

See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/324517141>

Negotiated Syllabus

Chapter · June 2018

DOI: 10.1163/9789463511889_012

CITATIONS

0

READS

5,484

2 authors:



Maryam Azarnoosh

Islamic Azad University Semnan Branch

31 PUBLICATIONS 127 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Hamid Reza Kargozari

Tabaran Institute of Higher Education

25 PUBLICATIONS 47 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE

Some of the authors of this publication are also working on these related projects:



separate project [View project](#)



Issues in TEFL [View project](#)

12. NEGOTIATED SYLLABUS

INTRODUCTION

Negotiated syllabuses, also called process syllabuses (Breen, 1987), are organized around the shared decisions made by teachers and learners at various stages of a course. The shared decisions are the sign of mutual understanding of the two parties on how to run the class and cover the materials based on learners' needs. In fact, such a syllabus uncovers "a shared detailed understanding between teacher and students of what is going on, what needs to be done, and how it will be done" (Boomer, 1992, p. 287). In this chapter, the basis of this type of syllabus will be briefly covered and negotiation and its types will be introduced. Then after reviewing the details of the framework of this type of syllabus, the influential factors, that is advantages and disadvantages will be discussed.

ORIGINS OF NEGOTIATED SYLLABUS

Negotiated syllabus which emphasizes on the key role of language learners and the concepts of shared decision-making and negotiation is a social and problem-solving model of syllabus design with philosophical origins rooted in individualism and progressivism and psychological origins in humanism and constructivism Breen and Littlejohn (2000b). It is based on general philosophical and educational principles and its foundations are comprehensively expressed by scholars such as Breen (1987), Breen and Candlin (1987), and Breen and Littlejohn (2000a, b). Clarke (1991) determines four significant applied linguistics and educational principles as the basis of negotiated syllabus that converge in shaping it. They consist of humanistic methodologies such as community language learning that is basically learner-centered, needs analysis particularly for specific purposes, individualization and learner autonomy, and research on learner strategies in language learning. All of these concepts derive from a holistic approach and emphasize on the central role of language learners in the learning process in which their affective, cognitive, and linguistic needs are taken into consideration. In fact, the theoretical underpinnings of a learner-centered view is provided by constructivism which underscores the idea that learners are the agent of creating their own knowledge on the basis of their previous experience and social interactions. Similarly, Piaget considers action and self-directed problem-solving to be at the core of learning and learner development (Wood, 1998).

In language curriculum development, Richards (2013) proposes three types of curriculum designs which include forward, central and backward design among which negotiated syllabus in language learning and teaching seems to be of central type. In central design, selecting teaching methods, activities, and techniques are the starting point in curriculum development which take precedence over comprehensive specifications of input (i.e., the linguistic content of a course) or output (i.e.,s learning outcomes). While learners engage in meaningful interaction and communication, their specific needs and interests which vary from one context to another build up the purpose and content of a particular course. So attributing a learner-centered and learning-oriented perspective to central design (Leung, 2012) supports the inclusion of various processes such as exploration, decision-making, discussion, argumentation, interpretation, critical thinking, co-operation etc. in the act of teaching and learning (Bruner, 1966).

Negotiated syllabus as an example of a central design has features of progressivism (Clark, 1987) some of which are: being learner-centered and concerned with learning processes than predetermined objectives, focusing on the learner as an active participant who learns through construction of knowledge and shaping one's own learning, considering each teaching-learning context unique and the learning process as a creative problem-solving activity, and promoting the development of learners as individuals. In addition, if classroom is taken as an ecology (van Lier, 2007):

Learning is not a system of 'inputs' which individual learners convert into 'output'. Rather, the environment provides affordances or opportunities for meaningful action... In the ecological perspective, the curriculum does not start out by specifying and sequencing materials, but with the 'activities, needs, and emergent purposes of the learner. On the basis of activities and emergent needs, the teacher makes resources available in the environment, and guides the learner's perception and action towards an array of affordances that can further his or her goals'. (Graves, 2008, p. 168)

Based on this viewpoint, learners interact and participate in a context as meaning creators who collaborate to understand and extend it (Graves, 2008).

Richards (2013) lists features of the three curriculum approaches in terms of syllabus, methodology, role of teacher, role of learner and assessment based on Clark (1987) which vividly illustrates how a negotiated syllabus can be fitted into a central design rather than the other two types (see Table 1).

NEGOTIATION AND ITS TYPES

Negotiation and process are two terms used in three different senses. In one sense, they are discussed in the process of SLA and the way interaction may contribute to it, in one other sense they are related to classroom pedagogy and deal with the stages students go through in producing language, and in the third sense they correlate with concepts such as shared decision-making and autonomy, learner-centeredness and

Table 1. Features of the three curriculum approaches (adopted from Richards, 2013, p. 30)

	<i>Forward design</i>	<i>Central design</i>	<i>Backward design</i>
Syllabus	Language-centred Content divided into its key elements Sequenced from simple to complex Pre-determined prior to a course Linear progression	Activity-based Content negotiated with learners Evolves during the course Reflects the process of learning Sequence may be determined by the learners	Needs based Ends-means approach Objectives or competency-based Sequenced from part-skills to whole Pre-determined prior to course Linear progression
Methodology	Transmissive and teacher-directed Practice and control of elements Imitation of models Explicit presentation of rules	Learner-centred Experiential learning Active engagement in interaction and communication Meaning prioritized over accuracy Activities that involve negotiation of meaning	Practice of part-skills Practice of real-life situations Accuracy emphasized Learning and practice of expressions and formulaic language
Role of teacher	Teacher as instructor, model, and explainer Transmitter of knowledge Reinforcer of correct language use	Teacher as facilitator Negotiator of content and process Encourager of learner self-expression and autonomy	Organizer of learning experiences Model of target language performance Planner of learning experiences
Role of learner	Accurate mastery of language forms Application of learned material to new contexts Understanding of language rules	Negotiator of learning content and modes of learning Development of learning strategies Accept responsibility for learning and learner autonomy	Learning through practice and habit formation Mastery of situationally appropriate language Awareness of correct usage Development of fluency
Assessment	Norm-referenced, summative end-of-semester or end-of-course test Assessment of learning Cumulative mastery of taught forms	Negotiated assessment Assessment for learning Formative assessment Self-assessment Develop capacity for self-reflection and self-evaluation	Criterion-referenced Performance based Summative assessment Improvement oriented Assessment of learning Cumulative mastery of taught patterns and uses

collaborative learning (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000a). Negotiation is the idea of making hidden views of students explicit and hearing their voices to create a democratic and more proficient and effective classroom environment which becomes possible through shared decision-making about various aspects of learning and teaching.

Breen and Littlejohn (2000b) proposed three types of negotiation – personal, interactive, and procedural – indicating their purposes in specific communication contexts. Personal negotiation refers to complex mental processes in interpreting the received information. Interactive negotiation or negotiation of meaning refers to “the interactional work done by speakers and listeners to ensure that they have a common understanding of the ongoing meanings in a discourse” (Nunan, 1999, p. 311). And procedural negotiation is “the discussion between all members of the classroom to decide how learning and teaching are to be organised” (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b, p. 1). All these three types are related, can co-occur, include a challenge for meaning, and reduce one’s uncertainty, whether psychological, social or interpersonal to a different extent; however, the type of negotiation attributed to in a negotiated syllabus primarily refers to procedural negotiation. While the primary purpose of personal and interactive negotiation is to uncover and share meaning, the procedural negotiation focuses on reaching agreement which entails understanding and sharing meaning. In the classroom context, procedural negotiation means reaching a shared understanding at appropriate times in classroom work, clarifying alternative assumptions and interpretations, identifying the range of achievements and difficulties in work, revealing and choosing preferences and alternatives in ways of working which can lead to an effective teaching-learning process.

Negotiation may also be considered as explicit or implicit (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b). In explicit negotiation, shared decisions about diverse aspects of the teaching program are directly made by teachers and learners, while in implicit negotiation, it takes an indirect form of finding out what learners’ ideas are about various aspects of syllabus design. In fact, procedural negotiation is a means of making teachers’ implicit interpretation of the syllabus and students’ learning plans explicit. While teachers’ process of classroom decision-making to cover the syllabus is usually covert, learners overtly focus on the classroom realities, what goes on in the class, and how their learning takes place. Gourlay (2005) also maintains that implicit negotiation may also be more positive and empowering in revealing students’ adaptation to classroom activities and tasks. Even when mismatches between student and teacher’s agendas may unfavourably affect the learning process, successful explicit and implicit procedural negotiation on the learning process may reconcile problems.

NEGOTIATED SYLLABUSES FRAMEWORK

Each type of syllabus proposes a kind of framework for its potential content for teaching. In developing a framework for negotiated syllabus three points should be identified: the decisions that can be negotiated, the steps to follow in a negotiation

cycle, and the aspects or levels of the curriculum to which negotiation can be applied (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b).

Decisions That Can Be Negotiated: What and When

Teachers and students can share ideas and reach agreement in four key decision-making areas to generate a curriculum: the purpose of their work, the content or subject matter, the various ways of working together, and the means of evaluating the work in terms of effectiveness, quality, and outcomes. These four aspects also overlap with the four parts of the central circle of the curriculum design diagram of Nation and Macalister (2010) which consist of goals, content and sequencing, format and presentation, and monitoring and assessment. These are the decisions of why, what, how, and how well to negotiate.

The degree of such negotiations can be different from one context to another according to the constraints imposed by the organization at one end and personal capabilities of the negotiators – the teacher or learner – at the other end. So there can be situations in which some parts or aspects of the course are negotiated. Nation and Macalister (2010) illustrate four ways of partially negotiating the syllabus in which only specific parts of the course are open to negotiation such as a specific time or lesson, one or more of the four key decision-making areas, one or more of the language skills, and one or more of the aspects of the central circle of their curriculum design diagram mentioned earlier. Likewise, shared decisions can be made on all or some of the aspects like course content and process, teaching methodology, assessment method and process, course evaluation and control and discipline (Mollaei, 2013).

Besides deciding about what to negotiate, teachers' need to consider the appropriate time and condition for making the shared decisions. Applying a negotiated syllabus in the following situations or under the following conditions seems inevitable. When there is/are

- Differences in teacher's and learners' backgrounds
- Shortage of time and necessity of making the best choices
- A heterogeneous group of students and the need to find common ground.
- Constrains in identifying learners' needs
- Lack of published course materials
- A need to include students' past experiences
- An open-ended and exploratory course (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b; Nation & Macalister, 2010).

The Negotiated Cycle and Curriculum Pyramid

The negotiated decisions build up the first step of a three step negotiated cycle in the framework proposed by Breen and Littlejohn (2000a, b). In this step, the focus

is on a decision area that might be the most urgent or problematic in some way, for example deciding about tasks to carry out or the type and time of evaluation. In step two, *action(s)*, actions are carried out based on the decisions made, and then in the third step, *evaluation*, these actions are evaluated. Evaluation takes place in terms of learning achievements (that is *what*) and the appropriateness of the actual process (that is *how*). Thus, this is the most important stage, according to which the implementations of the decisions are reviewed to shape future actions through informed choices which can be the starting point of a new cycle. Evaluation may even appear not as a separate step but built in step one when decisions are being made based on previous experiences (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b).

The negotiation “cycle itself serves to evolve the actual curriculum which would include the group’s aims, content, ways of working or evaluation procedures” (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b, p. 34) at different reference points in terms of levels in a curriculum pyramid, so the cycle may focus on a different level at appropriate times. In the curriculum pyramid originally proposed by Littlejohn (1998), the levels of focus for the negotiation cycle start with the first level, the smallest unit, *a task* followed by levels of *a sequence of tasks*, *a series of lessons/sessions*, *a course*, *a specific subject/language curriculum* and finally *a wider educational curriculum*, respectively (Figure 1).

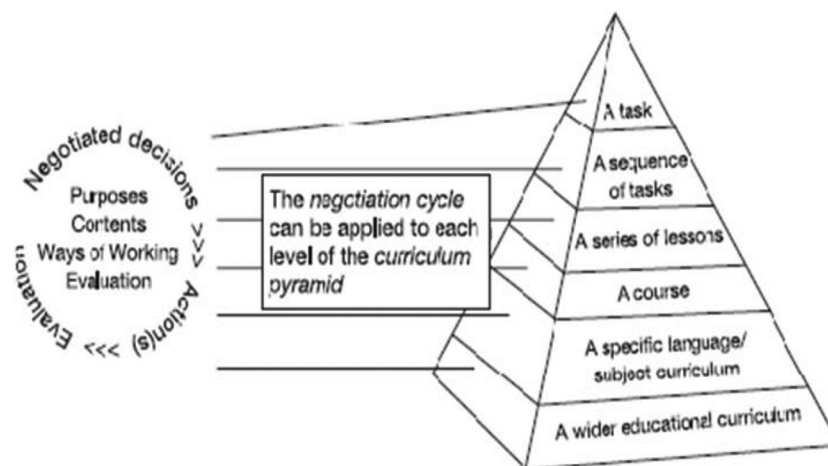


Figure 1. A negotiated (process) syllabus (adapted from Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b, p. 38; Nation & Macalister, 2010, p. 150)

The higher levels of the pyramid are included in the ones below, so when decisions are made, there can be a connection between the different levels of the pyramid. Moreover, at each specific level decisions about the purpose, content, ways of working, and evaluation can be made. Task is the smallest unit and the most

immediate location of learning work while educational curriculum is the broadest at the institution or state level. In fact, the levels are not totally distinct and each level overlaps to some extent with the ones above or below it.

Since tasks of various types are readily used in most language learning environments, let's take task as an example and see how negotiation may apply to this level. The negotiated decisions made at this level can be like: How shall we do this, in groups, in pairs, or alone? How much time shall we spend on it? How shall we correct it? Who shall correct it? How much help shall we need? etc. These questions lead to some shared decisions which are later put into practice, and then evaluated. The language learning tasks can be evaluated concerning the five interrelated components of any task which are about the task objectives, content, procedures, contributions of learners in terms of their current knowledge, skills, or abilities, and task situation including its actual conditions and resources which also includes teacher contributions (Breen, 1989). In addition, three important means criteria to use in evaluating a task are

- the extent to which it addresses *learner* definitions of progress;
- the extent to which it is *developmental* towards the demands of the target language and its use; and
- the extent to which it is open to *diversity* and *change* in learner knowledge and capability (Breen, p. 192).

In general, the task evaluation cycle which includes three aspects of task as work-plan, task-in-process, and task outcomes is a positive and highly relevant language learning activity in itself.

In short, the negotiation cycle and the curriculum pyramid together provide the conceptual framework of the negotiated syllabus presenting how negotiation may be applied at specific curriculum planning levels even with a gradualist or selective perspective (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b).

FACTORS INFLUENCING NEGOTIATION: ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

Negotiation is not a straight forward undertaking since the context in which teachers and students work can influence the extent and focus of negotiation. Therefore, there are a number of factors to be considered when developing classroom work based on negotiation. Some of these factors might seem problematic or leading to constraints, some others might be beneficial to the learning processes which are discussed below.

A Pre-Specified Curriculum

Apparently, a detailed external curriculum places limitations on the aspects that can be negotiated; however, it may help in setting boundaries and a frame within which the negotiation can take place. Nunan (1989) states that through consultation and negotiation any preconception about the course and mismatches between students'

expectations and the official curriculum can be resolved. Even in a context where aims and learning targets are prescribed by a government department and learning materials are highly structured, exploiting a process of negotiation may develop learners' autonomy (Little, 1995). In addition, an official syllabus can provide a sense of guidance, like a map which learners can refer to as their learning route and a checklist for self-evaluation; it can also contribute valuable learning opportunities for both the learners and the teacher. These can be derived from "the attempt to solve conflicts between the aims and content of curriculum and the needs and interests of particular learners at a given time" (Serrano-Sampedro, 2000, p. 126).

Cultural Issues

In any learning situation, cultural background and perspectives of teachers and learners can influence the learning and teaching process. There seems to be no exception when the focus is on classroom negotiation, that is to say, differences in cultural or educational background may lead to potential difficulties such as resistance to this method in certain students; however, this does not mean that negotiation is not feasible in certain cultural settings or it is more appropriate or suitable for some others.

Sometimes, it may seem that a learner-centered approach is more effective in cultures that place less emphasis on the authority of the teacher and more on contributions by individuals, or more beneficial to learners who are to some extent experienced in self-directed study; however, they can offer significant gains among passive, teacher-dependent students if they are adopted in a careful and gradual way (Littlejohn, 1983). However, to Serrano-Sampedro (2000) the main difficulties may stem from administering the change which might be related to the approach or teachers' lack of experience. She summarizes the other difficulties as preconceptions of language and how to learn it, tension to choose and sense of direction, knowing when to intervene, evaluation, and coping with large number of learners.

Class Size and Students' Abilities

Large classes may make negotiation more difficult, reduce the possibility of all individuals' contribution, and decrease the support given to specific students and needs, but students may set the pace and rhythm of their work according to their own needs and interests. Since decision-making is bounded by the limits of individual abilities, and are premised on socio-emotional issues, and are intricately related to factors such as self-esteem, and self-efficacy (Littlejohn, 2008), the teacher can give more individual attention while learners work in groups. This facilitates the attention to learner diversity in learning styles, rhythms, needs, interests, etc. Moreover, active learners who are self-initiated in their actions turn to be stronger in intrinsic motivation and autonomy (Ushioda, 2003). Being critically reflective of ones' own learning situation also puts students in charge of their cognitive processes which

include awareness, monitoring, and self-regulation (Smith, 2000), or in the words of Gray (1990) understanding, maximizing, and controlling their cognitive powers and cognitive weaknesses.

Learner Voice

In negotiated syllabus, a key feature is the matter of shared decision-making which invites all students to participate and have their share in influencing the decisions. However, it is the views of the most vocal which seems to be heard, not of those who keep silent and do not share their opinions. This can be a threat for any negotiated course, so a training course for negotiation may work. Moreover, training seems necessary when learners involved with negotiating a learning program for the first time have no clear notion of negotiation as syllabus content. Helping learners change their preferred strategies in learning, in character traits, in their life-long beliefs about the roles of teachers and learners and developing the skills required to undertake constructive negotiation takes time and requires great effort (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000a).

Moreover, since “the core of identity is voice, and voice implies agency” (van Lier, 2007, p. 47), learners as agents of their own language learning should practice social interaction, collaborate, share decisions, and have a say to each other and the teacher. This means in the process of learning, despite the unavoidable inequalities of power, the successful interaction and collaboration of voices is possible (Sinclair, 2008). Learners may identify their needs through interacting and establishing classroom relationships which not only contribute to making authentic and democratic decisions but also may give them the feeling that they are able to voice their opinions and have further says whenever required (Boon, 2011). Moreover, voicing expectations, on the side of the teacher as well as the students in negotiation, improves teacher-learner relationships, leads to mutual understanding and improved learning; and valid judgments of merit and worth of a specific achieved outcome, and its value furthers the developmental process (MacKay, Oates, & Haig, 2000).

Teacher and Learner Reactions

Effective learning is based on what goes on in and between people in the classroom and responsible teaching entails sharing of the responsibility. A whole-person involvement in decision-making and undertaking organization and management responsibilities of classroom work contribute to the learning process. This provides students with better understanding of teacher’s expectations which can lead to setting more realistic goals and becoming more motivated to achieve them (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000a; Davies, 2006; Nation & Macalister, 2010).

In a negotiated syllabus, the introduction of shared decision-making within the classroom redefines the roles of teacher and student. Teachers who usually practice full authority in the classroom may experience anxiety and danger of losing control

as a result of introducing negotiation. So to involve students in decision-making, teachers need to practice flexibility, tolerance, risk-taking, and belief in learners' capability. Likewise, all learners are not expected to be experts in negotiation and may lack the experience to fully participate in syllabus decision-making (Littlejohn, 1998; Nation & Macalister, 2010). Their experience of being involved in decision-making is gradually built up and although it is a slow experience, it can influence how they feel about their lessons, and the way they think about learning in general. So there is a need to invest time and train learners to assume a greater share of management responsibilities in their language learning. In fact, balancing traditional power relationship in the classroom, provides an empowerment experience where language learners and teachers are seen equal in and capable of decision-making (Abdelmalak, 2015).

Therefore, "major constraints seem to be ultimately based on perceptions of non-equality of teachers and students, and a restricted view of the process of syllabus negotiation" (Martyn, 2000, p. 161). The teacher and students can be seen as equals with different levels of expertise and experience, whereas not accepting the equality of participants is a major obstacle in any course negotiation. Taking students concerns and genuine negotiation of goals into consideration enables students to feel that they are respected and treated as equals. To enhance mutual understanding and collegiality, Kenny (1993) believes that there should be a change in the traditional beliefs about learners' status. This is important since the complexities involved in managing and making decisions necessarily entail a number of *risks* that can threaten to destroy the value of the classroom experience for the learner. Therefore, involving learners may lead to a reduction of risks involved in conducting exclusively teacher-directed classes and can contribute to the development of a classroom atmosphere more conducive to deeper learning, higher motivation, and positive attitudes toward studying.

In short, lack of knowledge or experience in applying a negotiated syllabus, insufficient knowledge about the range of choices, problems in reaching agreement, teachers' resistance in practicing such a syllabus and lack of required skill and time needed to invest in accessing and producing resources are among the constraints of this type of syllabus (Nation & Macalister, 2010). Finally, the difficulties in implementing a negotiated syllabus can be summarized as learner and teacher factors.

Learner Factors

- The learners have limited awareness of the possible activities.
- The learners are perfectly happy to let the teacher teach.
- The learners need training in negotiation.
- With no course book learners do not feel a sense of progress.
- Learners' wants are only a small part of learners' needs.
- The needs of the learners are too diverse to reach agreement.

- Cultural expectations make learners reluctant to negotiate with the teacher.
- The learners lack confidence in negotiating with the teacher.
- Negotiation will have a negative effect on students' attitudes to the course because the teacher is not taking control of the course.

Teacher Factors

- Negotiation uses valuable class time.
- The teacher's workload is less if the teacher teaches exactly the same lessons to several different classes.
- The school expects all learners in different classes to follow the same course.
- What is done in your class needs to be similar to what is done in the rest of the school.
- There are not a lot of teaching resources to draw on.
- The teacher is not skilful enough to cope with short-term planning (Nation & Macalister, 2010, p. 156).

CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on negotiation syllabus by specifying its foundations, defining negotiation, discussing its different types, and emphasizing on procedural negotiation and its framework including the negotiated decisions to be made, the steps to be followed in a negotiation cycle, and the curriculum aspects or levels that negotiation could be applied to. In reviewing influential factors, it was mentioned that implementing a negotiated syllabus is not an easy job due to some factors like cultural differences among learners, diversity of learning strategies, lack of competent teachers, the amount of time needed for negotiation, the need for having different materials due to different needs, and the training programs needed to carry out the negotiation process (Clarke, 1991).

However, there are benefits in undertaking negotiation despite possible contextual constraints. Negotiation can lead to wider range of outcomes such as improvement in one's confidence, motivation, learning quality, taking responsibility and working independently. The negotiated syllabus helps learners become autonomous and experience empowerment. Negotiation within the classroom promotes learners' power of learning and independency in learning. It is the process of collaborative decision-making which requires constant balancing of particular goals and tailoring the course contents to the needs that leads learners to a sense of ownership of the course, sense of self confidence, and high motivation which in turn results in more relevant learning experiences (Abdelmalak, 2015; Cervero & Wilson, 2006).

In conclusion, it should be mentioned that in such a syllabus everyone is involved "at every stage of decision-making with maximum provision for interaction, consultation and co-operation, and maximum potential for the development of consensus, commitment and motivation" (Johnson, 1989, p. 14). However, focusing

on shared decision-making does not imply replacing the teacher's power as the basic decision maker who is at the heart of the process rather it conveys the teacher's recognition of potentialities of negotiation and the will to initiate it in the classroom for students' benefit in language learning. And besides all the influential factors in classroom negotiation, "it appears that teachers' initial willingness to share classroom decisions and their persistence in trying different ways of engaging student involvement in decision-making may be the decisive factor in any teaching context" (Breen, & Littlejohn, 2000a, p. 282).

REFERENCES

- Abdelmalak, M. (2015). Participatory curriculum planning: Students' perceptions. *Curriculum and Teaching*, 30(1), 67–84.
- Boomer, G. (1992). Negotiating the curriculum reformulated. In G. Boomer, N. Lester, C. Onore, & J. Cook (Eds.), *Negotiating the curriculum: Educating for the 21st century* (pp. 275–289). London: The Falmer Press.
- Boon, A. (2011). Negotiated syllabuses: Do you want to? In J. Macalister & I. S. P. Nation (Eds.), *Case studies in language curriculum design* (pp. 166–178). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Breen, M. (1987). Contemporary paradigm in syllabus design. *Language Teaching*, 20(2), 81–91.
- Breen, M. P. (1989). The evaluation cycle of language learning tasks. In R. K. Johnson (Ed.), *The second language curriculum* (pp. 187–207). Cambridge: CUP.
- Breen, M. P., & Candlin, C. N. (1987). Which materials? A consumer's and designer's guide. In L. E. Sheldon (Ed.), *ELT textbooks and materials: Problems in evaluation and development* (pp. 13–28). Oxford: Modern English Publications.
- Breen, M. P., & Littlejohn, A. (2000a). The practicalities of negotiation. In M. P. Breen & A. Littlejohn (Eds.), *Classroom decision making: Negotiation and process syllabuses in practice* (pp. 272–296). Cambridge: CUP.
- Breen, M. P., & Littlejohn, A. (2000b). The significance of negotiation. In M. P. Breen & A. Littlejohn (Eds.), *Classroom decision making: Negotiation and process syllabuses in practice* (pp. 5–39). Cambridge: CUP.
- Bruner, J. (1966). *The process of education*. Cambridge: Harvard Educational Press.
- Cervero, R., & Wilson, A. (2006). *Working the planning table: Negotiating democratically for adult, continuing, and workplace education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Clark, J. L. (1987). *Curriculum renewal in school foreign language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Clarke, D. F. (1991). The negotiated syllabus: What is it and how is it likely to work? *Applied Linguistics*, 12(1), 13–28.
- Davies, A. (2006). What do learners really want from their EFL course? *ELT Journal*, 60(1), 3–12.
- Gourlay, L. (2005). Directions and indirect action: Learner adaptation of a classroom task. *ELT Journal*, 59(3), 209–216. doi:10.1093/elt/cci040
- Graves, K. (2008). The language curriculum: A social contextual perspective. *Language Teaching*, 41(2), 147–181.
- Gray, K. (1990). Syllabus design for the general class: What happens to theory when you apply it. *ELT Journal*, 44, 261–271.
- Johnson, R. K. (1989). A decision-making framework for the coherent language curriculum. In R. K. Johnson (Ed.), *The second language curriculum* (pp. 1–24). Cambridge: CUP.
- Kenny, B. (1993). Investigative research: How it changes learner status. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(2), 217–231.
- Leung, C. (2012). Outcomes-based language teaching. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to pedagogy and practice in language teaching* (pp. 161–179). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

- Little, D. (1995). Learning as dialogue: The dependence of learner autonomy on teacher autonomy. *System*, 23(2), 175–181.
- Littlejohn, A. (1998). *Sharing decisions with students: Some whys, how's, and how not's*. Retrieved from www.AndrewLittlejohn.net
- Littlejohn, A. (2008). Digging deeper: Learners' disposition and strategy use. In G. Cane (Ed.), *Strategies in language learning and teaching* (pp. 68–81). Singapore: RELC. Retrieved from www.AndrewLittlejohn.net
- Littlejohn, A. P. (1983). Increasing learner involvement in course management. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(4), 595–608.
- MacKay, A., Oates, K., & Haig, Y. (2000). Negotiated evaluation in a primary ESL context. In M. P. Breen & A. Littlejohn (Eds.), *Classroom decision making: Negotiation and process syllabuses in practice* (pp. 44–55). Cambridge: CUP.
- Martyn, E. (2000). Syllabus negotiation in a school of nursing. In M. P. Breen & A. Littlejohn (Eds.), *Classroom decision making: Negotiation and process syllabuses in practice* (pp. 150–163). Cambridge: CUP.
- Mollaei, F. (2013). Concepts of negotiated syllabus and assessments in EFL setting. *Journal of Studies in Learning and Teaching English*, 1(4), 103–115.
- Nation, I. S. P., & Macalister, J. (2010). *Language curriculum design*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Nunan, D. (1989). Hidden agendas: The role of the learner in program implementation. In R. K. Johnson (Ed.), *The second language curriculum* (pp. 176–187). Cambridge: CUP.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching and learning*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Richards, J. C. (2013). Curriculum approaches in language teaching: Forward, central, and backward design. *RELC Journal*, 44(1), 5–33. doi:10.1177/0033688212473293
- Serrano-Sampedro, I. (2000). Refining negotiated classroom work in a Spanish secondary school. In M. P. Breen & A. Littlejohn (Eds.), *Classroom decision making: Negotiation and process syllabuses in practice* (pp. 108–133). Cambridge: CUP.
- Sinclair, B. (2008). Multiple voices: Negotiating pathways towards teacher and learner autonomy. In T. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and teacher autonomy: Concepts, realities, and responses* (pp. 237–269). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Smith, K. (2000). Negotiating assessment with secondary-school pupils. In M. P. Breen & A. Littlejohn (Eds.), *Classroom decision making: Negotiation and process syllabuses in practice* (pp. 55–63). Cambridge: CUP.
- Ushioda, E. (2003). Motivation as a socially mediated process. In D. Little, J. Ridley, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom: Teacher, learner, curriculum and assessment* (pp. 90–102). Dublin: Authentik Language Learning Resources Ltd.
- vanLier, L. (2007). Action-based teaching, autonomy and identity. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 46–65. doi:10.2167/illt42.0
- Wood, D. (1998). *How children think and learn*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Maryam Azarnoosh
Islamic Azad University
Semnan, Iran

Hamid Reza Kargozari
Tabaran Institute of Higher Education
Mashhad, Iran