Language centeredness Versus Learner centeredness and Their Applicability in Iran

Mitra Tabatabaei Torbaghan

Department of English Language, Torbat-e Heydariyeh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Torbat-e Heydariyeh, Iran.

ABSTRACT

The history of student-centered approach takes its roots from a constructivist theory, in which students learn more by doing and experiencing rather than by observing. In this theory, students are the initiators and architects of their own learning and knowledge making rather than passive 'vessels' who receive knowledge from expert teachers (Brown, 2008). In contrast to learner-centered, language-centered methods focus on discrete items of grammatical and lexical forms of a language that are presented to the learners. In fact linguistic forms constitute the organizing principle for syllabus construction. This paper aims at distinguishing which method is better. In order to do this three groups of female intermediate learners at three institutions in Kashmar, Iran participated in this study. There were three classes, including 30 learners in each group who were assigned to control and two experimental groups. The experimental groups received an instruction in three tenses; simple present, simple past and future tenses, followed by writing pre- and post-tests. Both tests consist of six questions and students' answers should be in form of a T-unit that including 50 words with using eight verbs. After analyzing the results of pre- and post-tests and comparing the performance of experimental groups, the findings show that the performance of learners in language-centered class is better than learner-centered class.

Introduction

Language teaching methods evolve and improve over time as their merits and demerits become more and more apparent with the accumulation of experience and experimentation, ultimately leading to the development of a new method with a new label. During the transitional time when dissatisfaction with one method result in the gradual development of another, there will necessarily be overlapping tendencies. Therefore, a method in a later phase of its life may appear to be slightly different from what it was in an earlier phase. But still, in order to fully understand the fundamental characteristics of any given category of method and to differentiate it meaningfully from other categories, it is necessary to go back to the foundational texts that provide what may be called a canonical description of the theoretical principles and classroom procedures of a method that may prototypically represent the category to which it belongs.

The fundamental principles of language-centered pedagogy are drawn from structural linguistics and behavioral psychology. In fact language-centered pedagogists believed in the theory of language proposed and propagated by American structural linguists during the 1950s. Structural linguists treated language as a system of systems consisting of several hierarchically linked building blocks: phonemes, morphemes, phrases, clauses and sentences, each with its own internal structure. These subsystems of language were thought to be linearly connected in a structured, systematic and rule-governed way; that is, certain phonemes systematically cluster together to form a morpheme, certain morphemes systematically cluster together to form a phrase, and so forth. Secondly, structural linguists viewed language as aural-oral, thus emphasizing listening and speaking. Speech was considered primary, forming the very basis of language. Structure was viewed as being at the heart of speech.

Thirdly, every language was looked upon as unique, each having a finite number of structural patterns. Each structure can be analyzed, described, systematized, and graded and by implication, can be learned and taught by taking a similar discrete path.

Language-centered pedagogists derived their theory of language learning from behaviorism, a school of American psychology which was popular during the 1950s and 1960s. Like structural linguists, behavioral psychologists too were skeptical about mentalism and rejected any explanation of human behavior in terms of emotive feelings or mental processes. They sought the scientifically based approach for analyzing and understanding human behavior. For them, human behavior can be reduced to a series of stimuli that trigger a series of corresponding responses. Given their belief that all learning is governed by stimulus-response-reinforcement mechanisms, behaviorists did not make any distinction between general learning and language learning. Of course these fundamental assumptions about language learning deeply influenced the theory of language teaching adopted by language-centered pedagogists.

Learning from the shortcomings of language-centered pedagogy and drawing from the newly available psychological and linguistic insights, Wilkins, a British applied linguistic who was a member of the group commissioned by the Council of Europe, proposed a set of syllabuses for language teaching. Originally published as a monograph in 1972, a revised and expanded version of his proposals appeared in 1976 as a book titled *Notional Syllabuses.* Instead of merely a grammatical core, the new syllabus consisted of categories of notions such as time, sequence, quantity, location, and frequency, and categories of communicative functions such as informing, requesting, and instructing. The notional/functional syllabus, as it was known,

provided a new way of exploiting the situational dialogue inherited from the past by indicating that formal and functional properties can after all be gainfully integrated. Thus began a language teaching movement which later became well-known as *communicative method* or *communicative approach* or simply *communicative language teaching*. The watchword here is, of course, communication; there will be more on this later.

It should be kept in mind that communicative language teaching is not a monolithic entity; different teachers and teacher educators offered different interpretations of the method within a set of broadly accepted theoretical principles so much so that it makes sense to talk about not one but several communicative methods. In what follows, I look at, in detail, the theoretical principles and classroom procedures associated with communicative language teaching, treating it as a prototypical example of a learner-centered pedagogy.

Review of literature

Learner-centered Learning

The history of student-centered approach takes its roots from a constructivist theory, in which students learn more by doing and experiencing rather than by observing. In this theory, students are the initiators and architects of their own learning and knowledge making rather than passive 'vessels' who receive knowledge from expert teachers (Brown, 2008). This theory was first developed at the start of 20th century and was influenced by the writings of John Dewey and psychologist Lev Vygotsky. Its focus was on social constructivism which means how meaning, connections, and comprehensions are all influenced by social events. Duck Worth (2009) believes that students have better performance when they are asked to think about the matters instead of doing the thinking for them. In the other words, focus is on the learner's thoughts rather than on their (teachers) own. In an ideal student-led class, there is no imposition of information from teacher on learners or any effort to persuade learners to what teacher sees. According to Nunan (1999), the choices of what and how to teach should be made with reference to learners and the purpose of language teaching in order to get learners actively involved in the learning process: learning by doing (Pham Thi Hanh, 2005).

Student-centered learning or active learning is a method of instruction in which the student is in the center of focus and the teacher has the least impression in language instruction. Also, the learner-centered approach means self and life-long education when teachers should change their traditional roles from teller to coordinator and from material users to teaching material providers (Baldauf & Moni, 2006).

Learner-centered pedagogists drew heavily from Chomskyan formal linguistics, Hallidayan functional linguistics, Hymsian sociolinguistics, and Austinian speech act theory.

Learner-centered pedagogists derived their language learning theories mainly from cognitive psychologists, who dismissed the importance given to habit formation by behaviorists, and instead focused on insight formation. They maintained that, in the context of language learning, the learner's cognitive capacity mediates between teacher input (stimulus) and learner output (response). The learner, based on the data provided, is capable of forming, testing, and confirming hypotheses, a sequence of psychological processes that ultimately contribute to language development. Thus, for cognitive psychologists, mental processes underlying response is important, not the response itself. They also believed in developmental stages of language learning and, therefore, partial learning on the part of the learner is natural and inevitable. Because of the active involvement of the learner in the learning process, only meaningful learning, not rote learning, can lead to internalization of language systems.

Consistent with the theory of language just discussed, learner-centered pedagogists looked at language communication as a synthesis of textual, interpersonal, and ideational functions.

Student-centered learning, as Jonasse (2000, cited in Pederson & Liu, 2003) maintains, requires students to set their goals for learning and determine resources and activities that will help them meet their goals. Because students pursue their own goals, all their activities are meaningful for them (Pederson & Liu, 2003). Students are not regarded as empty vessels that must be filled. Students themselves, of course with the help of the teacher, make their own view of the world. As Philip (2000) asserts knowledge is made not acquired (cited in Hassaskhah, 2005, p. 67). Ironically, in student-centered learning, knowledge is not considered as a property that belongs to the teacher who brings it out of his bundle and hands it out among students. Accordingly, constructivism prescribes a whole new level of student involvement with content. It makes content much more the means to knowledge than the end of it (Weimer, 2002). For the students to get involved in the process of learning, the power in the class must be shared between the teacher and students. In fact, power sharing is an element of democratic politics, and aspect to make a democracy powerful with representation and equal importance to all distinct people and groups.

Student-centered philosophies are less authoritarian, less concerned with the past and training the mind, and more focused on individual needs, contemporary relevance, and preparing students for a changing future. Progressivism, social Reconstructionism, and Existentialism place the learner at the center of the educational process (Sadker & Zittleman, 2006): students and teachers work together on determining what should be learned and how best to learn it. The teacher's role is shifted from a mere disseminator to an active facilitator. Metaphorically, students are not considered as mugs and teachers as having jar that pour information into the mugs. Nunan and Lamb (2001) claim that philosophy of learner-centeredness has strong links with experiential learning, humanistic psychology and task-based language teaching.

Another philosophy which lends support to the epistemology of learner-centered instruction refers to social reconstructionism. Social reconstructionists encourage schools, teachers, and students to focus their studies and energies on alleviating pervasive social inequities, and as the name implies, reconstruct society into a new and more just social order (Sadker and Zittleman, 2006). Although social reconstructionists agree with progressivists that schools should concentrate on the needs of students, they split from progressivism in the 1920s after growing impatient with the slow pace of change in schools and in society (Sadker and Zittleman, 2006).

Existentialism, the final student-centered philosophy places the highest degree of importance on student perceptions, decisions, and actions. As Sadker and Zittleman (2006) holds Existentialism rejects the existence of any source of objective, authoritative truth other than the individual. Individuals are responsible for determining for themselves what is true or false, right or wrong, beautiful or ugly. In short, it is up to the student to make all relevant educational decisions, and to evaluate those decisions.

They recognized that it is the responsibility of the language teacher to help learners (a) develop the knowledge / ability necessary to manipulate the linguistic system and use it spontaneously and flexibly in order to express their intended message; (b) understand the distinction, and the connection,

between the linguistic forms they have mastered and the communicative functions they need to perform; (c) develop styles and strategies required to communicate meanings as effectively as possible in concrete situations; and (d) become aware of the sociocultural norms governing the use of language appropriate to different social circumstances (Littlewood, 1981, p. 6).

In order to carry out the above responsibilities, it was argued, language teachers must foster meaningful communication in the classroom by:

• Designing and using information-gap activities where when one learner in a pair-work exchange knows something the other learner does not;

• Offering choice of response to the learner, that is, open-ended tasks and exercises where the learner determines what to say and how to say it;

• Emphasizing contextualization rather than decontextualized drills and pattern practices;

• Using authentic language as a vehicle for communication in class;

• Introducing language at discoursal (and not sentential) level;

• Tolerating errors as a natural outcome of language development; and

• Developing activities that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.

Identified two main roles for the "communicative" teacher. The first role is to facilitate the communicative process between all participants in the classroom, and between those participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an *interdependent* participant within the learning-teaching group.

The Principles of Student-centered Learning

These principles based on Lynch (2010) are taking responsibility for learners' learning, directly involving them in the learning process and raising social activities like collaboration, meaningful communication, choice and cooperation. Here are some of these principles:

1. Students should develop their own knowledge by communication, critical thinking, and problem solving.

2. Instead of learning irrelevant materials, students could have this opportunity to learn directly related materials to their real life. Mostly, teachers have no answer on facing this question "why do I have to know this".

3. In Traditional Method, students' performance is assessed based on a test. Some students are well on testing with average in school and some are weak test takers but well on their curriculum. While these factors are not considered in teacher-led learning, it is a positive tool to "promote and diagnose learning assessment in student-led learning" (Huba & Freed, 2000)

4. "providing opportunities for students to use target language in order to negotiate meaning with teacher and other students in a group work, project work, also task-based interactions while providing guidance, modeling, and feedback about progress"(Adams, 2008).

Peyton, et al. (2010) summarized student-centered approach into: promoting interaction among learners, using the native language when possible and appropriate, connecting instruction with learners' lives, and teaching learning strategies explicitly.

Language-centered

Audiolingual theory of language teaching is, in fact, a mirror image of its theory of language learning. Because learning a language is considered to involve forming habits in order to assimilate and use a hierarchical system of systems, language teaching is nothing more than a planned presentation

of those (sub) systems combined with provision of opportunities for repetition. The purpose of teaching, therefore, is twofold: in the initial stage, the teacher, using a textbook, serves as a model providing samples of linguistic input, and then in the later stage, acts as a skillful manipulator of questions, commands, and other cues in order to elicit correct responses from the learner. Linguistic input is, of course, presented in the form of dialogues because they involve.

Language-centered Instruction

Kumarvadivelu (2006) states, "Language-centered methods are those that are principally concerned with linguistic forms" (p. 90). He also adds these methods (such as audiolingual method) provide opportunities for learners to practice preselected, presequenced linguistic structures through form focused exercises in class assuming that a preoccupation with form leads to target language mastery and that students can draw from this repertoire whenever they wish to communicate. Since it preplanned thus it is intentional type of learning rather than incidental. As Kumaravadivelu (2006) mentions the supporters of language-centered advocate explicit analysis and explanations of linguistic systems.

Another feature of language-centered instruction worth a moment to place emphasis on is the concept of linearity. That "language learning is a linear, additive process" as Kumaravadivelu (2006, p. 90) states, connotes language develops accumulatively. That is, a set of grammatical structure and lexical items are selected, graded and presented. In fact, the teacher's job is to introduce one discrete linguistic item at a time and provides learners with sufficient practice to internalize them.

Language-centered methods adhere to the synthetic approach to syllabus design in which the content of learning and teaching is defined in terms of discrete items of grammatical and lexical forms of the language that are presented to the learners. In other words, linguistic forms constitute the organizing principle for syllabus construction. Drawing from the available inventory of linguistic forms compiled by grammarians through standard linguistic analyses, the syllabus designer selects and sequences the phonological, lexical, and grammatical elements of the language that can be included in graded textbooks used for classroom teaching. The teacher presents the elements of language forms (in terms of nouns, verbs, adjectives, articles, relative clauses, subordinate clauses, etc.) one by one to the learners, who are then supposed to put them together to figure out the totality of the language system. The primary task of the learner is to synthesize the discrete items of language in order to develop adequate knowledge / ability in the language.

Selection and *gradation*, that is, what items to select and in what sequence to present them are but two challenges facing the syllabus designer. Language-centered pedagogists implicitly followed the frequency, range, and availability criteria for selection identified by Mackey (1965). *Frequency* refers to the items that the learners are likely to encounter most, whereas *range* refers to the spread of an item across texts or contexts. Frequency relates to where the item is used, by whom, and for what purposes. Availability is determined by the degree to which an item is necessary and appropriate. Similarly, for gradation purposes, language-centered pedagogists followed the criteria of complexity, regularity, and productivity. The first principles deals with a movement from the easy to the difficult, the second from the regular to the irregular, and the third from the more useful to the less useful.

Problem

In language teaching there is an issue that most of scientists proposed that the language-centered is better and other proposed learner-centered is the best one or teacher-centered. For this confusion, they did lots of researches. Now the problem is that which method is the best and teacher should use it. In this study we are going to do this. The result of this study can help teacher to understand which method is better.

Method

In a quite random sampling (based on odd and even numbers between learners of three institutions), assignments are used to form two groups of study and one group as control group (without instruction) , so that they are similar on average in both observable and unobservable characteristics. We evaluated the result of each experimental groups of study with the control group. The method of this study is experimental design.

Participants

For studying the above-mentioned research question, a total of 90 homogeneous female intermediate level students at three language institutions, Iran, participated in this study. The participants were all native speakers of Persian aged 18 - 22. They were divided based on their class into three groups: 30 students in each group.

Instrumentation

An instrument was employed in the study:

A teacher-made test (pre-test) based on Anglia Examination Syndicate (England) 2005-2010 to ensure the homogeneity of the participants and as a base for dividing students into three groups. The test consisted of 6 writing questions, on simple past tense, simple present tense, and future tense to be answered in 60 minutes. For each question they should use 8 verbs. Three instructions were held on simple past tense, simple present tense, and future tense for one month and three sessions in week and each week for one of the tense and last week for review that followed by a post-test to clarify the result.

Materials

Instructions used for both groups of study were derived from the books American File 1 for CLT class and New Headway 1 for ALM class on simple past tense, simple present tense, and future tense. The grammatical focus of the text was on simple past, simple present, and future tenses.

Procedure

Language-centered Class

1) The English classes usually last one hours and 15 minutes, but the efficient time spent totally on teaching and learning was 45 minutes, (each week the teacher worked on one tense).

2) The language of instruction was target language but sometimes the teacher used learners first language when she wants to make a contrastive analysis.

3) There was a top-down explanation in simple past tense, simple present tense, and future tense, in the first fifteenth minutes.

4) There was a description of each tense in the form of sentence with three examples in five minutes. Then the teacher referred briefly to wrote the formula for each tense. It took about 20 minutes.

5) 10 to 15 minutes was spent on doing exercises in the book. There were 20 examples and a few was done as an example.

Learner-centered Class

1) Talking about the new process for five minutes.

2) Description of each tense by students only by giving example, no explanation by teacher, (each week the teacher worked on one tense).

3) Involving students on talking about simple past tense, simple present tense, and future tense.

4) Focus on oral practice in the target language.

5) Not all the students were involved in speaking, but those who had already attended private language institutes.

6) Not much information was provided by the teacher.

7) Students were continually ordered to be polite and quiet, even though the noise was because of problem solving task.

8) Students answered the questions but not correctly.

9) Competition among students on responding.

10) Some learners were active while others were aloof.

11) Controlling the class only at the first ten minutes

12) No audio/visual aids were available.

Results and discussion

In this section, a descriptive analysis of quantitative data is presented based on the research question of the study. The descriptive statistics of *the pre-test and post-test,* by the three groups: language- centered (first group) and learner-centered (second group) and control group (third group and without instruction) before and after the instruction, is reported in Table 1. In these data the purpose is that to understand which teaching method is better. For comparing these groups, we should find the average number of incorrect responses for each person. Average of incorrect responses for each group and pre- and post-tests separately are:

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of teacher made test

Descriptive Statistics

pre_post	group		N	Mean
pre	1	mean	30	5.4333
		Valid N (listwise)	30	
	2	mean	30	6.2056
		Valid N (listwise)	30	
	3	mean	30	5.7556
		Valid N (listwise)	30	
post	1	mean	30	1.6833
		Valid N (listwise)	30	
	2	mean	30	3.0778
		Valid N (listwise)	30	
	3	mean	30	4.3389
		Valid N (listwise)	30	

Bar chart above information is displayed as (Figure 1):
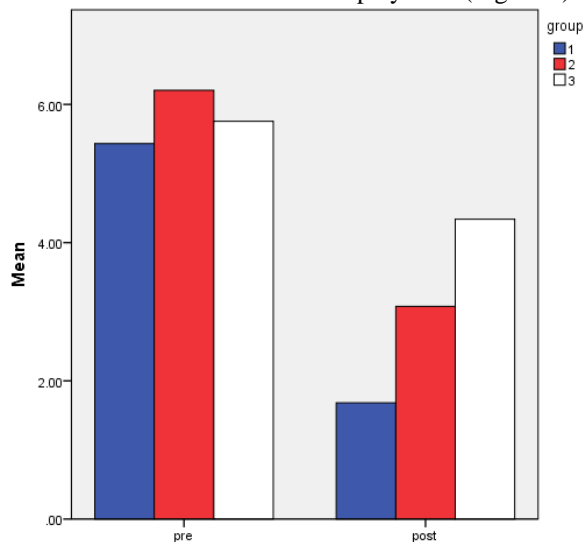
Figure 1.

According to figure 1, first group has fewer incorrect responses rather than second group. We tested the accuracy of this by using statistical tests.

Third group is as a control group and compared two other groups against it. Reached the following conclusions by using One-sided ANOVA Test and Dunnett Test:

Table 2. The results of One-sided ANOVA Test

ANOVA						
mean						
pre_post		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
pre	Between Groups	9.027	2	4.513	44.728	.000
	Within Groups	8.779	87	.101		
	Total	17.805	89			
post	Between Groups	105.869	2	52.934	405.223	.000
	Within Groups	11.365	87	.131		
	Total	117.233	89			

Table 3. Dunnett Test

Multiple Comparisons							
Dependent Variable: mean							
Dunnett t (<control)							
pre_post	(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
							Upper Bound
pre	1	3	-.32222*	.08202	.000	-.1630	
	2	3	.45000	.08202	1.000	.6092	
post	1	3	-2.65556*	.09332	.000	-2.4744	
	2	3	-1.26111*	.09332	.000	-1.0800	
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.							
a. Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.							

In Dunnett Test (Table 3), groups compared with the control group. In this test the hypothesis H_0 (H_0: the average of sightly group is equal to control group) is tested against hypothesis H_1 (H_1: the average of sightly group is fewer than control group). In pre-test, there was significant difference between average of wrong answers of first group and control group which is significantly less. But average of wrong answers of second group was significantly more than control group (the difference between these two groups is +45,0). In post-test, average of wrong answers in both first and second groups was significantly fewer than control group (P-value<.000). If we merge pre- and post tests questions, this would be the results of test case:

Table 4. The results of merging the pre- and post-tests

ANOVA					
mean					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	71.098	2	35.549	15.425	.000
Within Groups	407.930	177	2.305		
Total	479.028	179			

Table 5. The results of multiple comparisons

Multiple Comparisons						
Dependent Variable: mean						
Dunnett t (<control)						
(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Upper Bound
1	3	-1.48889*	.27717	.000	-.9544	
2	3	-.40556	.27717	.124	.1289	
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.						
a. Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.						

There was significant difference between average of first group and control group and statistically the average of first group has significant difference with control group (P-value<.000) but this is not true for second group (Table 5).

However, average of wrong answers of second group was fewer than control group (because the difference between second and third groups is -0.40556) but this value is not significant (P-value>.05). Thus, we can conclude that teaching method of first group is better than second group.

If we assume that there is no control group we should compare first and second groups together. We get the following output in SPSS by using Paired Samples Test (Table 8):

Table 6. Paired Samples Statistics

Paired Samples Statistics					
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	g1pre	5.4333	30	.30513	.05571
	g2pre	6.2056	30	.34375	.06276
Pair 2	g1post	1.6833	30	.22890	.04179
	g2post	3.0778	30	.45430	.08294

g1pre= group1 pre-test   g2pre= group 2 pre-test
g1post= group 1 post-test   g2post= group 2 post-test

Table 7. Paired Samples Correlations

Paired Samples Correlations				
		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	g1pre & g2pre	30	.281	.132
Pair 2	g1post & g2post	30	.217	.249

Table 8. Paired Samples Test

Paired Samples Test									
		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	g1pre - g2pre	-.77222	.39021	.07124	-.91793	-.62651	-10.839	29	.000
Pair 2	g1post - g2post	-1.39444	.46214	.08437	-1.56701	-1.22188	-16.527	29	.000

In table 6 the mean value in first group was fewer than second group (both in pre- and post-tests). The results of table 8 shows that both in pre- and post-tests the difference between first and second groups is significant and difference is negative, that is the average of wrong answers in first group is fewer than second group. It means that language-centered method (first group) is better than the learner-centered method (second group).

Conclusion

One of the challenges currently facing researchers and educators in language teaching is that to understand which teaching method is better, language-centeredness or learner-centeredness. Language learning can be enhanced by raising positive attitudes toward utilizing new approaches among teachers and parents, encouraging well-formed changes in teacher training system in universities or related centers, implementing new ways on teaching students. However, after a comparison of classroom methods it shows that language-centered is better than learner-centered.

Reference

Adams, R. (2008). Do Second Language Learners Benefit from Interacting with Each Other? In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational Interaction in Second Language Acquisition: A Collection of Empirical Studies* (pp. 29-51). Oxford, OUP.

Anglia Examination Syndicate Ltd. Reg. in England Co. No. 2046325 (paper Ai, F, D). Retrieved + 2005, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010 from http://www.angliaexams.com/sample-papers-intermediate-levels.php

http://www.angliaexams.com/Sample-Papers-antiguos.php

Baldauf, R. B., & Moni, K. (2006). Learner-centeredness in Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Thai TESOL International Conference, Chiang mai, Thiland.

Brown, J. K. (2008). Student-centered Instruction: Involving Students in Their Own Education. *Music Educators Journal, 95*(4).

Duck Worth, E. (2009). Helping Students Get to Where Ideas Can Find Them. *The New Educators, 5*(3).

Hassaskhah, J. (2005). *Cooperative learning.* Rasht: Guilan University Press.

Huba, M. E., & Freed, J. E. (2000). Teacher-Centered vs. Learner-Centered Paradigms. Retrieved May, 2012 from http://assessment.uconn.edu/docs/TeacherCenteredVsLearnerCenteredParadigms.pdf

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching from method to post-method.* London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative language teaching: An introduction.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Lynch, D. N. (2010). *Student-Centered Learning: The Approach That Better Benefits Students.* Virginia Wesleyaan Collage.

Mackey, W. F. (1965). *Language teaching analysis.* Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

Nunan, D. (1999). *Second Language Teaching and Learning.* Canada: Heinle and Heinle publisher.

Nunan, D., & Lamb, C. (2001). Managing the learning process. In D. R. Hall & A. Hewings (Eds.), *Innovation in English language* teaching (pp. 27-45). London: Routledge.

Pederson, S., & Liu, M. (2003). Teacher's beliefs about issues in the implementation of a student-centered learning environment. *ETR & D, 51* (2), 57-76.

Peyton, J. K., More, S. K., & Young, S. (2010). Evidence-based, Student-centered Instructional Practices. *Center for Applied Linguistic.* Retrieved May, 2012 from http://cal.org/caelanetwork

Pham ThiHanh. (2005). *Learners' and Teachers' Preference for Classroom Activities.* Essex University: Essex University Press.

Sadker, D. M., & Zittleman, K. (2006). *Teachers, schools and society: A brief introduction to education.* New York: McGraw-Hill Higher Education

Weimer, M. (2002). *Student-centered teaching. Five key changes to practice.* San Francisco: Jossey- Bass.

Wilkins, D. A. (1972). *The linguistic and situational content of the common core in a unit/credit system.* Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe.

Wilkins, D. A. (1976). *National syllabuses.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.