an unequivocal refusal to injustice inside and outside the class. This would mean that these teachers do in fact think that what goes outside the classroom is as important as what goes inside it.

18-I am the knower in the class:

Answers	Number	%
strongly agree	0	0
agree	28	46.7
disagree	28	46.7
strongly disagree	4	6.6

Table 27: Teachers' Stand on Being the Knower in Class
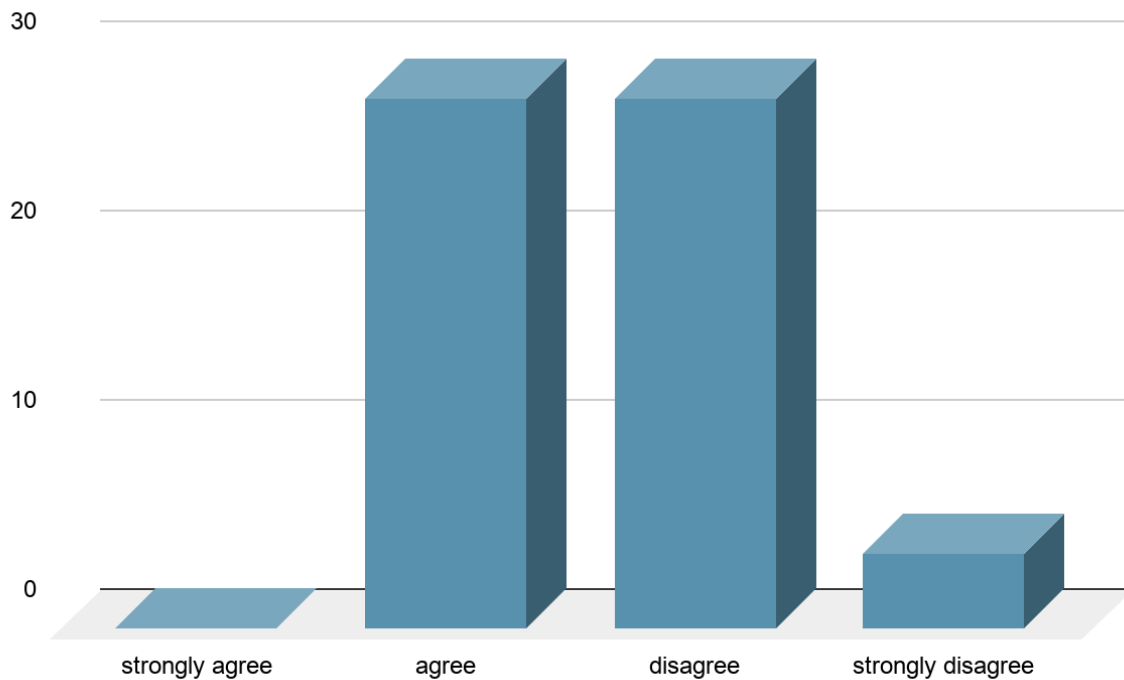
Figure 08: Table 27: Teachers' Stand on Being the Knower in Class

53.5% of the teachers do not think they are the only knower in class. The rest do in fact believe that they are the only source of knowledge in class. This would explain why in Q16 a third of teachers think that their sole role is to convey information.

19-I believe in dialogue to solve problems in the classroom

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	40	67
agree	20	33
disagree	0	0
strongly disagree	0	0

Table 28: Teachers' Position on Dialogue as a Problem Solver in Class

Table 28 shows that all teachers do agree that dialogue is a great tool to solve issues arising in class.

144

20-For teaching language skills, I try to relate topics in the syllabus to my students' social and cultural experiences

Answers	N	%
always	24	40
often	28	46.7
sometimes	8	13.3
rarely	0	0
never	0	0

Table 29: Frequency of Including Topics Relating to the Students Own Experiences
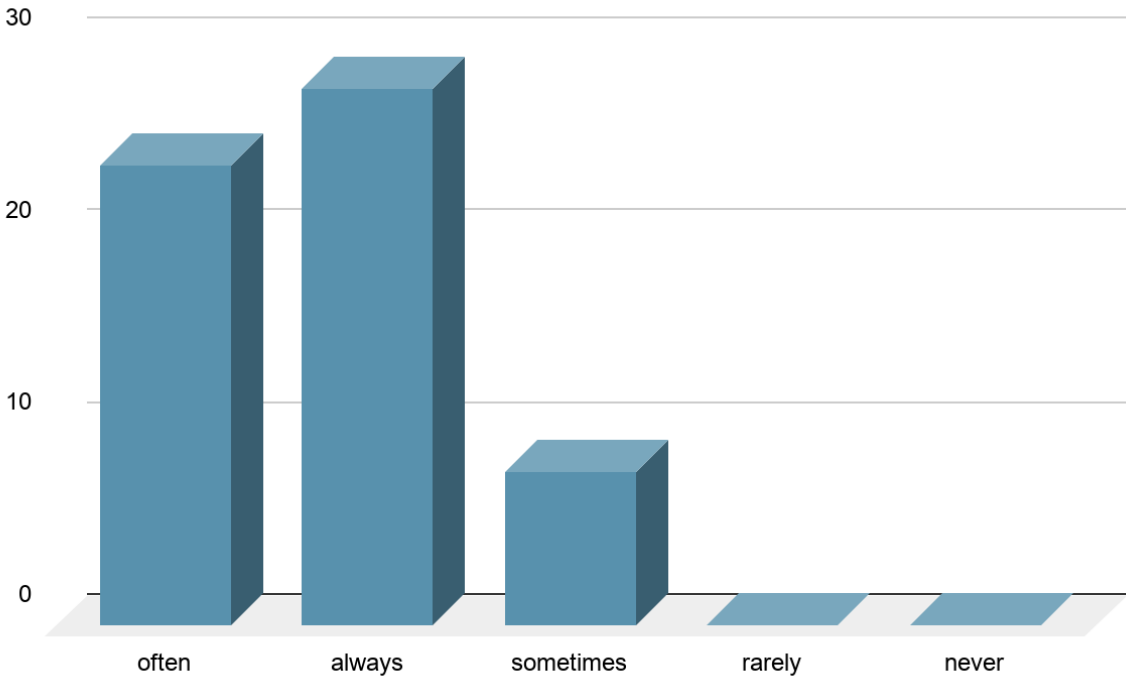
Figure 09: Frequency of Including Topics Relating to the Students Own Experiences

Table 29 shows that 40% of the informants always try to relate topics based on their learners' social and cultural experience to the language skill lessons. 46.7% of the informants

say they often do so while the rest admit they sometimes do so. The results correlate perfectly with that of Q15 where teachers stated they motivate their learners to think critically about their own culture or previous experiences in life. It is evident that teachers do so via including these experiences in a language lesson.

21-In my class, I just follow the goals and objectives of the Syllabus

Answers	N	%
always	0	0
often	32	53
sometimes	28	47
rarely	0	0
never	0	0

Table 30: Teachers' Stand on Following the Syllabus's Objectives
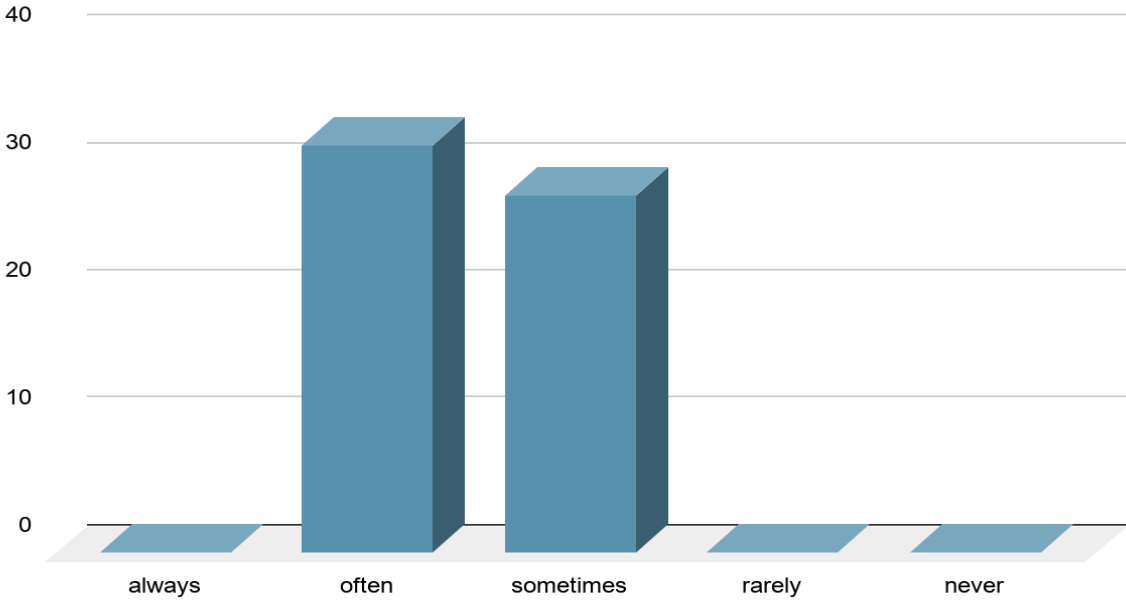
Figure 10: Teachers' Stand on Following the Syllabus's Objectives

More than half the teachers admit they often follow the goals and objectives of the syllabus. The rest state they deviate from the syllabus only sometimes. Can we assume that the syllabus encourages the teachers to include the lived experiences of their learners since they just stated they do (Q20)?, and how can we explain their views towards the curriculum as a strict and formal construct that neglects values like culturalism when in fact they admit they often follow its goals to the letter?

22--I adapt the teaching materials to suit my students' levels and needs

Answers	Number	%
always	16	27
often	36	60
sometimes	8	13
rarely	0	0
never	0	0

Table 31: Frequency of Adapting Lessons to the Learners' Level and Needs

Table 31 shows that up to 60% of the teachers often change the lessons included in the curriculum since it does not suit their learners' needs. 27% of the teachers say they always do so. The remaining 13% say they only do so sometimes. The results shown here are a response to the view teachers holds towards the curriculum expressed in Q 11.

23-As an activity, I request students to express their viewpoints about teaching materials and topics

Answers	N	%
always	8	13
often	4	7

sometimes	36	60
rarely	12	20
never	0	0

Table 32: Frequency of Asking for the Students' Viewpoint about the Lesson

A mere 13% state they always ask for their students' viewpoint about the lesson while the

majority (60%) say they sometimes do so. 20% of the informants admit they rarely consult

their learners, and 7% of the teachers say they do so often. These results contradict those

shown in Q12 where the teachers state they rarely if never involve their students in lesson

planning.it could be that the teachers do not involve their learners prior to learning, but do

investigate their reactions afterwards.

24-In my teaching, I try to follow the pre-set curriculum and textbooks

Answers	N	%
always	4	6.7
often	20	33.3
sometimes	32	53.3
rarely	4	6.7
never	0	0

Table 33: Frequency of Following the Pre-set Curriculum and Textbooks
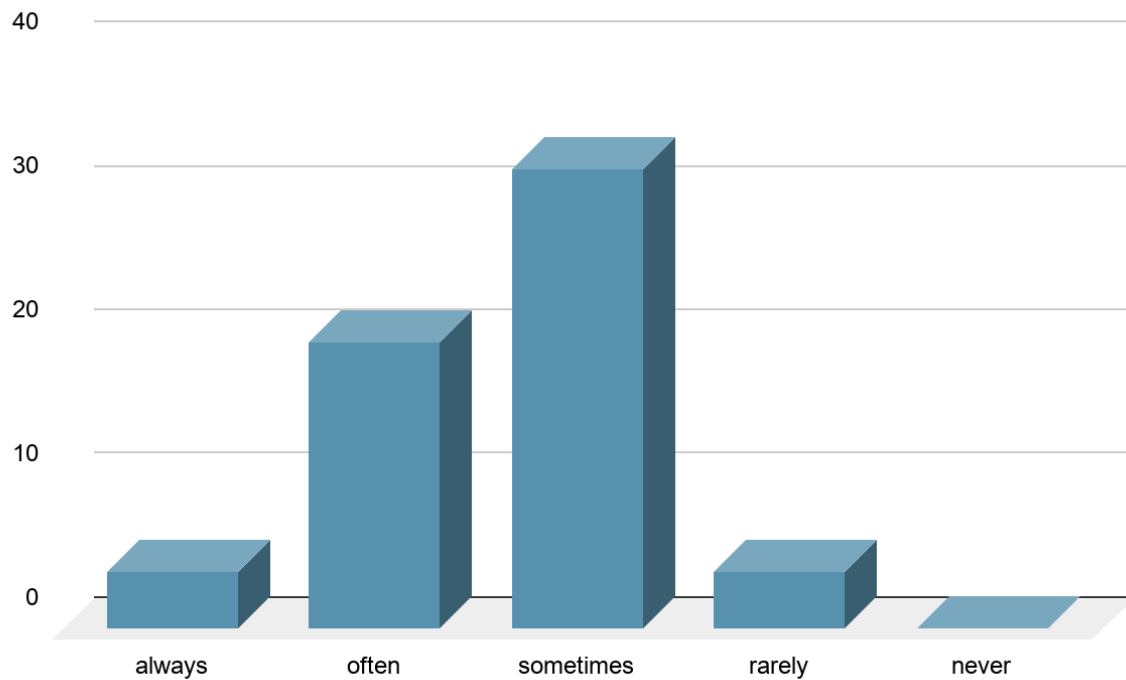
Figure 11: Frequency of Following the Pre-set Curriculum and Textbooks

Table 33 shows that more than half of the sampled teachers do follow the pre-set curriculum sometimes; A third of the informants state they do so often while only 6.7% say they rarely do so. A majority of teachers seem to be bound to the curriculum in a way or another. The only difference is how much.

25-In my class, I do not find enough time to learn about my students' hopes, needs and interests

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	8	13.33
agree	24	40
disagree	20	33.33
strongly disagree	8	13.33

Table 34: Teachers' Stand on the Need to Learn about Students' Hopes, and Interests

More than half of the teachers (53.33%) agree with the statement that there is not enough time to conduct needs analysis in which the learners' needs, hopes, and interests are discovered. The other portion of the teachers (46.66%) disagrees with that statement. These results are the opposite of those expressed in Q10 and Q20 where teachers acknowledged the importance of needs analysis and how frequently they try to relate their teaching to their learners' social and cultural experiences.

26-I try to connect my instructions to the real life experiences of my students

Answers	N	%
always	24	40
often	24	40
sometimes	12	20
rarely	0	0
never	0	0

Table 35: Frequency of Relating the Instructions to the Real Life Experiences of the Students
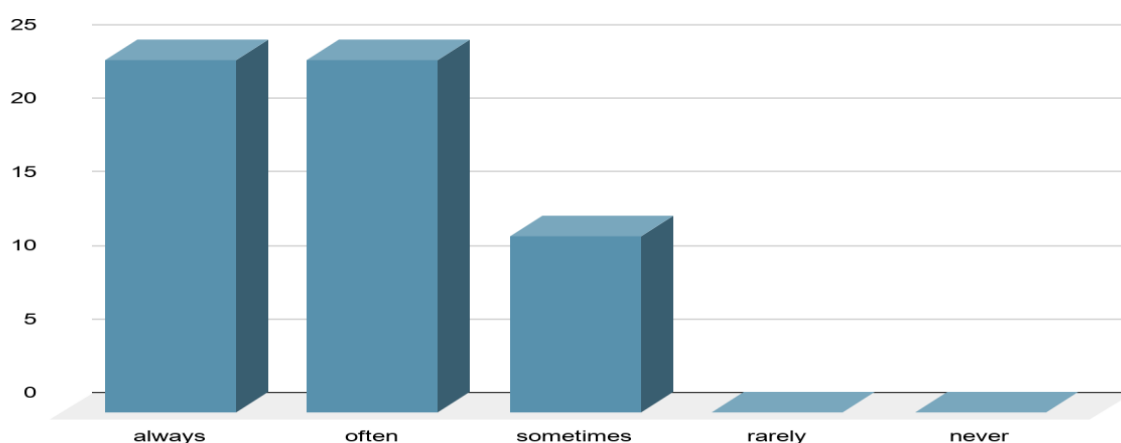
Figure 12: Frequency of Relating the Instructions to the Real Life Experiences of the Students

150

The majority of the teachers say they try to connect their instructions to the lived experiences of their learners. This results correlates with the results of Q20 and Q22 where the teachers try to relate entire topics to their learners' social experiences by adapting materials that reflect those experiences.

27-I am interested in learning new things from my students and sharing the responsibilities in the class

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	20	33.3
agree	40	66.7
disagree	0	0
strongly disagree	0	0

Table 36: Teachers' Stand on Sharing Responsibilities

All of the sampled teachers state they are interested in learning from their students while sharing classroom responsibilities. It would be interesting to compare these results with those of Q14 and Q18.

28-In my class, my students are knowledge receivers and I am knowledge transmitter

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	4	6.7
agree	24	40
disagree	28	46.7
strongly disagree	4	6.7

Table 37: Teachers/Students Roles Relating to the Creation of Knowledge
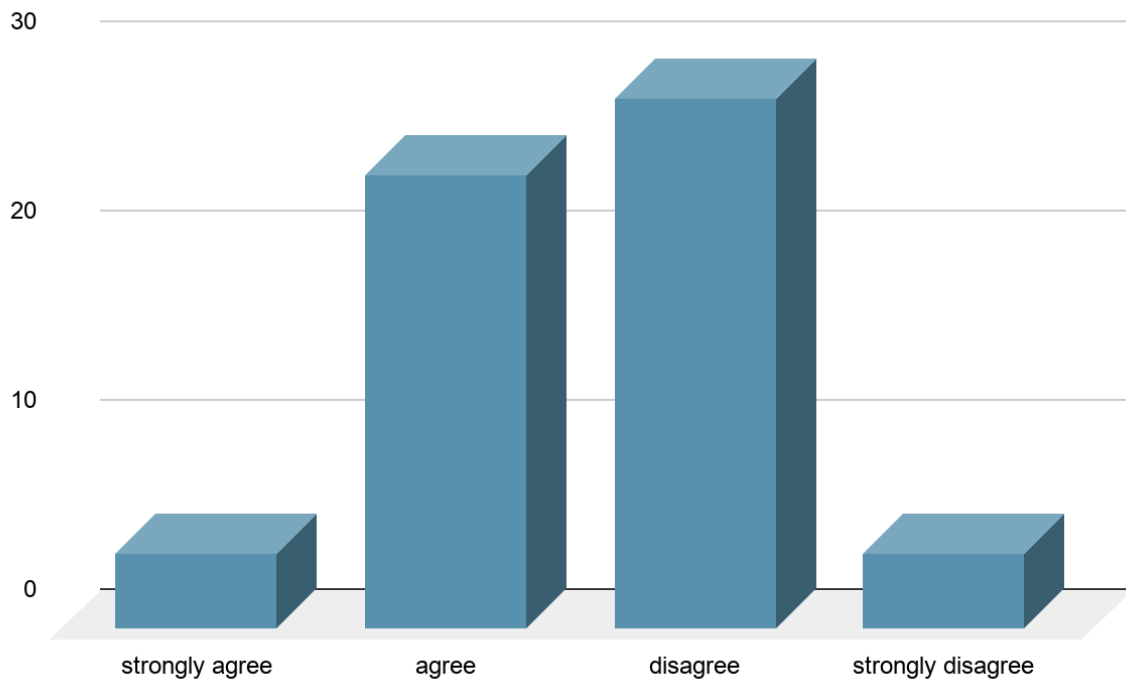
Figure 13: Teachers/Students Roles Relating to the Creation of Knowledge

There is a clear divide between teachers who think that their students are just receivers of knowledge 46.7% and those who do not 53.4%. These results perfectly match those shown in Q18.

29-In the process of language teaching and learning, my students and I collaborate with each other to come to a conclusion about the lesson

Answers	N	%
always	4	7
often	32	53
sometimes	20	33
rarely	4	7
never	0	0

Table 38: Teachers/Learners Collaboration to Reach Conclusions about Lessons

More than half of the teachers say they often collaborate with their learners to come to conclusions about the lesson. A third of them state they sometimes do, and a mere 7% state they rarely do so. It is interesting that teachers who do not find enough time to inquire about their learners' needs prior to the lesson (Q25) do find the time to investigate their learners' reactions about the same lesson afterwards.

30-In class discussions, I do not allow all students to express their opinions

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	0	0
agree	8	13.33
disagree	32	53.33
strongly disagree	20	33.33

Table 39: Teachers' Stand on Learners Opinion Expression

The majority of the teachers say they do allow their learners to express their opinions. However, if these opinions are confined only in talking about the language lesson and not politics and ideology (Q13) then it is clear that the teachers think freedom of opinion is only limited to what goes inside the class and doesn't extend to what is beyond.

31-In my class, there is no interaction between me and my students

Answers	N	%
strongly agree	0	0
agree	4	6.7
disagree	24	40
strongly disagree	32	53.3

Table 40: Teachers' Stand on Teacher/Learners Interactions in Class

Table 40 shows that teachers believe they have a healthy amount of interaction with their learners, while only a small portion of them stating they do not. This interaction is limited to discussions about teaching materials (Q23) and is not concerned with politics, ideology or the lived experiences of the learners.

32-My students obediently follow what I ask them to do in the classroom

Answers	N	%
always	16	27
often	36	60
sometimes	4	7
rarely	0	0
never	4	7

Table 41: Learners' Obedience in Class
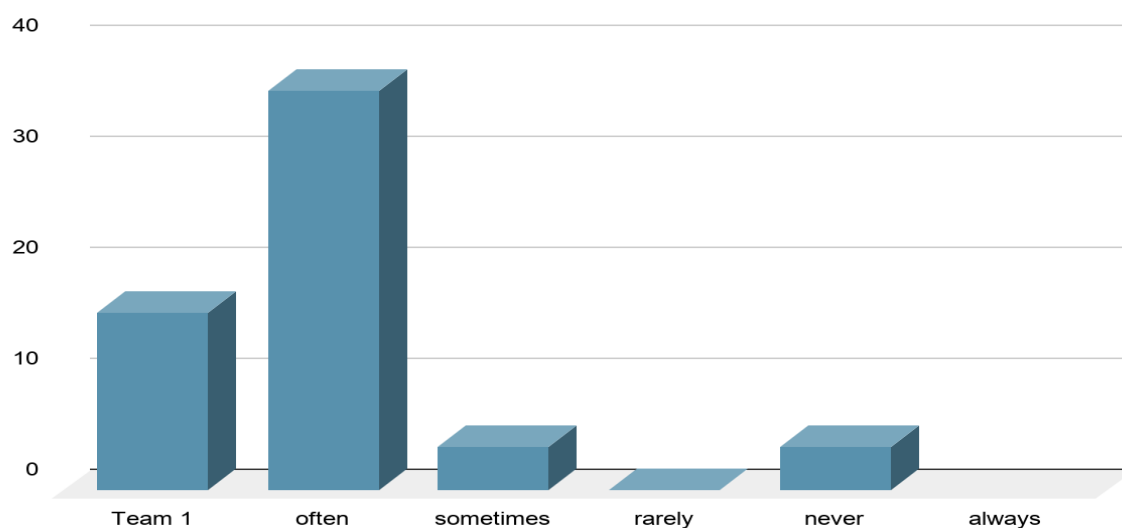
Figure 14: Learners' Obedience in Class

The majority of informants state their learners often follow what is asked of them obediently. The results corroborate results shown with Q18 and Q28. Where half the teachers

think they are all-knowing in class, and that their learners are mere receivers of that same knowledge.

33-In my class, whenever possible, I let my students take on the teacher's role

Answers	N	%
always	0	0
often	20	33
sometimes	24	40
rarely	12	20
never	4	7

Table 42: Teachers/Learners Role Switching
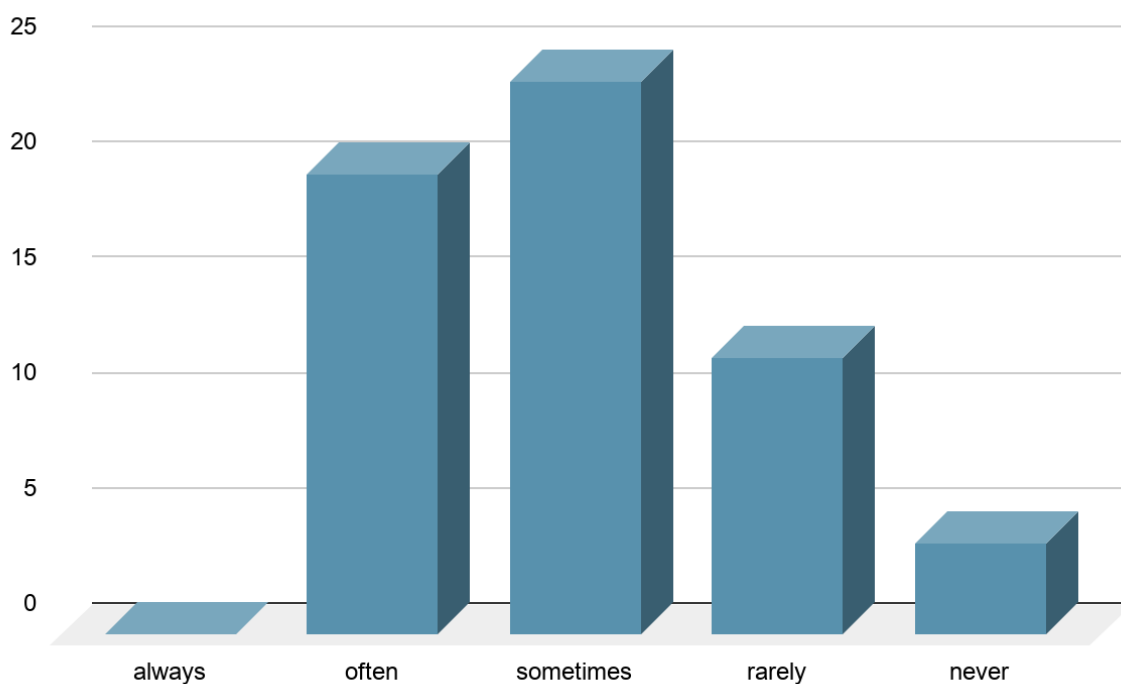
Figure 15: Teachers/Learners Role Switching

A third of the sampled teachers say they often switch roles with their learners. Another 40% say they do so occasionally, while 20% say they rarely do. 7% of the teachers

say they never do that. If 46.7% of teachers think they are the knower in class (Q18) and the same percentage think that the learners are receivers of that knowledge (Q28), it would be hard to imagine how they switch roles.

34-To evaluate my students' abilities, I raise questions that require the students to answer them using the critical skills they have acquired

Answers	N	%
always	4	7
often	36	60
sometimes	16	27
rarely	0	0
never	4	7

Table 43: Frequency of Using Critical Skills to Answer Questions

60% of the informants often raise questions that require their learners to use critical skills in answering them. Less than third of them say they sometimes do, while 7% say they never do so. This goes hand in hand with views pointed out in Q15 where teachers showed support to motivating their learners to think critically about their own culture and lived experiences.

35-I continuously evaluate my students.

Answers	N	%
Yes	56	93.3
no	4	6.7

Table 44: Frequency of Students Evaluation

93.3% of the teachers say they always evaluate their students. The rest said they do not do so on a regular basis.

36-I evaluate my students only at the end of the term

Answers	N	%
Yes	4	6.7
No	56	93.3

Table 45: The Use of Summative Evaluation

These results go hand in hand with the results of the previous question. Most of the teacher do not use summative evaluation, and instead resort to formative evaluation to measure the progress of their learners.

37-Students in my class evaluate themselves

Answers	N	%
always	4	6.7
often	16	26.7
sometimes	20	33.3
rarely	20	33.3
never	0	0

Table 46: The Frequency of Using Self-Assessment

Two thirds of the teachers admit they sometimes if rarely do they allow self-assessment. More than a quarter of them say they often do. It would be fitting not to let learners self assess if they had no voice in creating and learning the lessons they are assessed about.

Validating the results of the questionnaire using the Cronbach's Alpha (alpha) produces the following results:

$$\alpha = \left(\frac{k}{k-1}\right)\left(1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sigma_{y_i}^2}{\sigma_x^2}\right)$$

Where:

k k refers to the number of scale items=17

$\sigma 2y_i$ σyi2 refers to the variance associated with item i=7.42

$\sigma 2x$ σx2 refers to the variance associated with the observed total scores=6.91

α=0.73

The results indicate the questionnaire has an acceptable level of internal consistency

The results of the questionnaire can be classified and analyzed under six categories:

4.3.1. Background Information about the Participants

The first part of the questionnaire is about general information about the participant teachers. As the results show, more than half of the sampled teachers (53%) are less than 28 years old. Half the teachers (53.3%) do have a teaching experience of less than three years. Only 13.33% of them are males, and all enrolled in teaching with a Master degree. The results show that half the teachers started working as teachers right after graduating from university; thus, possessing little experience to speak of. This lack of experience could explain some of the results that will be shown in the analysis of the questionnaire later.

4.3.2. Teachers Beliefs about their Roles

The majority of teachers (86.7%) are against injustice in the classroom or society (Q17) and as such, (66.66%) of them think they should address the political issues during classroom activity (Q13). 80% think that the teacher is not the only authority in the classroom (Q14); therefore, nearly two third of them (66.7%) believe that it is not their job to only transmit information to their students (Q16). Those two results correlate with the fact that more than half of them (53.3 %) do not believe they are the knower in the classroom (Q18). The majority of the teachers (93.3%) state they do motivate their students to think critically about their own culture (Q15).

4.3.3. Teachers and Classroom Activities

Concerning classroom activities, we note that Half of the teachers 53.3% admit they follow the objectives of the syllabus to the letter, the other 46.7% say they sometimes do (Q21). We can say that all teachers are bound to present objectives to a varying degree. As a result, only 26.7% of teachers adapt teaching materials to suit the needs of their learners on a regular basis (Q22), and 40% of them always try to relate teaching topics to the daily life experiences of their students (Q20). It is, thus, understandable that only 13.3% of teachers ask their students to express their viewpoints about the lesson (Q23). 46.7% of teachers see their students as knowledge receivers (Q28), yet they all agree to share responsibility with their students (Q27), and only a third of the teachers 33.3% say they allow their students to take on their role in class. One explanation of this contradiction is teachers' definition of responsibility.

4.4.4. The Role of Dialogue in the Classroom

100% of teachers believe in dialogue to solve problems (Q19), and more than half of the teachers 96.6% often collaborate with their students to reach conclusions about the lesson (Q29). Consequently, 86.6% of teachers allow their students to express their opinions in class (Q30). Dialogue and responsibility sharing results in a level of interaction that 93.3% of teachers say they have with their students (Q31). Contrary to that, 86.7% of teachers admit that their students are obedient in class (Q32). An explanation to these conflicting results may be due to teachers confusing obedience with good behavior.

4.4.5. The Role of the Curriculum

When it comes to the role curriculum plays in language teaching, more than half of the teachers agree that the curriculum they follow does make their students effective decision makers (Q9). Consequently, they often follow the objective set by it (Q21). However, only 6.7 % of them state they always follow the objectives set by the textbook, while more than half of them 53.3% admit they only sometimes follow them (Q24). This diversion may be due to the fact that teachers do not believe the textbook materials and texts reflect the objectives of the curriculum.

4.4.6. The Role of Needs Analysis

Needs analysis spans a wide range of questions in the questionnaire (8, 7, 10,12, 20, 22, 25, and 26). An analysis of the answers given by the teachers reveals major insights. 80% of the sampled teachers state they consider the needs of their learners while organizing classroom goals (Q8); while two thirds of the sampled teachers (66.67%) state they do consider the needs of their students in planning what to do in class (Q7). The teachers' agreement comes from their belief that needs analysis is an essential part of their lesson

planning (Q10). When it comes to actually applying these beliefs, only 20% of the teachers involve their students in lesson planning on a regular basis; while 60% of them rarely do (Q12); 86.7% Teachers, however, do often try to relate the topics taught in class to their students' cultural and social experiences (Q20). This attempt is translated into 60% of teachers trying to adapt the teaching materials to suit the students' levels and needs. This disconnection between the desire to include the learners' needs and actually doing so may find its answer in the fact that more than half of the teachers 53.3% admit they hardly find time to learn about their students' hopes, needs and interests (Q 25).

4.5. Summary of the Findings

The results show that half the teachers started working as teachers right after graduating from university; thus, possessing little experience to speak of. This lack of experience could explain some of the results that will be shown in the analysis of the questionnaire later. The majority of the teachers (86.7%) are against injustice in the classroom or society (Q17) and as such, (66.66%) of them think they should address the political issues during classroom activity (Q13). 80% think that the teacher is not the only authority in the classroom (Q14); therefore, nearly two third of them (66.7%) believe that it is not their job to only transmit information to their students (Q16). Those two results correlate with the fact that more than half of them (53.3 %) do not believe they are the knower in the classroom (Q18). The majority of the teachers (93.3%) state they do motivate their students to think critically about their own culture (Q15).   Concerning classroom activities, we note that half of the teachers 53.3% admit they follow the objectives of the syllabus to the letter, the other 46.7% say they sometimes do (Q21). We can say that all teachers are bound to present objectives to a varying degree. As a result, only 26.7% of the teachers adapt teaching materials to suit the needs of their learners on a regular basis (Q22), and 40% of them always

try to relate teaching topics to the daily life experiences of their students (Q20). It is, thus, understandable that only 13.3% of teachers ask their students to express their viewpoints about the lesson (Q23). 46.7% of the teachers see their students as knowledge receivers (Q28), yet they all agree to share responsibility with their students (Q27), and only a third of the teachers 33.3% say they allow their students to take on their role in class. One explanation of this contradiction is teachers' definition of responsibility. 100% of the teachers believe in dialogue to solve problems (Q19), and more than half of the teachers 96.6% often collaborate with their students to reach conclusions about the lesson (Q29). Consequently, 86.6% of the teachers allow their students to express their opinions in class (Q30). Dialogue and responsibility-sharing result in a level of interaction that 93.3% of the teachers say they have with their students (Q31). Contrary to that, 86.7% of the teachers admit that their students are obedient in class (Q32). An explanation to these conflicting results may be due to teachers confusing obedience with good behavior. When it comes to the role curriculum plays in language teaching, more than half of the teachers agree that the curriculum they follow does make their students effective decision-makers (Q9). Consequently, they often follow the objective set by it (Q21). However, only 6.7 % of them state they always follow the objectives set by the textbook, while more than half of them 53.3% admit they only sometimes follow them (Q24). This diversion may be since teachers do not believe the textbook materials and texts reflect the objectives of the curriculum.   Needs analysis spans a wide range of questions in the questionnaire (8, 7, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, and 26).

An analysis of the answers given by the teachers reveals major insights. 80% of the sampled teachers state they consider the needs of their learners while organizing classroom goals (Q8); while two-thirds of the sampled teachers (66.67%) state they do consider the needs of their students in planning what to do in class (Q7). The teachers' agreement comes from their belief that needs analysis is an essential part of their lesson planning (Q10). When

it comes to actually applying these beliefs, only 20% of the teachers involve their students in lesson planning regularly; while 60% of them rarely do (Q12); 86.7% of the teachers, however, do often try to relate the topics taught in class to their students' cultural and social experiences (Q20). This attempt is translated into 60% of the teachers trying to adapt the teaching materials to suit the students' levels and needs. This disconnection between the desire to include the learners' needs and actually doing so may find its answer in the fact that more than half of the teachers 53.3% admit they hardly find time to learn about their students' hopes, needs and interests (Q 25).

Conclusion

The questionnaire was designed to check the hypothesis set forth at the beginning of this thesis. The analysis of the questionnaire has rejected both the second and the third hypotheses.The analysis revealed major insights about how teachers think about their role in the classroom as well as their learners'. The questionnaire also revealed the divide between what teachers think and actually apply inside the classroom.

The analysis showed that teachers believe, at least in theory, in the importance of dialogue between the teachers and his learners. This belief encompasses the need to share power, create knowledge, and the need to push the learners to think critically about their lives. When it comes to the reality of the classroom; however, teachers showed a clear divide from their expressed beliefs: following the curriculum to the letter, being the only voice in the classroom and not allowing their learners to take on their responsibilities. This divide between what teachers think and what they apply in the classroom can be explained by their (teachers) beliefs about the curriculum and their roles as teachers.

Chapter Five: Pedagogical Implication

Introduction

5.1. The Place of Critical Pedagogy in The Algerian EFL Secondary School Textbooks

5.2. Teachers and Critical Pedagogy

Conclusion

General Conclusion

Chapter Five: Pedagogical Implications

Introduction

In the previous chapters, we have dealt with the history of CP, its relationship with EFL, its place in the Algerian EFL secondary textbooks, and the views Algerian secondary teachers of English hold about it. Firstly, we shed light on the birth of CP and its relationship with Critical Theory of the Frankfurt school. Secondly, we highlighted the contributions of Paulo Freire, the inaugural figure of CP, and we focused on the globalization of CP shaped mainly by Michael Apple. Thirdly, the analysis done on the textbooks coupled with the analysis of the teachers' questionnaire helped shed some light on the place basic principles of CP occupy in the Algerian EFL secondary textbooks across all levels.

5.1. The Place of Critical Pedagogy in the Algerian EFL Secondary School Textbooks

The analysis done using the created checklist revealed that although the textbooks follow a Competency based approach (CBA) with lessons designed around task based activities that integrate language points within a listening or a reading text, and with an emphasis on reflection; it is however, rigid in format and execution. Teachers are supposed to follow the structure of each unit as prescribed by the textbook designers (appointed by the Ministry of Education). They are free to choose topics and language sources as long as it is aligned thematically and linguistically with the aims and objectives put forward by the ministry.

Critical Pedagogy encourages teachers and students to get into debates that lead to generative themes being born out of it. These generative themes work to motivate students to engage with the lessons while reflecting on their societal conditions. This reflection then leads

to a reveal of the oppression and marginalization these students face which in turn will help them acquire the tools to make social change a reality.

Such a process is not encouraged by the Ministry of Education. It puts emphasis on shaping and improving the communicative skills of the students to face the demands of the global market that uses English as a "de facto language". This leaves students vulnerable since this learning process does not add any significant insights that can help them face the harsh realities they live in.

The textbook puts students in a cycle of "grammar point-integrational situation-grammar point" repeatedly in which learners are asked to use a specific language point and a made up situation instead of participating in a cycle of reflection that asks the students to reflect on a situation and then take action that will lead them to reflect on it again.

It is crucial for the Ministry of Education to use CP first as a philosophy of education; as a frame to revolve the aims and goals of the textbook around it. It is not enough to want learners to master a language. It is far more important to arm them with the tools necessary to survive in the twenty-first century.

It is also vital to design the textbook in such a way that makes it more flexible to the needs of the learners. The days are gone where it was enough to list what learners should learn and design something around it. We are now in the days of global trade, free markets, and wide open social media exposure. With such enormous challenges, it is time to reframe how we teach and what to teach. Critical Pedagogy is a first good step because it is a philosophy of education that does not encourage its followers to abandon what they know but to embrace it and know even more.

The new textbook should embrace dialogue as a vital tool to generate important themes for learners and more importantly use praxis to bridge the two. Using such tools in teaching will

make the process of being critical flow more naturally instead of being something to be achieved. This criticality in turn will allow the learners to develop a sense of oneself that will let them examine how they live and discover how they are being oppressed and marginalized and figure out a way to overcome it.

5.2. Teachers and Critical Pedagogy

The teachers' questionnaire results offer much needed explanation to why teachers fail to incorporate the principles of CP within their lessons. Most of the teachers think they are the authority in the classroom (80%). This belief hinders the teachers' ability to give up or at least share the power, which is in itself a prerequisite of CP. Such a belief also leads to teachers thinking they have a monopoly on knowledge which also contradicts the view CP holds on knowledge being a mutual construct formed in an alliance between teachers and students. The results also show that half the teachers admit they follow the textbook to the letter resulting in only 13% of them allowing their learners to express their point of views about the lesson in class.

These restrictions Put on teachers does not leave much choice for them to adapt materials that reflect the lived situations of their learners since there is no room for the learners' voices to be heard. As a result, there is no way teachers can apply Praxis to bridge the gap between what learners need and how they are to realize it.

Critical Pedagogy also aims to incorporate Conscientization, i.e. The ability to be critical, to hold judgment and not to accept what is presented by the teacher as the absolute truth in order to reach critical awareness. However, the banking education the students and teachers adhere to makes it impossible to reach such ambitious goals. This type of education manifests itself with the fact that only 20% of teachers do consider the needs of their students while planning their lessons though 80% of them state they do believe that needs analysis is an

important step in lesson planning. This unparalleled between the two stances comes from the fact most teachers are unconsciously following The Banking education.

Banking education believes knowledge to be a possession of the teacher to be given to learners. It believes the power to be on the side of the teacher to exercise, and that the only voice that matters is that of the teacher. all these symptoms are visible in the analysis of the teachers' answers. This fact highlights the lack of presence of CP in the Algerian EFL textbook and explains why teachers believe something and practice its counterpart.

It is painfully obvious now how teachers are struggling on so many fronts. Between the need to be there for every student, the restrictions of time management, and a Ministry of Education that cares more about completing the program than how this program is delivered teachers find themselves slowly and inevitably slaves to the textbook. Out of that enslavement the banking education is born and nurtured. It is favored because it is easy and seems natural to adhere to. What is not to like about being the authority in class, the all-knowing and powerful? However, tempting it might be, the banking system is just that: a bank, and as with all banks it ends up bankrupting the learners first, and then their teachers.

It is now or never, the point in time where this old system is scrubbed away in favor of a new system of thought and action; a system where the learners and their teacher are in a dialogue about what things are, and how they function. It is tempting to think CP calls for teachers to relinquish their power, that too is a banking situation that no one wants. Instead, CP calls for a dialogue between the two sides, for sharing the right to figure out every step of the learning process in unison.

Such lofty goals can only be achieved by training teachers to think critically and to engrave that same thinking into their learners. This training needs to focus on the importance

of needs analysis as a tool that can really help teachers identify, if not completely and accurately, what their learners need. Another focus should be giving the teachers their freedom to navigate the teaching process as they see fit. We cannot expect them to grant their learners freedom, if they themselves cannot enjoy it.

Conclusion

The presence of CP within the Algerian EFL secondary school textbook is so dim that it is unrecognizable. This absence explains Algerian EFL teachers' unfamiliarity with it. Concepts like: power, knowledge, and critical thinking are so misunderstood, while others like: the banking education, the problem posing education and praxis are not thought of at all.

General Conclusion

The main concern of this thesis was the place of CP in the Algerian secondary EFL textbooks as well as how familiar are teachers with its principles and elements in the classroom.

The thesis gives an overview of the CP: its definition, historical roots, its relationship to critical theory, and its place in TEFL. This overview gave a context to our research and gave a background to the relationship between CP and foreign language education.

We have continued after that to analyze the place of CP's elements and principles within the Algerian secondary EFL textbooks (chapter three). The analysis has rejected the first hypothesis set forth at the beginning of the thesis that CP has a vital place in the Algerian EFL secondary textbook. The analysis in fact showed that the three textbooks show little integration of the elements and principles of CP within their fabric. The goals of the textbooks is to make the learners communicative in a global market whereas CP's goal is to make good citizens out of the learners. The textbooks rely on CBA principles and that means objectives come first. Critical Pedagogy on the other hand, relies on problems posing education where learning is solving problems one at a time. The elements of CP are totally missing throughout the textbooks. Power is teacher centered, and knowledge is something bestowed upon the learners in total contrast to how CP sees those two elements.

The analysis of the teachers' questionnaire (chapter four) also rejected the second and third hypotheses put forth at the start of the thesis. The analysis of the teachers' feedback clearly showed that they have little understanding of the elements of CP. To most teachers, power is a property of theirs, knowledge is something to be handed to the learners, and Conscientization is an objective that is missing in favor of making sure learners communicate

properly. The analysis further confirmed the third hypothesis to be rejected. Teachers in fact do apply little if no activities to promote awareness about the oppression and marginalization the Algerian learners are exposed to. Learning is a set of objectives to achieve from easy to hard. Learners' voice is a second-class voice in comparison to the prominent voice of the teacher, and praxis (the link between theory and practice) is obscure at best. Teachers showed obedience to the goals set by the curriculum and no desire to change them. For them, the voice of the learners is important in theory but not in practice. Whether it is because of lack of time or the inability to assess what learners need or want in the first place.

The results obtained from analyzing the textbooks and the teachers' feedback firmly rejected the three hypotheses set at the start of this thesis, and with it, the need for the secondary EFL textbook and teachers to familiarize themselves with CP is more urgent than ever. It is high time our curriculum designers started including the elements of CP in designing the textbooks, and for the teachers to teach with CP principles in mind.

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174

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Appendixes

-Appendix I: The Evaluation Guide

I- Program factors

<u>1-Rationale /Aims</u>

*What is the rationale behind creating this book? (underlying approach, goals, targeted skills……). *What are the aims of the textbook? Are the aims of critically raising good and empowered citizens, causing social change, and justice clearly stated?

II-Content factors

<u>1-Authenticity</u>

-Does the textbook use authentic or created texts?

<u>2-Appropriacy</u>

-Is the material substantial enough or interesting enough to hold the attention of the learners

-Is it pitched at the right level of maturity and language, at the right conceptual level?

<u>3-Flexibility</u>

-Does the textbook give freedom to teachers to choose from a variety of texts, activities and other resources?

-Does the material make too many demands on teachers' preparation time and students' homework time?

-Can the material be exploited or modified as required by local circumstances, or is it too

rigid in format, structure, and approach?

- Is there a full range of supplementary aids available?

III-Learner Roles/ Teacher Factors

-What roles do learners take on? (followers, co-creators……)

-What roles do teachers take on? (authoritarians, co-creators……..)

V-Pedagogical Factors

-What methodology does the textbook follow?

-What design does the textbook follow? (structural, thematic….)

-Types of teaching/learning activities does the textbook make use of?

-Is the textbook culturally biased in favor of the target culture or the native culture?

-Appendix II : Teachers' Questionnaire

1-Age:

2-Teaching Experience

3-Gender:

a-Male b-female

4-Major:

a-Linguistics b-ENS c-Literature

5-Degree:

a-Bachelor   c-Master   c-PhD

6-Teaching hours

7-In planning what to do in the classroom, I consider my students' expectations and immediate needs

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

8-The students' future needs and interests are considered while organizing my class goals

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

9-The curriculum I follow tend to make students effective decision makers

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

10-Needs analysis is an essential part of my lesson planning

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

11-My curriculum is strictly formal, paying little attention to underlying values (like freedom and multiculturalism)

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

12-I involve my pupils in lesson planning

a-always   b-often   c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never

13-I think teachers should not address the political and ideological issues whatsoever during classroom activity in the hope of changing society

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

14-I think teachers should be only authority in the classroom

15-I motivate my students to think critically about their own culture or previous experiences in life

16-I believe the main goal in my class is to convey information

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

17- I am against injustice whether in the classroom or in society

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

18-I am the knower in the class

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

19-I believe in dialogue to solve problems in the classroom

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

20-For teaching language skills, I try to relate topics in the syllabus to my students' social and cultural experiences

a-always   b-often   c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never

21-In my class, I just follow the goals and objectives of the Syllabus

a-always   b-often   c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never

22-I adapt the teaching materials to suit my students' levels and needs

a-always   b-often   c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never

23-As an activity, I request students to express their viewpoints about teaching materials and

topics

a-always   b-often c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never

24-In my teaching, I try to follow the pre-set curriculum and text books

a-always   b-often c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never

25-In my class, I do not find enough time to learn about my students' hopes, needs and interests

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

26-I try to connect my instructions to the real life experiences of my students

a-always   b-often c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never

27-I am interested in learning new things from my students and sharing the responsibilities in the class

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

28-In my class, my students are knowledge receivers and I am knowledge transmitter

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

29-In the process of language teaching and learning, my students and I collaborate with each other to come to a conclusion about the lesson

a-always   b-often c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never

30-In class discussions, I do not allow all students to express their opinions

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

31-In my class, there is no interaction between me and my students

a- strongly agree   b-agree   c- disagree   d-strongly disagree

32-My students obediently follow what I ask them to do in the classroom

a-always   b-often   c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never

33-In my class, whenever possible, I let my students take on the teacher's role

a-always   b-often   c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never

34-To evaluate my students' abilities, I raise questions that require the students to answer them using the critical skills they have acquired

a-always   b-often   c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never

35-I continuously evaluate my students.

a-yes   b-no

36-I evaluate my students only at the end of the term

a-yes   b-no

37-Students in my class evaluate themselves

a-always   b-often   c-sometimes   d-rarely   e-never