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Ranking the Key Factors of Success in Strategic Thinking and Management by Using MCDM-FAHP Technique

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Abstract.
The role of managers in the process of strategic planning and decision making depends on how they are thinking. Strategic planning frameworks only provide questions to be answered; the answers depend on executives' methodologies for decision making. Strategic thinking plays a critical role in today's business survival.

The aim of this paper is key factors to success in in strategic thinking and management by using Fuzzy Analytical Hierarchy Process (FAHP) method has been ranked in terms of importance as one of the multi criteria decision making (MCDM) approaches. In this way at the first different experts and elites of main criteria are classified and ranked by interview in three general groups including factors of systemic, individual, and organizational. In the next phase, on the basis of literature review of various sub-criteria which had placed in the subset of each main criterion, they were studied and ranked. The results of research show that between the main criteria, organizational factors and between the sub-criteria, risk tolerance have the most importance.

Key words: strategic thinking, success, fuzzy analytical hierarchy process, ranking.

1. Introduction.

Strategy has never been more challenging, or more important, than in today's environment of global competition, in which, corporate strategies must transcend the borders of nations and markets. Too many organizations try to be everything to everyone, wasting resources in markets that may never provide a worthwhile return on investment. The role of managers in the process of strategic planning and decision making depends on how they are thinking. Strategic planning frameworks only provide questions to be answered; the answers depend on executives' methodologies for decision making. Strategic thinking plays a critical role in today's business survival.

Strategic thinking is a process that defines the manner in which people think about, assess, view, and create the future for themselves and others. Strategic thinking is an extremely effective and valuable tool. One can apply strategic thinking to arrive at decisions that can be related to your work or personal life. Strategic thinking involves developing an entire set of critical skills.

Strategic Thinking is a planning process that applies innovation, strategic planning and operational planning to develop business strategies that have a greater chance for success.

More and more organizations are learning that past experience is not always the best basis for developing future strategies. Executives need to thoughtfully consider how to create value for customers. The exercise of strategic planning, while important, tends to answer the "how" and "when" of business planning and rarely captures the essence of what it means to think strategically. That's where strategic thinking comes in. Strategic thinking is the "what:" and "why" of the planning process. It answers the question, "What should we be doing, and why?"

The purpose of Strategic Thinking is to create a strategy that is a coherent, unifying, integrative framework for decisions especially about direction of the business and resource utilization. To do it, Strategic Thinking uses internal and external data, qualitative synthesis of opinions and perceptions. It is conscious, explicit, and proactive and defines competitive domain for corporate strategic advantage.

Strategy is a key outcome of a relevant strategic thinking process. Tregoe and Zimmerman outlined the relationship between strategy and operations in their work on strategy, "Top Management Strategy: What It Is and How to Make It Work".

Strategic Thinking is the combination of Innovation, Strategy Planning, and Operational Planning. The process begins with Innovation. We try to create the ideal future and consider the plans needed to achieve them and to see them through. Innovation helps us to move outside our comfort zone into the possibilities of exceeding customer and organizational requirements and expectations.

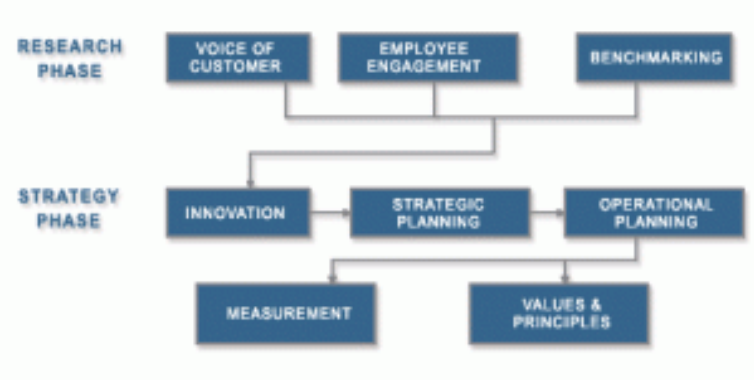
Innovations are then articulated into a series of strategies. This is a part of the entire Strategic Planning process. However, in Strategic Thinking, we incorporate the needs of our customers, the organization and our staff in the process. We incorporate Benchmarking to ensure that industry best practices are included in our vision of the future.

Employee Involvement at each stage of the Strategic Thinking process is key to ensuring that they stay involved in the execution of the Operational plans. This is where Operational Planning comes to play. It is the process of taking the strategies (the outcomes of the Strategic Planning process) and developing them into action

plans that are achievable and involve staff throughout the organization in ensuring that the needs of the customer and the organization are met.

The last part of Strategic Thinking is Measurement. There must be an on-going process of measuring the effectiveness of the plans and verifying that they are implemented as planned. Measurement is also used to benchmark the original needs against the implemented actions.

To successfully implement strategic change, initiated through the strategic thinking process, it is important for all levels of employees to fully incorporate the change in everything they do. We do this by identifying and establishing Values and Principles to ensure the organization is successful at achieving its strategic goals.



Mintzberg describes strategic thinking as a distinct way of thinking that utilizes intuition and creativity with the outcome being "an integrated perspective of the enterprise" (Mintzberg, 1994). Goldman et al. apply Mintzberg's definition to a business context, suggesting that effective strategic thinking leads to competitive advantage:

Strategic thinking is an individual thinking activity that benefits organizations. Its purpose is to discover competitive strategies to position the organization significantly differently from the present. Thinking strategically is not the same as preparing a strategic plan, which details tactics to be taken to achieve goals and objectives. Strategic thinking is thinking that contributes to broad, general, overarching concepts that focus the future direction of an organization based on anticipated environmental conditions (Goldman et al, 2010).

In distinguishing strategic thinking from strategic planning, Mintzberg suggests that each requires different types of thinking: strategic planning requires linear, analytical processes, and strategic thinking necessitates more intuitive and open-ended cognition (Mintzberg, 2009). Ohmae also describes strategic thinking as the "ultimate nonlinear thinking tool," in contrast to conventional, systems-based approaches of thinking (Ohmae, 1982). Maxwell cites one dictionary definition of strategy as "the science of planning and directing large-scale military operations, specifically (as distinguished from tactics) of maneuvering forces into the most advantageous position prior to actual engagement with the enemy" (Maxwell, 2003); applied in business, strategy becomes a maneuver for competitive success. Game theorists define strategic thinking as the art of outdoing an adversary, knowing that the adversary is trying to do the same to you (Amitabh and Sahay, 2007); others such as Moore suggest this approach is too simplistic in our complex and interconnected environment (Moore, 2009).

Heracleous and Liedtka (2009) each view strategic thinking as a highly creative, innovative, and unconventional method of thinking. Strategic thinking should be viewed as "central to creating and sustaining competitive advantage" and is the tool to get done what most leadership competencies seek to do – move an organization forward, innovate, streamline, and evoke greater productivity. Strategic thinking is commonly deployed in areas of problem solving and decision-making and with thought to envisioning the organization's future. Heracleous describes the purpose of strategic thinking as "to discover novel, imaginative strategies which can rewrite the rules of the competitive game, and to envision potential futures significantly different from the present." Rouse suggests that initiating new innovations and solutions is the "most difficult task faced by executives and senior managers … [but] if done well, it challenges assumptions and creates new mental models of markets, offerings, and organizations" (Rouse, 1997).

Kaufman et al. view strategic thinking as "practical dreaming" in the way in which people in an organization assess, view, and create the future for themselves and their associates by defining and envisioning results that add value (Kaufman et al, 2009). Strategists Mintzberg, Liedtka, Linkow, and Graetz, among others, have contributed to the view of strategic thinking as a synthesizing activity that can be developed in individuals across all levels of an organization, so that their creativity and innovation may become integrated into the formal organizational strategic planning process. Senge describes the importance of learning across an organization:

…work must become 'learningful.' It is no longer sufficient to have one person learning for the organization, a Ford or a Sloan or a Watson or a Gates. It's just not possible any longer to figure it out from the top, and have everyone else following the orders of the 'grand strategist.' The organizations that will truly excel in the future will be the organizations that discover how to tap people's commitment and capacity to learn at all levels in an organization.

The Center for Applied Research similarly sees strategic thinking as "focused on finding and developing unique opportunities to create value by enabling a provocative and creative dialogue among people who can affect a company's vision. As part of strategic thinking Mintzberg sees pattern as the sense of a stream of actions taken by members of an organization to evoke a new outcome (Mintzberg, 1987).

2. Method.

The approach used in this paper for prioritization of factors affecting to success in strategic thinking and management is based on a combination of multi-criteria decision making and fuzzy theory. Since there is no value for qualitative criteria their assessment is based on the linguistic values of decision makers. Weighted values used in this paper for weights of criteria and sub criteria (equivalent with fuzzy ones) are as table 1 below.

Decision making is very difficult for vague and uncertain environment. This vagueness and uncertainty can be handled by using fuzzy set theory, which was proposed by Zadeh (1965). A fuzzy set is defined by a membership function that maps elements to degrees of membership within a certain interval, which is usually [0, 1]. If the value assigned is zero, the element does not belong to the set (it has no membership). If the value assigned is one, the element belongs completely to the set (it has total membership). Finally, if the value lies within the interval, the element has a certain degree of membership. In particular, to tackle the ambiguities involved in the process of linguistic estimation, it is a beneficial way to convert these linguistic terms into fuzzy numbers. In practice, linguistic values can be represented by fuzzy numbers, and the TFN is commonly used.

Table 1. Fuzzy values of linguistic variables to prioritize factors in relation to each other

Linguistic variables	Positive three-dimensional fuzzy numbers	Positive bilateral three-dimensional fuzzy numbers
Complete and utter Priority or importance	$(\frac{5}{2},3,\frac{7}{2})$	$(\frac{2}{7},\frac{1}{3},\frac{2}{5})$
Much stronger preference or importance	$(2,\frac{5}{2},3)$	$(\frac{1}{3},\frac{2}{5},\frac{1}{2})$
Stronger Priority or importance	$(\frac{3}{2},2,\frac{5}{2})$	$(\frac{2}{5},\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3})$
Low priority or importance	$(1,\frac{3}{2},2)$	$(\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3},1)$
Almost Equal Priority or importance	$(\frac{1}{2},1,\frac{3}{2})$	$(\frac{2}{3},1,2)$
Exactly equal Priority or importance	(1,1,1)	(1,1,1)

2.1. Fuzzy Analytic Hierarchy Process.

Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) is a multi-criteria decision making tool first proposed by Saaty (14). Since it was introduced, AHP have been one of the most useful multi-criteria decisions making tool available to decision makers and researchers. Although AHP is sophisticated in recording knowledge, the conventional AHP is unable to veritably reflect the way human thinks (15) although it uses a precise yardstick to compare the opinions of decision makers, the conventional AHP becomes confusing. AHP is criticized for using lopsided judgment scales and its inability to properly consider the inherent uncertainty and carelessness of pair comparison (16).

To overcome these deficiencies, FAHP is developed to resolve the expanded hierarchical issues. Decision makers found out that distances judgment is more persuasive than rigid judgment. That's because the individual often cannot explicitly express his preferences regarding the fuzzy nature of comparison process (15).

Since the relative importance specified by AHP decision makers is oral, it is vague and imprecise. Decision makers often prefer to employ oral presentation rather than numerical value. Because due to the nature of pairwise comparisons, they cannot explicitly express their opinions about priorities. In such condition the best solution is to make decisions on the basis of multiple conditions and goals to achieve a relatively desirable level of achievement. These issues have caused the nature of decision making to be full of complexities and ambiguities in the most minor or most major cases. Consequently, most decision is made a fuzzy environment. Therefore, considering that the fuzzy logic method is proposed for decision making in uncertain and ambiguous

situation, using this method can reduce an ambiguities and increase the effectiveness of decisions made. The analytical hierarchy tree of decision making in this study present below.

2.2. Experimental results.

In this stage, after completing the questionnaires which had the common FAHP questionnaire format and was designed based on hierarchy, by consensus decision makers express their preferences in fuzzy way by paired comparison of each levels elements to higher level elements, which the consensus opinion is given in pairwise comparison matrices.

Table2. Matrix of main criteria Pairwise comparisons

Criteria Priority (I)	**I1**	**I2**	**I3**	**W_j**
I1	(1,1,1)	$(\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3},1)$	$(\frac{2}{5},\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3})$	0.1427
I2	$(1,\frac{3}{2},2)$	(1,1,1)	$(\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3},1)$	0.2984
I3	$(\frac{3}{2},2,\frac{5}{2})$	$(1,\frac{3}{2},2)$	(1,1,1)	0.3866

$$\sum_{j=1}^{3} M_{g_1}^{j} = (1,1,1) \oplus (\frac{1}{2},1,\frac{3}{2}) \oplus (\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3},1) \oplus (1,\frac{3}{2},2) \oplus (\frac{2}{5},\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3}) =$$

$$= (3.4000,4.6667,6.1667)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{3} M_{g_3}^{j} = (1,\frac{3}{2},2) \oplus (2,\frac{5}{2},3) \oplus (1,1,1) \oplus (1,\frac{3}{2},2) \oplus (\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3},1) =$$

$$= (5.5000,7.1667,9.0000)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{3} M_{g_5}^{j} = (\frac{3}{2},2,\frac{5}{2}) \oplus (\frac{3}{2},2,\frac{5}{2}) \oplus (1,\frac{3}{2},2) \oplus (2,\frac{5}{2},3) \oplus (1,1,1) =$$

$$= (7.0000,9.0000,11.0000)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{3}\sum_{j=1}^{3} M_{g_i}^{j} = (3.400,4.667,6.167) \oplus (5.500,7.167,9.000) \oplus (7.000,9.000,11.000) =$$

$$= (22.1333,28.6333,36.8333)$$

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{m} M_{gi}^{j}\right)^{-1} = (\frac{1}{36.8333},\frac{1}{28.6333},\frac{1}{22.1333}) =$$

$$= (0.0271,0.0349,0.0452)$$

$$S_1 = (3.4000,4.6667,6.1667) \otimes (0.0271,0.0349,0.0452) =$$

$$= (0.0923,0.1630,0.2786)$$

$$S_2 = (5.5000,7.1667,9.0600) \otimes (0.0271,0.0349,0.0452) =$$

$$= (0.1493,0.2503,0.4066)$$

$$S_3 = (7.0000,9.0000,11.0000) \otimes (0.0271,0.0349,0.0452) =$$

$$= (0.1900,0.3143,0.4970)$$

$$V(S_1 \geq S_2) = 1.000 \quad , V(S_1 \geq S_3) = 0.597 \quad , V(S_1 \geq S_4) =$$

$$= 1.000 \quad , V(S_1 \geq S_5) = 0.369$$

$V(S_3 \geq S_1) = 1.000 \quad , V(S_3 \geq S_2) = 1.000 \quad , V(S_3 \geq S_4) =$
$= 1.000 \quad , V(S_3 \geq S_5) = 0.772$

$V(S_5 \geq S_1) = 1.000 \quad , V(S_5 \geq S_2) = 1.000 \quad , V(S_5 \geq S_3) =$
$= 1.000 \quad , V(S_5 \geq S_4) = 1.000$

$V(S_1 \geq S_2, S_3, S_4, S_5) =$
$= \min(V(S_1 \geq S_2), V(S_1 \geq S_3), V(S_1 \geq S_4), V(S_1 \geq S_5)) =$
$= 0.369$

$V(S_3 \geq S_1, S_2, S_4, S_5) =$
$= \min(V(S_3 \geq S_1), V(S_3 \geq S_2), V(S_3 \geq S_4), V(S_3 \geq S_5)) =$
$= 0.772$

$V(S_5 \geq S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4) = \min(V(S_5 \geq S_1), V(S_5 \geq S_2), V(S_5 \geq S_3), V(S_5 \geq S_4)) = 1.000$

$W = (w_1, w_2, w_3)^T = (0.369, 0.772, 1.000)^T$

$W = (w_1, w_2, w_3) = (0.143, 0.298, 0.387)$

Table 3. Matrix of Systemic sub-criteria Pairwise comparisons

I1. Open culture of organization	**I1-1**	**I1-2**	**I1-3**	**I1-4**	**w_j**
I1-1	(1,1,1)	$(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, 1)$	$(\frac{3}{2}, 2, \frac{5}{2})$	$(1, \frac{3}{2}, 2)$	0.3427
I1-2	$(1, \frac{3}{2}, 2)$	(1,1,1)	$(\frac{3}{2}, 2, \frac{5}{2})$	$(\frac{3}{2}, 2, \frac{5}{2})$	0.4505
I1-3	$(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3})$	$(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3})$	(1,1,1)	$(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, 1)$	0.0250
I1-4	$(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, 1)$	$(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3})$	$(1, \frac{3}{2}, 2)$	(1,1,1)	0.1817

Table 4. Matrix of Individual sub-criteria Pairwise comparisons

I2. Employee involvement	**I2-1**	**I2-2**	**I2-3**	**I2-4**	**w_j**
I2-1	(1,1,1)	$(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{5}, \frac{1}{2})$	$(1, \frac{3}{2}, 2)$	$(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3})$	0.1237
I2-2	$(2, \frac{5}{2}, 3)$	(1,1,1)	$(1, \frac{3}{2}, 2)$	$(1, \frac{3}{2}, 2)$	0.4407
I2-3	$(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, 1)$	$(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, 1)$	(1,1,1)	$(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3})$	0.0603
I2-4	$(\frac{3}{2}, 2, \frac{5}{2})$	$(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, 1)$	$(\frac{3}{2}, 2, \frac{5}{2})$	(1,1,1)	0.3752

Table 5. Matrix of Organizational sub-criteria Pairwise comparisons						
I3. Systems thinking	**I3-1**	**I3-2**	**I3-3**	**I3-4**	**I3-5**	**w_j**
I3-1	(1,1,1)	$(\frac{1}{2},1,\frac{3}{2})$	$(\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3},1)$	$(\frac{3}{2},2,\frac{5}{2})$	$(\frac{3}{2},2,\frac{5}{2})$	0.2465
I3-2	$(\frac{2}{3},1,2)$	(1,1,1)	$(\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3},1)$	$(\frac{3}{2},2,\frac{5}{2})$	$(\frac{3}{2},2,\frac{5}{2})$	0.2489
I3-3	$(1,\frac{3}{2},2)$	$(1,\frac{3}{2},2)$	(1,1,1)	$(2,\frac{5}{2},3)$	$(\frac{1}{2},1,\frac{3}{2})$	0.2768
I3-4	$(\frac{2}{5},\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3})$	$(\frac{2}{5},\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3})$	$(\frac{1}{3},\frac{2}{5},\frac{1}{2})$	(1,1,1)	$(\frac{3}{2},2,\frac{5}{2})$	0.1283
I3-5	$(\frac{2}{5},\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3})$	$(\frac{2}{5},\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3})$	$(\frac{2}{3},1,2)$	$(\frac{2}{5},\frac{1}{2},\frac{2}{3})$	(1,1,1)	0.0996

Table 6. Rank on basis of FAHP					
Criteria	Weight of Criteria	Sub-criteria	Weight of Sub-criteria	Final Weight	Rank
I1. Factors of Systemic	0.1427	I1-1	0.3427	0.0489	8
		I1-2	0.4505	0.0642	6
		I1-3	0.0250	0.0035	12
		I1-4	0.1817	0.0259	14
I2. Factors of Individual	0.2984	I2-1	0.1237	0.0369	10
		I2-2	0.4407	0.1315	1
		I2-3	0.0603	0.0179	11
		I2-4	0.3752	0.1119	2
I3. Factors of Organizational	0.3866	I3-1	0.2465	0.0952	5
		I3-2	0.2489	0.0962	4
		I3-3	0.2768	0.1070	3
		I3-4	0.1283	0.0496	7
		I3-5	0.0996	0.0385	9

3. Conclusion.

Strategy has never been more challenging, or more important, than in today's environment of global competition, in which, corporate strategies must transcend the borders of nations and markets. Too many organizations try to be everything to everyone, wasting resources in markets that may never provide a worthwhile return on investment. The role of managers in the process of strategic planning and decision making depends on how they are thinking. Strategic planning frameworks only provide questions to be answered; the answers depend on executives' methodologies for decision making. Strategic thinking plays a critical role in today's business survival. The aim of this paper was key factors to success in Strategic Thinking and Management by using Fuzzy Analytical Hierarchy Process (FAHP) method has been ranked in terms of importance as one of the multi criteria decision making approaches.

Effective measures includes 12 criteria which were prioritized in three main groups based on the importance of weight and they were as factors of organizational (0.3866), factors of individual (0.2984), factors of systemic (0.1427) and other minor factors (according to the profile (7)) so that the necessary measures be provided by officers and managers.

It should be noted that in primary and secondary factors prioritization, that part of objective view has first priority which is not evident in the ranking. However, we note that FAHP method is development of priorities based on consensus of experts and professionals and its result is the outcome of experts' different opinions in a ranked and specified domain. Because of ambiguity and uncertainty of human judgment in multi criteria decision making definite data expression is not proper. Fuzzy situation is a kind of decision making environment in which the collected data are vague or closed. Anyway, this study can be developed in different directions.

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Time pressure, fee pressure and audit quality

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Abstract.
Today is one of the major challenges and main concern in any society is limited resources and unlimited needs. Auditing standards require auditors to plan and perform audits to obtain reasonable assurance about whether the financial statements are free of material misstatements and to express an opinion about the fair presentation of the financial statements. On the other hand, Auditors are facing time pressure and fee pressure by the client. Some research suggests that fee pressure from clients could reduce audit effort and thus affect audit quality. In addition, some evidence suggests that there is a relationship between time pressure and audit quality. These concerns suggest that impediments to auditor skepticism, such as imposed time pressure, can result in lower quality audits. With regard to the conflict of these two issues, the aim of this paper is identifies the perspectives about time and fee pressure and audit quality. This paper introduces comments and evidence on this issue and offers valuable solutions for solve this problem.

Key words: time pressure, fee pressure, audit quality.

1. Introduction.

Jay Hanson, PCAOB Board Member, highlighted similar concerns in a speech on March 28, 2014 stating that: "One of the biggest impediments to auditor skepticism, however, in my view, is the calendar. Public companies have filing deadlines to meet, and they are rarely missed. When they are missed, the consequences can be serious, including declining share prices and harm to investors. If potential issues are discovered late in the audit process, or an issue is not resolved in a timely manner, auditors may feel pressure to cut corners. We have seen it in inspections and enforcement matters: Auditors recognize that there may be a problem with management's estimates or conclusions but allow themselves to be talked out of doing anything about it. Staying organized and proactively dealing with problems far ahead of filing deadlines will help the auditor avoid running out of time as well as the pressure to accept insufficient audit evidence" (Hanson 2014).

Furthermore, we investigate the existence of downward audit fee pressure, and the consequences of that fee pressure on audit quality, during the economic downturn that is often referred to as the ''Great Recession''. The Recession began in the U.S. in December of 2007 and officially ended in June of 2009 (NBER, 2010). It was longer than any other since World War II, and had more severe negative effects on gross domestic product, private sector jobs, and retail sales than preceding recessions. With regard to auditors, the severity of the Recession likely increased misstatement risk due to reduced client profitability and potential asset impairments. During and after the Recession, regulators repeatedly expressed concerns that audit fee pressure from clients could reduce audit effort and thus affect audit quality.

Therefore, audit quality can be conceptualized as a theoretical continuum ranging from very low to very high audit quality. Audit failures obviously occur on the lower end of the quality continuum, and so a good starting point in thinking about audit quality is to ask what the rate of outright audit failure is? An audit failure occurs in two circumstances: when generally accepted accounting principles are not enforced by the auditor (GAAP failure); and when an auditor fails to issue a modified or qualified audit report in the appropriate circumstances (audit report failure). In both cases, the audited financial statements are potentially misleading. (Francis, 2004). Since 1989 there are effectively two types of audit reports issued in the United States: the standard clean unmodified report and a modified report for going concern uncertainty. Butler et al. (2004) calculate that 6.6% of US listed companies received a going concern reports during the period 1994-1999. Another study documents yearly going concern reporting rates ranging from 9 to 5%, with a monotonic decline over the period 1990-1997 (Francis and Krishnan, 2002). It seems that the time and cost impact on audit quality.

2. Audit quality.

Audit services are demanded as monitoring devices because of the potential conflicts of interest between owners and managers as well as those among different classes of security holders [see Watts (1977), Watts and Zimmerman (1981), and Benston (1980) for elaboration]. In at least some cases, the provision of audited financial statements is the least-cost contractual response to owner-manager and intra-owner conflicts of interest,

i.e., agency costs. Agency costs vary across potential client firms and perhaps over time for a given client. For example, it is well known that client firms going public often switch to Big Eight auditors [Carpenter and Strawser (1971)]. Differential agency costs across firms and over time for a given firm imply a heterogeneous demand for audit services, i.e., differing 'levels' of auditing are demanded. (De Angelo, 1981).

Significant commitment to institutionalise more independent standard setting and oversight processes in the name of strengthening audit quality is evident in the post-Enron period. The regulatory pursuit of audit quality marks a shift in the discourse associated with external auditing which had previously focused on notions of adding value (see Eilifsen, Knechel, & Wallage, 2001; Knechel, 2007; Manson & Zaman, 2001; Peecher, Schwartz & Solomon, 2007; Power, 2007). The loss of public confidence in audit practice means that new representations of auditing are likely to become pivotal in creating and managing new and 'improved' impressions of the profession. In the promotion of audit quality and attempt to restore public confidence in the audit process, the concerns of, and initiatives taken by, regulatory agencies are likely to reflect efforts intended to maintain, defend or manage their individual domains (Holm and Zaman, 2012).

3. Time pressure.

The presumed impact of organizational culture on dysfunctional auditor behavior justifies further research into the potential impact of ethical culture on functional auditor behavior. The ethical culture of an organization has been regarded as one important determinant of unethical behaviors in organizations (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Fritzsche, 1991; Ford and Richardson, 1994; Key, 1999; Casey et al., 2001). Previous studies from the auditing field indicate that the ethical decisions made by auditors can be greatly influenced by the ethical culture of their audit firms (Ponemon, 1992; Windsor and Ashkanasy, 1995; Douglas et al., 2001), and Sweeney et al. (2010) find that one ethical culture dimension can influence unethical behavior under time pressure Auditors often face pressure from tight time budgets, a situation that at least partly originates from the bidding for audit contracts. The potential conflict between controlling costs and achieving high-quality audits (McNair, 1991) is heightened by the immense weight that audit firms place on attaining time budgets as a measure of efficiency (Anderson-Gough et al., 2001) and their difficulties in measuring audit quality (Power, 2003). As a result, unpaid overtime to cover for unattained time budgets is an informal cultural norm in audit firms (Alderman and Deitrick, 1982; Sweeney and Pierce, 2006).

Previous studies have found a causal relationship between time pressure and dysfunctional behaviors. RAQ acts and URT initially tend to increase as time budgets become less attainable (Alderman and Deitrick, 1982; Margheimand Pany, 1986; Kelley and Margheim, 1987, 1990; Ponemon, 1992; Otley and Pierce, 1996a, b; Willett and Page, 1996; Pierce and Sweeney, 2004; Gundry and Liyanarachchi, 2007; Bowrin and King II, 2010), although they may decrease when time budgets appear too unattainable (Kelley and Margheim, 1990). However, if the auditor receives forewarning of the impeding time constraint, the negative effects of time pressure are smaller (Low and Tan, 2011). Several studies claim that relationships exist between perceived TBP and position in the audit firm (Cook and Kelley, 1991; McNair, 1991; Gist and Davidson, 1999; Moreno and Bhattacharjee, 2003). Factors that cause TBP to increase, indicated as an increase in URT, may differ between low- and high-ranking auditors. Partners' URT increases with risk factors relating to clients, while juniors' URT does not depend on client risk factors (Gist and Davidson, 1999). With few exceptions, research into TBP and dysfunctional behaviors has concerned low-ranking auditors, i.e. juniors and seniors (Sweeney et al., 2010), who perceive higher levels of TBP than do high-ranking auditors, i.e. managers and partners (Cook and Kelley, 1991; McNair, 1991; Savanberg and ohman, 2013).

4. Fee pressure.

Fee pressure arises in auditing due to difficulties that audit firm management experiences in anticipating the level of fees needed to recover the cost of the effort required to achieve an acceptable level of audit risk, and an acceptable level of return sufficient to maintain long-run profitability. One line of relevant prior research measures fee pressure directly using the level of audit fees. For example, using audit seniors as experimental participants, Houston (1999) demonstrates that fee pressure caused by a reduced audit fee is associated with audit budgeting that is less responsive to increased client risk. Further, as an example of quality-threatening behavior generated by fee pressure, Gramling (1999) finds that audit managers encountering clients who impose a high level of fee pressure via an explicit preference for lower audit fees are more likely to rely on internal audit work of questionable quality (Bedard et al, 2008).

The concept of fee pressure to which these claims refer is undeveloped. Given the lack of an accepted proxy for fee pressure, we devise our own. We compare each client's actual audit fee in the test year (2008) with a benchmark audit fee for that year. The benchmark audit fees are intended to represent normal levels of audit effort by controlling for changes in audit fees that correspond with changes in fee cost drivers. Specifically, a new shock to fee pressure is reflected in current year actual audit fees, but not in the benchmark fees, a comparison of each client's 2008 benchmark fee with its 2008 actual fee determines. Whether the client has successfully exerted fee pressure. We find approximately 47 percent of clients experienced fee pressure during 2008. The median fee pressure experienced by firms is $163,000, which represents 29 percent of median audit fees of clients that successfully exerted fee pressure (Ettredge et al, 2014). The recession was longer and more

severe than any other since World War II. It imposed significant financial pressures on many companies. For instance, the number of U.S. commercial bankruptcies for the first eleven months of 2008 was 35 percent greater than the number filed in the entire year of 2007 (Pugh, 2008). Companies expected auditors to share the economic pain by agreeing to fee reductions (Goelzer et al., 2010). If fee reductions occurred, such decreases would be in sharp contrast to the fee increases in the years following the passage of the Sarbanes Oxley Act of 2002 (Cheffers &Whalen, 2010; Ettredge, Li, & Scholz, 2007). In addition, Global and

U.S. accounting firms had several rounds of layoffs throughout the recession (Accounting Today, 2009; WSJ, 2008). Accounting firms also experienced slower receivables collections (Accounting Today, 2009), potentially leading to cash flow problems. Thus, accounting firms as well as their clients appear to have experienced financial challenges during the Recession. Regulators have stated concerns that increased fee pressure might have threatened audit quality. (Ettredge et al, 2014).

5. Conclusion.

In this study mentioned the time pressure, fee pressure and audit quality. PCAOB Staff Audit Practice Alert No. 10 (PCAOB 2012a) raises concerns that audit scheduling can cause auditors to feel pressured to 'complete assignments too quickly' which can lead to dysfunctional audit behavior (e.g. gathering easy to obtain evidence as opposed to relevant and reliable evidence; insufficient amounts of evidence; giving undue weight to confirming evidence without adequately considering contrary evidence). With these concerns in mind, we examine whether audits completed under deadline imposed time pressure, as proxied by the proximity of the audit report date to a company's 10-K filing deadline, are associated with measures of low audit quality. (Glover et al, 2015). This paper show audit quality is affected by time pressure and fee pressure. It is especially interesting that results show that when budget pressure is reduced, the extra hours are used by engagement teams. This implies that when the engagement members feel that it is "safe" to report more hours, they do so. The opposite implication holds when engagement team members experience high budget pressure.

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The relationship between knowledge management and intellectual capital to gain competitive advantage employees

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Abstract.
The population of this study included all employees of National Bank branches in Golestan province that includes or high school diploma, diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate and higher that number is 600. The sample size was determined using 234 farmers and Morgan table and stratified random sampling for the study. Library and field research data were collected using standard questionnaires was used tools. The reliability of the questionnaire using Cronbach and validity have been confirmed by the content The Spearman correlation test to analyze the data using SPSS software is used. The results show that among all the components of knowledge management and intellectual capital to gain competitive advantage in Golestan National Bank branch staff there is a significant relationship.

Keywords: knowledge management, intellectual capital, competitive advantage

1. Introduction.

In an economy based on knowledge, products and organizations live and die based on knowledge and the most successful organizations are those of intangible assets better and faster use. Studies have shown that, contrary to decrease the efficiency of traditional resources (money, land, machinery, etc.), knowledge really is a resource for enhancing business performance. From a strategic perspective, knowledge and intellectual capital to create and enhance organizational value and success of an organization depends on its ability to manage this scarce resource. In this study, the role of knowledge management and intellectual capital to gain competitive advantage in Golestan National Bank branches will be discussed.

2. Statement of the problem.

Revolution "information technology", the formation of information society and the rapid development of network technology, especially in the field of communications, computing and engineering, from the 1990s have changed the pattern of global economic growth. As a result, knowledge is the most important asset, financial and physical capital in the global economy has been replaced (Ranjbari, 2014).

Recent studies have shown that despite the diminishing returns of traditional resources (eg, money, land, machinery, etc.), knowledge is a source of increased business performance. What is remarkable it is important that the market value of other intangible factors has recognized the value creation process. The amount and proportion of these "hidden value" has changed (Akhavan&heaideri, 2010).

Accordingly, the present and future success in the competition between organizations, as a small and largely based on physical and financial resource allocation will be based on knowledge management. Therefore, the task of leading an organization is creating an environment for knowledge management. To put it more clearly, in the current era challenges facing managers prepare a suitable environment for the growth and development of the human mind in the knowledge-based organization. Therefore, the most basic skills for managers in the knowledge-based Management of knowledge "is with all this, unfortunately, a Since the intangible nature of knowledge and intangible, it can not by any measure of the scale of traditional financial accounting, risk 'forget' knowledge and other intangible assets are for managers. It can be said only 20% of senior managers in their organizations use.

In fact, knowledge-based business environment in many countries of the world, requires a new model name that is included intangible factors. In this situation, the emerging field of "intellectual capital" has attracted increasing attention to the strategic perspective, the creation and application of knowledge, intellectual capital can be used to increase the value of the organization. Today, the field of developing intellectual capital is an exciting topic for researchers and practitioners to institutionalized. (Bontis, 1998).

In today's world, the main economic resources, capital, natural resources and labor. . . , But the main economic resources, knowledge will be. After the twentieth century was the century of the industrial economy, twenty-first century is the century of knowledge economy (Teymornezhad, 2012).

In an industrial economy, factors of production, economic wealth, a series of physical and tangible assets such as land, labor, and money is the combination of economic factors, wealth was generated. In this economy, the use of knowledge, as a factor of production, had little role (Bontis, 2000). But in the knowledge economy, knowledge or intellectual capital as a factor of production in comparison with other tangible assets and physical wealth, is more preferable. (Blumeberg,2009).

Unlike the industrial economy to knowledge economy, intellectual property and human capital in particular, is among the most important assets of the organization and the potential success of organizations

rooted in their intellectual ability. So how to manage intellectual capital of organizations and their role in achieving competitive advantage can play a significant role in advancing organizational goals (Abbasi, 2013).

This study investigated the intellectual capital and its components, ie human capital, structural capital and relational capital of Bank Melli in Golestan Province, KM initiatives impact of these components on the organization's competitive advantage, a step towards greater emphasis on the need Reload organizations on how their attitudes to how to manage knowledge. The main question is whether the intellectual capital and knowledge management competitive advantage Baksb National Bank branches in Golestan province, there is a significant relationship?

3. History Research.

Amin Moghadam (2011) in a study entitled The effect of intellectual capital on the current and future financial performance of companies listed in Tehran Stock Exchange And.tbq done a resource-based perspective, intellectual capital and strategic resources Hstnd.ntayj test hypotheses this research using partial least squares regression suggests that regardless of company size, debt structure and financial performance of the past, between intellectual capital and current and future financial performance of the company, both at the level of all companies in the industry, thenon-metallic is not specified.

Bidokhti Amin et al (2011) in a study entitled The relationship between culture and knowledge management education done in Semnan city And.nv descriptive and correlational study population consisted of all managers and deputies girls and boys in elementary, middle, high school and college in the government. And a population of over 186 people in the covers. To analyze the data, Pearson correlation coefficient test and t-test and analysis of variance test Shd.ntyjh The hypothesis suggests that there is a significant relationship between organizational culture and knowledge management test results and other assumptions tribal indicated that among all types of corporate culture, hierarchy, market-oriented and knowledge management situation there is a significant positive

Ansari et al (1392) in a study entitled The Role of Knowledge Management on the creativity of teachers in middle school did And.hdf of this study was to investigate the role of knowledge management and creativity of teachers in secondary schools 87-88. Methods Golestan province in Nhsyly the research is descriptive and correlational. to analyze the data from the spss software in descriptive and inferential statistical methods. results from the survey show that research questions. There is a relationship between Secretary. As well as the impact of knowledge management on creativity female and male teachers is no different.

Nona (2000). Concluded that despite the growing importance of intellectual capital known as a vital source of competitive advantage, have little understanding of how organizations actually create intellectual capital by actively managing knowledge there. Knowledge creation requires a shared environment, shared environment that can be physical, virtual or mental separated from its environment. This knowledge, unlike information can indicate that knowledge management practices in their organizations must comply with the requirements of knowledge creation.

4. Research methodology.

Study the purpose and the method of survey research and correlative

The relationship between knowledge management and intellectual capital to gain competitive advantage in Golestan province pays employees National Bank branches. The information obtained in this way is considered as approved and solidarity.

Data collection method: using library studies and field takes place.

To gather the information on this research given the subject matter and the methodology that the survey questionnaire used as research tool

For measuring intellectual capital from a standard questionnaire Bontis (2000) used standard questionnaires to measure knowledge management Lawson (2001) is used. And to measure the competitive advantage of a standard questionnaire Robbins (1998) has been used.

The population sample size and sampling: In this study, all employees of National Bank branches in Golestan province, 600 people sample size was determined based on Morgan table, sampling performed in this study randomly that the number 234 was chosen.

Data analysis methods to analyze the data in this study to describe the information on the characteristics of the population of the method used descriptive statistics. And to measure the relationship between variables and inferential statistics such as hypothesis testing methods (correlation and other statistical methods) and to analyze the data used spss software.

Hypotheses:

First hypothesis: National Bank branch staff between intellectual capital to gain competitive advantage in Golestan province, there is a significant relationship.

The second hypothesis: between knowledge management staff to gain competitive advantage in Golestan National Bank branches There is a significant relationship.

Findings:

Test Hypotheses:

Examination of the hypotheses:

The relationship between competitive advantage and intellectual capital of Bank Melli in Golestan province, there is a significant relationship.

H0 :There is a significant relationship between between competitive advantage and intellectual capital.

H1: There is a significant relationship between between competitive advantage and intellectual capital.

Table 1. Correlation between competitive advantage and intellectual capital

Spearman's correlation coefficient table			
Intellectual capital	Competitive Advantage		Competitive Advantage
.926**	1	Correlation Spearman's	
.000		Significance level	
234	234	Total	
1	.926**	Correlation Spearman's	Intellectual capital
	.000	Significance level	
234	234	Total	

According to Table 1 ** 926.my and correlation assumptions with respect to the level of significance of the test 000 / 0sig = is because (sig <α) and 01/0 = α the HO hypothesis is rejected and H1 hypothesis is confirmed that 99% say there is a relationship between components.

To investigate this hypothesis, the regression analysis is used:

Table 2. Regression analysis between competitive advantage and intellectual capital

The standard deviation error estimates equation	*Determining factor correction*	*R2*	*R factor*	
2.83060	*0.821*	*0.882*	*907(a)*0.	1

According to Table (2) correlation coefficient 907 / 0r = 822/0 R2 = coefficient and variable in the sense that competitive advantage can predict 82% of the variability of intellectual capital.

Table 3. Analysis of variance between competitive advantage and intellectual capital

Significance level	*F statistic*	*average of squares*	*Degrees of freedom*	*sum of squares*	
0.0000 (a)	*513.674*	*4115.714*	*1*	*4115.714*	*Regression*
		8.012	*233*	*889.366*	*Remaining*
			233	*5005.080*	*Total*

According to Table (3) F value equal to the value of the degrees of freedom 714/513 has one significant 0.000 level and the level is less than 0.01 Thus, we conclude that competitive advantage can be intellectual capital predict.

The second hypothesis test:

The relationship between competitive advantage and knowledge management National Bank branches in Golestan province, there is a significant relationship.

H0: There is a significant relationship between competitive advantage and knowledge management.

H1 There is a significant relationship between competitive advantage and knowledge management.

Table 4. Correlation coefficient competitive advantage and knowledge management

Spearman's correlation coefficient table			
knowledge management	Competitive Advantage		Competitive Advantage
.980**	1	Correlation Spearman's	

.000		Significance level	
234	234	Total	
1	.980**	Correlation Spearman's	knowledge management
	.000	Significance level	
234	234	Total	

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level(2-tailed).

According to the table (4) ** 980.my and correlation assumptions with respect to the level of significance of the test 000 / 0sig = is because (sig <α) and 01/0 = α the HO hypothesis is rejected and H1 hypothesis is confirmed that 99% say there is a relationship between components.

To investigate this hypothesis, the regression analysis is used:

Table 5. Regression analysis of competitive advantage and knowledge management

The standard deviation error estimates equation	*Determining factor correction*	*R2*	*R factor*	
2.83060	*0.821*	*0.822*	*0.907(a)*	1

According to Table (5) correlation coefficient 991 / 0r = 981/0 R2 = coefficient and variable in the sense that competitive advantage can be predicted 98 percent of variance of knowledge management.

Table 6. Analysis of variance competitive advantage and knowledge management

Significance level	*F statistic*	*average of squares*	*Degrees of freedom*	*sum of squares*	
0.0000 (a)	*513.674*	*4115.714*	*1*	*4115.714*	*Regression*
		8.012	*233*	*889.366*	*Remaining*
			233	*5005.080*	*Total*

According to the table (6) F value equal to the value of the degrees of freedom 5862.596 been one significant 0.000 level and the level is less than 0.01 Thus, we conclude that competitive advantage can be predicted Knowledge Management.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations.

The first major hypothesis: the relationship between intellectual capital and competitive advantages of Bank Melli employees in Golestan province is studied. The results show that the Spearman correlation coefficient between intellectual capital and competitive advantage employee relationship, there are significant branches of National Bank of Golestan province. The main hypothesis is confirmed first with 99% confidence dehumidified and because of this relationship suggests that no matter how positive it is an intellectual capital increase will also increase their competitive advantage.

The second major hypothesis: the relationship between knowledge management and employees of National Bank branches in Golestan province's competitive advantage is analyzed. The results show that the Spearman correlation coefficient between knowledge management and employees of Bank Melli competitive advantage in Golestan province, there is a significant relationshipThe second main hypothesis is confirmed with a 99% confidence interval and the direction of this relationship is positive The management confirms that increased knowledge will also increase their competitive advantage.

This study aimed to investigate the relationship between knowledge management and intellectual capital to gain competitive advantage in Golestan National Bank branches in a community of 600 employees, Shd..dr conducted this study to measure the dimensions of knowledge creation, knowledge management, business knowledge, organizational learning, knowledge sharing, knowledge and know-how was used to store

For intellectual capital, human capital aspects, organizational and relational Shdnd.ntayj intended use of the Spearman correlation coefficient indicates a positive and significant relationship between knowledge management, intellectual capital and the scale of the two variable-gain competitive advantage in the branches of National Bank in Golestan province."a greater impact on competitive advantage. in the dimensions of intellectual capital, relational capital gain competitive advantage have a greater impact than other variables.

Then, using regression analysis, knowledge management and intellectual capital dimensions were ranked among the aspects of knowledge management, "sharing and transfer of knowledge" and "Save the children" and the dimensions of intellectual capital, "relational capital" and "Capital humane "from organizational strengths were higher than in the capital.

According to the results obtained can be offered the following suggestions:

Since the role of knowledge sharing on gaining a competitive advantage over other variable, the National Bank branch managers in Golestan province is suggested that

More emphasis on this issue, and thus achieve higher gain competitive advantage.

In addition to the amount of organizational learning in the organization is less than the average positive impact on competitive advantage. So you can say "create the basis for the exchange of knowledge, experiences and skills through work teams" as well as "cultural development to facilitate effective learning" and "create the appropriate field and enhance organizational learning" to improve learning organization, play an important role.

Among the variables intellectual capital, relational capital had the greatest impact on competitive advantage. So, can claim to planning and scheduling to improve external communications with customers, suppliers and investors to measure customer satisfaction and loyalty, investors and suppliers, informing the staff in the areas of target markets and customers, and feedback of customers, suppliers and investors across the enterprise and knowledge management relationship (including customer knowledge, knowledge of investors and suppliers companies), another step toward achieving a competitive advantage.

Since human capital and organizational influence on competitive advantage, we can provide training, consulting and organizational opportunities to improve human capital through education and customer-oriented behavior appropriate to employees who have direct relationship with customers as well as continuous follow-up and timely respond to the expectations and customer complaints, take steps to promote investment relationship.

To facilitate the implementation of knowledge management solutions including the creation of knowledge bases can also be used to create an atmosphere of trust to implement knowledge management, knowledge-creation to create working groups to minimize biases and experiences subsidiary role in profitability results (due to the multiple perspectives people on the working group) and IT-oriented view of the data classification, and coding of information provided.

In general, it is observed that the results of the present study with further research findings outlined in the background, such as prayer and Abraham (1388) Bidokhti Amin et al (1390) Nona (2000) is consistent. So its results can be generalized to the entire population. Accordingly can be made a few suggestions below:

- setting strategic priorities for knowledge management.
- engage senior managers to support the learning environment and organization.
- create a process for managing intellectual capital.
- gather quick information about customer satisfaction.
- global and integrating knowledge management.

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The Interactive effects of work style and cooperation obstacles in the relationship between external auditors tend to rely on the work of internal auditors

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Abstract.
In terms of classified research in its objective and the classification based on applied research methods, descriptive research and the research is descriptive, correlational, because the relationship between independent and dependent variables reviews. The population of this study consisted of Auditors and the National Audit Office audit firms in 2015 is now listed on the Tehran Stock Exchange during the period. The data collection tool was a questionnaire concerning each variable is as follows. (Questionnaire willingness independent auditor to rely on internal audit work with 16 items questionnaire with six dimensions and 20 items obstacles to cooperation, work style questionnaire with 6 items) will be measured. After collecting and transferring data to Excel spreadsheet and apply the necessary calculations, for analysis are prepared. To analyze the data, structural equation modeling (depending on model drawing) is used. The results show that the dimensions of obstacles to cooperation and work style on the willingness of external auditors to rely on internal audit work has a significant impact.

Keywords: external auditor, internal auditor, cooperation obstacles, work style

1. Introduction.

American Institute of Certified Public Accountants accepted standard 65, because the role of internal audit was expanding, and also they wanted to prepare more specific criteria to assess the qualification of internal audit and objectivity and effectiveness (Scalar, 1992) (Schneider, 2010). Identification of willingness of independent auditors to rely on the work of internal auditors will help process of planning and improving independent auditor's efficiency.

Assumption of legal complaints may influence decision factors of reliable decision. Previous studies have shown that the auditor's reliable decision is influenced by characteristics of competence, objectivity and quality of work of internal auditors (Barbara, 2010). (Gramlyng, 1999) believes that client priorities of client and priorities of the audit firm have a significant impact on the process of independent auditing reliance on work of internal audit. Client priorities are: 1- low remuneration of auditing 2- quality of auditing. Although Client are concerned about audit remuneration and quality of auditing, but this relative importance of this concern may vary between clients. Audit firm priorities are: 1-emphasis on profitability 2-emphasis on audit quality and professional skepticism (Quasim, 2010). Almost all inspectors emphasize on the importance of regular consultations between internal auditors and external auditors. In many countries, external auditors use result work of internal auditors but first, they must determine to what extent they can rely on internal audit work. This coordination allows you to perform independent more effective auditing and avoid rework in auditing work (Quasim, 2010). (Felix et al., 2000) also mentions greater involvement of internal audit in process of independent auditing as an important factor in reducing auditing remuneration (Barbara, 2010). In assessing the objectivity of the internal audit, external auditor must consider personal features of internal auditors as well as features related to the internal audit as a whole. This provides evaluation guide objectivity of internal audit prepared by the Treadway Commission, Standard No. 65 and Internal Auditing Standards Institute. When evaluating the internal audit work, Standard No. 65 states that an independent auditor should pay attention to the scope of internal auditor's work, quality of audit plan, documentation worksheets (including certificate of monitor and review), and proportion of results and continuity of audit reports with the work done. Research shows that other features such as the satisfaction of previous internal auditor and following methods that were considered by internal auditors are important for independent auditors when evaluating internal audit work (Brown, 1983). Assessment of features related to internal auditor work may be dependent on the qualification and objectivity of the internal auditor. Study and evaluation of internal control system as part of a auditing test by internal auditors is affected as an important element of the internal control system.

In the process of supplying timely, relevant and reliable information, one of factors that can help independent auditors and cause their work to have the required quality, efficiency and effectiveness, is presence of internal audit unit in the client's company and more communication of this unit with independent auditors. Internal auditor assesses and reports the adequacy of the internal control system in terms of accuracy, economy, efficiency, efficient use of resources. Internal audit has a prominent place in internal control system and helps

management of economic in performing tasks and responsibilities and duties by strengthening controls (Kamali Zareh, 2011). Independent auditors often rely on the work of internal auditors, in relation to the audit of financial statements and examining internal control that based on the analysis and findings of this study, decision tools are to pursue the development of assessment of internal audit's quality and reliability (Schneider, 2010).

2. Significance of research and theoretical foundation.

By validate the financial statements of companies, auditors play a crucial role in process of financial reporting although auditing standards have not explicitly specified special responsibility for auditors to detect possible frauds in management and falsification of financial statements, but requires auditors to design and implement specific tests in order to discover mistakes or violations that may have an important affect financial statements. On the one hand, auditors are always subject to possible claims of the users of financial reports, so that some of these claims invalidate an auditing firm, in this regard, paying attention to the work of internal auditors is important in two aspects.

First, one of the most important signs of internal control system failure is presence of a weak internal auditing and auditors can consider it as a sign to assess control risk of client.

Second, implementation of an extensive audit plan requires high cost, especially if the program is not likely to lead to detection of falsification. Since auditing is faced with financial and time constraints, it is necessary to recognize factors that can increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the audit process and do not prevent parallel work and repeated of auditing process and prevent parallel and redundant works performed by auditors. One of these factors is the degree of reliance of internal auditors. It has been one of the ongoing challenges that are facing the auditing profession. On the other hand, the fact that organizations receive major audit services from two different sources, that is independent auditors and internal auditors has caused a public expectations about the relationship between these two groups as the basis for achieving optimal coordination between them.

Reliance on work of internal audit: acceptance of the results of the internal audit as a substitute for results of content tests carried out by independent auditors (Richard Brody, 2012)

Internal auditing and independent auditing have different roles but are complementary to each other. Internal auditor assesses internal control system to the extent that is related to auditing risk, but internal auditor evaluates all internal controls and deals with the issue of organization that is less considered by independent auditor (Richard Brody, 2012).

Work Style: Putnam and Wilson (1982) use Organizational Communication Conflict Instrument to assess the strategy (style) that people prefer to use it in organizational settings. Work Style strategy can create functional or dysfunctional consequences for an organization and its members. Standard seven-item Likert scale questionnaire is used to measure the work style where1 represents always and5 represents never. Minor changes have been made in the tool to "appropriate" improvement in the auditing environment.

This questionnaire consists of 10 items measuring work style. When the independent auditor encounters a particular work situation of internal auditor, evaluation is performed. The manner of measurement is through standard questionnaires of Richard Brodie (2012).

Barriers to communication and collaboration: Auditors should offer creative solutions for differences in work styles and conflict management styles. The first factor is known as a barrier for "qualification" of communications. Loading situation in these factors includes: inadequate knowledge of common accounting, lack of understanding and in terms of technical accounting and poor organization of ideas. The second factor is known as a barrier for "objectivity" of communications. Loaded situation on this factor includes: emotional reactions to communication, bias or prejudice, defensive and differences in perception (Richard Brody, 2012). But barriers to cooperation in this study included the following aspects. Barriers to cooperation in this study included the following aspects: poor professional training, poor academic education, lack of affordable internal evaluations, lack of appropriate audit guidelines, low remuneration of audit contracts; traditional systems of business units (Richard Brody, 2012).

Development and expansion of the scope of internal audit, has made external auditors increasingly able to rely on the work of internal auditors. In addition, as a result of increased investment of companies in internal audit, they are looking for ways to reduce the remuneration of the independent auditors by replacing the internal audit (Kaplan and Sheltz, 2006). By relying on internal audit, unnecessary and repetitive auditing methods can be avoided. It can also be useful for external auditors since the internal auditors have certain advantages. They generally are more aware about procedures, policies and business conditions of the company, compared to external auditors. However, independent auditors should match benefits of reliance on internal by external audit with commitment to maintain the appearance and reality of independence defined for independent auditors.

Basically, the independent auditors may rely on internal audit in one of three following ways:

1. Rely on internal audit as part of the company's entire control systems.
2. Rely on previous internal audit work related to internal control test or test of accounts or transactions.

3. Theoretical framework.

According to the description proposed on structures and relationships between them based on the model used ….. in this study the conceptual model is provided in Figure (1) that includes two groups of relationships. This figure is based on hypotheses that have been identified in Figure 1. On the one hand, it considers the relationship between auditors work style and independent auditors willingness to rely on work of internal audit; willingness of independent auditor to rely on internal audit work is the result of auditor's work style and on the other hand, examines relations between the barriers of cooperation and willingness of independent auditors to rely on the work of internal, auditors and interactive effect of work style and barriers to cooperation affect relations between willingness of independent auditor to rely on internal audit work. Research hypotheses are based on these cases that have been identified in Figure 1.

4. Conceptual model taken from research hypotheses.

First major hypothesis: there is a significant relationship between work style of auditors and willingness of independent auditors to rely on internal audit work.

Second major hypothesis: there is a significant relationship between barriers of cooperation and the willingness of independent auditors to rely on internal audit work.

First sub-hypothesis: there is a significant relationship between poor professional training and the willingness of independent auditors to rely on the work of internal auditors.

Second sub-hypothesis: there is a significant relationship between poor academic training and the willingness of independent to rely on the work of internal auditors.

Third sub-hypothesis: there is a significant relationship between unreasonable costs of internal assessments and the willingness of independent to rely on the work of internal auditors.

Fourth sub-hypothesis: there is a significant relationship between absence of appropriate audit instructions and the willingness of independent to rely on the work of internal auditors.

Fifth sub-hypothesis: there is a significant relationship between low remuneration of auditing contracts and the willingness of independent to rely on the work of internal auditors.

Sixth sub-hypothesis: there is a significant relationship between traditional systems of business unit and the willingness of independent to rely on the work of internal auditors.

5. Research methodology.

Regarding purpose, this study in applied research, and in terms of method it belongs to survey-analytical research. To collect the data, questionnaire is used which is as follows for each variable.

Table 1. Cronbach's alpha coefficient

Variables	Number of questions	Cronbach's alpha
Work style	6	0/864
Barriers to cooperation	20	0/839
Independent auditors willingness to rely on internal audit work	16	0/866

Table2. KMO and Bartlett test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.909
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	10625.087
	Freedom degree	903
	Significance level	0.000

Given the possibility of using factor analysis to determine the validity of the tool, confirmatory factor analysis was used. Table 3 shows the results. According to the proposal by Fornell and Larkr (1981), values of factor loadings for the observed variables must be greater than 5.0. As it can be seen in this study, such values have been confirmed.

6. Findings.

Describing the research variables:

According to Table 3, descriptive statistics for all variables in terms of statistical indicators are as the following table. For example, for variable of independent auditor reliance on internal audit work, minimum of comments is 1.00 and the maximum is 5.00 and mean and standard deviation of comments are 3.9849 and 0.89365, respectively.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of research variables

Vari-ance	Stan-dard devi-ation	Mean		Maximum	Minimum	N	Sign	Variable
Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic		Statistic
.799	.89365	.05675	3.9894	5.00	1.00	120	RIA	Independent auditor's reliance on internal audit work
.527	.72584	.04609	3.9747	5.00	1.00	120	LPT	poor professional training
.602	.77575	.04926	3.8785	5.00	1.00	120	WUA	poor academic education
.524	.72400	.04597	3.8710	5.00	1.00	120	CIA	Unreasonable fees of lack of internal assessment
.540	.73488	.04666	3.9315	5.00	1.00	120	AAJ	Lack of appropriate audit guidelines
.598	.77319	.04910	4.0333	5.00	1.00	120	LFC	Low remuneration of audit contracts
.903	.95045	.05487	3.2871	5.00	1.00	120	TSU	Traditional systems of business unit
.589	.76746	.04873	3.9027	5.00	1.00	120	SA	Work Style of auditor

In this part, research hypotheses are tested using Lisrel software.

Results of direct relationship and significant correlation coefficients of model assumptions in the Table 4.

Table 4. Results of direct relationship and significant correlation coefficients of model assumptions

Path	Path coefficient	Significance	test results
work style of auditor and willingness of independent auditors to rely on internal audit work	0.61	9.37	Accepted
poor professional training and the willingness of independent auditors to rely on the work of internal auditors	0.31	5.08	Accepted
poor academic training and the willingness of independent auditors to rely on the work of internal auditors	0.35	5.04	Accepted
Unreasonable Cost of internal assessment and willingness of independent auditors to rely on the work of internal auditors	0.52	7.40	Accepted
absence of appropriate audit instructions and willingness of independent auditors to rely on the work of internal auditors	0.41	5.70	Accepted
Low fees of the audit contracts willingness of independent auditors to rely on the work of internal auditors	0.42	5.73	Accepted
Traditional systems of business unit and willingness of independent auditors to rely on the work of internal auditors	0.27	2.34	Accepted

7. Conclusion.

The issue of independent auditors reliance on the work of internal auditors and identifying ways to coordinate their activities, aimed at reducing auditing costs, increasing audit process efficiency and preventing possible reworks has long been common around the world. In Iran also there have been recently developments and significant improvements in accounting and auditing profession that is evident in publication of auditing standards by the Technical Committee of Audit Organization, standard related to evaluating internal auditing unit work that has dealt with the relationship between internal and independent auditors shows the significant of the subject. In this regard, attention to work of internal auditors is important for two reasons. First, one of the most important signs of internal control system failure is associated with a weak internal auditing unit and auditors can consider it as a sign for estimating control risk of client.

Second, implementation of an extensive audit plan requires high cost especially if implementation of this program does not lead to the discovery of possible falsifications. Since the auditors are faced with financial and time constraints, it is necessary to identify factors that can increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the audit process and prevent parallel and repeated works by the auditors.

Poor academic training should be sought in lack relationship between industry and university. Most people's perception of the relationship between industry and universities is focused on engineering majors and the humanities are not especially accounting are not paid attention to, while formation and continuation of such business units is related to such sciences. Each business unit requires specialized personnel to manage that use of these forces is more necessary in accounting and financial matters and education of these people is the responsibility of universities. However, most graduates after graduation and starting to work in accounting and auditing, due to lack of consistency between material presented in universities and the needs of industry, or inadequate academic education, suffer from this issue. Lack of relationship between industry and university has caused that business units need are not recognized properly and universities subjects are far from real needs.

The issue of teaching in profession needs to be revised. For example, lack of a comprehensive training program in profession can be noted. After reviewing the audit records, Quality Control Committees can transfer the weaknesses to training units, so that based on the weaknesses in audit records, these units plan and formulate comprehensive training according to the proposed weakness. Implementing developed training programs for audit firms should be considered as a requirement non-implementation of which affect it as a negative number in evaluation of their activities. Audit fees of have been one of major issues in dispute among the auditors in recent years that though most auditors have agreement on its being low but in practice there has been little attempt to address this problem by certified public accountants and Iranian society of official accountants. Iranian society of official accountants, as trustee for the licensing audit firms, should review audit fees according to the volume of works done and the remuneration received in previous years and what seems abnormal, so that deal with individual employees and institutions according to the rules. Also, society of official accountants should ban entrance of auditors and audit firms any type of professional service tender by developing regulations since the tender is basically based on the quantity and quality is at a later stage while in auditing quality is undoubtedly preferred to quantity.

Among the main reasons for weakness of internal controls in business units are their traditional systems. Traditional system of business units is due to relatively poor economy of the country. Given this inappropriate environment, most managers are seeking to use non-economic relations for development and continuity of activities of units under their management. Focus of managers of business units to noneconomic units led to their neglect from development of the systems under their management. After a while due to technological advances and the use of advanced machinery, internal controls of these units do not develop due to lack of sufficient attention to them, in accordance with the technical structure of these companies, leading to improper functioning of the business units and eventually leads to the loss of position of business units in the competition market.

The absence of appropriate audit procedures is due to lack of using experience of international audit firms and professional bodies. Society of Official Auditors and other professional bodies can help developing appropriate guidelines by auditors and audit firms by inviting these organizations and institutions and holding meetings and seminars with the participation of audit firms and auditors in the country. Using the experiences of these institutions does not mean mere translation of guidelines used in these institutions because instructions used in these institutions are consistent with the economic structure and activities of business units within that country. And auditors and audit firms within the country should to formulate their guidelines according to economic structure and activities of business units. Also, by developing regulations society of official auditors can, require auditing institutions formulate audit guidelines tailored to their business activities and monitor implementing this by quality control working group.

Due to low fees of audit contracts and costs that institutions incur, most audit firms students who are less experienced or less expensive forces and this in turn leads to a reduction in the audit quality. Obviously this is due to other factors such as lower fees Audit contracts have previously emphasized the importance of addressing these shortcomings in independent auditing. This is due to other factors such as lower remuneration of audit contracts that was previously emphasized the importance of addressing these shortcomings in independent auditing.

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The Impact of Brand Extension Strategies on Brand Equity: with the role of mediator Brand Image (Case Study: Customers of Famila Products in Gorgan)

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Abstract.
The main objective of this research is the Impact of Brand Extension strategies on Brand Equity with the role of mediator Brand Image. The research method is practical by purpose, and by nature it is one of the descriptive survey researches. The statistical society in this study are all of the customers of Famila products in the city of Gorgan. Here, the population size of society is equal to infinite, which based on Cochran formula, 384 questionnaires had been distributed among members of the research sample. In this research, the researcher has applied the simple random sampling method. In order to gathering data, questionnaires were used which had been approved by supervisor and respective experts. Furthermore, to verify its durability, Cronbach's Alpha had been used, while the results have shown the approval of all the dimensions of designed questioner. To analyze the collected data in this research, the Smart PLS software has been applied. The acquired results have represented that both brand extension strategies and the image of brand effect on its equity. Furthermore, the role of brand image mediator has been approved in effectiveness of brand extension strategies on the brand equity. Finally, the results of subsidiary hypothesises have illustrated that all of the brand extension strategies are affective on the brand equity.
Keywords: extension, image, strategy, brand equity, Gorgan

1. Introduction.

During recent decades, researchers and activists in the field of services, have paid a lot of attention to the topic of brand. The point that the brand has a value that is goes beyond the typical value of assets which has been created by professional financial activities. Therefore, most of the industrial units, such as foodstuffs are seeking to reach brand extensive chances to have more advantage of their current brand. These advantages include positive Brand images, fast return strength, facing with crisis, and an affective increase in marketing communications (Klink & Smith, 2001). Establishing a strong brand in the market is the objective of so many organizations. Financial experts believe that a commercial brand can create a value more than its common value. Today, brand is not only an efficient tool to the managers. Brand is a strategic necessity that help organizations in order to create more value for customers, and also sustainable comparative advantages.

In today`s market, having a proper notion towards brand strategies, has a major role in the organization`s success. Trade name extension strategy and extending the consumers` right to choose among various products, has become one of the most popular ways in gaining growth. According to Aaker and Keller definition (1990), brand extension is derived from the extension of the product line, which commonly created in case of new services or products in the fields such as taste, smell, size,….(from jean pants to bedspreads, from coffee to ice cream,….). brand extension can affect the equity of the original brand, or even on the company`s name. Consumer familiarity with original brand can help the new product entry and its rapid extension in new formed parts of the market. Brand extension strategy, more because of low marketing and advertisement costs and high chance for success due to original brand equity, is considered as a profitable strategy. Furthermore, brand extension can create positive mutual effects on brand equity promotion (Swaminathan & Reddy, 2001).

Unsuccessful extensions can damage the original brands and cause fundamental damages to the brand equity (Kim & et al,2016). In order to determine whether brand extension can be able to invest in its original brand or not, mean while prevent potential disadvantages, it is vital and critical to know how consumers evaluate the extensions. Brand extension success can be determined by the consumers` evaluation of extensions (Sattler & et al, 2010). Companies do strict measurements to improve the success of brand extensions. Understanding that how consumers evaluate brand extensions, is important. To improve the success of brand extension, it is necessary to study and identify the effective factors on consumers` attitudes towards brand extensions (Srivastava & Sharma, 2013).

On the other hand, daily increase in the new products` presentation costs with new brands, caused marketing managers to apply techniques to reduce costs, so, many company executives use lifestyle brand extension when presenting a new product, while they reason that opinions and ideas about the product of original brand are also transferred to the new product (Aaker & Keller, 1990).

2. Theoretical principals.

Changing characteristics of market, have a principal impact on the company`s decisions. Global environment represent many complexities for marketers in understanding the market. Companies, continuously invent and apply new marketing strategies to be survived in the market and to acquire more resources. Most of the companies depend on the production of new products and their entry into the market to satisfy the consumers` needs and preferences, and others try to apply brand extension strategies and promote their brand equity among consumers (Yuan & et.al, 2016). In spite of vast researches, which have been done in the case of the effects of brand extension on its equity, still there is no clear understanding about the way of brand extension affecting on its equity, and also the role of Brand image mediator. In today`s world, consumers consider the image of a brand as an important part of a product or service which they are buying. They do not only buy the physical product or original service, but position, prestige and advantages which they can acquire through its purchase, and this untouchable quality is that which can cause the purchase preference of a product in compare to other similar ones, so can increase its market portion of that company (Sharma & et.al, 2016).

Brand extension strategy refers to every attempts toward the extension of a successful trade name in supplying a new product or a changed one in the market. This strategy has a lot of advantages. A strong brand can create a good opportunity for the new product rapidly, which meanwhile a great amount of advertising costs of the new product, due to the familiarity, could be saved. In addition to the demand stimulation, the transmitted value of the primitive brand to the extended brand, cause to avoid the extension and introduction costs of the new brand. This advantage and many others caused that brand extension strategies become one of the most common strategies among marketing managers (Thamataiselvan & Sivaram, 2000).

Increase in competition among foodstuffs market, forced many companies to consider their brands as a competitive advantage, as sometimes industrial marketing is separated from product marketing, this premise is true in the case of brand and its management. A major portion of a foodstuff company`s credit in consumers` mind, depends on the company name and brand. Among tangible dimensions of a product, the brand image is the most significant thing that is most of the marketing strategies focus on it, and tend to highlight the brand (Mohan & Sequeira, 2016).

Srivastava & Marsha (2013), have mentioned that factors such as perceived quality, favorable consumer attitude, consumer involvement in category extension, and perceived performance in foodstuff industries are as principal elements of consumer attitude towards extension. In Sattler & et al research (2010), six factors of brand quality, fitness between brand and product extension, fit brand quality, accessibility, perceived advertising support and consumer`s experience in category extension are described as key factors in brand extension. In Martinez & Pina research (2009), three factors of fit category, extension attitude and fit image have been identified as the brand extension strategies, which their positive effect on the brand image have been evaluated. In Buil et al research (2008), the type of brand, perceived quality and culture are described as brand extension strategies.

Considering the above mentioned statements, the main research hypothesis is as follows :

Hypothesis1: Brand extension strategies affect the brand equity.

Brand extension strategy and the extension of consumer`s right for choosing different products, are determined with the aim of increasing loyal customers, saving in time and advertising costs, and finally wealth creation and value added, and because of this reason it has become one of the most popular ways in gaining growth (Atilgan & et al.2005). However, brand extension is helping in accepting a new product by consumers, through relating the new product to the familiar brand or company name. But careless using without sufficient study about this strategy, may be resulted in the failure of new product. For instance, maybe there are some associations regarding to the original product, which they are not compatible to the new one. Therefore, using this strategy maybe damage both the new product and the brand (Sirvastava & Sharma, 2013).

Brand equity is a set of assets and debits relating to the brand, which can add a value to the product or company`s services, or whatever a company may present to its customers (Bill Xu & Chan, 2010:175). The composing elements of brand equity, in this research, include brand awareness and brand identity. Good appearance and what is that seen, is a declaring of a brand identity. Choosing a symbol, requires a clear definition of brand meaning. To have a strong brand, it must be loyal to its identity. Brand equity based on customer happened whenever a customer is greatly aware and familiar with the brand and can remember strong and favorable unique associations and signs of that brand.

Regarding the above mentions, it can be said that hypothesis 2 in this research is about the effect of brand extension strategies on the Brand image. So, the second hypothesis is inferring as follows:

Hypothesis2: Brand extension strategies are effective on Brand image.

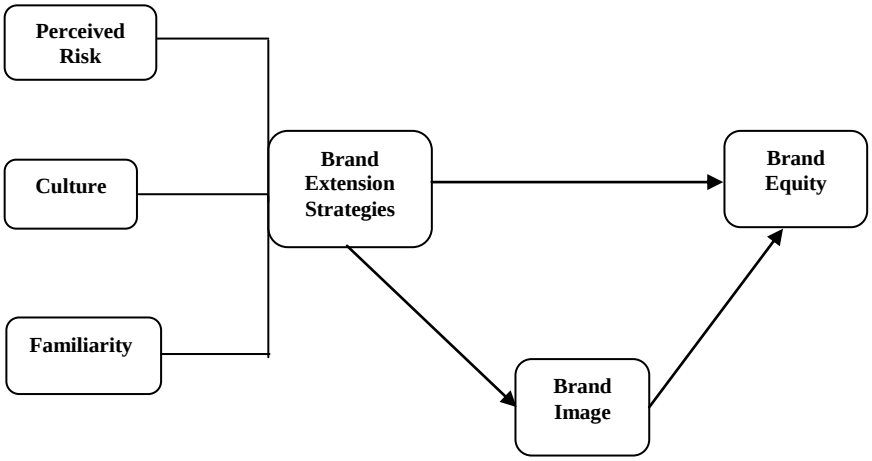
Brand image is known as one of the most important marketing concepts. However, marketers are disagree about the way of measuring of this concept. Brand image is defined as customer`s perceptions about brand, which have been refluxed in customers mind through brand attributions. In other words, brand Brand image refers to strong, favorable and unique brand attributions in the mind (Esch & et al; 2006, Keller,2008).

Consumers use brand Brand image to infer general perceptions of specific product. Customers would perceive a product more qualified and valued when they have a stronger Brand image (Severi & Ling, 2013).

Hypothesis3: Brand image is effective on brand equity.

Regarding the theoretical literature of this research, the researcher has illustrated the conceptual model of Figure 1.

Figure 1. The conceptual model.



3. Methodology.

The present research is considered as an evaluation research directionally, and a survey research by strategy, which aimed to examine the hypothesis and to do this questioners have been used.

In the present research structural equations with partial least squares approach have been used to examine hypothesizes, which to do this SPSS and Smart PLS software were applied. The current research/study have been done among customers of Famila products in city of Gorgan. Regarding the population size in this research, which is equal to infinite, the sample size is considered equal to 384 persons. The sampling way here is simple random sampling. In order to collecting required data, standard questionnaires have been used, which were approved by IT and marketing experts. The questionnaire`s structure and its resources are represented in Table 1.

Table 1. The questionnaire`s structure and its resources

variables	Dimensions	Number of items
Brand extension strategies	Perceived risk	3questions(3 – 1)
	culture	3questions(6 – 4)
	familiarity	3questions(9 – 7)
Brand image		3questions(12 – 10)
Brand equity		3questions(15 -13)

4. Data analysis.

4.1. Descriptive statistics.

In this section the researcher attempts to have a brief look to the demographic characteristics of his research. About the age matter of participated individuals in this research, the greatest size belong to people ranging between 35-45, which it is a number of 157 persons(40,88%), after that there were ages 25-35 with an abundance of 142persons(36,9%), then ages over 45 with an abundance of 64persons(16,6%). Finally, the minimum size were belong to the ages below 25 with an abundance of 21 (5,4%). In the case of second demographic question, which study the sexual characteristics, the researcher recognized that the greatest size of participated individuals here are men. In other words, in this study 236 out of 384 were women and 121 were men, that is a reveal of greater participation of women in this research. In this study out of 384 persons, 79 persons hold associate degree, 243 persons hold bachelor degree, 46 persons hold master degree and 16 person hold Ph.D degree, that is reveals most of the participation have bachelor degree. The last characteristic under

study in this research deals with the amount of income demographically. Here, the greatest amount of income was about 10 to 150 million RLs, 256 persons who have participated in this research, it means that about 66,6% of participants had this range of income. After that, the most income amount were 6000,000 RLs to 10 million RLs . In other words, in this research 87 persons, equal to 22,6%, had such an income, then 41 persons with an income over 20 million RLs , equal to 10,67% , had participated. At the end, in this study the researcher have not found persons with an income below 6000,000 RLs.

4.2.Inferential statistics.

In order to examine the research hypothesizes, structural equations model with partial least squares approach has been applied. But before interpreting the model, first the suitability of the model should be approved in three sections of measuring model, structural model and general model, to rely on its results, and indeed the stability and validity of the model should be established. To this point, in the section of measuring model, Cronbach's Alpha index, composite reliability, and convergent validity have been used, which have been represented in Table2.

Table2. the validity and reliability of measuring model

variables	Loading factor	T-value amount	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite reliability	Convergent validity
Brand extension strategies	– 0/864 0/594	69.985- 12.118	0/868	0/896	0/**580**
Brand image	0/595- 0/803	39.242- 11.132	0/813	0/765	0/**739**
Brand equity	– 0/818 0/760	38.153- 25.039	0/764	0/824	0/**600**

Acquired results show that the reliability and validity of measuring model are desirable. Because factor loading amount for each question was not less than 0/4 and the least one was 0/594 in brand extension strategies, on the one hand, the amount of T Value was not less than 1,96 , and the least amount was about one of the Barnd image questions that is also equal to 11,132. On the other hand, in the case of Cronbach's Alpha all dimensions were above 0/7, composite reliability over 0/6, and converge validity has been reported over 0/5, which represents the approval of reliability and validity of measuring model.

After verifying the suitability of measuring model , the reliability of structural model should be considered, that to do this two index of R2 and Q2 have been applied which have been shown in Tble 3:

Table3. Fitting of structural model.

variable	Q^2> 0/15	R^2>0/25
Brand extension strategy	0/202	0/463
Brand equity	0/246	0/908

And finally, the general fitting of model has been mentioned, that in models based on partial least squares , the index of GOF is used, which should be over 0/3. This index according to the formula of the present model has been calculated as following and shows the suitability of general model:

$$GOF=\sqrt{Communalities \times R^2} = 0.560$$

Now after confirming, the fitting of the model in three levels of structural equations, which had been established by Smart PLS, has been represented in the following and the research hypothesizes have been studied.

As it is seen in Figure 2 and Figure 3, in the case of meaningful coefficients it is the reported amount of T-Value, that if this amount is more than 1,96, it will represent the approval of the hypothesis. And in partial least squares model, reported numbers show $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, Which represent the effect of variables on each other. In the following the main hypothesis are studied in a form of a table.

Figurre2. Partial least squares model in the case of meaningful coefficients

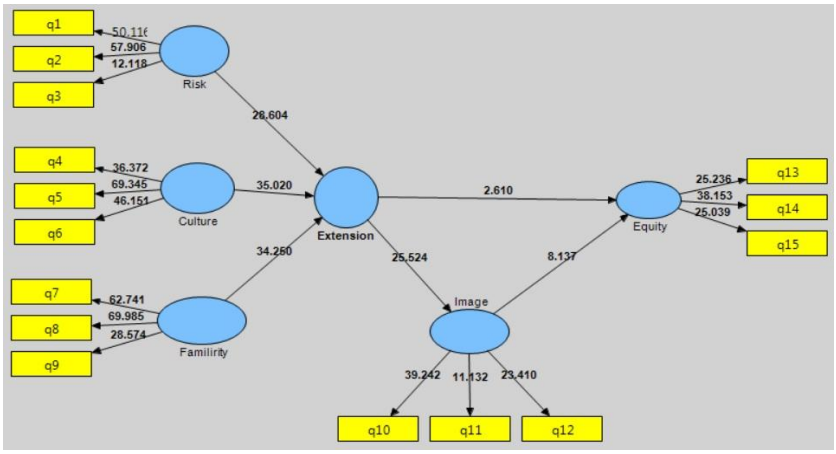


Figure3. Partial least squares model in the case of standard coefficients

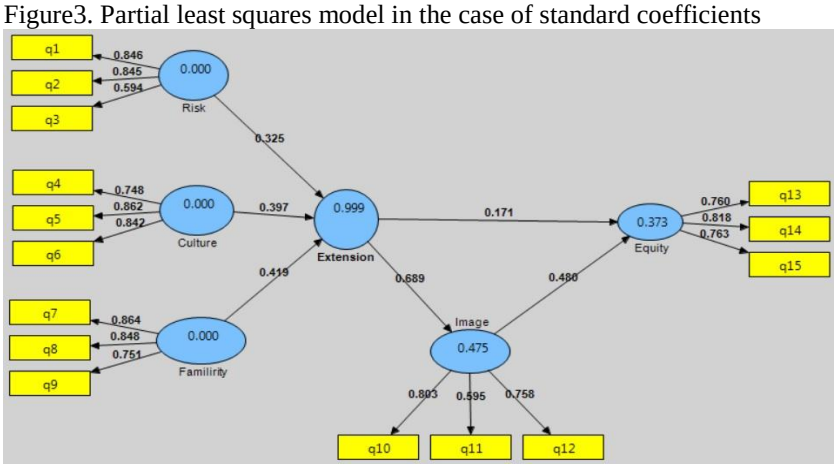


Table4. Summary of research results in the partial least squares model

result	T-value	β	variable			hypothesis
			Mediator	Dependant	Independent	
approval	**2.610**	**0/171**	**-**	Brand equity	Brand extension strategy	**1**
approval	**8.137**	**0/480**	**-**	Brand equity	Barnd image	**2**
approval	**-**	**0/480 * 0/689** >0/171 Because the impact intensity in direct path is less than the indirect path and reveals the approval of the role of mediator	Barnd image	Brand equity	Brand extension strategy	**3**

Regarding the final output from partial least squares model, it can be said that the main hypothesizes of brand extension strategies and Brand image are effective factors on the brand equity promotion. And also results show the approval of the role of Brand image mediator on the effectiveness of brand extension strategies on the brand equity.

Table5 shows the acquired results of T test.

result	T-value	β	variable		hypothesis
			dependant	independent	
approval	**8.063**	**0/428**	Brand image	Perceived risk	**1**
approval	**2.259**	**0/118**	Brand image	culture	**2**
approval	**5.121**	**0/301**	Brand image	familiarity	**3**
approval	**4.791**	**0/203**	Brand equity	Perceived risk	**4**
approval	**7.220**	**0/382**	Brand equity	culture	**5**
approval	**6.163**	**0/323**	Brand equity	familiarity	**6**

Pointing to the above results in case of subordinate hypothesizes, it can be said that all of the research subordinate hypothesizes have been approved.

5. Conclusion and implications.

Today companies invest in significant resources, to achieve a favorable name and image. Among different advantages, a positive image, could help to the extension of business because of brand extension. Therefore, the introduction of products by the same brand can amplify the image, the acknowledgment, and totally the brand equity which acquired in the market. Companies must know that commercial naming is not merely as an action in the case of communicating with customers or as graphic designs of packing, but it denotes to a complete behavioral pattern.

In the case of the effectiveness of brand extension strategies on brand equity, it is recommended that, Famila`s company marketing managers and selling directors to pay more attention to their Brand image evaluation and brand equity; because these two elements are important and effective factors on customers` attitude evaluation of brand extension. Since brand satisfaction affect the customers` attitude evaluation, Famila management should pay attention to this matter, and also render the required measurements in order to increase the brand satisfaction among customers. To be survived in today`s competitive market, organizations should supply products or services with the aim of customers` satisfaction and their loyalty ,and also creating more value towards the encouragement of their brand Brand image , and then more value for their brand among customers. According to acquired implications from the results of hypothesis in the case of brand extension strategies on Brand image, it is revealed that extension strategies have a positive and direct effect on brand Brand image; therefore, it is suggested to Famila managers to apply advertisements proper to the culture of that region, which would result in more familiarity with the brand , so that through motivating the customers` sense of intimacy , decrease the amount of visualized perceived risk and create an immanent and proper place in their customers` minds in that region, in order to result in costumers` loyalty.

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Assessment of impact of the Common Agricultural Policy on the development of viticulture in Bulgaria via Policy Analysis Matrix (PAM)

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Abstract.

For the purposes of this paper Policy Analysis Matrix (PAM) is used to assess the impact of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) on the competitiveness of wine grape production after the accession of Bulgaria to the EU.

Today Matrix is widely used in scientific research in various countries - to assess the prospective consequences of full membership of Portugal in the EU (Pearson, 1987), Estonia (Yao,1997) and Slovakia (Michalek,1995).

Policy Analysis Matrix allows to calculate indicators for the analysis of policy - Nominal protection coefficient (NPC), Effective rate protection (ERC), Coefficient of internal resources spent (DRC).

The results of PAM analysis confirm that after Bulgaria's accession to the EU the applied CAP has a negative impact on the wine grape production.

Key words: assessment, impact, CAP, viticulture, PAM, Bulgaria.

1. Introduction,

The opportunities for sustainable development of viticulture in Bulgaria and its potential to enhance its competitive opportunities increasingly depend on institutional support in the context of the country's agrarian policy. After Bulgaria's accession to the EU this support has gained new dimensions that put wine grape production in a disadvantage compared with other sectors.

2. Policy Analysis Matrix (PAM).

To determine the impact of the Common Agricultural Policy on the competitiveness of the viticulture in Bulgaria is used Policy Analysis Matrix (PAM). This matrix is developed by Monke and Pearson (Monke E., Scott R. Pearson, 1989). Today Matrix is widely used in scientific research in various countries - to assess the prospective consequences of full membership of Portugal in the EU (Pearson, 1987), Estonia (Yao,1997) and Slovakia (Michalek,1995).

In Bulgaria Alexi Alexiev in his monograph "Competitive capabilities of the grain sector" (2012) is used a matrix to examine the impact of public support on the competitive capabilities of the grain sector. He develops two forms of the Matrix. In the first form he makes calculations based on one ton, and in the second form – based on one hectare. According to Alexiev in Bulgaria a second form has a greater reliability for the primary information.

For the purposes of this paper Policy Analysis Matrix (PAM) is used to assess the impact of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) on the competitiveness of wine grape production after the accession of Bulgaria to the EU. General form of the Policy Analysis Matrix is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. General form of the Policy Analysis Matrix

	Revenue	Costs for raw materials	Costs for local resources	Profit
Market prices	A	B	C	D
Cost-effective prices	E	F	G	H
Transfers	I	J	K	L

where:

D = A – (B + C);
H = E – (F + G);
I = A – E;
J = B – F;
K = C – G;
L = D – H.

Cost-effective prices are those that do not exceed import prices per unit of the same type. Economically efficient costs are those whose total amount (cost of raw materials imported and local raw materials) is lower than the cost of import unit of the same type. Respectively economically efficient costs (permissible in terms of social benefit costs) are higher than revenues from exports unit of the same type.

Cost-effective prices of domestic factors of production (land, labor and capital) are evaluated by comparing the cost of this type, for example grapes with the lowest unit costs of other cultures (Monke and Pearson,1989).

3. Indicators for analysis of policy.

Policy Analysis Matrix allows to calculate indicators for the analysis of policy - Nominal protection coefficient (NPC), Effective rate protection (ERC), Coefficient of internal resources spent (DRC).

Nominal protection coefficient (NPC)

This indicator determines the degree of difference in prices of domestic market and international reference prices. If the NPC is greater than 1, the domestic price is higher than the international price of production. In this case, the policy protects inefficient production. If the NPC is less than 1, the policy protects consumers. NPC is calculated as follows:

NPC = (A) / (E)

Effective rate protection (ERC)

Effective rate protection is the ratio between the value added at market prices and the added value of cost-effective prices. When the ERC is greater than 1, the policy provides a positive impact on producers, when it is less than 1, there is public support for consumers. ERC is calculated as follows:

ERC = (A - B) / (E - F)

Coefficient of internal resources spent (DRC).

DRC is used by Bruno (1972) for measurement of comparative advantages. According to Bruno (1972) and Krueger (1966 and 1972) with this ratio is estimated economic efficiency in the use of internal resources. If the DRC is less than 1, the internal resources are used efficiently. If the DRC is greater than 1, the internal resources are used inefficiently, and the competitive opportunities are low. DRC is calculated as follows:

DRC = (C) / (E - F)

The study of the impact on the competitive opportunities of viticulture is done by using different mathematical approaches and specific models. The results of PAM analysis developed by Monke and Pearson (Monke and Pearson, 1989) indicate the following.

Table 1 shows the income, the value of marketable production and own resources, and the profit generated by the production of one ton wine grapes for years after the accession of Bulgaria to the EU. In 2007, grape growers earn revenue from a tone of grapes in the amount of 587 leva at market prices or with 230 leva lower than at cost-effective prices. There is a transfer of funds towards consumers.

Tab. 2 Policy Analysis Matrix for grape production (tons)

	Revenue	Costs for raw materials	Costs for local resources	Profit
2007				
Market prices	587	208	248	131
Cost-effective prices	817	175	278	364
Transfers	-230	33	-30	-233
2008				
Market prices	533	200	226	107
Cost-effective prices	765	163	266	336
Transfers	-232	37	-40	-229
2009				
Market prices	462	175	189	98
Cost-effective prices	805	171	277	357
Transfers	-343	4	-88	-259
2010				
Market prices	536	199	224	113
Cost-effective prices	845	183	287	375
Transfers	-309	16	-63	-262
2011				

Market prices	555	209	235	111
Cost-effective prices	804	177	265	362
Transfers	-249	32	-30	-251
2012				
Market prices	589	207	253	129
Cost-effective prices	871	190	298	383
Transfers	-282	17	-45	-254
2013				
Market prices	578	210	253	115
Cost-effective prices	843	179	293	371
Transfers	-265	31	-40	-256
2014				
Market prices	635	229	275	131
Cost-effective prices	843	170	303	370
Transfers	-208	59	-28	-239

Source: Eurostat, Faostat, Customs Agency, 2007 – 2013 and the author's calculations

At the purchase of raw materials occurs a negative impact on grape growers. The costs of marketable materials are with 33 leva higher at market prices than at cost-effective prices. The costs of internal factors of production during the survey period are higher than the costs of marketable resources, which is explained with the technology in the production of wine grapes. The costs of local factors of production are with 30 leva lower at market prices rather than at cost-effective prices, which have a positive impact on production.

The realized profit in 2007 from a tone of grapes at market prices is in the amount of 131 leva. It is relatively lower than the profit calculated by cost-effective prices. The result is a negative transfer to grape growers and it is equal to -233 leva per tone.

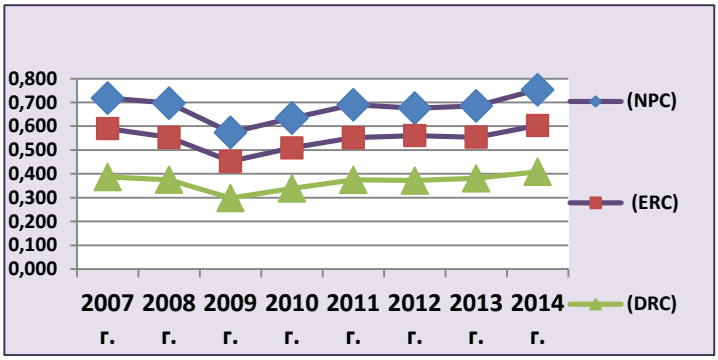
In 2014 the difference between the revenue generated from the sale of one ton of grapes at market prices and cost-effective prices is less than in 2007 and is in the amount of 208 leva. This affects disadvantageous to grape growers.

The costs for raw material in 2014 compared to 2007 remain still higher at market prices than at cost-effective prices, which have a negative effects. The costs of internal resources are 28 leva lower than those in a cost-effective prices, which have a positive effects.

The profit in 2014 for grape growers is lower than in 2007. The total transfer of funds is negative for grape producers and is in the amount of 239 leva per tone.

Figure 1 presents the values of the basic parameters defining the influence of the applied policy.

Figure 1 Evaluation of the level of support in grapes production



Source: Author's calculations

In grapes production, nominal protection coefficient during the period has tendency to reduce its value in 2007 it is 0,718, reaching levels of 0.686 in 2013, and in 2014 increased slightly to 0.753. It is less than 1, that is why the applied policy supports consumers and has no impact on grape producers.

The effective rate protection is also reduced and for 2014 is less than 1. Value added at market prices is less than that at cost-effective prices, which confirms the negative impact of the CAP for producers of wine grapes.

Only for local resources / labor, land and capital / results of PAM analysis give a positive conclusions. In production of wine grapes for the period 2007-2014 the ratio of local resources is spent from 0.386 to 0.409, which defines the use of internal resources as efficiently.

Conclusion

Generally the results of PAM analysis confirm that after Bulgaria's accession to the EU the applied CAP has a negative impact on the wine grape production.

To improve the image of the wine sector in the coming years, Bulgaria has to comply with the preferences of the consumers in the market for whose attention the competition is extremely high. In the sector is necessary control and compliance with the rules of fair competition. It is necessary to protect the names of products made from grapes and indications of origin for table and quality wines produced in specified regions. An important perspective for the future development of viticulture in Bulgaria is to create a new national strategy for development of Bulgarian vine and wine.

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Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL): An Accelerator to Iranian Language Learners` Vocabulary Learning Improvement

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Abstract.
In spite of the fact that technology devices such as mobile have been widely used by many people, their contribution to language teaching have not been practiced in Iran. The present study was intended to focus on the improvement of vocabulary learning through Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) among Iranian intermediate EFL learners. It is hypothesized that because of the accessibility of cell phones and the Internet and also the curiosity of using new social networks such as Telegram, MALL would be helpful in learning English vocabularies. To this aim, 60 Iranian intermediate EFL learners, who participated in Testing of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) preparation course, were recruited as the subjects. Two groups were given a 40 multiple choice item researcher-made vocabulary test as a pretest. Received 180 vocabulary out of 450 of vocabularies of Barron's Essential Words for TOEFL book, the participants in the experimental group enjoyed the definitions and example sentences of 5 words every other day (15 words per week) via Telegram regularly. The subjects of the control group were requested to study and learn the same vocabularies through book by themselves at the same days. After 12 weeks, the 40 multiple choice item vocabulary test was administered again as the posttest to the both groups. The result to emerge from the data was that the experimental group performed successfully rather than the control group.
Key words: Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL), Vocabulary, Vocabulary Learning

1. Introduction.

Learning vocabulary is regarded as an integral component of learning a new language. Laufer (1998) and Nation (1990) proposed that if learners of English as a foreign language want to figure out nontechnical English texts, they have to learn at least 5000 lexical items. Given the fact that the amount of class time is limited in academic and educational settings, learners do not have the opportunity to practice all the words they know in a classroom. For instance, a typical English class in Iran has held twice a week for 3 hours total. Therefore, it leads to some difficulties for not only English teachers but also EFL learners. The problem encounters teachers is that how to teach a vast number of new English vocabularies in such a limited time in educational classrooms to enhance language learning. Also, learners face difficulty in learning a large number of vocabularies, for example, they have to memorize a great number of words. Because learners merely expose to learn and practice the target language in a limited time in classrooms, it is reasonable that they should be exposed to the other kinds of methods of vocabulary learning.

Given the lexical knowledge plays a pivotal role in learning new language, research into the highly effective types of vocabulary learning methods as well as teaching vocabulary has been of a great value in the domain of second language learning and teaching. One of the efficient interactive ways that pave the way for learners to practice vocabularies and allow teachers to give feedback is Internet (Prensky, 2005). One of the best ways which aids teachers in teaching vocabularies is using various technologies available for learners. One of the technology devices that can be useful in second language learning and teaching is mobile phones which have become an integrated part of our lives. As a matter of fact, comes from a new trend of technology. Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) is a branch of technology which can be applied in different forms including distant, on-line, and face to face modes. Mobile devices have been interestingly popular among people especially for language learning, not only learners but also students applied technology to make vocabulary learning as unique as possible. Also, with the advent of the Internet learning mobile devices provide a highly effective resource for learning and education. In this line, researchers have attempted to make mobile devices as an effective source for both learning and teaching. (Prensky, 2005). As a matter of fact, it is a challenging research that learning tasks is covered by mobile phones. (Oberg &Daniels, 2012). Vocabulary is one of the crucial components of a language .Nation (2001) postulated that L2 learners are conscious of the extent to which limitations in their vocabulary knowledge confined their communication skills. As a consequence, one of the

basic hurdles that L2 learners face in learning vocabulary is the amount of vocabularies they need to learn in order to become fluent in the target language. In spite of the fact that teachers fully understand this need, they do not know how to support their learners in this field. Hence, pedagogically speaking, there is a great desire to research in this field to find different methods to provide opportunities for L2 vocabulary learning improvement. Owing to the limited educational time, it is necessary to apply text message vocabulary learning in our pedagogical setting.

2. Review of Literature.

Some researchers proved that MALL is useful in language learning in educational setting, Alemi, Sarabi, and Lari(2012), Cavus and Ibrahim (2009), Chaung (2009), Gu, Gu, and Laffey (2011), and Thornton and Houser (2005).

According to MALL Research Project Report (2009), mobile devices play a significant role on enhancing students' confidence in both listening and speaking. In this study, a group of students were asked for having Indonesian conversations on their mobile phones. The data showed that all the students were satisfied with the privacy that they have when they were working on their own mobile phones. At the outset of the study, took a conversation test to identify their initial conversation ability and a posttest to recognize their enhancement. The result revealed that mobile devices have effect on language learning abilities.

Derakhshan and Kaivanpanah (2011) attempted to examine the role of Short Message Service (SMS) on university students' vocabulary learning. The result of the study revealed that the experimental group had higher scores than the control group; that is, they outperformed the control group in vocabulary retention.

Another study which was conducted by Motallebzadeh, beh-Afarin and Daliry Rad (2011) realized the effect of SMS on help Iranian intermediate EFL learners to retain English collocations. The data illustrated that the subjects in the experimental group are performed better than those in the control group. Furthermore, participants were recruited to complete the attitude questionnaire and the answers of experimental group show the positive attitudes towards learning collocations through SMS.

3. Methodology.

3.1. Participants:

The participants of the present study were composed of 60 Iranian intermediate male and female students who participated in Testing of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) preparation course in Giti language Institute in Gorgan, Iran. They ranged in age from 23 to 30 years and all of them were native Persian speakers. These EFL students were categorized into two groups, 30 male and female students took part as the experimental group and 30 students participated as the control group. As far as their English proficiency is concerned, they were at intermediate level of language proficiency.

3.2. Instrumentation.

The instruments applied in this study consisted of a Nelson English proficiency test and one researchers' made vocabulary test used both as the pre-test and the post-test whose reliability and validity were checked.

At the outset of the study, both groups took Nelson English proficiency test, Nelson 350A test (Flower & Coe, 1976) to ensure their homogeneity of subjects. This test consists of 50 multiple choice items. The validity and reliability of the Nelson test have been estimated several times before by other researchers and according to them, it is a highly valid and reliable test of English proficiency (Shahivand&Pazhakh, 2012, p. 18).

After that the vocabulary test was a test that the researcher chose 45 words from the 180 words of 'Barron's Essential Words for the TOEFL' book by Matthiesen (2014) that was the content of the instruction. Therefore, the researcher gave the list of words as the pre-test to both groups and the same vocabulary items were used as the post test in the same way but the order of items were different.

3.3. Procedure.

As the first step, the reliability of the vocabulary test that was used as pretest and posttest was measured. It was administered to 35 students of a language institute of Gorgan and by using Cronbach alpha coefficient, the reliability coefficient was calculated as 0.74 which is an acceptable reliability coefficient. The validity of the test was assured by three English Language experts.

The treatment the experimental group received was the definitions and example sentences of 5 words every other day (15 words per week) via Viber regularly. On the other hand, the subjects in control group were asked to study the same vocabularies through the book by themselves at the same days. For example the words for the first day are:

1. Abroad 2. Abrupt 3. Acceptable 4. Acclaim 5. Actually

The 30 students in control group study the definition and examples of these words from the book, but these words along with their definitions and example were sent to 30 students in the experimental group via Viberat the same day and they were asked to check this application every other day to study the new vocabularies. This procedure is continued about 3 months until sending and learning the whole 180 words were finished.

After 12 weeks the vocabulary test with 40 multiple choice items was administered by the researchers again as the posttest to the both groups. The form of items in vocabulary test devised by the researchers was multiple choice and students were asked to choose the correct answer from 4 responses. It took about 45 to 55 minutes to answer the whole test.

4. Result.

In order to check the probable effects of mobile assisted language learning on vocabulary learning improvement of students, the scores of the vocabulary tests developed by the researcher that were run in both groups, were analyzed. First of all to ensure that the mean differences of vocabulary test of the two groups were not significant at the beginning of the study, an independent sample t-test was run. Below is the table that shows the result of Kolmogorov Smirnov test which indicates the distribution of vocabulary test with the normal mean. It is obvious that the result is significant (sig=.710; X=22.6; SD= 5.90). Table 1 indicates the result.

Table 1. One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for the pretest of vocabulary

N		60
Normal Parameters	Mean	22.6000
	Std. Deviation	5.90662
Most Extreme Differences		
	Absolute	.090
	Positive	.090
	Negative	-.060
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.701
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.710

The descriptive statistics of pretest of vocabulary and the results of independent-sample t-test is presented in table2. The mean of pretest of vocabulary in control and experimental group was 22.10 and 23.10 respectively as Table 2 indicates.

Table 2. Group Statistics for Pretest of vocabulary

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Vocabulary Pretest	Con. Pretest vocabulary	30	22.1000	5.24141	.95695
	Exp. Pretest vocabulary	30	23.1000	6.55665	1.19707

The sig (2-tailed) value is .653, greater than the required cut-off of .05 as indicated in table 3. This implies that there is not statistically significant difference in the mean of vocabulary on their pretest. There is not a significant difference in the scores for pretest of vocabulary in control group (X=*22*, SD=*5.24*) and pretest of vocabulary in experimental group (X=*23.10*, SD=*6.55*; $t_{(58)} = .517$). Therefore, both groups were the same before treatment.

In order to show the difference between the mean of the group for the posttest of vocabulary another independent sample t-test was conducted. Prior to comparing mean, the groups' Kolmogorov Smirnov test was run to check if the distribution of vocabulary test is normal. Table 3 shows the result of Kolmogorov Smirnov test that the distribution on vocabulary test with the normal mean is indicated in. Therefore, the result is significant (sig=.317; X=11.80; SD= 3.41).

Table 3 One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test For the post test of vocabulary

Null Hypothesis	Test	sig	Decision
The distribution of vocabulary test is Normal with mean 11.80 and standard Deviation 3.41.	one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test	.317	Retain the null hypothesis

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .50. In order to compare the mean scores of both groups an independent-sample t-test was run on the participants' scores of post-tests in vocabulary test. The significant difference in the scores for control posttest (X=*22.03*, SD= 6.53, and experimental posttest (X=27.40, SD=*6.38*, $t_{(58)}$= -3.218) is presented in table 4.

Table 4.Descriptive Statistics for low level in posttest groups

Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
vocabulary Posttest	Cont. Posttest vocabulary	30	22.0333	6.53100	1.19239
	Exp.Posttest vocabulary	30	27.4000	6.38749	1.16619

Table 5 shows that the sig (2-tailed) value is *.848.* This value is greater than the required cut-off of .05, therefore the assumption of equal variances has not been violated.

The sig (2-tailed) value as table 6 indicates is .002 and because of the fact that this value is below the required cut-off of .05, there is a statistically significant difference in the mean of vocabulary. Table 6 indicates experimental group performed better than the control group the test of vocabulary.

5. Discussion.

As the results revealed, students in the experimental group who received the vocabularies via Telegram outperformed the students in the control group who studied the vocabularies from the book at the same days. There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of students in experimental group but not in the scores of the control group. This significance means that students who were asked to use their cell phones for learning definitions of the words learned the meaning of vocabularies better than the students who did not receive such treatment.

Table 5. Independent Samples Test.

		Levene's Test Equality of Variances		fort-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
vocabulary Posttest	Equal variances assumed	.037	.848	-3.218	58	.002	-5.36667	1.66787	-8.70528	-2.02806
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.218	57.97	.002	-5.36667	1.66787	-8.70531	-2.02802

The results of this study are consistent with some other studies done in this area which emphasize the positive effects of mobile assisted language learning (Abbasi and Hashemi, 2013). There are some other studies that are directly emphasized the role of using mobile in improving vocabulary learning (Khodashenas and Amouzegar, 2013, Alavinia and Qoitassi, 2013).

6. Conclusion.

Vocabulary has a crucial role in language learning, and language learners have to know a vast number of words to have a better communication. Thus, the present study conducted to investigate the effect of MALL on vocabulary learning. The finding revealed that the participants in the experimental group enhanced remarkably in vocabulary knowledge in the post test rather than control group.

The heart of the matter is that the speed of technology is growing drastically and it dominates nearly most of the aspects of peoples' lives, hence, this technology plays a great role in educational atmosphere. Nowadays, as a result of growing the Internet and mobile phones, mobile learning causes the learners use the technology such as Telegram more enjoyable anywhere and anytime. Therefore, an enjoyable environment can be provided through mobile phones for language learners.

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The Relationship between Teacher's Personality Traits and Exceptional Students' Learning

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Abstract.
The study of teacher's personality and the extent of student learning will always have to turn to one another for help and the one will not invalidate the other. Education plays main role in all aspects of life. By providing the quality education we can produce quality products. The decisions and actions of a teacher affect the learning process. The major purpose of present study is to investigate the effects of teacher's personality traits on the learning of the exceptional students, to examine the learning achievement of the exceptional students as a result of teacher's behavior, to clarify the relationship between teacher's personality and input learning and finally to recommend strategies for the improvement of teacher's personality in exceptional schools. The theoretical framework of this study is based on Brophy's Key Behaviors Contribution to Effective Teaching, Ryans and Johnson Personality Traits.

Key Words: Effective Teaching, Exceptional Students, Personality Trait, Successful Teacher

1. Introduction.

Education is now universally recognized to be prime key of moral, cultural, political and socio-economic development of a nation. The nations, which have been taken major initiatives, made revolutionary advances and performed miracles in the last two decades. No doubt, this great achievement is based on their effective educational system (Ahmad, 2001). It is stated "educational system of any country can provide the guarantee of success and prosperity for their nations". (Saeed, 2001). No system of education is better than his personnel and no system of education above the standard of its teacher's personality. It means, the quality of any system depends upon the standard of its personnel.

Smith (1977) has claimed that teacher's personality in the attitudinal sense is significant factor in teacher behavior and it has great impact on student's achievement. The effective teacher is capable of creating a desire to learn. He must be able to sense the interests of students, recognize their needs, and make learning purposeful not only in relation to course objectives but in the minds of his students.

For many years, parents and teachers have been perplexed about youngsters who have dramatic learning strengths in some areas and equally dramatic learning weaknesses in others. These students appear to defy accurate labeling: Are they exceptional or learning disabled? Finally, the debate has stopped, and educators are now recognizing these students as "twice-exceptional." Rather than trying to use evidence from their weak learning areas to prove they are not "truly gifted," savvy teachers are now learning how to allow these students to experience the same opportunities available for gifted students when they are learning in their strength areas.

Some educators emphasize the idea that schools should be child-centered, but probably none will question the statement that the success of our educational endeavors depends, to a very great extent, on the teachers who are responsible for implementing the educational programs. To be a teacher is to be a member of a special profession. A teacher has to display exceptional empathy, persistence, diligence, sincerity, research orientation, honesty and flexibility as a person. Teachers are the models in the classroom whose attitudes are imitated by the students consciously or unconsciously.

Teachers must do their role so obviously in the classroom as if there is no deep difference between the role of the teachers and what practice they do in the classroom. People presume that a knowledgeable teacher who teaches a particular subject will be confident but this is not necessarily the case. In fact, knowledge of a particular subject does not correspond to increased confidence in one's ability to teach the subject in the classroom (Tosun, 2000).

2. Research Questions.

1. Is there any significant relationship between teacher's personality traits and the instructions used by them for exceptional students?

2. Does the similarity between teacher and student's personality traits affect learning?

3. Review of Related Literature

Every day, teachers around the world are entrusted with the task of fostering the academic and intellectual development of the students they teach. However, each teacher is a unique individual, with his or her own personality, experiences, and way of perceiving the world. And each student is equally unique. It has been argued that some teachers might be better suited for teaching exceptional students than other teachers. For example, Mandrell and Fiscus (1981) argued that not all teachers should be assigned to teach the exceptional. However, there remain unanswered questions regarding the personality and cognitive styles of effective teachers and relations between the personality and cognitive styles of teachers whom the exceptional students they teach.

In the domain of personality traits and teaching, several methodologists (Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Tudor, 1993; Harmer, 2001) have suggested many potential roles for a teacher. Researchers have been trying to identify the personality characteristics associated with superior teachers, e.g. those who have won many distinguished awards etc. Ryans (1960) identified the following characteristics among superior teachers on the basis of his research:

· They frequently mention liking for children and interest in their development as reasons for teaching.

· They express admiration of such qualities as friendliness, permissiveness, definiteness and fairness in teachers.

· They dislike in teachers such qualities as arrogance, intolerance, sarcasm, and partiality.

· They typically appear to be accepting and generous in their appraisals of other persons and to see the good points of a person rather than the bad.

· They express satisfaction with teaching (and also with teacher salaries) and intend to continue teaching indefinitely.

· They frequently engaged in teaching activity as a child (for example, taking charge of the class in the absence of the teacher).

The other side of this research is personality traits. Psychologists define personality as individual differences in the way people tend to think, feel and behave. There are many ways to measure personality, but psychologists have mostly given up on trying dividing humanity neatly into types. Instead, they focus on personality traits. The most widely accepted of these traits are the Big Five:

- openness;
- conscientiousness;
- extraversion;
- agreeableness;
- neuroticism.

Conveniently, you can remember these traits with the handy OCEAN mnemonic (or, if you prefer, CANOE works, too). The Big Five are the ingredients that make up each individual's personality. A person might have a dash of openness, a lot of conscientiousness, an average amount of extraversion, plenty of agreeableness and almost no neuroticism at all. Or someone could be disagreeable, neurotic, introverted, conscientious and hardly open at all.

Our personality traits in this study are combinations of the four dimensions form 16 possible types that are: extraversion-introversion, sensing-intuition, thinking-feeling, and judging-perceiving. These types are not fixed or static personality traits; rather, they represent preferences. Depending upon time, development, and situation, one can shift his or her relative position on the four bipolar dimensions of the MBTI, although in general our preferences remain fairly stable.

The extraversion-introversion (E-I) dimension refers to preferred modes of relating to the external world. Extraverts (E) tend to be action-oriented, sociable, sometimes impulsive individuals who are more interested in the outer world of people and experiences; introverts (I) tend to be contemplative, detached individuals who are more interested in the inner world of thoughts and ideas. The sensing-intuition (S-N) dimension refers to how individuals prefer to take in and process information. Sensing (S) refers to a preference for working with known facts, and individuals with this preference tend to be practical realists; intuition (N) refers to a preference for the abstract and symbolic, a predisposition for seeking relationships and possibilities. On the thinking-feeling (T-F) dimension, thinking (T) types prefer a logical, impersonal, analytical style of decision making, while feeling (F) types prefer a subjective, interpersonal style of decision making, considering values, aesthetics, and personal implications. Finally, the judging-perceiving (J-P) dimension refers to preferences for either a decisive, planned, orderly, systematic approach (judging; J) or a more flexible, adaptable, and spontaneous style (perceiving; P).

Teacher’s personality affects his/her behavior in class according to his/her perception of students as low achievers or as high achievers. It is often difficult for teachers to understand that students with learning difficulties might also be exceptional in some areas of learning. However, if we remember that the essential definition of exceptional is exactly that, we can see such learners from a different perspective. Allow these students to experience the same compacting and differentiation opportunities available to other students. Offer pretests to allow them to document previous mastery of upcoming content. so, in relevance, Brophy (1991) and Renzulli (1997), identify Compacting as a common condition in this field. *Compacting* is the process of allowing highly capable students to demonstrate their previous mastery of some of the required curriculum. Compacting also occurs when students are allowed to demonstrate that they need less time than their peers to learn new material. When the evidence of the need for compacting is present, differentiation follows. Thus, when students demonstrate that the general curriculum or pacing does not provide an appropriate challenge, they can gain access to more challenging topics or activities. Exceptional students deserve these opportunities, not simply because they are exceptional but because all students are entitled to experience the promises of the school’s mission statement. If it promises that students are supposed to be able to achieve learning to the highest levels of

their potential, exceptional students must be allowed access to activities that are personally challenging. If being exception implies a learning ability that exceeds expectations for same-age peers, it is natural to understand the need for differentiated curriculum.

In one of the most rigorous studies in this area, Bishop (1968) studied on personality traits of teachers of exceptional students. Bishop concluded that the effective teacher group was characterized by superior intelligence, greater literary and cultural interests, and higher achievement needs. Further, teachers in the effective group more often reported that they entered the teaching profession for their own intellectual growth. In the classroom, these teachers were more stimulating and imaginative, and they tended to be more student-centered in their teaching style. At the same time, these teachers were also more systematic and orderly. The effective teachers were well versed in and enthusiastic about their subject matter, and they defined their own success as a teacher by how well they motivated their students. These teachers also indicated a preference for teaching exceptional students.

4. Methodл

As this study try to show, the characteristics of the effective teachers documented by Bishop were similar to those typically ascribed to exceptional students. These characteristics included creativity, tolerance for ambiguity, and interest in literature and cultural matters. Other researchers have also suggested that successful teachers of exceptional students share personality and cognitive orientations with the students they teach. For example, Renzulli (1992) argued that we should "devote considerable effort to analyzing the preferred learning styles of students and look for opportunities to place students with teachers who have compatible styles" (p. 58). The match between the personality and cognitive styles of exceptional students and teachers has not been studied empirically. However, there is some indication that the personality and cognitive styles of these students differ from those of more average-achieving students.

5. Procedure.

Sixty-three teachers from The Center of Exceptional Youth (CEY) of Gorgan-Iran were identified as exemplary participated in this study from among those who had taught at CEY for 2 or more years. Teachers were selected as "exemplary" based on observations and performance ratings from CEY administrators and evaluations of teachers completed by students (objective ratings of teacher effectiveness as judged along a number of dimensions, including knowledge of content, preparedness, concern for individual learning, and openness to differing opinions). From a total pool of 400 teachers, 85 individuals were identified as exemplary and invited to participate in this research. In response to this invitation, 65 teachers (74%) agreed to participate. Teachers were then asked to complete a background questionnaire and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Participating teachers ranged in age from 20 to 73, with a mean age of 35.4 (*SD* = 12.0). Approximately 63% of the teachers were male.

Table 1. Demographic and Background Data for Exemplary Teachers

Gender	
Male	63.5% (40)
Female	36.5% (23)
Age	
mean = 35.4, standard deviation = 12.0 *Major in College*	
Humanities	47.5% (30)
Science	28.5% (18)
Math	19.0% (12)
Education	5.0% (3)
Highest Degree Obtained	
Bachelor's	15.9% (10)
Master's	55.5% (35)
Doctorate	28.6% (18)
Principal Occupation	
Education	66.7% (42)
Math/Science	7.9% (5)**
Arts	7.9% (5)**
Business	3.2% (2)
Military	3.2% (2)
Human Services	1.6% (1)
Graduate School	9.5% (6)
Years in Principal Occupation	

mean = 11.7, standard deviation = 10.6	
Years Working with G/T Students	
mean = 8.6, standard deviation = 7.5	
Years Teaching at CEY	
mean = 4.2, standard deviation = 2.7	
Number of G/E Courses Taken	
None	82.5% (52)
One	9.5% (6)
2 or more	7.9% (5)

Note. * N = 63; ** Profession in mathematics, the sciences, or the arts, but not as a teacher; *** Certification to teach is not an issue for college professors, who comprise approximately 43% of the sample whose primary occupation is education.

In addition to the teacher sample, a sample of 1,247 students who attended CEY also participated in this study. These students were independently selected from CEY classes; they were not specifically selected from classes taught by the teachers in the study, although some may very well have been students of the participating teachers. By design, no attempt was made to link teachers and students in the study. Participating students ranged in age from 13 to 16 years of age. The sample consisted of 559 (45%) female and 688 (55%) male students.

6. Measures

Participating teachers were given a background questionnaire designed to gather basic demographic information (e.g., gender, age), as well as professional training and experiences. Questions also addressed their principal occupations and experience working with exceptional students. Teachers and students were independently given Form G of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Students took the MBTI in small group settings with a test administrator, while teachers completed the MBTI individually. The MBTI is a forced choice, self-report measure of preferences on four bipolar dimensions that are typically scored dichotomously: extraversion-introversion, sensing-intuition, thinking-feeling, and judging-perceiving.

Several methods of scoring the MBTI for learning and teaching styles, in addition to the usual preference scores for the four personality dimensions and the frequency distributions for the 16 MBTI types, have been developed. One of the most popular models was developed by Golay (1982) and is based on the SJ (Structured Realist), SP (Action-Oriented Realist), NF (Idealistic Humanist), and NT (Rational Theorist) dimension pairs discussed by Kiersey and Bates (1984). A second popular model, developed by Kalsbeek (1989), uses the IN (Abstract- Reflective), EN (Abstract-Active), IS (Concrete-Reflective), and ES (Concrete-Active) dimension pairs. Both of these scoring systems were used in this study, in addition to the typical scoring procedure utilizing frequency distributions for each dimension and for each of the 16 types to explore the data more fully. Table 2 contains the frequency distribution of MBTI types for the exemplary CEY teachers (N = 63) and for the CEY summer program participants (N = 1,247). The percent of individuals falling into each MBTI category is illustrated in Table 3 for these three groups: CEY exemplary teachers, the normative sample of middle school teachers, and CEY exceptional students.

Table 2. Type Distribution of CEY Exemplary Teachers, a Normative Sample of Middle School Teachers, and CEY Students

MBTI Type*	CEY Teachers (N = 63)	Norm MS Teachers (N = 1,128)	CEY Students (N = 1,247)
ISTJ	5 (7.9%)	126 (11.2%)	112 (9.0%)
ISFJ	0 (0.0%)	138 (12.2%)	27 (2.2%)
INFJ	1 (1.6%)	56 (5.0%)	57 (4.6%)
INTJ	14 (22.2%)	51 (4.5%)	116 (9.3%)
ISTP	2 (3.2%)	26 (2.3%)	46 (3.7%)
ISFP	0 (0.0%)	36 (3.2%)	17 (1.4%)
INFP	3 (4.8%)	67 (5.9%)	127 (10.2%)
INTP	5 (7.9%)	27 (2.4%)	185 (14.8%)
ESTP	1 (1.6%)	20 (1.8%)	40 (3.2%)
ESFP	0 (0.0%)	43 (3.8%)	20 (1.6%)
ENFP	6 (9.5%)	124 (11.0%)	170 (13.6%)
ENTP	5 (7.9%)	44 (3.9%)	147 (11.8%)
ESTJ	2 (3.2%)	103 (9.1%)	43 (3.4%)
ESFJ	1 (1.6%)	130 (11.5%)	24 (1.9%)

ENFJ	8 (12.7%)	88 (7.8%)	35 (2.8%)
ENTJ	10 (15.9%)	49 (4.3%)	81 (6.5%)

Note. * The MBTI is a measure of preferences on four bipolar dimensions that are typically scored dichotomously: extraversion (E) vs. introversion (I), sensing (S) vs. intuition (N), thinking (T) vs. feeling (F), and judging (J) vs. perceiving (P)

Table 3: Distribution of the Four MBTI Dimensions*

	CEY Teachers (N = 63)	Norm MS Teachers (N = 1,128)	CEY Students (N = 1,247)
E-I Dimension			
E %	52.4	53.3	44.9
I %	47.6	46.7	55.1
S-N Dimension			
S %	17.5	55.1	26.4
N %	82.5	44.9	73.6
T-F Dimension			
T %	69.8	39.5	61.7
F %	30.2	60.5	38.3
J-P Dimension			
J %	65.1	65.7	39.7
P %	34.9	34.3	60.3

*Note. *The MBTI is a measure of preferences on four bipolar dimensions that are typically scored dichotomously: extraversion-introversion (E-I), sensing-intuition (S-N), thinking-feeling (T-F), and judging-perceiving (J-P).*

7. Results and Discussion.

The purpose of this study was to explore the background, personality type, and cognitive preferences of teachers of the exceptional and to compare the personality and cognitive styles of effective teachers with those of the exceptional students they teach. Findings indicated that, although many of the effective teachers had advanced degrees and the majorities were working in the field of education, few of them had formal training in exceptional education.

This sample of teachers appears to exemplify the notion of "teacher-scholars," where teachers are experts in the area they teach (e.g., Bishop, 1968; Howley et al., 1986; Renzulli, 1992). The vast majority of these teachers held advanced degrees in their area of expertise, while few held formal teaching certificates and few had completed extensive coursework in exceptional education. Thus, it appears that formal training in the field of exceptional education may not be as important for teaching gifted students as a strong background and interest in an academic discipline. One of the most striking and consistent findings in this study was the observed match in personality styles between the academically talented students and the teachers. On both the thinking-feeling and the sensing- intuition dimensions of the MBTI, the academically talented students were more similar to the teachers than the normative sample of teachers. In fact, the CEY students differed significantly from the normative sample of teachers on each of the four dimensions of the MBTI, while demonstrating profiles strikingly similar to the effective teachers.

The most striking difference was seen on the sensing-intuition (S-N) dimension, where the majority of the exemplary CEY teachers showed a preference for an abstract and theoretical orientation (N). Individuals with a preference for N typically prefer to see the big picture, engage in abstract reasoning, and generate ideas; they tend to be innovative and intuitive and see patterns and themes. Additionally, individuals with an N preference are thought to prefer creative approaches (e.g., Thorne & Gough, 1991). It is likely that teachers with a preference for N are individuals who use creative approaches in their teaching and in their classrooms. Indeed, Bishop's (1968) finding that exemplary teachers are often more imaginative and stimulating than other teachers supports this interpretation.

The only significant difference found between teachers and the exceptional CEY students was on the J-P dimension. Teachers reported a preference for judging (J). Individuals classified as Js have a preference for structure, order, and closure. Teachers' observed preference for judging supports Bishop's (1968) finding that teachers were more systematic and orderly than teachers not judged to be exemplary. In contrast, the CEY students reported a preference for perceiving (P). In comparing the teachers and students, it appears that teachers have a stronger need for structure and organization than the students they teach. However, there is some

preliminary evidence that this might reflect a developmental difference, rather than a personality difference (Mills, Moore, & Parker, 1996).

The observed parallels in the personality of teachers and the exceptional students raise an important question regarding determinants of effective teaching: Are some teachers highly effective because they possess certain personality styles, or are some teachers effective because their personality styles more closely match their students' personality styles? In summary, as evidenced by the prevalence of advanced degrees, these teachers appear to have a passion for their discipline. These exemplary teachers also appear to have a strong preference for the abstract and conceptual. Additionally, the teachers in this study had personality characteristics that, for the most part, mirrored the personality characteristics of the students they teach. These same personality characteristics set the exemplary teachers, and their students, apart from a normative population of teachers.

8. Implications.

The findings from this study, however, suggest that certification and formal training in exceptional and talented education may not be sufficient factors to consider when selecting teachers for them. Findings from this study suggest instead that it is equally important to select teachers with a strong background in the academic discipline being taught and those who have a passion for the subject matter. In addition to this expertise, certain personality characteristics and cognitive style preferences may be critical (although often ignored) factors to consider. Finally, it seems important for all teachers to be aware of how exceptional students may differ from their classmates in cognitive style preferences so that these differences can be recognized and validated. It may even be worthwhile for teachers involved in professional development workshops to be made aware of how cognitive preferences relate to learning and teaching styles and how recognition of style differences may translate into more effective teaching for all students. These suggestions warrant further research to document exactly how the match or mismatch between a teacher and student may affect learning either positively or negatively.

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EFL Teachers' Professional Success Across their Age, Gender and Job Seniority

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Abstract.
The present study embarks upon probing Iranian EFL teachers' professional success across a number demographic factors. In so doing, three variables, namely age, gender and job seniority, were taken into account as the main factors for the analysis. To undertake the study, the present study was built on characteristics of successful teachers questionnaire (CSTQ) proposed by Moafian and Pishghadam (2009). The CSTQ was administered among 450 Iranian EFL learners to assess their English teachers' (n=40) success. The analysis of their data yielded some factors for teacher success as a construct, such as teaching accountability, interpersonal relationships, attention to all, examination, physical and emotional acceptance, empathy, class attendance, and dynamism to name a few. To run the analysis, they were first classified into 4 groups: group 1 (0-5), group 2 (6-10), group 3 (11-15), and group 4 (16-25) years of teaching experience. Then, a Kruskal-Wallis Test was conducted to screen their success as far as their professional seniority are concerned. The results indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference in the continuous variables across the four groups. To probe if teachers' professional success varies across their academic degree and age, a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted. The results indicated that that there is a statistically significant difference in the assessment literacy score of the age. More precisely, it confirmed that teachers with the age range of 23-33 reported higher mean rank (22.16) than teachers with the age range of 34-45 (10.86). However, the mean difference between teachers of different degrees is not significant as the p value (.68) is greater than .05. The findings have implications in teacher education, materials development, and teacher training.
Keywords: Teachers' Success, Job Seniority, Age, Gender, teacher education

1. Introduction.

When improving teaching at the classroom level is one objective of the syllabus in the educational system, successful teachers attempt to meet the demands related to finding the appropriate way of teaching and assessment; so improving teacher quality is one of the most necessary strategies for improving public education in Iran because teachers can have large effects on students' achievement. "The investigation of teacher success is important as with better knowledge of the concept, educators can better envisage professional development directions, and enhance the quality of teacher education programs"(Birjandi &Bagherkazemi, 2010, p. 136).

Successful classroom teachers may seem different; they have just struggled for some years to find appropriate and interesting ways of teaching. May be this is an art, but it is clear that without getting the knowledge they couldn't be successful. We know intuitively that these effective teachers can have a strong effect on the daily lives of children and their lifelong educational and career aspirations. We now know empirically that these effective teachers also have a direct influence in enhancing student learning. Years of research on teacher quality support the fact that effective teachers not only make students feel good about school and learning, but also that their work actually results in increased student achievement.

King (2003) states that teaching is a complex activity that is influenced by the multitudinous facets of teacher quality and teacher quality is a crucial predictor of student performance. A successful classroom teacher is one who provides the discipline and environment necessary for student learning. Establishing and maintaining this discipline and environment require the successful application of the essential skills. Shabani and Khorsandi (2014) stated that pedagogically successful teachers determine the strong and weak points of their teaching by comparing their own approaches and methods of teaching with those of others; successful teachers enthusiastically delve into details about how they are acting in classroom. Brookfield (1995) states that successful teachers have some traits like avoiding the unnecessary parts, using different kinds of instructional approaches, teaching with level adaptation but stopping regularly to have on the spot correction or feedback, dwelling on the content and their instructional aims. Lowman (1996) believes that the teachers who are the creators of successful concepts of learning for students are successful ones.

Since teachers play a key role in pedagogical success, there is an urgent need to know them and the characteristics of successful teachers. Is there one teaching style/method that is more successful than others? Like students, teachers are human beings − with different personalities and backgrounds. Through practice and experience, successful teachers apply their skills to develop a personal teaching style/method that fits their own personality, background, and teaching philosophy. Are successful teachers born or made? Some people are born with a 'talent' for teaching and evaluating, but almost anyone can learn the essential skills of a successful teacher.

These teachers are always thinking about ways to improve the educational experience of their students. They critically assess everything they do deciding how to make good student experiences even better and modifying or discarding lessons that produce poor student experiences. Language teachers' perception of classroom management depends on how they see their job as a language teacher (Sarani & Hosseini, 2014). Successful teachers are prepared to give an educational reason for everything that happens in their classroom. They never respond to students in a condescending or confrontational way. Successful teachers know how and when to use assessment in a positive way.

In an EFL classroom, a teacher controls over many factors, such as classroom's physical environment, students mood and behavior, the amount of communication between teacher and students which in turn will affect not only students' motivation for English language learning, but also their environment and behaviour. One of the most important factors for successful teachers related to teachers evaluation in classroom. Moreover, it is necessary for language teachers to investigate how their assessment techniques can affect progress and behavior of different students in their class because teachers' ability in evaluation plays a vital role in the success of any program in education.

The researcher try to demonstrate that is there a significant difference between teacher success with various experience, age and degree. In this regard the present study seeks to answer the following research question:

Does teachers' professional success vary across their age, academic degree and professional seniority?

2. Methodology.

2.1. Participants.

At first some teachers were chosen. They consisted of 40 male and female teachers. They were chosen from EFL teachers in English with different degrees (BA & MA). This study addressed English teachers that worked in different schools, universities and private institutes with the age range of 23 to 50. The selection of teachers was randomly by consent from the respondents. They were informed about the goal of this research and it was carried out with regard to anonymity. In the process of selecting participants, the researcher used a minimum 1-year experience. The questionnaire was given to these teacher's students that consisted of 450 nonnative students age range from10 to 30, which answered the questionnaire (Characteristics of Successful Teachers Questionnaire) .They were asked to answer some likert questions based on their opinion according to teachers' performance in the classroom.

2.2. Instrumentation.

2.2.1. Characteristics of successful teachers questionnaire (CSTQ).

To examine teacher's success, researchers employed Characteristics of Successful Teachers Questionnaire. The CSTQ was administered to the language learners to assess their English teachers' success. The present study was built on the model for a successful EFL teacher proposed by Moafian and Pishghadam (2009), who designed and validated the CSTQ. The analysis of their data yielded some factors for teacher success as a construct, which are: teaching accountability, interpersonal relationships, attention to all, examination, physical and emotional acceptance, empathy, class attendance, and dynamism. CSTQ includes 47 five-point Likert-type items, ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' . It takes 15 minutes to answer all items.

2.3. Data collection procedure.

This study is a quantitative methods. To accomplish the purpose of the research, 1 kinds of Likert questionnaires (Characteristics of Successful Teachers Questionnaire) used. The teacher's success was measured by (CSTQ). This study was carried out in several language institutes, schools and universities. Data was collected from stratified sampling teachers from schools, institutes and universities. the learners of the chosen teachers were asked to answer the questionnaire (CSTQ) to evaluate their teachers' professional success. This was done to probe teacher's success based on different variables.

3. Results.

Researcher's investigation showed that teachers' professional success does not vary across their experience and degree, but the age of teachers was the effective factor in teachers' success. According to King (2003) teacher quality is considered as a vital essence of teaching program which in turn affects the students' performance. Different factors influence teachers' success, so for investigating pedagogical success, researchers can evaluate them based on their situation. As indicated in this study degree and experience didn't affect teachers' success but their age does.

3.1. Analysis of Research Question.

In order to probe the second null hypothesis suggesting that teachers' professional success do not vary across their demographic factors, the factors were classified according to teachers age, degree, and teaching experience**:**

3.1.1. Job Seniority.

In order to probe the second null-hypothesis stating that teachers' professional success do not vary across their professional seniority, they were classified into 4 groups: group 1 (0-5), group 2 (6-10), group 3 (11-

15), and group 4 (16-25) years of teaching experience. Then, a Kruskal-Wallis Test was conducted to screen their success as far as their professional seniority are concerned. Table 3 depicts the result of Kruskal-Wallis Test.

Table 1. Kruskal-Wallis Test for job Seniority

	Job Seniority Groups	N	Mean Rank
Score	below 5(G1)	7	23.64
	6 to 10(G2)	21	19.83
	11 to 15 (G3)	10	20.95
	16 to 25 (G4)	2	14.25
	Total	40	

As indicated in the table the mean rank of the job seniority for the four groups are 23.64, 19.83, 20.95, 14.25. This indicates that teachers with less than 5 years of teaching experience had the higher mean rank and those (group 4) with more than 16 years of teaching experience reported less mean rank. In order to probe if the differences are significant the results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Kruskal Wallis Test Statistics [a,b]

Chi-Square	1.166
df	3
Asymp. Sig.	.761
a. Kruskal Wallis Test	
b. Grouping Variable: Job Seniority	

As indicated in Table 2 there is not a statistically significant difference in the continuous variables across the four groups because the sig value is greater than the .05. Thus the second null hypothesis stating that teachers' professional success does not vary across their professional seniority were supported. The results indicate that despite the differences in the mean ranks reported in the table 3, the Chi-square value was not significant.

3.1.2. Academic degree.

In order to answer the second null hypothesis stating that teachers' professional success do not vary across their academic degree, Mann-Whitney U test was ran. The results are presented in Table.3.

Table 3. Mann-Whitney U test for Teachers' degrees.

	Degree		Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Score	BA	13	11.04	143.50
	MA		12.17	109.50
	Total			

As indicated in the table 3, teachers with MA degrees reported higher mean rank than teachers with BA degree. In order to probe if the differences are statistically significant or not, the results are reported in the table 4. As it can be seen in this table, the mean difference between teachers of different degree is not significant as the p value (.68) is greater than .05.

Table 4. Mann-Whitney U for Teachers' degrees

	Score
Mann-Whitney U	52.500
Wilcoxon W	143.500
Z	-.402
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	**.687**
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.695[b]
a. Grouping Variable: Degree	
b. Not corrected for ties.	

3.1.3. Age.

In order to answer the null hypothesis stating that teachers' professional success does not vary across their age, another Mann-Whintney U test was ran. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Mann-Whintney U test for Teachers' age

	Age	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
score	23 to 33	16	22.16	354.50
	34 to 45	16	10.84	173.50
	Total	32		

As indicated in the table.5, teachers with the age range of 23-33 reported higher mean rank (22.16) than teachers with the age range of 34-45 (10.86). In order to probe if the differences are statistically significant or not, the results are reported in the table 6.

Table 6. Mann-Whitney U test for Teachers' age

	score
Mann-Whitney U	*37.500*
Wilcoxon W	*173.500*
Z	*-3.416*
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	*.001*
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	*.000*[b]
a. Grouping Variable: Age	
b. Not corrected for ties.	

As the table 8 depicts, there is a statistically significant differences in the assessment literacy score of the age range 23 to 33 and 34 to 45. This indicate that the null hypothesis was rejected thus age of teachers' can have a significant factor the assessment literacy of teachers.

4. Discussion.

If you ask a student what makes him or her successful in school, you probably won't hear about some fantastic new book or video lecture series. Most of the students believe on their teacher's ability in teaching process. Educational leaders and researchers agree that teachers have an immense impact on student success. Years of research on teacher quality support the fact that successful teachers not only make students feel good about school and learning, but also that their work actually results in increased student achievement.

The researcher found that teachers' professional success does not vary across their professional seniority and degree, but the age of teachers' can have a significant effect on teachers' success. Many of the experienced teachers have substantial knowledge of their students' learning. This knowledge and experience make the learning environment more conductive for teaching and learning but, it hasn't direct effect on teacher's success.

Several studies have been conducted to find the relationship between teacher success and different factors. For example, in a study, Pishghadam and Moafian (2008) explored the relationship between multiple intelligences and teacher success, reporting that interpersonal, interpersonal, and kinesthetic intelligences can influence teacher success. Moreover, Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011) showed that there is a significant association between EFL teachers' self-efficacy and their success.

Some studies could be found in which the role of demographic variables on teachers‟ reflectivity has been examined. For example, in a study conducted by Odeh, Kurt and Atamtürk (2010), it was revealed that teachers‟ level of education and teaching experience did not make a significant difference in teachers‟ reflection. In addition, Guvenc and Celik (2012) found no significant difference between reflective teaching skills perception of teachers and their teaching experiences. In a study conducted by Karadag and Sadik (2012) among 277 teachers, it was revealed that there was no significant difference in their reflective thinking levels according to their gender. They also found that teachers with higher length of service had a higher reflective thinking tendency. Keshavarzi and Falahati Qadimi Fumani (2015) examined the effect of teachers' reflectivity and gender on their use of intellectual excitement and interpersonal rapport teaching styles among 50 EFL teachers. The results of their study indicated that gender had no effect on teacher's reflectivity. Furthermore, Aghaei and Jadidi (2013) investigated the influence of EFL teachers' language awareness and gender on their reflective behavior. The findings of their study showed that gender had no effect on teachers` reflectivity.

In an EFL classroom, a teacher controls over many factors, such as classroom's physical environment, students mood and behavior, the amount of communication between teacher and students which in turn will affect not only students' motivation for English language learning, but also their environment and behavior. One of the most important factors for successful teachers related to teachers evaluation in classroom. Moreover, it is necessary for language teachers to investigate how their assessment techniques can affect progress and behavior of different students in their class because teachers' ability in evaluation plays a vital role in the success of any program in education.

It is necessary to develop and design programs for EFL teachers the focus of which is improving teacher's ability in teaching and evaluating. The major goal of a successful teacher-training program is to expose prospective teachers to effective teaching strategies and experiences. This will in turn help them to find better method and techniques in assessment that lead to conducting more productive classes and establishing more intimate relationships with students in the class. The finding can also help school authorities in the implementation of professional development programs.

5. Conclusion.

We know intuitively that successful teachers can have an enriching effect on the daily lives of children and their lifelong educational and career aspirations. We now know empirically that these teachers also have direct influence in enhancing student learning. In this study, when we investigated teachers' success based on different variable, it was observed that age can be one of the effective factors in teachers' success. This could be due to increasing teacher's ability based on their age. Teachers are one of the most important attributes that affect each educational system. Teachers' professional success does not vary across their professional seniority and degree, but age of teachers' can have a significant effect on teachers' success. Many of the experienced teachers have substantial knowledge of their students' learning. This knowledge and experience make the learning environment more conductive for teaching and learning but, it hasn't direct effect on teachers' success.

According to Kumaravadivelu (2001), reflective teaching can be considered as the result of post method pedagogy. Reflection has been of great importance and has received noticeable attention in teacher education and it is considered as a key component of teacher development (Griffiths, 2000, Jay and Johnson, 2002). According to Akbari (2007), reflection can increase teachers‟ job satisfaction, interpersonal relationship of teachers with their colleagues and students, and the teachers‟ sense of self-efficacy.

This paper investigates efforts to elicit useful information to improve teaching and learning parts. This lead to some suggestion about what is essential in teaching process that can be predicted by expert people in educational system. Teachers attempt to provide suitable environment for students during learning. Teachers need to acquire acceptable knowledge from appropriate source. They need to learn and use this knowledge in developing, using and analyzing variety of teaching and assessment procedures for making ideal method in learning process.

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Looking at Reformulation Task Types in Writing Classrooms: Theoretical and Empirical Perspective

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Abstract.
One of the hot topics in an EFL/ESL setting revolves around the question of how explicit and how focused CF should be in order to aid learners work more efficiently. Among different topics discussed in writing, reformulation is a pedagogical technique that provides a special kind of input. Writers compare their original work with a new version that has been reformulated by a native speaker, and subsequently revise their own work. It can influence, noticing and shape intake by helping learners to notice the gap. This paper provides a critical look at reformulation in writing though theoretical and empirical perspective. In so doing, this study embarks upon elucidating different classifications of reformulation, different feedback types, along with the concept of noticing which have been interwoven with two crucial cognitive linguistic notions of attention and awareness. The paper ends with some empirical aspect of the reformulation task in writing. This paper has implication for EFL teachers and materials developers.

Keywords: reformulation, noticing, metacognitive, corrective feedback, writing

1. The historical perspective of Reformulation.

The first definition of reformulation was proposed by Levenston (1987). In this definition, learner's composition revised by native speaker. In this revision, original draft's ambiguity, awkwardness, lexical inadequacy, stylistic problems, syntactic and spelling mistakes, and grammatical errors are revised.

Cohen (1983) explains reformulation as ''having a native writer of the target language rewrite the learner's essay, preserving all the learner's ideas, making it sound as native like as possible''. He continued that Native speaker can change text to make it as native one; this change can occur in lexical, syntactic or style (Allwright, Woodley & Allwright, 1988). Some studies consider reformulation as a feedback tool which have often use by output and noticing in the context of L2 writing. The technique of reformulation has potential to affect some disadvantages of traditional feedback methods, which often target non-target like forms (Hanaoka & Izumi, 2012).

Reformulation is a useful technique for providing input in writing skill. In writing and speaking, sometimes learners cannot reach to their communicative goals as a result of lack of L2 knowledge. But in writing, learners have a chance to resolve their problems by different ways like: using model, reference sources, and asking teachers. By using reformulation technique, learners also can compare their text with new version of it and rewrite their text. So reformulation as an immediate input can help learners to solve their difficulties (Williams, 2012).

Reformulation is defined by Cohen (1983) as a technique of 'having a native writer of the target language rewrite the learner's essay, preserving all the learner's ideas, making it sound as native like as possible'. Learners are expected to compare their original writing with the reformulated one 'with regard to vocabulary, syntax, cohesion, and rhetorical functions' (Cohen, 1983). Cohen (1982) found that, compared to typical teacher error correction, reformulations gave more extensive feedback on improving students' essays, especially in the area of cohesion. Student reactions were mostly positive in that reformulations provided them with a complete example of a more native-like way to express their own ideas. Furthermore, Cohen (1983) indicated 'that most students needed assistance in comparing their version with the reformulated one and that these comparisons need to be purposely eye-opening and engaging' .One way of providing such assistance is having learners talk to each other or the teacher as they work through the texts, identifying or noticing changes and discussing why these changes might have been made.

Reformulation is a pedagogical technique that provides a special kind of input. Writers compare their original work with a new version that has been reformulated by a native speaker, and subsequently revise their own work. It provides immediate and focused input where learners can find ways to resolve their communication problems. In other words. Reformulation can influence, noticing and shape intake by helping learners to notice the gap (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Swain, 1998) between their own production and the target language. Based on the results of their study, Swain and Lapkin (2002) suggest that reformulation ''is an effective technique for stimulating noticing and reflection on language''(p. 298). The results of this and other reformulation studies indicate that when learners have an opportunity to compare their work to relevant input, their texts and the language in them generally improve.

Qi and Lapkin (2001) maintain that it is the quality of noticing engendered by reformulation that improves subsequent production. Specifically, they claim that deeper processing of noticed input, which they operationalized as providing reasons for revision, is more likely to lead to learning. In a follow-up study, Adams (2003) isolated the effects of reformulation from repetition and found that reformulation led to more noticing than repetition alone. Sachs and Polio (2007) compared reformulation to error correction and found the latter resulted in more noticing but that reformulation was superior to the control condition. Furthermore, they found that the noticing stimulated by reformulation was related to revision. Hanoaka (2007) found writers were more likely to scan reformulated models for solutions to problems that they had identified for themselves during output, and make revisions in accordance with these suggestions, than to make revisions of problems identified by the native speakers who reformulated the models. As a whole, Hanaoka & Izumi(2007) suggest that the act of writing, which prompts learners to reflect on holes in their knowledge and primes them to focus on specific aspects of future input, combined with the pedagogical technique of reformulation, which provides tailored input and potential resolutions to composing problems, promotes noticing and at least short-term changes in language production. Tocalli-Beller and Swain (2005) note that the cognitive conflict created by this comparison of written learner output and reformulated input prompts a level of noticing and reflection that would not be possible in spoken interaction.

Reformulation tasks provide tailored input. In contrast, repetition tasks provide no new input. Learners simply have an opportunity to write a second draft in response to the same prompt after a period of time. This would seem to be a purer test of the impact of the act of writing alone. For the learners who were asked to revise their original draft without the benefit of feedback in a study by Polio, Fleck, and Leder (1998), simply having a second opportunity to complete the tasks led to improvement. Again, this is likely to be linked to the two salient features of written production. During revision, learners are able to access their explicit L2 knowledge and notice the gap between it and their first draft production. Thus, although some of these claims are applicable to output more generally, other facilitating effects may be specific to written output.

2. Different types of reformulation.

It has been investigated three task types of reformulation in this study: paraphrasing task, comparison task, and description task.

1. Comparison**:** In comparison each student will be given her original text along with the reformulated version in writing class. The intervention aims to help students compare the two versions of the short stories so as to discover all differences to the best of their knowledge. At this stage, students will negotiate together about the differences between the original text and the model text of short stories.At the final step in comparison, the students are asked to write their short stories by themselves.

2. Paraphrasing**.** Paraphrasing can be used as a strategy for avoiding plagiarism (Yamada, 2003). For avoiding plagiarism, students can use substantial paraphrases which are defined by Keck (2006) as including only main words that repeated in the text and related to the topic. Also, they can use superficial paraphrasing in their writing. Keck (2010) said for using this strategy, L2 writers can add new words, delete words, or change with synonyms words. Abbasi and Akbari (2008) argued that many L2 students use superficial paraphrasing to avoid using their own words and this can be due to lack of confidence. Substantial paraphrase by using only the main words doesn't guarantee good paraphrasing (Shi, 2012).

3. Description task. Students in description task were asked to compose a text in response to the picture prompt as a model text. In more details, description RTG was a task where each of student described a picture by writing meaningful sentences on it. Thus, description RTG involved writing a few meaningful sentences or paragraph on a given picture. It let the subjects to frame sentences and form stories on their own.At the final step in description task, students were asked to compare their own writing with origin text to find out all differences .

4. Copying. Sometimes copying in writing skill consider as plagiarism. Copying from source text considered necessary for academic writers to develop their writing. It can be a step before paraphrasing (Chandrasoma, Thompson & Pennycook, 2004; Hyland, 2001). Keck (2006) states that textual borrowing is not necessarily an ill-intention illustration of plagiarism since it can be a learning or developmental process. Researchers say there are differences among plagiarism, novice writers'citation, high level proficiency writers, and summaries (Wette, 2010).

3. Reformulation and corrective feedback.

As Sachs & Polio (2007) point out, even among those who assume that written feedback is helpful, the form that error correction should take remains a contentious issue. This debate has mainly revolved around the question of how explicit and how focused CF should be in order to help learners more effectively (Bitchener, 2008).

Reformulation is one possible form of CF for students' writings. It provides learners with feedback in the form of a re-written version of the learner's original text.

This new version makes the language seem as native-like as possible while keeping the content of the original intact (Thornbury, 1997). Reformulation has been researched both pedagogically (Cohen, 1989; Hedge,

1988; Thornbury, 1997) and empirically (Adams, 2003; Allwright, Woodley & Allwright, 1988; Cohen, 1982; Qi & Lapkin, 2001; Sachs & Polio, 2007; Swain & Lapkin, 2002; Tocalli-Beller & Swain, 2005) and its effectiveness has been widely recognized. However, the studies on reformulation have developed quite independently from the studies on different types of CF.

Bitchener (2008) highlights two important and very explored distinctions in the CF literature: (i) focused/unfocused feedback and (ii) direct/indirect feedback.

Focused feedback only targets specific errors or types of errors while unfocused feedback targets all (or almost all) the errors. Although reformulation has also been used to address specific grammar points (e.g. French pronominal verbs, Lapkin, Swain & Smith, 2002; Tocalli-Beller & Swain, 2005), when reformulating a text every error is transformed into a correct target language (TL) form. Therefore, the CF offered by means of reformulation can be classified as unfocused. On the other hand, reformulation can be said to offer both indirect and direct CF. Direct CF offers learners the correct target language form while indirect CF encourages learners to self-correct the errors by using different strategies, such as underlining or circling errors, recording the number of errors on a given line and using a code to show where the error has occurred and which type of error it is (Bitchener, 2008; Ellis, Sheen,Murakami & Takashima, 2008).

Those in favor of direct CF value this type of feedback because students and teachers prefer it (Ferris & Roberts, 2001) and also, on analogy with discussions of recasts in the oral feedback literature (Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000),because direct corrections are less ambiguous than reformulations. As a matter of fact, reformulations can be perceived by the learner as alternative ways of expressing the same idea instead of being perceived as corrective (Lyster, 1998; Lyster & Ranta,1997). On the contrary, those in favor of indirect CF emphasize that it involves students in a problem-solving task, a type of task which provokes cognitive conflict and might promote acquisition in the long-run (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ferris, 2002). This idea is totally in line with research on reformulation, which has been defined as a strategy that, by presenting information that contradicts students' beliefs,provokes cognitive conflict and enhances learning (Tocalli-Beller & Swain, 2005).The reformulated text can, accordingly, be included as one more strategy for indirect CF. All in all, it must be noted that reformulation straddles the boundary between direct and indirect CF, since it provokes cognitive conflict but it does, in fact, offer a target like alternative just as direct feedback does. This means that with reformulation students might benefit from both the advantages of direct and clear feedback and the advantages of being presented with a cognitive conflict. Corrective feedback has recently gained prominence in studies of ESL and other L2 education contexts, as a number of researchers have looked specially into its nature and role in L2 teaching and learning (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Havranek, 1999; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Much of this research has been motivated by the theoretical claim that, although a great deal of L2 learning takes place through exposure to comprehensible input, learners may require negative evidence (i.e., information about ungrammaticality), in the form of either feedback on error or explicit instruction, when they are not able to discover through exposure alone how their interlanguage differs from the L2 (Bley-Vroman, 1986; Rutherford & Sharwood Smith, 1985, 1988; White, 1987). If corrective feedback is sufficiently salient to enable learners to notice the gap between their interlanguage forms and target language forms (Schmidt & Frota, 1986), the resulting cognitive comparison may trigger a destabilization and restructuring of the target language grammar (Ellis, 1994; Gass, 1997). An additional effect of corrective feedback may be the enhancement of learners' metalinguistic awareness (Swain, 1995).

4. Noticing and different types of feedback.

The concept of *noticing* combines the two crucial cognitive linguistic notions of *attention* and *awareness* (Svalberg, 2007). The Noticing Hypothesis states that subliminal SLA is impossible, and that it is only through conscious attention that input can be converted into intake. Schmidt thus argued that noticing is a necessary condition for language learning.Another essential role associated with attention is its ability to make learners aware of "a mismatch or gap between what they can produce and what they need to produce, as well as between what they produce and what target language speakers produce" (Schmidt, 2001, p. 6). This concept has been commonly referred to as *noticing the gap* (e.g. Schmidt and Frota, 1986). Ellis (1995) used the term *cognitive comparison* rather than noticing the gap because,in his view, learners also need to notice when their output is the same as the input.

When conscious attention to linguistic form is considered facilitative to or even a prerequisite for interlanguage development, focus-on-form interventions such as CF can be expected to support the SLA process (e.g. DeKeyser, 1994; Han, 2002). As Hulstijn and Schmidt (1994) stated, they can be considered cognitive focusing devices for learner attention. In raising learners' awareness of certain linguistic features, CF enables learners to notice the gaps between their own interlanguage output and the target language input (i.e. the feedback provided). Subsequently, these noticing operations could prompt destabilization and restructuring of learners' developing interlanguage grammar (e.g. Gass, 1997; Long, 1996).

Adams (2003) furthermore pointed out at the advantage of written CF over orally provided feedback. Although both modalities provide learners with the opportunity of noticing mismatches between the target language and their interlanguage system, learners might not (always) be able to make the cognitive comparison

in online oral language use. The classic psychological conception of attentional resources is that they are limited (Schmidt,2001); when presented with an overwhelming number of stimuli at any given moment, the human brain might be unable to attend to them all due to a lack of available processing capacity (Al-Hejin, 2004).

When L2 learners' incorrect hypotheses and inappropriate generalizations lead to errors in their written texts, appropriate feedback from the teacher is needed in order to help learners correct these errors. Zhang's (1995) research indicates that L2 learners genuinely and overwhelmingly welcome feedback, especially from the teacher. Error correction is also what most learners want. For example, Leki's (1991) research found that 70% of the 100 learners surveyed expected all their errors to be corrected. In the context of L2 acquisition, error is referred to as the discrepancy between the learner's interlanguage (IL) and the native speaker's version, i.e., the TL (James, 1998). However, research results regarding what is considered to be appropriate and effective feedback on students' errors in writing ''have been inconclusive, sometimes contradictory, and in L2 writing,sparse'' (Leki, 1990).

Some research has tried to identify factors that may influence the effectiveness of written feedback. One such factor is that the teacher's feedback may be unclear, inaccurate, and may lack balance among form, content, and style (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990). A second factor may relate to a possible lack of sensitivity of teachers to different contexts as well as to varying levels of need, ability, and other individual differences of students in providing feedback (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Ferris, Pezone, Tade, & Tinti, 1997; Hyland, 1998).

Another critical factor, as we view it, is that the type of feedback the teacher offers to the learner does not provide optimal conditions to help learners notice their errors, i.e., the gap between their IL and the TL when they receive and process the feedback. James (1998) compares noticing the gap as similar to learners doing their own error analysis (EA), as both entail making a comparison between IL and TL.Ellis' (1995) notion of ''cognitive comparison'' roughly refers to this same idea. However, James has identified a difference between Ellis' ''cognitive comparison'' and EA. Cognitive comparison refers to the learner's noticing of a linguistic entity in TL input before comparing it with his/her own IL version of it. However, EA proceeds in the converse direction: The learner first notices a problematic formulation in his/her own production before comparing it with a TL version of it. According to James, it is not just preferable but necessary that the forms learners notice and cognitive comparisons they make ''are based on their own recent learning experience, particularly where that experience is negative'' .This EA sense of cognitive comparison is consistent with the output hypothesis in that both emphasize the important role of noticing derived from output in L2 learning.

A key function of reformulation is its provision of opportunity for noticing. If cognitive comparison is essential to learning as discussed earlier, we should select feedback types on the basis of their capacity to promote noticing and EA. Some criteria for appropriate types of feedback should be their potential to encourage learners to pay attention to form and, moreover, provide learners with TL data so that they can make comparisons between their IL and a TL model of it.

Thornbury (1997) proposes that reformulation is one feedback type that meets these criteria. Johnson (1988, cited in Thornbury, 1997) argues that ''exposing learners to the target behavior after the event—rather than providing a model beforehand—has greater psychological validity, in that the learners are predisposed to look out for (and notice) those features of the modeled behavior that they themselves had found problematic in the initial trial run (or first draft)'' (see Thornbury, 1997). This idea is also argued for in output theory. That is, the problems learners encounter in output could ''trigger an analysis of incoming data, that is, a syntactic analysis of input'' (Swain & Lapkin, 1995).

5. The Effect of Noticing on EFL Learners' Writing Performance.

Generally, teachers and researchers recognize part of the role of instruction is to promote beneficial language learning habits. For instance, Lightbown and Spada (1999) review SLA research that shows that one important aspect of classroom language teaching is helping learners to notice form in the L2 through various techniques that direct learners to pay attention to form while they are in the process of communicating in the L2. Such instruction not only allows learners to become more accurate regarding the form in focus but also promotes a language learning skill that learners can carry with them beyond the present instructional situation. It seems that encouraging learner autonomy is increasingly recognized as a beneficial practice to promote language learning. Therefore, it is necessary to explore language learning tasks that encourage learner autonomy and that also lead to gains in accuracy in the second language. The present study is an attempt to find such a task suitable for the advanced ESL writing classroom.

Research in SLA emphasizes the need to help L2 learners notice their own L2use in comparison to the use of the target language as produced by native speakers. Doughty and Williams state that 'one of the central issues in Focus on Form (FonF) research is how to lead the learner's attention to a linguistic mismatch between IL (interlanguage) and TL (target language)'(1998: 238). It is argued that the recognition of this mismatch between the learner's IL and the TL promotes language learning. The FonF literature seems to imply that the recognition of the mismatch is an autonomous process for language learners.

Research on noticing in L2 acquisition has largely focused on input. Based on Schmidt (1990), Batstone (1996) defines ''noticing'' as ''the intake of grammar as a result of learners paying attention to the input'' where

‘‘intake’’ refers to ‘‘input which becomes part of the learning process’’ In this definition, noticing is equated with intake that is derived from the source of input. It can be argued, however, that in the broader context of language acquisition, it is not just intake that stems from an input source that can become part of the learning process. There are types of intake that do not stem from the input source but are generated in output (Swain, 1985) that may also be significant for L2 acquisition.

Swain (1985) has proposed the output hypothesis and argues that comprehensible output is a necessary mechanism of acquisition independent of the role of comprehensible input. She points out that producing the TL may be the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning.

Swain (1995, 1998) further argues that the noticing/triggering function of output can prompt L2 learners to recognize consciously some of their linguistic problems. It may make them aware of something they need to find out about their L2. L2 writing studies that employ think-aloud research techniques support the claim that output stimulates noticing of problems that prompts learners to engage in some kind of analysis of their existing linguistic resources in order to resolve these problems (Cumming, 1990; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Qi, 1998).

According to the most extreme views, such as Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2002; Sheen, 2007, Fathman and Whalley, 1990; Ferris and Roberts, 2001; Robb et al., 1986) CF is of value in promoting greater grammatical accuracy. In contrast, Several researchers have argued that written CF does not have a positive effect on the development of students’L2 writing accuracy (Kepner, 1991; Truscott, 2007; Sheppard, 1992). For example, Sheppard (1992) analyzed the effects of two types of CF (indirect error coding CF vs. holistic comments in the margins) on the development of L2 students’ accurate use of verb tense, punctuation, and subordination. His students wrote seven essays which then were analyzed for accuracy with regard to the targeted linguistic features. He reported that the group that received holistic comments outperformed the group that received CF and further noted that the CF group regressed over time by avoiding the use of the complex structures as a result of the CF. This led him to conclude that grammar error correction had a negative effect.

6. Pedagogical Implications.

This study indicates clear and positive findings, in line with previous studies, in support of such a pedagogical method, because a large benefit was gained for a rather small amount of time. Overall, the findings provide empirical support for EFL instructors to provide feedback to their student writers through reformulation as an implicit feedback. The conclusion is that reformulating can help students develop writing accuracy and it also provided information and how this information can be used to provide valuable insights to the writer. The key benefit of such a procedure was that is actually provided one complete example of a more native-like way to express the writer’s same idea, rather than simply fixing up the language that students already knew how to use ,however ,inappropriately.

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Learning and Reflection Through Collaborative Writing

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Abstract.
Writing in general is a complicated process through which ideas are created and expressed. It is a medium of human communication that represents language through the inscription or recording of signs and symbols. The main focus is the learners' writing development in the case of fluency. Collaborative writing is the new perspective in writing skill in which instructiveness and social process make the bedrock of this type of writing. It involves a team focused on a common objective that negotiates, coordinates, and communicates during the creation of a common document. The potential scope of collaborative writing goes beyond the more basic act of joint composition to include the likelihood of pre- and post task activities, team formation, and planning. A reflective journal is a steadily growing document where learners record their reflections and thoughts on what they are learning and how it is changing their belief system about language teaching and learning. This paper provides a sketchy overview of theoretical and practical perspective on learning in group. To do so, it is delimited to the collaborative writing.
Keywords: Collaborative writing, reflection, learning, group work, pair work

1. Introduction.

According to Gillies and Ashman (2003) there are two distinguished theoretical viewpoints on how students learn by interacting with each other. One of them is based on the social constructivist view of Vygotsky (1978). The sociocultural perspective is essentially a social term rather than individual in nature, where interaction constitutes the learning process (Lantolf & Paulenko 1995; Lantolf & Thorne 2006). Vygotsky (1978) based his paradigm on collaborative learning, claiming that working with more capable person is pertinent to personal development. Vygotsky focused on the individual powerfully rooted in a collaborative learning context and famously made the following observations.

The other perspective about group learning is on the basis of Piaget`s (1932) theory of socio-cognitive conflict, which occurs when children have to reinvestigate their comprehension and viewpoints considering the opposition that happens from interacting with others. When this occurs, children think out their own comprehension and search for extra information to explain the opposition and try to conciliate their viewpoints and comprehension to resolve any incompatibilities.

2. Group Work.

In the second half of the twentieth century, research about behaviors of people in groups grew noticeably. This can be mostly related to two movements in the social sciences. One of them included the acknowledgement that groups influence individuals in various ways and these influences need to be measured. The other one included the evolution of a number of innovative behavioral science methodologies that empowered group behaviors to be computed and recorded (Gillies and Ashman, 2003).

According to Dornyei and Murphey (2003) class groups are characterized by important communication amongst students. They have a formal aim; they are usually activated for months if not years, they are clearly identifiable units with which learners usually identify strongly. They are favorably arranged and usually a student`s good or bad performance or behavior mirrors well or badly on the other class members.

Group work (in language teaching) is learning activity which involves a small group of learners working together. The group may work on a single task, or on different parts of a larger task. Tasks for group members are often selected by members of the group (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p.234). Bright and Mc Gregor (1970) state that group work is a classroom condition where students can work within smaller units or groups. By interacting in groups, students have the opportunity to oral exchange (Cited in Boussiada , 2010).

3. Principles of Group-based Learning.

There are some basic principles for a successful group work. Olsen and Kagan (1992) recommend the following key elements of successful group-based learning in cooperative learning: *positive interdependence, group formation, individual accountability, social skills, structuring and structures.*

Positive interdependence happens when every group member believes that what helps one member helps all the group members and what harms one member, harms all. *Group formation* is a main factor in making positive interdependence. Group formation is related to making decisions about the size of groups, the age of the members and the group members` responsibilities. *Individual accountability* includes both group and personal performance, for instance, by appointing every student a mark on his or her part of team project, to share with whole group members. *Structuring and structure* relate to ways of arranging students` communication and various methods for their interaction (Cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p.196-197).

4. Different Types of Groups (teams).

Kagan and Kagan (2009) mention that there are four different basic types of cooperative teams:

1. Heterogeneous groups are mixed groups .The heterogeneous group is a reflection of a classroom. As much as possible it includes low, middle and high achievers, males and females and ethnic and linguistic variety.

2. Homogeneous groups are arranged according to shared student attributes. Homogenous groups may be arranged on the basis of students` ability level.

3. Random groups are teams arranged by chance. For example, every student could be given a number similar to the teams in the class.

4. Student –selected groups are teams in which sometimes students are permitted to choose their own teams. Student-selected teams can be used at the start of the school year on the incidental basis for fun or practice.

5. Inter-member Relationship in Group.

According to Shaw (1981) the first event in a group interaction is the creation of a relationship between two or more persons that is often referred to as group formation. It is obvious that the formation of a group is a constant process. Although the creation of the first relationship is a necessary condition for group existence but changing of the group during its existence is a perpetual process. The relationships among group members are adjusted gradually (Dornyei &Murphey, 2003).

Shaw (1981) and Schmuck and Schmuck (2001) believe that some factors such as physical attractiveness, attitude similarities, personality, noticed abilities, hobbies, living conditions, economic and family status cause initial attractiveness in group formation." However, in a healthy group initial attraction links are progressively replaced by a deeper and steadier type of interpersonal relationship that is acceptance (Dornyei & Murphey, 2003, p.18)".

6. Students` Roles in Groups.

In order to achieve the group objectives, each group member should have specific roles. "Roles and gambits depict an effective approach to develop social skills. When students accomplish their roles, they are practicing significant social skills" (Kagan &Kagan, 2009, p.291). Since roles are circulated, students have the chance to play various cooperative roles. Kagan and Kagan (2009) also introduce different roles for the group members as follows:

Encourager: that encourages group mates to partake and perform well.

Praiser: that appreciates group mates` opinion and contribution.

Cheer leader: that guides the team in celebrating personal or group performance. Gate keeper: that makes sure each member is taking part in group work equally. Coach : that trains teammates on solving problems.

Question commander: that checks if any group member has a question.

Quiet captain: that is responsible for decreasing the group`s noise.

Checker: that checks to make sure every member has learned the material.

7. Teacher`s Role in Cooperative Learning

A teacher`s role in a cooperative language learning class significantly differs from the role of teachers in traditional teacher-fronted classes. "The teacher must produce well –organized and highly arranged learning situations in the classroom. She / he has to set goals, construct physical arrangement of the classroom, plan and organize tasks, appoint students to groups and roles, choose time and materials (Johnson et al, 1994, cited in Richards &Rodgers, 2001, p.199)". According to Mc Donell (1992), teachers in cooperative learning are investigators, observers, facilitators and change agents. Teachers help their students identify and categorize significant knowledge and develop level of perception instead of installing knowledge to students (Cited in Tsu Yeh , 2008).

8. Advantages and Disadvantages of Group Work.

Badache (2003) outlined the advantages of group work from academic, social and psychological points of view. From an academic point of view group work improves oral communication and higher level thinking skills, and encourages students to be responsible for their own learning. It elevates class participation and higher attainment. Group work also provides a situation that weaker students improve their performance through communication with higher-achieving students.

From the social point of view, group work makes more positive heterogeneous association. It improves social interaction and helps teachers alter their roles from being the center of teaching to be facilitators. From a psychological point of view, group work elevates students` contentment with learning experiences, encourages shy students to take part in classroom activities and it also decreases students` classroom anxiety.

According to Mackay and Tom (1999) Group Work decreases the domination of the teacher`s talk in the classroom and enhances the students` practice of target language. It also enhances the chance of authentic negotiation. Group Work elevates students` collaboration and they can have oral interaction purposefully.

Despite the stated advantages of group work, it may have some disadvantages as well. It may cause the students to lose their self-reliance. In the students` viewpoint, their classmates` help, may be less valuable than

the teacher`s. Some students may resent being corrected by their group members (Cited in Boussiada, 2010, p.18).

Jiang (2009) also summarized that group work provides a positive affective situation for students. It enhances the students` self-confidence and self-esteem. Group work elevates the students` social interaction. It is the start of making learners flexible and independent. Jiang (2009) also stated demerits of group work such as unequal participation of students and also unequal donation of success of the group.

9. Pair Work.

Many theories and language teaching approaches highlight the importance of pair work (e.g. communicative approach, task based learning) as a form of collaborative learning. Furthermore, Lightbown and Spada (1999) state that students are able to develop their language competence and achieve a better performance in a collaborative environment than they would be capable of the independently. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002, P. 381) pair work is a learning activity which involves learners to work together in pairs. Another definition that ties pair work to learning is by Moon (2000) who defines pair work as a strategy "to organize them (students) in ways that will maximize opportunities for learning" (p. 53). Working in pairs enriches and promotes meaningful interaction between the learners and as a result will increase their language production.

10. Advantages and disadvantages of Pair Work.

Although, it is quite clear that pair work is a valuable method to implement in EFL classroom, there could be some disadvantages of pair work implementation. Hadfield (1992, p. 110) argued that "In many ways pair work or small group work can be a destructive activity". On the one hand, one advantage of pair work is that it increases learners' opportunities to use the language. Pair work provides an effective method to use language as it is used in normal life. This matches Moon's claims that pair work is "valuable in providing more opportunities for more language exposure" (2000, p. 54); this enables students of expressing themselves and express their own ideas in English.

On the other hand, there are some possible problems with pair work tasks. According to the researcher's experience classroom management might be negatively affected during pair work. Harmer (2001) argued that students might deviate from the main topic and talk about something else during pair work (p. 116). The same issue was raised by Moon (2000) claiming that pair work could lead to misbehavior and may distract learners from effective learning. Moreover, pair work might help one learner rather than the other. Consequently, as argued by Hadfield (1992) that we need to understand that though "pair work is in essence divisive in that it fragments the class….. I am not, of course, suggesting that we abandon pair work. Therefore, pair work has a vital function in language learning so we can't ignore it, but at the same time we should be careful not to lead to "a sense of fragmentation, conflict, or purposelessness" (Hadfield 1992, p. 110).

11. Pair Work and Writing Performance.

Writing as one of the constituents of second language learning refers to second language learners` performance in writing. Changing groups and partners progressively, gives the students confidence to write with everybody. Ongoing pair work or group work gives a lot of chances to students for using language more than in a teacher-fronted classroom. Group work is a meaningful action, because students need to concentrate on meaningful discussions and information exchanges.

According to Harel (1992) “In traditional classrooms, teachers talked 75% of the time in the class”. In this situation, students scarcely talk or interact with their classmates or teacher. On the other hand, in communicative language learning classrooms in which students participate in group work, teachers spend nearly 25% of the time to speak in the classroom (Cited in Tsu-Yeh, 2008).

Pair work enables you to engage students in interactive communication for short period of time with a minimum of logistical problems according to Brown (2007). Topping (2001) defines paired writing as a structured system for effective learning in writing.

12. Collaborative Writing

According to Bosley, (1989), Collaborative Writing means two or more people working together to produce a document with group responsibility for the end product. "Collaborative Learning is an approach to teaching that makes maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the classroom "(Richards & Rodgers 2001, p.192)."Cooperative learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is depend on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others (Olsen &Kagan 1992, P. 8)".

“Cooperative or collaborative learning essentially involves students learning from each other in groups. But it is not the group configuration that makes cooperative learning distinctive; it is the way that students and teachers work together that is important.”(Freeman, 2000, p.164)

13. Collaborative Format of Learning.

Learning in collaborative setting is a social interaction involving a community of learners and teachers, where members acquire and share experience or knowledge. Collaborative learning can provide the opportunity

for students to work together in a positive affective climate, where they are motivated by their own learning to focus both meaning and form and to engage in genuine communicative practice. Collaborative learning is, therefore, a significant factor in students' learning because it promotes active learning and student-reliance in classrooms.

Learning is shifting from passive reception to active creation. Students tend to take more ownership of their material and to think critically about related issues when they work as a team. The collaboration process enhances students' learning and develops their social skills like decision-making, conflict management, and communication. In the collaborative learning process, a student must formulate ideas about the material assigned to him, test his assumptions, clarify them, conclude, and then assimilate that material within him. Once he feels that he "owns" the material, he must explain it to his group so that his knowledge can be pooled together and shared among all his group members. Each student, thus, is a dynamic contributor to both the learning and the teaching process. When questions are raised, different students will have a variety of responses. Each of them can help the group create a product that reflects a wide range of perspectives and is thus more complete and comprehensive.

Undergraduate students at Bangkok University, in the nine faculties: Humanities, Business Administration, Accounting, Communication Arts, Fine and Applied Arts, Sciences and Technology, Laws, Economics, and Engineering, are required to take at least three English courses. Each course consists of four skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. It is found that most students always get low scores in the writing assignments and tests. As mentioned earlier, among various teaching methods, collaboration among students is an interesting alternative in terms of creating helpful and active learning environments. Our Language Institute decided to implement collaborative learning in many language courses to improve students' writing skills. In a collaborative learning environment, students help one another to compose a writing task. They can learn from each other through the editing process until they get the final product. In terms of learning motivation, students who work in collaborative groups appeared to be satisfied with their classes, and their learning motivation improved respectively.

Nevertheless, there is a limitation of collaboration in classrooms. Students may not have much time to read and build on each other's work; however, in collaborative online environments, they are given this opportunity Having students working together is not restricted to in-class communication. Online collaborative writing improved fluency and accuracy and valued the opportunity to share feedback with peers.

14. Learning and Reflection.

First of all, learning, reflection and their relation should be identified. Learning has an extensive area to discover. Although the main focus of this research is related to learning a foreign language in general. Reflection is a part of learning where there is new material of learning. It seems that reflection is involved in meaningful learning where the learner is seeking to make sense of new material for himself, linking it to what he knows already and if necessary, modifying her prior knowledge and understandings to accommodate the new ideas.

Reflection is also associated with situations where there is no new material of learning where we make sense of knowledge and understandings that we have already learnt. The result of this reflective process is often the development of new ideas or in fact, more learning.

We learn from the representation of learning. When we represent learning in writing (for example), in a sense it becomes new material of learning and we can reinforce the learning or check our understanding of it, using it as a feedback system. The use of learning journals is an example of a method in which this mechanism is exploited. Reflection also facilitates learning by enhancing the conditions that seem to favor learning (Moon, 1999).

The provision of 'intellectual space' (Barnett, 1997), it slows the pace of learning, the development of a sense of ownership of learning which has long been recognized as an important basis of learning (Rogers, 1969). The development and improvement of the process of learning to learn. Students who achieve well are more often students who are aware of their own learning processes – their weaknesses and strengths (Ertmer &Newby, 1996).

In addition, reflective – or personally expressive writing seems sometimes to be more effective as a medium for learning (Elbow, 1973) and problem solving (Selfe &Arbabi, 1986).

Reflection generally helps the emotional side of learning in a general manner. In simplified terms, it could be said to support the development and maintenance of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995).

15. The Concept of Reflection.

Students need to know that they all can reflect, but that it may not be a habit that some use in a conscious manner. It can be helpful to give them a simple definition.

For example, that reflection is a form of thinking that deals with more complex or unstructured issues in a considered manner. It may be a matter of 'making sense of ideas, or 're-ordering thoughts'. If students do not understand what it is to 'be reflective', it can be useful to almost trick them into being reflective for a moment. Do this by asking them, for example, to think and talk about what they have learnt most from recent experiences such as from the past year of being in higher education. They are likely to be reflective.

16. Using Reflection to Facilitate the Area of Learning.

The response to this issue will depend on the purpose for the work in which reflection is involved. The answer might include the following:

The idea that we use reflection in order to learn from situations in which there is no curriculum – but where we have to make sense of diverse observations, ideas and data as well as personal research.

The idea that, reflection is used to make sense of unstructured situations in order to generate new knowledge. It is important to be clear that the activity might be introducing the skill of reflective learning or generating knowledge by using reflection to make sense of something.

17. What is Reflective Practice?

Donald Schön, in his influential book The Reflective Practitioner, developed the term "reflective practice" (Schön 1983). Schön introduced the concepts of "reflection-in-action" (thinking on your feet) and "reflection-on-action" (thinking after the event). Schön focused his attention on five professional fields – engineering, architecture, psychotherapy, town planning, and education – and talked of the inextricable link between the concept of professionalism and the process of reflective practice.

Recognizing that professionals face unique and challenging situations on a daily basis, Schön argues that the most effective professionals use their previous experiences to better understand how and why things happen. Schön's work has been instrumental in influencing practice around the world by encouraging professionals to take responsibility for improvements on and in practice.

Ghaye and Ghaye (1998) interviewed 50 educators and received a different description of reflective practice from each one, highlighting the divergent understandings of what reflective practice is and what it actually involves.

Reflective practice is described by MacNaughton (2003) as "an intellectually engaged activity geared to changing practices by transforming knowledge". The work of Gruska, et.al (2005) describes reflective practice as a continuous process rather than a one off event involving, "repeated cycles of examining practice, adjusting practice and reflecting on it, before you try it again".

Daudelin (1996) believes the process of reflection originates in the work of Socrates and his continual challenging and questioning of his student Plato. Daudelin (1996) also believes John Locke's famous publication, "An Essay Concerning Human Understanding" (Locke, 1690) helped to lay the philosophical foundations of our subsequent understanding of reflective practice as a crucial way of learning. Dewey's (1933) distinction between "routine action" (action driven by habit and routine) and "reflective action" (action given careful consideration and justification) is cited frequently in the literature. Dewey is attributed with having extended the notion of reflection as being critical to the development of professional practice (MacNaughton, 2003; Gahye, 2005; Gruska et al, 2005; Fernsten and Fernsten, 2005).

Pollard (2002) has identified the following seven characteristics of reflective practice as useful in helping early childhood professional gain a collective understanding of what reflective practice involves and how it can improve child outcomes:

1. An active focus on goals, how these might be addressed and the potential consequences of these
2. A commitment to a continuous cycle of monitoring practice, evaluating and re-visiting it
3. A focus on informed judgements about practice, based on evidence
4. Open-minded, responsive and inclusive attitudes
5. The capacity to re-frame one's own practice in light of evidence-based reflections and insights based on research
6. Dialogue with other colleagues, in-house and with external networks
7. The capacity to mediate and adapt from externally developed frameworks, making informed judgments and defending or challenging existing practice (Pollard, 2002).

In recent years, reflective practice in early childhood education has also been influenced by action research, which aims to bring about positive change in order to better respond to the needs of children and families. This process relies on critical reflection.

Critical reflection draws on the work of Habermas, a German critical social theorist (Pinar et al, 1995) who identifies three main ways of thinking (adapted from MacNaughton, 2003):

1. Technical: when professionals are concerned with finding out how things happen and how they can control this. This way of thinking often leads to conformist practices that reinforce existing understandings.
2. Practical: when professionals are concerned with finding out what things mean to other people. This way of thinking is concerned with understanding events rather than trying to control them and often involves reforming thinking as professionals try to gain new insights.
3. Critical: when professionals examine whether what they know might somehow be biased. This way of thinking is most likely to lead to transformed ways of thinking as professionals ask themselves critical questions about whose needs are being met by the knowledge and beliefs that they have.

Importantly, critical reflection in early childhood education is defined by this third way of thinking where early childhood professionals analyze practice in light of their own assumptions about children's learning and development and question what beliefs and values they bring to their practice.

The research shows that reflective practice is a crucial way of learning and extending professional understanding. Reflection and critical reflection are highly personal processes that require the professional to take daily experiences, internalize them, turn them over in their mind and filter these new thoughts through previous lived experiences and personal values and biases, before deciding how best to proceed.

The catalyst for reflection can be either internal or external; it can be self-reflective or involve others. Reflection can be spontaneous or can be deliberately planned. Reflection can provide both the basis and the motivation for further inquiry which serves as a guide for future behaviour to improve our practice and ultimately the outcomes for children (Dewey, 1933; Schön, 1983; Daudelin, 1996; Pollard, 2002; MacNaughton, 2003).

It is clear from the research and the discussion above that there are many interpretations of reflective practice. The definitions are influenced by the person who is reflecting and by the reason which has prompted the reflection to take place (Chitpin & Simon, 2009; Daudelin, 1996; Kinsella, 2009). A synthesis of the research suggests that in education, reflective practice is described as a continuous process that involves the professional analyzing their practice in order to identify what drives children's learning and development, as well as the impact of their values on children's learning and development.

18. Reflective Practice and Learning.

Research tells us that educator who regularly reflects on what they do, why they do, it and how this new knowledge can be used to improve their practice achieve the best outcomes for children and families (MacNaughton, 2005; Sylva et al, 2004; Siraj-Blatchford et al, 2008; Raban et al, 2007). A study of early childhood care and education across 20 countries found that improvements in children's long-term outcomes are achievable for all children when early learning experiences are high quality.

Reflective practice and critically reflective practice are features of high quality learning environments. Reflective practice allows early childhood professionals to develop a critical understanding of their own practice, and continually develop the necessary skills, knowledge, and approaches to achieve the best outcomes for learners.

The longitudinal findings of the Effective Provision of Pre-school Education (EPPE) project (Sylva et al, 2004[1]) found that high quality early childhood settings had positive effects on children's development both intellectually and socio-emotionally. The study also found the higher quality the early learning environment, the better the outcomes for children (Sammons, 2010; Sammons et al, 2002). Further research concluded that children were found to make better all round progress in settings where professionals were aware of children's individual learning styles; where educators had a good understanding of appropriate pedagogical content and where there was a strong commitment to on-going professional inquiry (Siraj-Blatchford, Taggart, Sylva, Sammons, Melhuish, 2008). This knowledge is developed when early childhood professionals reflect on their practice and on the impact of their values, attitudes, and decisions on children.

The Convention signals a shift in ideologies about children and childhood, moving away from the concept of children as passive recipients of adult intervention who lack the capacity to make their own decisions (Lansdown, Children's Welfare and Children's Rights, 2000) and towards an ideology of children as active citizens with their own unique rights. In order to effectively incorporate the views of children, professionals need to continually challenge and reflect on the impact of their work on children (Copple, 2003; Amobi, 2005; Broadhead 2006, DEECD, 2009).

Professionals do this by reflecting on and adopting flexible images of children and childhood and reconsidering the roles they play in children's lives (Bae, 2009; Dall'Alba, 2009). Reflecting on and posing critical questions about the possible unfairness or inequalities of preconceived ideas about children has been identified as crucial in becoming more objective in how images of children are constructed (MacNaugton, 2003; Smith, 2007).

Reflective practice can also help professionals to create real opportunities for children to express their own thoughts and feelings and actively influence what happens in their lives. Adults can do this by considering the power inequalities between themselves and children and by engaging reflectively with the how and what of the things, they do.

In addition, children who experience respect for their views are more inclined to take responsibility for their actions. Evidence from as early as 1980 showed that the degree to which a person feels "in control" of their life affected other measures of their well-being and self-esteem, even amongst babies (Maccoby, 1980).

They are swamped with such a large amount of schoolwork, numerous tests, and exams that they neither have the time to reflect on the knowledge they acquire nor are encouraged to connect what they have learned with their experiences in order to obtain insight or inspiration.

[1]The EPPE study focused on the effects of pre and school provision in 3000 children between the ages of 3 – 7 years old from a variety of socio-economic backgrounds in the UK.

Schon (1984) stated that when practitioners become so familiar with a practice that it turns into a routine, they may no longer value what they are doing and eventually feel bored or "burned out" (p. 61). The purpose of the learning process is to create meaning, which requires students to voice and reflect on what they know (Jonassen, Davidson, Collins, Campbell, & Haag, 1995).

It is through constant reflection that one reaches the goal of the learning process, which is to make meaning. Interactive journal writing serves as a channel through which students can articulate and reflect on what they learn (Peyton, 1993a). Through reflective writing, students can connect their thoughts, feelings, and experiences to the learning activities implemented at school (Andrusyszyn & Davie, 1997). Dialogue journal is a written conversation between a teacher and an individual student, which is quite confidential and is an on-going writing throughout a whole semester or school year (Peyton & Reed, 1990).

It is a student-centered curriculum in which students decide the writing topics (Peyton, 2000). Teachers do not evaluate/rate performance or correct errors but write and respond as a "partner" in a conversation (Peyton & Reed, 1990, p. 4). Dialogue journal writing supports the writing process by providing an authentic two-way written interaction between writing partners, which are usually the teacher and the student (Edelsky, 1986; Peyton & Reed, 1990; Urzua, 1987).

Students trust and get close acquaintance with the reader/responder of dialogue journal writing, so they attend to specifics more and explain their ideas in more detail to meet their reader/responder's needs, and feel comfortable with letting out their emotions (Alexander, 2001).

Studies have been conducted to examine the efficacy of DJW on students' learning or affective factors and have found positive effects. Dialogue journals are beneficial to emergent readers and writers (Bloem, 2004).

One of the benefits of DJW to L2 language learners is the development of writing fluency (Holmes & Moulton, 1997; McGrail, 1996; Peyton, 1990, 2000). Students' use of language in terms of "the number of words, T-units [Minimal Terminable Unit], cohesive ties, and rhetorical complexity" was more enhanced in their dialogue journals than in their assigned writing (Peyton & Reed, 1990, cited in Holmes & Moulton, 1995, p. 225). Students' expression of personal views and writing purpose was improved through dialogue journal writing (Carroll & Mchawala, 2001). In addition, numerous researchers have confirmed that one of the most significant benefits of DJW is the reduction of students' English writing apprehension (Holmes, 1994; Jones, 1991; Lucas, 1990; Peyton, Staton, Richardson, & Wolfram, 1990; Staton, 1988b) in that DJW increases students' writing confidence.

Therefore, they are more willing to take risks to write. With the reduction of writing apprehension, students take the challenge to write more and frequently, thus improving their writing skills (Holmes & Moulton, 1995). One of the participants in Holmes and Moulton's (1995) study reported that his reduced apprehension about the organization/pattern in writing encouraged him to take greater risks with his writing.

Alexander (2001) discovered that dialogue journal recorded ESL students' writing development, which fostered the students' writing confidence.

Hsu (2006) conducted a 16-week study to investigate the effects of dialogue journal writing and guided journal writing on the writing proficiency and writing apprehension of EFL senior high school students in Taiwan. Two classes of 10th-grade students in National Kangshan Senior High School in Kaohsiung County participated in the study with one class designated as the dialogue journal group and the other the guided writing group. The study findings showed that both groups made improvement in their writing proficiency, and both groups' writing apprehension was also reduced at the end of the study. However, the dialogue journal writing was found more significantly effective in reducing students' writing apprehension. Except for Hsu's study, research on the effect of dialogue journal writing on students' writing apprehension has rarely been conducted. Moreover, the benefits of DJW to L2 language learners include the development of motivation (Holmes & Moulton, 1997; Lucas, 1990; Peyton et al., 1990; Trites, 2001) and reflective awareness of new experiences and emerging knowledge (Andrusyszyn & Davie, 1997; Bednar, Cunningham, Duffy, & Perry, 1992; Carroll & Mchawala, 2001; Jonassen, 1994; Jonassen et al., 1995; Peyton, 1993a; Trites, 2001). Earlier studies have shown that dialogue journal writing is helpful in enhancing students' writing motivation, especially that of reluctant and slow student writers (Lucas, 1990; Peyton , 1990; Staton, 1987). However, few studies have explored dialogue journal writing from students' perspectives.

One of the few studies, which were conducted by Holmes and Moulton (1997), investigated the perspectives of second-language university students on dialogue journal writing as a strategy for learning English. Twenty-one students in an urban southwestern U.S. university took part in the study. The data were collected from the students' dialogue journal entries and interviews. After keeping dialogue journals for 15 weeks, students reported that their writing fluency and motivation were both promoted.

One student noted that she was at first intimidated by writing, but she developed her passion for writing because of dialogue journals. Another student concluded that journals reduced her fear of writing and motivated her to write more.

In addition, students in Trites' (2001) study enjoyed sharing with their teacher and peers their ideas, and built strong rapport with them in writing their dialogue journals. In terms of reflective awareness, Carroll and

Mchawala's (2001) study showed that ESL students' awareness of academic writing conventions, as well as an understanding of others' and their own views, was effectively facilitated through dialogue journal writing. In addition, Trites (2001) found that when ESL students evaluated their L1 and L2 learning processes in dialogue journal writing, they developed awareness of their weaknesses and strengths in language learning, achieved autonomy, understood more about similar and different cultural backgrounds, and improved their reflective thinking.

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How to develop learner autonomy?

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Abstract.
The issue of leaner autonomy is of general concern in SLA community. Over the last two decades, the concepts of learner autonomy and independence have gained momentum, the former becoming a 'buzz-word' within the context of language learning (Little, 1995, P. 178). It is a truism that one of the most important spin-offs of more communicatively oriented language learning and teaching has been the premium placed on the role of the learner in the language learning process (Reinder, 2010). It goes without saying that this shift of responsibility from teachers to learners does not exist in a vacuum, but is the result of changes to the curriculum itself towards a more learner-centered kind of learning. The current presentation is an attempt to present some preliminary reflections on learner autonomy, review the key issues related to the topic and finally it does its best to delineate how the learner autonomy can be fostered within a classroom situation.
Keywords: learner autonomy, self-regulation, self-direction, critical thinking, decision making

1. Introduction.

In several theoretical papers about the definitions of learner autonomy, probably the most frequently cited one is Henri Holec's definition. Holec (1981, p. 3, as cited in Dislen, 2011) defines autonomy as 'the ability to take charge of one's learning'. Holec (1981) explained that autonomous learners have the ability to make all the decisions related to their learning: from determining objectives and defining the content to selecting methods, monitoring and evaluating what has been learnt.

Little (1991, as cited in Little 1997) extends Holec's definition by adding a psychological dimension, and he argues that autonomy is not exclusively or even primarily a matter of how learning is organized. According to the researcher, autonomy is a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and independent action, but it also entails that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning.

For this reason, Benson (2001, as cited in Dam, 2011) prefers Little's definition and argues that this definition adds a vital psychological aspect to Holec's definition in that it describes autonomy as control over the cognitive processes involved in effective self management of learning.

According to Dickenson (1987, as cited in Kumaradivelu, 2003), autonomy is not synonymous with self-instruction and self-direction. To him, *self-instruction* refers to situations in which learners are working without the direct control of the teacher; and *self-direction* refers to situations in which learners accept responsibility for all the decisions concerned with learning but not necessarily for the implementation of those decisions. Zimmerman (1990) also distinguished self-regulation as metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participant in their own learning. In line with Zimmerman, Ellis (2008) believes that self-regulation is the ability to monitor one's learning and make changes to strategies that one employs. It involves the ability to exercise control over one's attitudinal/motivational state.

Reviewing the literature indicates that scholars such as Cotterall (1995), White (1995), Littlewood (1999), Little (2002), Schmenck (2005) and Vickers & Enn (2006) have enriched our understanding the concept of autonomy. They postulate promoting learner autonomy is a matter of helping learners to:

- develop a capacity for critical thinking, decision making, and independent action;
- take responsibility for learning and for using appropriate strategies;
- face heavy psychological demands to confront learners weaknesses and failures;
- discover their learning potential and give up total dependence on the teacher.

While different scholars tell us what learner autonomy actually is, according to Kumaravadivelu (2003) they also tell us what it is not: Autonomy is not independence, that is, learners have to learn to work cooperatively with their teachers, peers, and the educational system; Autonomy is not context-free, that is, the extent to which it can be practiced depends on factors such as learners' personality and motivation; and Autonomy is not a steady state achieved by learners, that is, autonomous learners are likely to be autonomous in one situation, but not necessarily in another (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 134).

Perhaps the best summary of all these definitions and with which the researchers agree is provided by Benson (2001, P.47 as cited in Schuchlenz, 2003) who described learner autonomy as "a multidimensional capacity that will take different forms for different individuals, and even for the same individual in different contexts or at different times".

2. Components and domains of autonomy.

Littlewood (1996) defines an autonomous person as one who has an independent capacity to make and carry out the choices which govern his or her actions. To him, this capacity depends on two main components: *ability* and *willingness* Ability depends on possessing both *knowledge* about the alternatives from which choices have to be made and the necessary *skills* for carrying out whatever choices seem most appropriate. Willingness depends on having both the *motivation* and the *confidence* to take responsibility for the choices required.

Three years later, Littlewood (1999) proposes a distinction between two *levels* of self-regulation which he calls "proactive" and "reactive" autonomy:

- Proactive autonomy: learners are able to take charge of their own learning, determine their objectives, select methods and techniques and evaluate what has been acquired;

- Reactive autonomy: enables learners to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal.

Kumaravadivelu (2003) thinks there are two complementary –narrow and broad- views on learner autonomy. The former involves, simply, enabling learners to learn how to learn which includes equipping them with the tools necessary to learn on their own, and training them to use appropriate strategies for realizing their learning objectives. The latter treats learning to learn a language as a means to an end. Then Kumaravadivelu (2003, p. 141) took a step further by naming the narrow view as "academic autonomy " which enables learners to be strategic practitioners in order to realize their learning potential, and the broad view as "liberatory autonomy" which empowers learners to be critical thinkers in order to realize their human potential.

3. Degrees of Autonomy.

Nunan (2000, as cited in Onozawa, 2010) contends that autonomy is not an all-or-nothing concept, that all learners could be trained to develop a degree of autonomy. He summarizes five levels of autonomy as follows:

1. Level 1: awareness - learners are made aware of the pedagogical goals and content of the program and encouraged to identify the learning strategies implicit in the tasks making up the methodological component of the curriculum.

2. Level 2: involvement - learners become involved in modifying materials. Learners will be involved in making choices from a range of goals, a selection of content and a variety of tasks.

3. Level 3: intervention - learners are involved in modifying and adapting goals, content and learning tasks.

4. Level 4: creation - learners create their own goals, content and learning tasks.

5. Level 5: transcendence - learners transcend the classroom, making links between the content of the classroom and the world beyond the classroom. At this level, learners begin to become truly autonomous by utilizing in everyday life what they have learned in formal learning contexts.

4. Why Fostering Learner Autonomy?

Several researchers in the area of communicative language teaching and learner-centered practice have incorporated the idea of autonomy in their work. To begin with, Dickinson (1995) provides five reasons for the promotion of learner autonomy in language learning: practical reasons, individual differences, educational aims, motivation and learning how to learn foreign languages. Another justification for developing learner autonomy in language learning has been proposed by Coterall (1995). The researcher lists three basic reasons, philosophical, pedagogical and practical, for implementing learner autonomy in language classrooms. Little (2000) also reports that development of learner autonomy in language learning relies on the claim that in formal educational contexts, reflectivity and self-awareness produce better learning.

5. How Can Learner Autonomy be promoted?

To posit ways of fostering learner autonomy is certainly to posit ways of fostering teacher autonomy, as 'teachers' autonomy permeates into [learners'] autonomy' (Johnson, et. al. 1990, as cited in Dam, 2011). Dam (2011) cites three ways to foster learner's autonomy: self-report; diaries and evaluation sheets, and learners' belief and attitude.

Self-report is a good way of collecting information on how students go about a learning task and helping them become aware of their own strategies is to assign a task and have them report what they are thinking while they are performing it.

Diaries and evaluation sheets offer students the possibility to plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning, identifying any problems they run into and suggesting solutions.

Inasmuch as the success of learning and the extent to which learners tap into their potential resources in order to overcome difficulties and achieve autonomy are determined by such factors as learners' motivation, their desire to learn, and the beliefs they hold about themselves as learners and learning per se, it is manifest that changing some negative beliefs and attitudes is bound to facilitate learning.

Little (2004) also believes that in formal educational contexts, learner autonomy entails reflective involvement in planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating learning. He states that the development of autonomy in language learning is governed by three basic pedagogical principles as follows:

- learner involvement: engaging learners to share responsibility for the learning process (the affective and the metacognitive dimensions);

- learner reflection: helping learners to think critically when they plan, monitor and evaluate their learning (the metacognitive dimensions);

- appropriate target language use: using the target language as the principal medium of language learning (the communicative and the met cognitive dimensions) (Little, 2004).

To foster autonomy, Dörnyei (2001, as cited in Onozawa, 2010) specifies two crucial and practical classroom changes: increase learner involvement in organizing the learning process, and make a change in the teacher's role. He also emphasizes that the key issue in increasing learner involvement is to share responsibility with learners in their learning process, recommending several ways to achieve this. Among these are to give learners *choices* about as many aspects of the learning process as possible, to give students positions of *genuine authority*, to encourage *student contributions* and *peer teaching*, to encourage *project work*, and to allow learners to use *self-assessment* procedures when appropriate (Dörnyei, 2001, as cited in Onozawa, 2010).

According to Benson (2008), fostering autonomy does not imply any particular approach to practice. In principle, any practice that encourages and enables learners to take greater control of any aspect of their learning can be considered a means of promoting autonomy. As Lee (1998) clarified the fact that autonomy is not a teaching method to be implemented through lesson plans so teachers need to develop a sense of responsibility and also, encourage learners to take an active part in making decisions about their learning to foster autonomy.

6. Final Remarks.

This presentation is far from comprehensive, as I have only skimmed the surface of the issue. Many more topics are missing such as the role of curriculum in learners' autonomy different models of L2 autonomy and the like. However, the main point of departure for this presentation placed on the degrees of learner autonomy and how to develop autonomy in an EFL/ESL classroom. Despite the significance of autonomy, it is crystal clear that there has to be a teacher who will adapt resources, materials, and methods to the learners' needs. But even if learner autonomy is amenable to educational interventions, it should be recognized that it "takes a long time to develop, and--simply removing the barriers to a person's ability to think and behave in certain ways may not allow him or her to break away from old habits or old ways of thinking" (Candy, 1991: 124 as cited in Thanasoulas, 2000).

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Spiritual Intelligence and its Role in Education

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Abstract.
The present study is an attempt to demystify the concept of spiritual intelligence (hereafter SI) and its role in education. To undertake the study first an overview of intelligence and its corresponding types and role will be brief. Then SI from theoretical perspective and its relation with some psychological theories as the theory of hierarchy of needs and self-actualization of learners by Maslow (1908-1970), social embedded learning and Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) that scaffolds learning by Vygotsky (1896-1934), and the theory of multiple intelligences by Gardner (1943) will be discussed in detail. Finally its role in education unmasked. The findings have implication in language teaching in particular and education in general.
Keywords: spiritual intelligence, intelligence, brain, spiritual experience

1. Introduction.

Intelligence is one of the crucial factors and characteristics in second or foreign language learning and results in individual differences among peoples. After a long history of research, there is no standard definition of intelligence yet. This shows that this concept maybe approximately described, but cannot be fully defined. This phenomenon have been defined and measured by different scholars and psychologists in different contexts. There are many similarities among various definitions that have been proposed by different scholars and psychologists. These different observations help us to believe that a single and comprehensive definition for arbitrary systems can be possible. According to Gardner (1999), this concept adopted different interpretations across different cultures (Gardner, 1999).

Burt (1957, cited in Legg &Hutter, 2007) defined intelligence as a quality that is intellectual and not emotional or moral: in measuring it we try to rule out the effects of the child's zeal, interest, industry, and the like. Secondly, it denotes a general capacity, a capacity that enters into everything the child says or does or thinks; any want of 'intelligence' will therefore be revealed to some degree in almost all that he attempts.

He asserted that intelligence is as an intellectual phenomenon and not emotional or moral and leads to one's attempts in doing or achieving goals. In the last few years, Sternberg (1985) defined intelligence as "the ability to adapt to a new environment which draws upon a number of cognitive processes, such as perception, learning, memory, reasoning, and problem solving" (Stenberg, 1985). Moreover, intelligence is defined as a collection of the notions of knowledge and mental processes and the role of context and culture (Sternberg, 2000). Stenberg (2000) explained that Binet argued that intelligence includes of complicated mental processes and individual differences involving complex functions. He asserted that intelligence is as the ability to perceive information and retain it as knowledge for applying to itself or other instances of knowledge or information, thereby creating referable understanding models of any size, density, or complexity, due to any conscious or subconscious imposed will or instruction to do so, Based on Gardner's view, intelligence is as "the ability to solve problems, or fashion products, that are valued in one or more cultural or community settings" (Gardner, 1993, p.7). According to these definitions, different category of intelligence will be elaborated.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Multiple Intelligence Theory

When Gardner (1983) introduced Multiple Intelligences, the notion of general intelligences had been adopted by psychologists. Multiple intelligences is a new view of human intelligence as a result of his dissatisfaction with the traditional IQ tests. In Multiple Intelligences, different independent ability areas had been proposed. Gardner (1993) called intelligence as a "bio-psychological potential" that could be affected by cultural and motivational factors (Gardner, 1993, p. 7). He states that individuals own at least eight intelligences which are independent and can be genetically inherited, developed or improved through education or social environment. Gardner (1983) initially introduced multiple intelligences in seven intelligences: Linguistic, Spatial, Logical/Mathematical, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal, Bodily-Kinesthetic, and Musical. Later, Gardner (1999) added Naturalistic intelligence and has suggested that an existential intelligence might exist, but he believed that spiritual intelligence does not exist. He believed that his eight intelligences are as abilities or talents, but it is assumed that quantitative or verbal abilities are referred to as talents. He argued that there is no hierarchy of ability. Before publishing his book "*Frames of Mind*", Gardner (1999) states that eight intelligences are based on eight criteria: "the potential of isolation by brain damage; an evolutionary history and evolutionary plausibility; an identifiable core operation or set of operations; susceptibility to encoding in a symbol system; a distinct developmental history; the existence of savants, prodigies, and other exceptional people; support from experimental psychological tasks; and support from psychometric findings" (Gardner, 1999, p. 46). He believed that these criteria are flexible. Some intelligence possesses multiple criteria.

Educators and parents accepted enthusiastically multiple intelligences theory. Gardner (1983) believed that children possess unique and various abilities as they can learn things in different ways. He argued that a child that is poor in reading and math, he/she can be successful in art, geography or even music. Gardner (1983) claimed that the traditional intelligence tests cannot measure all types of intelligences and it can measure verbal and mathematical abilities, the two intelligence domains most valued in school. He insisted that "Whereas IQ tests could predict academic success; he insisted that they had little utility in predicting success beyond school (Gardner, 1983, p. 3).Gottfredson's (2002) contradicted this claim with his findings in his study. Gardner (1999) introduced his theory as an empirically-based theory and asserted in new findings: "The questions to ask of a new theory are whether it stimulates important questions and investigations, and whether it's initial delineation of factors appears to be on the right track" (Gardner, 1999, p. 86). In the next section, the different intelligences will be explained.

2.2.Theoretical Framework of SI

However, it is considered that the concept of SI is fairly novel, it can be found in some psychological theories as the theory of hierarchy of needs and self-actualization of learners developed by Maslow (1908-1970), social embedded learning and Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) that scaffolds learning advocated by Vygotsky (1896-1934), and the theory of multiple intelligences purported by Gardner (1943-).

The first theory is the hierarchy of needs and self-actualization of learners developed by Maslow (1908-1970) that was famous for his work in behavioral psychology and motivation. Two basic principles of his work have particular significance for individual growth, education, and the spiritual and these concepts are salient in this study. His hierarchy of needs theory and concept of self-actualization support the major premises of SI. One of the most well-known of Maslow's theories is based on a hierarchy of needs pyramid. Maslow (1943) described these needs in a ladder or pyramid of progression that contained the five main sets of goals: physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization, with the basic physiological needs being at the foundation and moving up to the highest self-actualization needs. Physiological needs contain deficiency needs delineated as the need for safety, love, respect and information (Maslow, 1943, cited in Brown, 2001).These are opposed to growth needs, which include "need to know and understand, aesthetic, and self-actualization needs" (Slavin, 2003, p. 332).

Self-actualization is one of the important concepts in Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The ongoing process of self-actualization within individuals was expanded and defined by Maslow as an "actualization of potentials, capacities and talents, as fulfillment of mission (fate, destiny, or vocation), as a fuller knowledge of, and acceptance of, the person's own intrinsic nature, as an unceasing trend toward unity, integration or synergy within" (Maslow, 1968, cited in Heylighen, 1992, p. 41). To be self-actualized is an ongoing process with the fundamental goal to develop all of one's talents and to reach ultimate fulfillment. He felt that the primary goal of education was to help all to reach their ultimate capacities or to become self-actualized (Heylighen, 1992). According to Maslow (1968, cited in Heylighen, 1992), self-actualization includes eight ways: (a) exhibits total absorptive self-awareness; (b) participates in an on-going growth procedure; (c) listens to his or her inner voice; (d) allows personal intuition to guide his or her life; (e) honestly takes responsibility for his or her own actions; (f) makes wise choices for personal satisfaction; (g) encounters and recognizes when he or she has faced a peak experience; and lastly (h) analyzes, identifies, and renounces personally erected defenses.

Sisk (2002), in his article mentioned Maslow's work on self-identity as foundational to their work with SI. Maslow discussed important aspects in self-identity that are significant to understanding SI and its concepts. He felt that unfortunately, external educational experiences could sometimes squelch the internal, inherent natures of self. He encouraged a type of meditational separateness that allowed for the quietness necessary to search for one's individuality or self (Sisk, 2002). This was in line with Sisk's (2002) views that "SI can be described as a deep self-awareness in which one becomes more and more aware of the dimensions of self, not simply as a body, but as a mind-body and Spirit" (Sisk, 2002, p. 209). This reinforces Emmons (2000) view that "the intelligent use of spiritual intelligence can contribute to positive life outcomes such as emotional well-being, positive functioning, and an enhanced overall quality of life" (Emmons, 2000, p. 20).

The research of Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934), a Soviet psychologist, presents another major theory that explains learning with implications for SI, according to his sociocultural theory, social and cultural aspects are the main parts of this theory. Ratner (1991) writes that Vygotsky proposed the theory that intellectual development occurred via two distinct ways - through *social contacts* that are evidenced and then shaped by *cultural artifacts* belonging to each particular community system. In essence, Vygotsky believed that intellectual development originates only through the historical, cultural, and social relationships and interactions experienced by individuals. According to Vygotsky (1978), because learning takes place within both social and cultural environments, then to a certain extent, what is learned reflects these two entities implying that discrepancies may be reflective of cultural restrictions.

Essentially, Vygotsky advocated selections that came from "a socio historical point of view, of reaching beyond, of advancing the processes of human knowledge, in a way, helping to form a new person" (Rosa, & Montero, 1990, p. 81). This formation of a "new person" complements the SI principles of

existentialism and personal meaning production advocated by King (2008). Although Vygotsky did not mention the spiritual specifically, there are implications that learning may be enhanced by incorporating the culture of the student's family. Ratner (1991) observed that "just as language, religion, and customs are not the accidental discovery of an individual, so all higher psychological functions are creations of the social community" (Ratner, 1991, p. 15) reinforcing that religion and spirituality are social constructs. If that social culture is steeped in the spiritual, then perhaps Vygotsky's socio-cultural embedded theory could support the premise that spiritual influences impact learning.

The last and most important contributor to the conceptual framework of the current research is the Theory of Multiple Intelligences developed by Howard Gardner (1983). Gardner set forth to challenge existing thinking about intelligence as having only one dimension measured by an intelligence test. In other words, he was attempting to expand thinking about human potential. His definition of a human intelligence is "the ability to solve problems, or to create products, that are valued within one or more cultural settings" (Gardner, 1983, p. x). In addition, in order to be termed an intelligence, the skills must be important, useful, and include a majority of these eight criteria: a) Potential isolation by brain damage; b) The existence of idiots savants, prodigies, and other exceptional individuals; c) An identifiable core operation or set of operations; d) A distinctive developmental history, along with a definable set of expert 'end-state' performances; e) An evolutionary history and evolutionary plausibility; f) Support from experimental psychological tasks; g) Support from psychometric findings; h) Susceptibility to encoding in a symbol system. (Gardner, 1983, pp. 63 & 67). More than those types of intelligences that were mentioned in the previous sections, Gardner (2000) has also considered spirituality as an intelligence. His main objection to adding spirituality to his list of intelligences is based primarily on the lack of brain research to support its inclusion. Although not fully embracing the idea of spirituality as an intelligence, Gardner admits that several arguments for SI require further analysis and empirical scrutiny.

Gardner's contributions to the intelligence debate and to the current research in particular are crucial. His empirically based research including not only the gifted and savants, but normal children and adults as well as brain damaged individuals, led him to the conclusion that intelligence cannot be reduced to a number on a single test. Because of his expanded definitions of other varieties of intelligence, he has opened the door to a consideration of the spiritual as an intelligence.

For the current study, the theories provided by Maslow, Vygotsky, and Gardner lay a solid foundation for the consideration of spirituality as an intelligence. In the next section, the evidences of a ninth intelligence (SI) will be explained.

2.2.1. Scientific Evidence for Spiritual Intelligence

Zohar and Marshall (2000) believed that "anything that has a bearing on intelligence is routed and controlled by both the brain and its neural extensions in the body" (Zohar & Marshall, 2000, p. 39).

2.2.1.1. Neural Organization in the Brain

One type of neural organization that is named Intelligence Quotient, enables rule-bound and logical thinking. This model of thinking is both logical and linear derived from formal, Aristotelian logic and from arithmetic. Bowell (2004) stated that "Intelligence Quotient is beneficial for solving rational problems and for performing definite tasks. The brain is able to carry out such functions because of an extremely distinctive type of neural wiring − known as neural tracts − which is required for serial or linear thinking". This type of thinking is referred to as "thinking" with the head (Bowell, 2004, p.12).

On the other side, Zohar and Marshall (2000) proposed another kind of thinking, which allows associative, habit-bound, and pattern-recognizing thinking, with this type of thinking being referred to as Emotional Quotient. According to McGeachy (2001, p. 62), Emotional Quotient is dealt with associative neural wiring – a far more complex interaction than Intelligence Quotient.

Spiritual Quotient is a third kind of neural organization that makes it possible to engage in creative, insightful, intuitive rule-making and rule-breaking thinking. Zohar and Marshall (2000) refer to this type of thinking as "unitive thinking" as this kind of thinking is, in essence, holistic and comprises an ability to grasp the overall context linking the component parts (Zohar and Marshall, 2000, p. 59 & 60). In other words, it is the thinking which an adolescent may use to reframe and transform previous thinking and is also referred to as "thinking with the soul". It is believed that, since this type of thinking involves the head (thinking – IQ), the heart (feeling – EQ) and the soul (intuitive thinking – SQ) it is possible to develop, in a deliberate way, the ability of people to access Spiritual Quotient.

2.2.1.2. Domain Specificity and Spiritual Experience

According to Hyde (2004), different researchers have concluded that different cognitive abilities are specialized in order to manage specific types of information. In other words, much of human cognition may be termed "domain specific" (Hyde, 2004, p. 44). While reluctant to attach the notion of a domain to a set definition, Hirschfeld and Gelman (1994) have recommended the properties of a domain: "A domain is a body that identifies and interprets a class of phenomena assumed to share certain properties and to be of a distinct and general type. A domain functions as a stable response to a set of recurring and complex problems faced by the

organisms. The response involves difficult-to-access perceptual, encoding, retrieval, inferential processes dedicated to the solution (Hirschfeld&Gelman, 1994, p. 21).

Hyde (2004) deduces that it is possible that such an independent body of knowledge or a domain does, indeed, exist within the composition of the human mind and that it may enable adolescents to solve problems of meaning and value in life.

2.2.1.3. Evolution and Spiritual Intelligence

According to the architecture of the brain, Newberg et al. (2001), have claimed that the human brain has evolved over millions of years in order to enable individuals both to adapt and to solve the immediate problems of survival within a particular environment (Newberg et al, 2001, pp. 15 & 17). In other words, the function of the human brain is to solve problems, which is one of the central features of intelligence. Furthermore, Newberg et al. (2001) speculated whether the structures of the human brain that are involved in spiritual experience evolved specifically for the purpose of enabling an individual to find solutions to the problems of meaning and value (Newberg et al, 2001, pp. 15 & 17). In addition, Newberg et al. (2001) maintain that many of the brain's higher functions developed initially from simpler neurological processes that evolved specifically to address the more basic survival needs. However, as evolution proceeded, the potential for spiritual experience and its usefulness in finding solutions to the problems of meaning and value in life was both realized and favored by the process of natural selection (Newberg et al, 2001, pp. 15 & 17).

Accordingly, Newberg et al. (2001) maintain that the notion of SI is supported by the fact that the human brain has evolved with certain structures that are involved in spiritual experience and it is these structures which enable the individual and, by implication, the adolescent, to draw upon spiritual experience in this way (Newberg et al, 2001, pp. 15 & 17).

2.3. Spiritual Intelligence Definitions.

As emotional intelligence is defined as a set of abilities that draw on emotional resources and information (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004), SI is associated with a set of abilities that draw on spiritual resources (Emmons, 1999). Moreover, he (2000) stated that SI is as "the adaptive use of spiritual information to facilitate everyday problem solving and goal attainment" (Emmons, 2000, p. 4). Based on Gardner's definition of intelligence, Emmons (2000) argued that spirituality can be viewed as a form of intelligence because it predicts functioning and adaptation and suggests capabilities that enable people to solve problems and achieve goals.

Emmons (1999, 2000) believed that SI contains different types of abilities that are based on spiritual resources in a similar manner to emotional intelligence, which defines a set of abilities that are associated with emotional resources and information (Mayer, Salovey& Caruso, 2004). Just as Emotional intelligence is not equal to emotionality, SI is not equal to spirituality.SI combines the constructs of spirituality and intelligence into a new construct of SI. Whereas spirituality refers to the individual search for, and experiential elements of, the sacred, meaning, higher-consciousness and transcendence, SI places a greater emphasis on abilities that draw on such spiritual themes to predict functioning and adaptation, and to produce valuable products or outcomes (Emmons, 1999).In other words, spirituality is dealt with abilities that produce valuable outcomes Zohar and Marshal (2000) defined SI as: the intelligence with which we address and solve problems of meaning and value, the intelligence with which we can place our actions and our lives in a wider, richer, meaning-giving context, the intelligence with which we can assess that one course of action or one life-path is more meaningful than another. (Zohar & Marshal, 2000, p. 3). This definition also highlights and hints at linking SI to a sense of connection to the wider and greater whole.

King (2008) viewed SI as a set of adaptive mental capacities based on non-material and transcendent aspects of reality, specifically those which are related to the nature of one's existence, personal meaning, transcendence, and heightened states of consciousness.

Thorsons (2001) defines SI as progresses naturally from your personal Intelligence (knowledge, appreciation and understanding of yourself, through social Intelligence knowledge, appreciation and understanding of other people), to the appreciation and understanding of all other life forms and the universe itself.

According to Nasel (2004), SI is as the ability to draw on one's spiritual abilities and resources to better identify, find meaning in, and resolve existential, spiritual, and practical issues. Such resources and abilities, be it prayer, intuition, or transcendence, ought to be relevant to facilitating an individual's capacity for finding meaning in experiences, for facilitating problem solving, and for enhancing an individual's capacity for adaptive decision making (Nasel, 2004, p. 42).

2.3.1. The Components of Spiritual Intelligence

Emmons (2000) proposes five elements for SI: (a) ability to use spiritual resources to solve problems, (b) ability to enter heightened states of consciousness, (c) ability to invest everyday activities and relationships with a sense of the sacred, (d) capacity for transcendence of the physical and material, and (e) capacity to be virtuous. However, in responding to criticisms from Mayer (2000) who argues that virtuous behavior belongs more to ethics and personality rather than intelligence, Emmons (2000) drops (e) the capacity to be virtuous.

Based on Vaughan's (2002) view, SI is dealt with the inner life of mind and spirit and its relationship to being in the world. He proposed a model that SI includes three components: a) the ability to create meaning based on deep understanding of existential questions; b) an awareness of and the ability to use multiple levels of consciousness in problem solving; and c) an awareness of the interconnection of all beings to each other and to the transcendent.

Amram and Dryer (2007) determined five components of Spiritual Intelligence; those items are Consciousness, Transcendence, Grace, Meaning and Truth. A consciousness trait is the ability to raise consciousness, to tap intuition and to synthesize multiple viewpoints in ways that will enhance daily functioning and well-being. Transcendence is a trait of the ability to align with the sacred and transcend the egoistic self with the sense of relatedness and holism in ways that enhances functioning. Grace is a trait that reflects the love for life drawing on the inspiration beauty and joy inherent in each present moment to enhance the functioning and well-being. While Meaning is a trait of the ability to experience meaning, link activities and experiences to values and construct interpretations in ways that that enhance functioning and wellbeing in the face of pain and suffering. Truth is a trait of the ability to be present, to love peacefully and surrender to truth, manifesting open receptivity, presence, humility and trust in ways that enhance daily functioning and well-being.

2.3.2. The Features of Spiritual Intelligence.

They determined the following features of SI as the definition of SI:

1. Self-awareness: Who you really are and know about connecting with the whole universe.

2. Led by vision and values: Children naturally want to serve. Vision and values are definitive of our humanity.

3. The ability to face and to use adversity: Owning both our mistakes and adversity and using pain and tragedy with which to learn.

4. Holistic: Seeing the connections between things.

5. Appreciation of diversity: Thriving in the celebration of diversity.

6. Field independent: This indicates the courage to be independent.

7. The tendency to ask "why"? Questions are infinite, and may create reality.

8. The ability to reframe: Putting things into a larger context of meaning.

9. Spontaneity: This does not mean acting impulsively. Spontaneity comes from the same Latin roots as "response" and "responsibility".

According to the different views, Levin (2000) claimed that when we live in a way that integrates spirituality into our daily life, SI is exhibited (Levin, 2000). He recommended that the development of SI needs the recognition of our interconnection to all of life, and the capacity to utilize perceptual powers beyond the five senses including our intuition, which is seen as another level of consciousness and intelligence beyond analytical, linear, and rational thought.

King (2008) viewed SI as a set of adaptive mental capacities based on non-material and transcendent aspects of reality, specifically those which are related to the nature of one's existence, personal meaning, transcendence, and heightened states of consciousness. According to this definition, King proposed four core abilities or capacities of SI: a) Critical Existential Thinking: This principle shows the capacity to critically think about the nature of existence, reality, the universe, space, time, and other existential/metaphysical issues; also the capacity to think about non-existential issues in relation to one's existence (i.e., from an existential perspective); b) Personal Meaning Production: It deals with the ability to originate personal meaning and purpose from all physical and mental experiences, including the capacity to create and master a life's purpose; c) Transcendental Awareness: This property shows the ability to determine transcendent dimensions/patterns of the self (i.e., a transpersonal or transcendent self), of others, and of the physical world (e.g., non-materialism) during normal states of consciousness, accompanied by the capacity to determine their relationship to one's self and to the physical; and d) Conscious State Expansion: This characteristic shows the ability to enter and exit higher states of consciousness (e.g. pure consciousness, cosmic consciousness, unity, oneness) and other states of trance at one's own discretion (as in deep contemplation, meditation, prayer, etc.). According to the above characteristics, SIrefers to various skills and abilities that empower you to live in harmony with your highest values and move unswervingly towards your life goals.

2.4. The Role of SI in Education.

Intelligence plays an important role in education; furthermore, Education provides ways and means for achieving the progress of body, intelligence and strength. The main leader in this process is the teacher. Thus teachers are to be emotionally and spiritually mature enough to deal with the affecting and spiritual requirements of the students. During the pre-service agenda itself, the students-teachers require to be showing to emotional and spiritual development program. Teachers do influence the character of students. Their emotional, logical, social and spiritual realms have profound influence on the development of children. Only teachers who are spiritually intelligent can encourage the development of students. Estimate of the important educational dimensions is a foundation for valuating educational institutes (Leenaars & Laster, 2006).

Educational getting estimation can be considered as one of the most important educational evaluations. Continuous evaluation of the students' educational achievement during their academic stage and analytical its efficient factors is one of the crucial and predictable bases of educational system improvement especially in the universities. It plays a prompting educational quality, and at last correcting and improving academic managers' efficiency (Bakhtiarpoor, 2009). Students' academic performance in different fields, levels, and universities is educational factors. Determining appropriate criterions and factors is one of the potential research areas. Gange and St Pere (2002), Vigil are the authors who are active in this field. The scores of intelligence and academic achievement are one of the important measures that have been used as indicators for predicting students' future conditions by several authors (Gange & St Pere, 2002).

A study was conducted by Ruiz (2005) on "Spiritual dimension in educational leadership" at the University of Texas, USA. Spirit filled experiences and education were considered as two separate areas. This study seeks to provide ontological and epistemological knowledge to uncover and understand the power of the spiritual dimension in the life of successful educational leaders. This study is qualitative in nature and it seeks to explore successful educational leaders' use of spirituality to strengthen their effectiveness as it relates to school and their performance. Based on the major findings, four attributes related to educational leadership are obvious: accountability and compliance, curriculum and instruction, planning and decision making, and community involvement – and these are all related to spiritual dimension. Based on this study, an 'Interactive Atom Shaped Model for Leadership' was proposed, symbolizing special type of energy which interconnects the spiritual element in the educational leaders' intrapersonal, interpersonal, and ecological relationships producing new life for the educational system and global organism.

3. Conclusion

Spiritual intelligence is ability in every human being which can be used for solving problems and deep understanding of issues which are related to life, values and education. There are some neurological processes in brain that leads to solving problem in human's body. SI motivates individuals to find out relations and unification. It has different degrees in different people. Although there aren't many direct premises to SI influence on education but many of psychologists and socio culturists indirectly support the impact of SI on learning. The impact of SI on education will be emphasized by the role of the teachers. Teachers with high spiritual intelligence can elicit progress in students' education.

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The Interplay of Metacognitive Listening instruction and Form focused Instruction for Teaching Grammar

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Abstract.
Research on grammar learning has been a concern for many scholars to find a path toward teaching grammar effectively. The sort of interaction between the learners and teachers has been regarded highly in the past decades resulting in taking focus on form approach into account focusing on form in the context of meaningful interaction. The fact that how learning grammatical features can be in contact with other language skills seems to be of importance since, to date, researchers have been studying various approaches toward grammar learning concentrating on initial grammar translation methods toward newly adopted methodologies such as focus on form approach or computer-assisted grammar learning. In this regard, it seems that metacognitive listening instruction as a process-based approach toward teaching listening and in favor of encouraging communication to enhance the learners' listening ability interactively, can be taken at the service of teaching grammar as highlighted in focus on form. Hence, the present research, aims to review the studies done in the areas of teaching grammar in a meaningful communication, which is in line with focus on form approach and metacognitive listening instruction. In fact, the purpose of the study is to provide various literatures and find a bridge to incorporate metacognitive listening instruction into teaching grammar in the context of meaningful communication.

Keywords: teaching grammar, focus on form, metacognitive listening, meaningful interaction

1. Teaching Grammar: Theoretical Issues.

Research on both SLA and psycholinguistics shows that second language acquisition is not a process of accumulating entities (Long, 1991; VanPatten, 1994). Language learning rarely happens with bits of language being learnt separately in an additive fashion. In addition, teachers cannot predict and determine what students are going to learn at any given stage (Willis, 1996). Traditional grammar-based instruction ignored the language learning developmental processes through which L2 learners normally pass, and the fact that progress is not necessarily unidirectional (Ellis, 2008; Long & Robinson, 1998). Furthermore, as for the authenticity of the input, Widdowson (1989) states that as fabricated by teachers, the classroom interactions and the practiced language forms will not necessarily transfer to actual language use in real-life situations. As a result, traditional grammar teaching has failed to prepare learners for spontaneous, contextualized language use. "The belief that a precise focus on a particular form leads to learning and automatization no longer carries much credibility in linguistics or psychology" (Skehan, 1996, p. 18).

Recognizing that treating the language purely as an object of study cannot develop the expected level of interlanguage proficiency, some researchers attempted to abandon grammar-based instruction in favor of more communicative-oriented language teaching which focused on language use (Nassaji & Fotos, 2004). They argued that formal language lessons would develop only declarative knowledge of grammar structure, not the procedural ability to use forms correctly, and that there was no interface between these two types of knowledge since they existed as different systems in the brain (see Dekeyser, 2007; Ellis, 2002). As such, they see formal instruction as unnecessary for interlanguage development.

Theoretically, this reflects Krashen's (1985) distinction between conscious learning and unconscious acquisition of language which involves entirely separate processes. Language acquisition is an implicit, subconscious process which occurs as a result of engaging in natural communication where the focus is on meaning. By contrast, language learning is an explicit, conscious process which derives from formal instruction where the primary focus is on grammar and practice (Krashen, 1985). Krashen claims that learned or explicit knowledge which results from language learning cannot turn into acquired or implicit knowledge. According to Krashen, most of L2 cannot be taught; it must be acquired.

Proponents of communicative teaching claim that people of all ages learn languages best by experiencing them as a medium of communication. The essence of communicative language teaching is the engagement of learners in communication to allow them to develop their communicative competence (Long & Robinson, 1998). Another tenet of communicative teaching is that exposing learners to large quantities of positive input that is comprehensible and meaningful is sufficient for language acquisition to occur. Grammar is acquired implicitly or incidentally (Krashen, 1985). This communicative language teaching approach underlies a variety of L2 classrooms, including those implementing Prabhu's procedural syllabus, Krashen's Natural approach, some content-based ELS instruction (e.g. immersion education), and task-based instruction.

The importance of attending to form becomes clear to both SLA researchers and teachers. Given that communicative language teaching by itself has been found to be inadequate (Ellis, 1997, 2002; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004), pedagogical interventions need to be interwoven into primarily communicative activities so as to overcome the limitations of both traditional grammar instruction and communicative language teaching (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

2. Emergence of Focus on Form Approach.

Researchers find it is necessary to look for an alternative approach, rather than to foster a single-sided teaching approach to promote both linguistic and communicative competence. In this context, motivated pedagogically by the findings of immersion and naturalistic research mentioned above and theoretically by the notion of noticing and the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996), 'focus on form' (FonF) was proposed in an attempt to capture the strengths of the meaning-focus communicative approach while dealing with its limitations (Long & Robinson, 1998). In the Interaction Hypothesis, interaction between learners and other speakers, especially more proficient speakers, is of crucial importance for language development. Negotiation of meaning occurring in interaction produces negative feedback (e.g. recasts, a corrective reformulation of learners utterances) to draw learners' attention to mismatches between input and output, thus induce them to notice the forms which are not only comprehensible but also meaningful (Long & Robinson, 1998). As such, negative feedback during negotiation of meaning may facilitate L2 development (Long, 1996). Motivated by the role of negotiation of meaning during interaction, Long (1991) proposed the option of 'focus on form' to be incorporated in meaning-based communicative language teaching as an alternative to either traditional grammar instruction or pure communicative language teaching.

Since teaching came into existence, teachers have been concerned with error correction. Some schools of thought like behaviorist and nativist considered errors as sin which hinders communication and must be avoided at all cost (Schulz, 1996) and corrected immediately if noticed. Corrective feedback was regarded as something unimportant which had no place in classrooms. On the other hand, advocates of interactionist regarded errors as natural and treatable. They believed that positive evidence had a significant role in learning, but negative evidence, which was provided through feedback, was proved to be important as well. Since exposing learners to only one type of input is not sufficient; they must be provided with different input types if noticing is to occur. As a result, by the arrival of communicative language teaching (CLT), error treatment gained more value. Behaviorism was strongly anti-error. However, natural approach regarded correction as being useless according to Krashen's view which was based on the idea that learning a second language occurs naturally like first language acquisition and regarded errors as an indispensible part of learning. Interactionist, on the other hand, paid some more attention to the role of correction provided to the learners in forms of different feedback types. Here, doomed necessary, errors are corrected while students are involved in conversations.

The most recent theory of language, which is in line with 'focus on form' approach, is Vygotskian sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978) that is in favor of teaching grammar in the context of meaningful interaction (Long, 1991).

Sociocultural theory emphasizes that social interaction and collaborations are two important requirements for learning a language. According to Vygotsky, isolated learning cannot contribute to individual cognitive development, and that learning is in nature a social enterprise. Central to this theory is the zone of proximal development, which refers to "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers"(Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). By the notion of ZPD, the significance of collaborated work which is highlighted since by collaborating within their ZPD, learners develop what they have not yet transferred into their interlanguage through using their existing knowledge. In addition, when learners interact, especially with a more proficient interlocutor, less knowledgeable participant can gain some help to expand and elevate his/her language skills to higher levels of competence by a more knowledgeable participant in the process of interaction. However, in sociocultural theory, the instructor makes no attempt to prepare a specific set of corrective procedure to be given to the learners. According to Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) corrective procedures in the ZPD must be negotiated between the novice and the expert. Here, learners must be provided with sufficient assistance to be persuaded to participate in the activity, and they should also feel responsible for arriving at the appropriate performance.

Since its conception, the idea of FonF has been widely advocated in the SLA literature. However, due to its popularity among researchers and teachers, there is considerable variation in how the term 'focus on form' is understood and used, and the construct has been interpreted and used differently by different researchers and teachers.

3. Focus on Form: Definitions.

In his seminal work, Long (1991) initially introduced the notion of 'focus on form': "Focus on form...overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (Long, 1991, 45-46). Based on this theoretical notion, Long & Robinson (1998) later raised a more pedagogically applicable definition of 'focus on form' as: "Focus on form

consists of an occasional shift in attention to linguistic code features-by the teacher and/or one or more students-triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production" (Long & Robinson, 1998, p23).

The notions include minimally the following central features of FonF (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Williams, 1999):

1. A primary emphasis on the communication of meaning.
2. A brief attention shift from that emphasis on communication to focus on language as object.
3. A problem-oriented trigger for the attention shift.

The idea of attention to form differs from explicit formal instruction. The definitions and the central features of FonF make 'focus on form' distinguishable from the notion of 'focus on forms' (a term for traditional grammar teaching in Long, 1991) and focus on meaning (a term for meaning - focused communicative language teaching in Long 1991). 'Focus on form' *entails* a focus on formal elements of language with the prerequisite engagement in meaning, whereas 'focus on forms' is *limited* to such an isolated language focus with no intention for effective communication, and focus on meaning *excludes* much effort concerning language elements (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 4).

In Long's definition, FonF would be viewed as a responsive teaching intervention for online occasional attention shifts to problematic form in a communication setting. The problematic form occurs incidentally as a breakdown or error of some difficulty in either production or comprehension. From a pedagogical perspective, this means that teachers should wait for issues to emerge and respond to them as needed.

This original conception of FonF has been broadened to the extent of allowing for a planned, and even separated instructional 'focus on form' that need not be derived from a real-time problem-trigger (Doughty & Williams, 1998). In Doughty and Williams' definition, FonF includes both reactive and proactive FonF. Reactive FonF is consistent with Long's original definition. A reactive FonF would require that the teacher notice and be prepared to handle various learning difficulties as they arise. Reactive FonF would seem to be most congruent with the general aims of communicative language teaching. However, in the majority of language class settings, a more proactive FonF approach is likely to be feasible as well (Doughty & Williams, 1998). In proactive FonF, the teacher must make a determination in advance as to which form - among the language forms that are potentially good candidates for focus - to select for attention at any particular time. Based on considerations of individual differences, developmental language learning sequences, input quality, formal and functional complexity, and L1 influence on SLA processes, the suggestion for proactive FonF should be distinguished from that of the traditional structural approaches in which isolated language forms are selected and sequenced on the basis of intuition (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Proactive FonF emphasizes the design of tasks that ensure that opportunities "to use problematic forms while communicating a message will indeed arise" (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 211).

In addition to the reactive-proactive distinction, Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2001) use the term *preemptive* FonF. In this case, the trigger for the attentional shift from meaning to form may not be an actual or perceived problem; instead, it may simply be a problem that is anticipated. In this way, no problem-trigger is required. However, some researchers question whether it is a FonF at all (Williams, 1999). In Ellis et al's (2001) teacher-initiated preemptive FonF, this focus is purely incidental and the teacher decides on the spur of the moment that learners might encounter difficulty processing a word or form, and therefore he/she launches into a brief, explicit instructional sequence. The 'problem' is only anticipated, and unfortunately as Ellis et al show, the prediction of the problem is not always accurate. It therefore cannot be treated as a real problem trigger. However, as we mentioned above, the problem-trigger (or the problematicity) is one of the three central features of FonF. This is an example to show that the term FonF is used and interpreted differently to a large extent to meet the different requirements of various research.

4. Studies on Focus on Form Approach.

Nassaji and Fotos (2011) argue that grammar should be taught through meaningful interaction caused by the application interactional tasks in which the learners engage in the meaningful participation to acquire the linguistic forms while benefitting from the role of teacher or peer feedback as well as teachers' scaffolding. They call this approach to teaching grammar as focus on form (FOF), aiming to focus on the target form through involving the learners in meaningful pee or teacher-learner interaction. As to the present study, it benefits from metacognitive listening instruction as an educational intervention to foster interaction through process-based listening and paving the way for the learners to learn the simple past through interaction caused by the teachers' discussion questions within the listening phases, assisting the learners to learn the simple past tense through FOF. To put it simply, metacognitive listening intervention will be taken as a tool to teach grammar through FOF approach. In fact, as no studies, up to the present might have taken the role of metacognitive listening instruction in teaching grammar into account, in the following, research on FOF and its importance in teaching grammar will be reviewed.

In a quasi-experimental study Spada and Lightbown (1993) attempted to examine the impact of instruction and corrective feedback on the development of interrogative constructions in the oral performance of ESL learners. The sample of the study consisted of franchophone ESL learners aged 10-12 who participated in

intensive communicative programs which were provided over a 5-month period in one school year. They were divided into two experimental classes and one control group. One experimental group received metalinguistic less explicit error correction; another one was provided with explicit error correction with no metalinguistic or implicit feedback, whereas in the comparison group instructor used implicit feedback most frequently. Both experimental classes received explicit instruction in the form of questions. The results of the pre-test and three post-tests (one immediately following the instruction, another one 5 weeks later, and the other one 5 months later) indicated that if form-focused instruction and corrective feedback are provided within the context of communicative interaction, they could lead to second language development.

Similarly, Lewon (2005) investigated the effectiveness of focus on form in developing second language learning. 118 learners who were distributed among 12 intact classes participated in the study at a private school in Auckland, New Zealand. The data were gathered by observing and recording the classes during 17 hours of meaning-focused L2 lessons. The learners were presented with individualized test items and focus-on-form episodes one day and two weeks after the treatment and were asked to recall the linguistic items provided in them. The findings revealed that incidental focus on form was useful in L2 learning. The immediate test showed that participants could produce nearly 60% of the targeted items correctly, and in the delayed posttest they were able to recall 50% of the correct form.

Long (1991) proposed an approach called FFI, which is an umbrella term to include both focus on forms and focus on form. Ellis defined FFI as "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form", (pp. 1-2). It seems that learners who begin learning when they are beyond early childhood appear to benefit from FFI. Long (1991) differentiated between focus on meaning, focus on forms, focus on form approaches. Focus on meaning describes purely communicative approaches (e.g. the Natural Approach) that emphasize pure meaning-based activities with no attempt to draw learners' attention to form. Learners only attend to the content of what they want to communicate. Focus on forms, in contrast, constitutes principled selection and presentation of linguistic features and structures in isolated manners. Focus on forms is based on structural syllabi and includes PPP, i.e. presentation, practice, and production stages, with paying little attention to communicative use. On the other hand, in focus on form, which came into existence as a rationale to highlight CF, there is some effort to draw learners' attention to form through CF while the primary focus is on meaning. Focus on form (FonF) includes all optimal conditions to meet learning. It is under learner control, i.e. it occurs when learner has a communication problem.

According to Fotos (1998), "FonF provides some type of implicit focus on grammar during communicative language teaching", (p.2). In FonF, attention can be either planned or incidental (Ellis, 2002). In planned FonF, the instruction will be intensive. It includes presentation of linguistic rules to attend to during a meaning-focused activity, while in incidental FonF the instruction will be extensive and attention to various forms will arise spontaneously during meaning-focused activities. In incidental FonF, attention will be distributed to a whole range of forms that have not been preselected which may not be enough for acquisition, but in planned FonF intensive attention will be given to preselected forms; hence, it can promote acquisition. Pretests and posttests can be used with planned FonF to measure learner's ability to use the targeted linguistic features; on the contrary, it is not feasible with incidental FonF since the linguistic items which arise during a meaning-focused activity are unpredictable (Loewen, 2005). Planned FonF involves the employment of focused tasks, but incidental FonF involves the use of unfocused tasks. Although planned FonF involves the use of focused tasks in the context of meaning-centered language use, it differs from the traditional grammar translation method due to the fact that target rules are embedded in meaning-focused activities, and learners are not aware of the fact that a particular form is being targeted; thus, they act as language users rather than as language learners when they perform the task.

In another study, Muranoi (2000) conducted a quasi-experimental study to find out the effects of two types interaction enhancement, (IE) plus formal debriefing (IEF), and IE plus meaning-focused debriefing (IEM) on the learning of English articles. The participants involved 91 Japanese university EFL students. They were assigned to two treatment groups: IEF and IEM. The former received implicit negative feedback and explicit explanation, while the latter was provided with negative feedback without any explicit grammar instruction. There was also a contrast group which received non-enhancement interaction plus meaning-focused debriefing. In terms of the pretest scores, there were no significant differences among the three groups, whereas they performed differently on the posttests. It was revealed that both the IEF and IEM groups were superior to the NEI group. However, IEF had a greater effect than IEM.

In a descriptive study in 2001, Williams investigated the effectiveness of spontaneous attention to form. The study also examined reactive language-related episodes (LREs) initiated by both the teachers and learners in forms of different feedback types. The data were gathered from 8 learners from 4 proficiency levels who took part in an intensive English program. Altogether 65 hours of audiotapes from listening classes were collected during 8 weeks. The findings indicated that all learners benefitted from the collaborative practices. However, there was a correlation between the effectiveness of LREs and learners' proficiency level; that is, learners with higher proficiency levels benefitted more from the LREs than those learners with lower proficiency levels. It was

also revealed that low proficiency learners benefitted more from teacher feedback than the feedback provided by other peers, but with students in higher levels, the feedback provided by both the teacher and other learners proved to be effective.

5. Metacognitive Listening Instruction.

Learning to listen remains mainly an individual affair, however. Learners do not benefit significantly from the knowledge and experiences of their peers and teachers. More importantly, many language programs still lack curricular support for overall listening development during and beyond the formal classroom. Learner-oriented listening instruction, therefore, needs to take advantage of the whole gamut of learning processes that learners experience in order to develop different aspects of their listening competence. Teachers need to nurture self-regulated learning and promote peer dialogue so that learners can learn to listen in a holistic manner (Goh, 1997, 2000; Vandergrift, 2004, 2007). In addition to the practice of listening, learners should know how to put metacognition into action. They can learn to use strategies appropriately during real-time listening and to direct their own learning though planning, monitoring, and evaluation, so that they continuously improve their listening abilities over months and years.

Metacognition has been shown to be one of the most reliable predictors of learning (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012)). In fact, many education scholars consider it central to the learning process and key to its success (Alexander, 2008; Borkowski, 1996). The benefits of metacognitive instruction have been reported in different subject domains, such as mathematics and reading. More recently, the positive outcomes of different kinds of metacognitive interventions for L2 listening have also been reported (see for example, Cross, 2009; Goh & Taib, 2006).

Metacognitive experience, awareness at a particular moment, can be fleeting; for this reason, immediate follow-up is important. Learners need to reflect more deeply on their feelings in a particular context in order to construct a deeper understanding of themselves as learners and the nature of the task at hand. Learners who are aware of learning needs or problems can either choose to do nothing differently or they can select appropriate strategies to improve their learning. We see metacognition in action when learners show awareness of gaps in comprehension and take immediate action, such as orchestrating the use of selected strategies to bridge the gap. Learners may also involve other participants in an interaction to help out when they experience difficulty in oral communication. For example, a learner senses that he or she does not understand what is being said and asks the speaker to repeat or clarify. A learner may also learn to use backchannelling or response tokens (e.g., "Yes," "That's really interesting," etc.) as strategies to keep the conversation going for as long as possible. Metacognition in action is also demonstrated when learners critically reflect on their knowledge about learning, before, during, or after a particular listening experience or task, or when they actively involve other agents in their environment to facilitate their learning as a result of these reflections (e.g., classmates, computers).

The concept of self-regulation, for example, is used by some scholars to describe an individual's ability to change cognitive processes in response to new or changing task demands (Graham, 2004). While the two concepts are similar, metacognition has "a clear cognitive orientation," and self-regulation focuses more on the "human action than the thinking that engendered it." The construct of self-regulation also draws attention to the role of environmental factors as a stimulant for selfawareness and a trigger for regulatory responses (Kim, 2002).

Cross's (2010) listening study, situated within a socio-cultural paradigm, demonstrates the important role of peer dialogue in metacognitive instruction and the impact it has on developing learners' metacognitive awareness about listening text, listening comprehension, and listening strategy. Cross meticulously cross-matched three sets of data from transcripts of dialogues and listening diaries. He was able to show that learners' metacognitive knowledge had indeed increased as a result of the dialogic interaction, through individual knowledge construction and peer jointconstruction. The way learners engaged in the process of learning to listen during dialogues at various points in their activities and their post-listening diary reflections clearly illustrated metacognition in action. This study also demonstrates how the pedagogical sequence, presented in the next chapter, can be utilized for planning lessons that have an explicit focus on "sharing, selecting, and reflecting on listening strategies by learners as a mechanism for stimulating their metacognitive awareness" (p. 285).

As to the metacognitive instruction, it refers to pedagogical procedures that enable learners to increase awareness of the listening process by developing richer metacognitive knowledge about themselves as listeners, the nature and demands of listening, and strategies for listening. At the same time, learners also learn to plan, monitor, and evaluate their comprehension efforts and the progress of their overall listening development. Metacognitive instruction will enable learners to become better learners of listening as they take positive action to self-regulate their learning. When integrated with well-planned listening tasks, metacognitive activities can be an effective way to improve listening proficiency and learner motivation.

The metacognitive pedagogical sequence (Vandergrift, 2004, 2007) can develop awareness of the process of one-way listening, and help listeners acquire the metacognitive knowledge critical to success in comprehension and in becoming self-regulated listeners. It builds on knowledge about skilled L2 listeners (e.g., Goh, 1997, 2000), comprehension instruction in cognitive psychology (e.g., Bernat, 2008), and the development

of self-regulated language learners (e.g., Zimmerman, 2005). This sequence involves the orchestration of metacognitive processes and other pertinent comprehension strategies, most notably inferencing and elaboration.

Metacognitive instruction adopts a process-based approach to instil in learners (1) knowledge about themselves as listeners (person knowledge); (2) the inherent complexities of L2 listening in relationship to task demands (task knowledge); and (3) effective listening strategies (strategy knowledge). The goal is to open up avenues to regulate listening comprehension and, ultimately, achieve greater success in L2 listening. We will illustrate this pedagogical sequence in three different listening activities; the first two are generic in that they can be used with any text and the last one is text-specific.

A high degree of metacognitive knowledge is a mental characteristic shared by successful learners; in fact, metacognition accounts for a relatively high percentage of variance in learning performance (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2008). There is extensive evidence that learners' metacognition can directly affect the process and the outcome of their learning (; Wenden, 1988). Research shows that it is positively linked to motivation and self-efficacy (Vandergrift, 2004) and that it can help learners regulate their comprehension (Pressley, 2002). There is, indeed, a strong theoretical basis for arguing that this pedagogical sequence can enhance listening success. Empirical support for metacognitive instruction as applied in this approach has been documented in recent studies with (1) federal public servants learning French; (2) Japanese-speaking learners of English; and (3) English-speaking learners of French.

6. Studies on Metacognitive Listening.

The pedagogical sequence was investigated by Mareschal (2007) with two groups of civil servants in intensive language training (French) for purposes of meeting bilingualism requirements in Canada. One group, at the low-intermediate level, had been assessed as poorly motivated, low achievers; the other group, at the low-advanced level, had been assessed as motivated, high achievers. The study used questionnaires, stimulated recalls, think-aloud protocols, interviews, and listening logs to investigate the effects of the pedagogical sequence on development of metacognitive awareness of L2 listening processes, overall success in comprehension, and student perceptions of this approach to instruction.

Triangulation of the rich qualitative data from all sources suggested that both groups of learners responded positively to the pedagogical approach and that it had beneficial effects on metacognitive awareness, strategy use, and confidence and interest in L2 listening. The beneficial effects were most evident in the lower proficiency group, whose think-aloud protocols revealed a considerable improvement in listening comprehension success over the course of the 12-week instruction. This was not a controlled experiment, however, and evidence for increased listening performance was based on qualitative data only. From the beginning to the end of the study, substantial differences were observed in the difficulty level of aural texts and demonstrated comprehension of these texts, through analysis of the think-aloud protocols by the lower proficiency group. While similar increases in listening achievement were not observed in the higher proficiency group, these learners responded positively to the metacognitive instruction. In particular, they noted the opportunity to discuss their comprehension with a partner and to consult a transcript of the text as beneficial for improving their listening comprehension skills.

The effect of strategy instruction was investigated by Cross (2009) over a 10-week period with advanced-level Japanese learners of English. In this controlled experiment, both groups experienced the pedagogical sequence while listening to news videotext. The experimental group received explicit strategy training in addition to the implicit, activity-based, process-based instruction underlying the pedagogical sequence. Results showed that both groups made significant gains in comprehension scores on the listening post-test, but that there was no significant difference for the group receiving the additional explicit strategy instruction. Cross attributes this result to the salience of the pedagogical sequence. In other words, systematic practice using the pedagogical sequence prompted learners in both groups to activate metacognitive processes and other appropriate cognitive strategies embedded in the listening activity.

In addition to providing empirical support for the pedagogical sequence, the Cross's study is important for our understanding of explicit strategy instruction in listening. There is some evidence that explicit strategy instruction can result in successful use of one or two strategies, but only immediately following the instruction period (Graham, 2003). The Cross study suggests that systematic practice with strategy-embedded activities using the pedagogical sequence, cued by activity performance, can better lead to overall listening improvement.

In another study, Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) examined the effects of the pedagogical sequence with three intact classes of university learners. Over the period of one semester (13 weeks), learners in one high-beginner and two low-intermediate French classes were guided through a process approach to listening, using the pedagogical sequence as outlined in the opening scenario of this chapter and described in the discussion of Activity 1. Learners recorded their predictions in a listening log where each page had three columns: a prediction column and one column each for the first and second listening notes. The bottom of each page included a line for goal-setting for the next listening activity. Each week, the classes followed the same procedure with a new listening text, and the teacher took a less active guiding role as the semester progressed. All variables were carefully controlled. The control group of three similar level classes was taught by the same teachers; one

teacher taught both high-beginner groups and another teacher taught all four low-intermediate groups. The control group also listened to the same texts three times. Before beginning the activity, similar to the experimental group, learners in the control group were given the same contextual information. The listening log for the control group differed in that it had only three columns for notes, one column for each of the three listens to the text. Learners in the control group did not engage in any formal prediction activity, nor were they given an opportunity to discuss, predict, or monitor their comprehension with a classmate. After the third listen, the instructor engaged the class in a discussion in order to confirm comprehension of the text. No discussion of strategy use took place, nor did learners engage in any formal reflection on their approach to listening or goal-setting for their next listening activity. The hypothesis that the experimental group would significantly outperform the control group was confirmed. There was a modest but significant difference between the two groups on the post-test, after initial differences in the listening ability between the two groups was taken into account. A closer examination of the final scores established that the difference in favor of the experimental group could be accounted for by the less skilled listeners: that is, the learners scoring below the median in the listening pre-test made greater gains than their more skilled peers. This finding demonstrates that, similar to findings by Goh and Taib (2006), less skilled listeners in particular can benefit from this kind of guided listening practice. The researchers attribute these results to the fact that the experimental group acquired implicit knowledge on an incremental basis over time.

To conclude, it seems that metacognitive listening instruction can provide an interactive atmosphere for second or foreign language listeners to improve their listening comprehension by engaging in a pedagogical process-based listening activity.

7. Conclusion.

In a nutshell, teaching grammar has encouraged researchers to take the focus on form approach to provide an atmosphere for the learners to interact in a meaningful communication and internalize the target for. Moreover, teaching in general has been seeking new methods to incorporate language skills into teaching sub-skills, which demands more elaboration and research. As metacognitive listening instruction has been proved to be an appropriate tool for gaining listening improvement in a course of time, in this regard, it seems that metacognitive listening strategy, which is a process-based approach toward teaching listening and in favor of encouraging communication to enhance the learners' listening ability interactively, can be taken at the service of teaching grammar as highlighted in focus on form. However, it is the listening strategy training which of importance in that it paves the way for both teachers and learners to interact with each other and raise the listening abilities as well as enhancing the target form during the interaction caused by the listening task.

Up to the present, there seems to be no research done to figure out the effect of metacognitive listening instruction on the learners' acquisition of grammar in general and simple past tense in particular. Moreover, most of the studies conducted in the context of metacognitive listening focused on adult language learners or university students (e.g. Goh & Tiab, 2006) particularly in second language setting, therefore, paving the way for more research to be carried out on the EFL young language learners who study in language institutes.

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Incorporating Literature for Fostering EFL Learners' Literary Competence

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Abstract.
This study aims to demystify the role of literature in enhancing literary competence (LC) of EFL learners. First of all, the significance of literature and the corresponding role in language teaching explained and the role of reading skill as a basic ability which is required in order to interact with a text is discussed. Next, the reasons behind Integrating Literature in reading process through some recent ideas are elaborated. After that, the concept of critical approaches toward thinking and reading are reviewed. Overall, the findings provide support for facilitative effect of literature on language teaching and specially reading skill.

Keywords: critical reading, EFL learners, language teaching, literary competence, literature, reading comprehension

1. Literature Importance and Its Correlation with Language.

Literature is like an unlimited garden which everyone can enter and pluck flowers according to his/her capacity. This is true for individual affairs as well as social aspects. For instance, psychologists have confirmed that reading literary (fiction) increases the ability to detect and understand other people's emotions, a crucial skill in navigating complex social relationship (Bury, 2013). One of the main areas of applying literature is language and its branches such as teaching language. According to many linguists and educationists such as Brumfit (2001), Littlewood (2006), Carter and Long (1990) etc. it is difficult and also not possible to isolate the realm of Literature from Language.

Although the importance of literature and its role in teaching language has changed over times, but never lose color. As Brumfit and Carter (2000) mention whatever view we take of the nature of literature, there is always some phenomenon which is recognized by both educational administrators and the general public, as an appropriate object for study in schools and universities. The use of literature to teach second/foreign languages can be traced back to over one century ago (Erkaya, 2005). "Literature was initially the main source of input for teaching in language classes in the era of Grammar Translation Method but since then it has been dropped down the pedestal" (Khatib, Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011, p. 201). "In the middle of the 1980s some practitioners and language scholars resurrected literature as a language learning material after a long period of being neglected" (Maley & Duff, 1991, p. 20). Nowadays the interrelatedness of language teaching and literature cannot be denied and literature represents one of the most recurrent uses of language (Rahimi, 2014).

Actually, there can be different varieties of language in a typical literary text. In other words, language can create its own specific context in the Literature classroom. Littlewood maintains that "the study of literature allows a variety of emphases and perspectives. Only if we become clear about what literature has to offer and what specific pupils require, can we begin to discuss its role and select appropriate methods and texts" (2006, p.183).

It is noteworthy that the impact of literature is not limited to just one aspect of language. Literature is an appropriate ground for practicing listening, reading, writing, speaking and other aspects of language. As Aghagolzadeh and Tajabadi (2012) cited literature will increase all language skills because it will develop linguistic knowledge, with its extensive and connotative vocabulary, and also its complex syntax. Similarly, McKay (1982) asserts that, literature will increase all language skills because literature will extend linguistic knowledge by giving evidence of extensive and subtle vocabulary usage, and complex and exact syntax. Likewise, Lao and Krashen (2000) present the results of a comparison between a group of students that read literary texts and a second group that read non-literary texts at a university in Hong Kong. As the consequence, the group who read literary texts showed more improvement in vocabulary and reading (Erkaya, 2005). Learners, who read a lot, tend to be better readers and writers than those who do not read more. Reading literature aloud also make students able to make a good progress in speaking as well as listening ability. Moreover it strengthens students' pronunciations (Noaman, 2013). McKay (1982) argues that literary texts can be ideal for reading skill too. In reading comprehension tasks, literary texts can stimulate interest and closer reading of the texts as well as integrating the four skills practice. He also maintains that literature can improve listening skills. For instance as a listening task, an unheard short story can be read aloud to the students and then teacher can ask students questions about comprehending the story (Khatib & Nasrollahi, 2012).

Widdowson (1975) recommended that the realm of literature and language teaching should be mutually reinforcing each other and not exclusive, if the learners are to be taught to read literature critically and thus, meaningfully. This matter becomes relevant in some situations like Iranian universities and institutions where the majority of students come from educational backgrounds where the mother tongue is the dominant medium of instruction. Therefore, their command of English is not that much adequate to make them enable to read some kind of sophisticated texts independently.

Despite of many advantages of literature in enhancing language teaching, there are some opposite views in this area. Here are some criticisms:

Mckay summarizes the common arguments against using literature in ESL classrooms as follows: "First, since one of our main goals as ESL teachers is to teach the grammar of the language, literature, due to its structural complexity and its unique use of language, does little to contribute to this goal. Second, the study of literature will contribute nothing to helping our students meet their academic and/or occupational goals. Finally, literature often reflects a particular cultural perspective; thus, on a conceptual level, it may be quite difficult for students" (1982). Khatib collects some scholar opposite views about literature in language classes, which includes: syntax and lexis difficulty, outdate phonetics and phonology, changed semantics, difficulty in selecting materials appropriate to students, unfamiliarity, inconsistency with academic goals and cultural barriers (Khatib, et al.,2011).

Despite these negative comments regarding the use of literature in EFL classes, none of these criticisms shows serious barriers toward applying appropriate literary texts in EFL classes. For example, the structural complexity of literary texts can be helpful as a source of practical language practice. So, despite these objections and some ups and downs of literature as one of the materials in EFL classes, nowadays its role in EFL curriculum is evident. Literature is an appropriate ground for practicing all language skills, specifically reading skill. Actually, literature provides the students, with a variety of authentic and attractive texts, which enables them to think critically and partake in social relations that cross national and regional borders, on the condition that it is appropriately selected and cooperated with other tools such as "Literature Circles in EFL" (Bedel, 2011), and it depends mainly on instructor's proficiency and experiment to collect suitable texts for his/her students.

2. Reading Skill and Literature.

Reading is a complicated process through which the readers try to interact and comprehend what they read. Furthermore, reading is a receptive skill because we usually gain information from the texts we read (Noaman, 2013). It is an important way of gaining information in language learning and it is a basic skill for learners (Shakibaei & Keivan, 2014). Alptekin (2006, p. 494) defined reading as "an interaction of the readers' text-based and knowledge-based process". He goes on asserting that "in processing texts, readers combine literal comprehension, based on lower-level cognitive processes of reading such as a lexical access and syntactic parsing with inferential comprehension, based on higher-level cognitive processes such as the text base of comprehension (to understand what the text says) and the situation model of interpretation (to understand what it is about)" (Khatib & Nasrollahi, 2012, p. 242). Reading entails the ability to connect with a text by decoding the language and comprehending the concepts presented (Brumfit & Carter, 2000).

To choose reading materials, there are widely innumerable readable materials for different purposes and stages, but literature has a special place in this area due to the fact that it can provide learners to have good "opportunities for a profound reading" (Harris & Sipy, 1990, p. 80). Literature is often more interesting than the texts found in course books (Erkaya, 2005). In addition, Khatib and Nasrollahi (2012, p. 241) summarize the benefits of literature as an educational material: first of all, literature can be utilized as an authentic source of input in language classes. Second, studying literature and literary texts can provide students with the good opportunity to practice different language skills. Additionally, teaching literature can play as an aid in order to improve all four language skills. Third, literature can make a good progress in cultural awareness, and provides students with a "truly cultural competence". It can also equip learners with "culturally-apposite pragmatic and socio-psychological components around which to build effective identities which will enable their socialization in the target culture and enhance the effectiveness with which they participate in that culture". Fourth, literature can enhance interaction. Literary texts are almost rich and prolific in multiple underlying layers of concepts and meaning therefore, can be effectively mined for fruitful class discussions. While literature has the potentiality to play as a tool of a great use in L2 classrooms, its potentiality can be best realized when students are encouraged to develop their personal responses to the reading from multiple aspects and to share them in discussions (Khatib & Nasrollahi, 2012).

3. Integrating Literature in Reading Process

Here are some scholars' recent ideas on language teaching practices about how literature can integrate and enhance reading skill and encourage students to read interestingly and keep doing it during their whole life. For example, the teachers should animate students toward literature. When the students understand that literature is the foundation of life, and indicates many topics, from friendship to love stories, in which everyone will be definitely involved in his/her own life, so they will be interested in them gradually. Interest in reading, appears to

be a significant motivational variable influencing different aspects of reading performance (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997).

Among the advantages of using literature in the EFL classroom, authenticity is a pattern which is considered the most. Literature is inherently authentic and provides most authentic input for language learning (Ghosn, 2002; Shrestha, 2008). According to Maley (1989) "literature deals with non-trivial things which are personally relevant to them" (p. 33).

It is obvious that reading can be more attractive if it is cooperated with other tools such as a music which matches with a piece of text, at least in primary stages. Children can be more successful, learning to read if the words of the text are familiar, such as the words to a favorite song (Towell, 2000).

Forming a literature environment, can help reluctant students to become more interested in reading. "A literature environment is a place where there are appropriate books to share" (Alden, Lindquist & Lubkeman, 2003, P 12).

The collection of literary genres (e.g. poetry, story, novel, drama, etc.) that literature proposes is a good source of rich and fruitful language exposure, especially in the ESL classroom (Amer, 2012). If the teachers examine a selection of literary genres during curriculum, there will be some literary texts which every student would be interested in surely.

Teaching grammar, vocabulary, verb tenses and etc according to a literary text, helps students to learn them practically, not in isolation. Input-reach inductive grammar instruction encourages students to view grammar not just as isolated letters, words, and phrases, but also as a meaningful component of contextualized language use. Grammar instruction that draws students' attention to both grammatical forms and their meaning in context mirrors approaches to reading instruction that also focus on these interdependent variables (paesani, 2005)

Literature is a rich source to enable students to partake in social relations that cross national and regional borders. In the era of globalization and cultural globalization, "exposure to literature stimulates learners to reflect on concepts, recognize real life problems, explore causes and solutions, and compare their values and life styles with other cultures". This can provide teachers and learners in the language classroom, with an authentic and rich context for discussion about their cultural values and traditions in contrast with other cultures. This, in turn, may encourage learners to avoid ethnocentrism and develop intercultural competence" (Amer, 2012).

Involving students in selecting their favorite texts, encourage them toward reading. A motivating educator includes students in the decision making about what they read and provide them with literature related activities (Alden et al, 2003).

Literature can be used as a way to critical thinking. Instructors can teach students, habits of questioning, searching for causes and realities, and testing the claims. If the task of reading a text associated with mentioned instructions, it will lead to new levels of understanding and experience. "These techniques can then be transferred to enrich the reading of expository texts as well, and they will encourage dialogue, self-expression, and problem-solving-in short, highly communicative ESL classes" (Gajdusek, 1988, p. 233).

Literature is an appropriate tool for language analysis. "It invites us to go beyond what is said, to what is implied. Since it suggests many ideas with few words, literature is ideal for generating language discussion. Maximum output can often be derived from minimum input" (Khatib, Ranjbar & Fathi, 2012, P 14).

"Literature Circles in EFL" is an effective way toward reading and applying literature in the EFL classrooms. Literature circles are classroom groups made up of students who read a specific book or a piece of literature and perform the tasks that correspond to their roles that change for every meeting. Each of these roles is about different aspects of the text, such as: summary, vocabulary, preparing questions, determining cultural items, focusing on specific passages and making real life connections. The results show that, during the process, the students were highly motivated to read and in that way they improved their interactional skills in English (Bedel, 2011)**.**

So, there are certainly some literature materials which every student would be interested in reading it.

4. Critical Thinking, Critical Reading.

Critical pedagogy (CP) as an educational theory rooted in critical theory which is a general approach to power and knowledge in social contexts (Freire, 1972; Torres, 1999). "Critical thinking skills are strategies people use to consider and evaluate new ideas" (Fahim, Barjesteh & Vaseghi, 2012, pp. 140). Generally, critical thinking plays an important role in learning programs because it is what learners need in an academic environment as well as their whole life.

By definition, critical thinking is the art of analyzing and evaluating thinking with a view to improving it (Paul & Elder, 2006). Woolfolk and Murphy (2001) consider critical thinking the evaluation of results through logical investigation of issues, documents and solutions. Salvin (2006) thinks critical thinking is the ability to make logical decisions about what needs to be performed and what needs to be believed. Johnson (2002) says that critical thinking provides the person the possibility to search the truth in a load of resources and subjects and to reach one's goal i.e. reaching the most comprehensive understanding.

On the other hand, the concept of critical reading is growing along with critical thinking approach too. In a study conducted by Otensoy (2011), the effect of critical reading on students' critical thinking is investigated. "When we read critically, we are always alert, always on the look out for hidden clues, never reliant on the infallibility of the author." (Yudkin, 2006, p. 101). "Critical readers need to have the ability to check their understanding as they move through the text to check their comprehension ability" (Mahboobi & Kaur, 2011, p. 35). Akın, Koray and Tavukçu (2015) believe that the concept of critical reading which is recently put forward as a model approach, especially in education, can be seemed as an attempt of re-reading, which requires handling many concepts affecting our life directly or indirectly with a wider perspective. They argue that Critical reading requires a process of active communication where comments and evaluation on the text are conducted and the text being read, forms the basis for other readings and besides, though the reading process ends, the meaning transmission of the text is still in progress. These qualities which critical reading possesses are quite sufficient for information age.

In spite of the evidence suggesting that the average person tries and struggles so hard to think and read in a critical way, many experts are optimistic about the capacity of people to easily become critical literary readers with suitable, prepared and also appropriate instruction (Halpern, 1998). Kennedy, Fisher and Ennis (1991) mentioned that empirical research suggests that students of all intellectual ability levels and language background can benefit from critical reading instruction and so as from LC as the quick result of it. Similarly, Lewis and Smith (1993) argue that critical reading skills are for everybody to learn and apply them to different genres of reading specifically literary works to explore what are the underlying layers and facts building up the whole story.

In recent decades, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills has mentioned critical reading as one of the learning tools which is so vital and also necessary to make students ready for higher levels of education especially literary fields. In addition, the Common Core State Standards reflect critical reading as a cross-disciplinary skill necessity for college education and also for employment (Paul, 1992).

Moreover, Wiland (2009) in his article called "How to develop literary competence in an English classroom" mentions that this question is too comprehensive and complex to be answered in a single article, as the issues involved tap into the field of text selection, and therefore national curriculum plans and examinations, activities and group dynamics in a class, and the teacher personality monitoring the reading of literary texts in the classroom. Furthermore, he continues that regardless of the mentioned obstacles and barriers, there seem to be some fundamental principles emerging from recent trends in literary theory that might contribute to enhancing the enjoyment of both teachers and learners in a class and thus create a natural basis for the development of LC (Wiland, 2009). Since LC is to be developed in the learner of English, increased awareness on the part of the teachers about reader-response theories seems a sensible first step. He believes that, the function of reader oriented theories is to liberate readers, also untrained young readers in school, from the constraints sometimes implicit in other literary theories. "Without this theoretical back up we might be more reluctant to give up the traditional text-oriented stand that is still favored by many teachers" (Wiland, 2009, p. 1)

According to Wiland not only theories are necessary to develop LC. Research on how foreign language learners actually respond to literature, and poetry particularly, may shed light on what approaches work well with learners of English and thus increase motivation for reading English, a necessary step to develop LC. Therefore, he continued the discussion about theory by some response samples from his own research, Poetry: Prima Vista. Reader-Response Research on Poetry in a Foreign Language Context, including suggestions about approaches and procedures in the classroom. He tried to make connections between the theories for all age groups, and the teaching of literature generally in the foreign language classroom.

5. Literary Competence: Some Empirical Studies.

5.1. ESL Context

At the onset of the rise of New Criticism in the 1930s and 40s, the formal dimensions of literary works accompanied by all its structure and language acquired significance. The technique of close reading was advocated and used in order to understand the importance of so many linguistic details such as sounds, lexis, syntax, rhythm etc. This kind of focus on a text helps to bring out some features that may otherwise have been missed. It provides a kind of framework for students which can be applied in order to teach them to become aware of how the literary text codifies its meanings and challenges the readers to react to the theme and representation of human experience in the text independently.

Isenberg (1990), conducted a survey on the problems which face EFL students of English literature when confronted directly with the reading of a literary text and which stem from a basic 'literary inadequacy'. She maintains that this, when combined with the difficulties posed by a very partial knowledge of the foreign language (with all its linguistic and cultural implications), can make the problem of 'understanding' a literary text seem an ever impossible task to the student. She mentions that many secondary and university-level EFL teachers feel the need to help students develop study strategies to improve LC. She focused on some study strategies which aim at developing the reader's awareness of how he should approach the reading of a literary text and that can be seen as a useful integration into the syllabus even by teachers in countries where tradition

advocates a historical approach to the study of literature. She believes that increasingly, it is the case that teachers in these countries, whether they be native or imported, would like to put more emphasis on the reading of the literary text to help students use more intelligently the historical-critical materials on which they tend to rely too heavily. The question of LC is considered in terms of intellectual performance. According to her, remembering those EFL teachers who work with young adult students, recommendations are offered for improving EFL LC through intervention at the procedural level. The suggestions are based mainly and firstly on the idea that the act of reading a literary text can be seen as a form of information processing, and secondly on a consideration of the thought processes involved in the understanding of a literary text.

Coenen (1992) was one of the first researchers who endeavored to systematically define and characterize LC and thus the term LC finds its origin orderly in literary studies since then. Before that, Culler (1975) and Subsequently Schmidt (1982) used the term by analogy with Chomsky's linguistic competence, in order to describe the literary system. Culler (1975) aimed at the specific system of literary conventions and asked for a kind of comprehensive literary theory that has the potentiality to be considered as a sort of grammar of literature.

Paul (1992) argues that a sort of typical school instruction and program does not strongly encourage and persuade the development of higher-order thinking skills and ability such as critical reading, critical thinking and LC. Paul further explains that knowledge is coterminous with the form of thinking, especially good or critical thinking. However, typical form of school program and instruction with its pure emphasis and focus on the coverage of content and syllabus, is designed as though recall were equivalent to knowledge. This kind of lower-order learning is actually learning by rote or association, with the finished result that learners come up only with memorizing testing material without recognizing and understanding the logic of it. Students tend not to simply recognize that their assertions, beliefs, and statements have implications, and therefore, require evidence to support them. (Paul, 1992).

Actually, many researchers and experts working in the realm of critical LC object the imperfect and poor state of LC in most of the educated adults and also children. For instance, Halpern (1998) refers to research from the field of psychology, concluding that many adults fail to practice and promote LC while reading a literary text in most situations due to lack of the knowledge of literary terminology or not being aware of some strategies which play a very important and vital role in evaluating, analyzing and interpreting a piece of literary work which therefore results in the readers with the very low LC.

Witte, Janssen and Rijlaarsdam (2006) conducted a study which mainly focuses on clarifying the concept of LC, based on the pedagogical content knowledge and the praxis of six expert teachers and their students for three years. They distinguished and identified six levels of LC, actually defined by what students can do with literary texts of a certain complexity. They maintained that two components interact while describing different levels of competence that are: 1) complexity of the literary text and 2) level of understanding and interpretation. After establishing the six levels they tested the system by describing the longitudinal development in LC of 30 students aged 16 to18 from six different schools over their final years of secondary schooling. In order to assess the literary development of these thirty students, they analyzed the student portfolio's which consisted of some book reports and several reading tasks for 8 to 12 books. Each student was involved in three to four interviews: at the beginning of the process (grade 10), and at the end of grades 10, 11 and 12. Then, the portfolios were analyzed for factors such as motivation and indicators of LC. The result of the Analyses of student portfolios shows a development from the start of upper secondary (grade 10) to the end (grade 11 or 12).

In this section they reported the outcomes of the analyses of students' portfolios and subsequent interviews on three elements of LC such as: reading preferences, the type of arguments students used to evaluate the quality of works they read, and also the motives to read literature students communicate in their book reports and interpretation tasks.

Dey (2009) did a research on the English literature study in India about how much the learners can achieve LC in a text based learning environment. She tried to prove that the study of English Literature in India is largely teacher dependent; hence, students rarely acquire LC. At the outset of the study she defined LC in terms of specific Cognitive and Linguistic and Rhetorical Skills, and an adaptation of the Stylistics Approach to Literature was used as the teaching methodology for the experiment. She used an Experimental Group who was taught English poetry specified in their curriculum over a two-year period with gradually decreasing teacher support. A Control Group of comparable ability was also taught the poems in the syllabus using the conventional method. The two groups were tested at the start and end of the experiment and the scripts were statistically analyzed by the researcher and an experienced teacher. The Experimental Group showed significant progress on Overall scores. The researcher then analyzed the progress made by the two groups in terms of the skills that constituted LC using a specially designed Rating Scale and recorded the gains made by the Experimental Group. Next, the two groups were compared on the sub-skills and it was found that special training improved some of the sub-skills significantly. Incidentally, a comparison of the Standard Deviation across groups, showed that the Control Group became more homogenous, a consequence perhaps of traditional teaching which ignores individual differences. It was concluded that a text based approach to literature teaching helped develop LC significantly in students.

5.2. EFL Context.

Ghahremani-Ghajar and Mirhosseini (2005) conducted a survey about dialogue journal writing as a critical EFL literacy practice. They actually employed a kind of ethnographic research method, explored how dialogue journal writing, that enables teachers and learners to be engaged in a written conversation, might provide them an opportunity in order to bring critical pedagogy and foreign language education together in a productive way in the context of a critical literacy practice. The data consisted of some informal written interviews and more than 600 journal entries which were written by 30 16-year-old high school students in Tehran. Consequently, the results were qualitatively analyzed in search of some themes relevant to empowerment as a critical educational value and critical writing as a critical literacy practice. The study revealed that writing dialogue journals as a language education activity in EFL pedagogy may empower learners and provide them with opportunities to express their voice. It further revealed that dialogue journal writing led to gains in critical self-reflective EFL writing ability.

Furthermore, a research has been done by Izadinia and Abednia (2010), about dynamics of an EFL reading course with a critical literacy orientation in which they explored how a critical literacy approach to reading development might contribute to EFL learners' personal development. Also they investigated what students' perceptions of a reading course with a critical literacy orientation are. Some freshman English literature students took part in a reading comprehension course and throughout the course, learners were encouraged to cope with some passages brought by them in a problem solving manner actually through group discussion and also reflective journals. Then they were engaged in a process of writing two self-assessments and also two class assessments at the end of the first month and by the end of the course. Finally, as a result of the thematic analysis of journals, a number of themes emerged which showed the contribution of the CL approach to learners' development of voice and self-awareness.

As the development of language competence is the main focus of teaching a language, LC also plays the major role of development in teaching literature. So as the instruction and application of teaching techniques and strategies can keep help developing language competence among learners, they can also be of help to make a good progress in development of LC, among which are CRS.

6. Conclusion.

In this article, some of the works being done in the realm of literature, LC and language teaching, with emphasis on reading skill and critical approaches were mentioned. First of all, the significance of literature and its specific role in language teaching was referred to. Then it discussed the role of reading skill as a basic ability which was required in order to interact with a text. Next, the reasons behind Integrating Literature in Reading Process through some recent ideas were mentioned. After that, the concept of critical approaches toward thinking and reading were reviewed upon proceeding by finding out about the concept of LC and also to have a look at some research conducted with the subject of LC.

Despite changing attitudes towards literature as one of the main materials in EFL classes, nowadays its role in EFL education is undeniable. Literature is an efficient tool for practicing all language skills and specially reading skill. Literature provides the learner, with a numerous authentic and attractive texts, which let them to think critically and get involved in social relations that cross nation borders, on the condition that it is properly selected and be accompanied with other tools and it depends mainly on instructor's proficiency and experiment to collect suitable texts for learners. Despite some negative ideas about using literature in EFL classes, none of them shows serious obstacles toward applying suitable literary texts in EFL curriculum. So, there are surely some kinds of literary texts which each learner would be interested in reading it.

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Dynamics in the competitive position of importers of new cars in Bulgaria

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Abstract.

The high intensity of competition on the market for new cars in Bulgaria, the market power of producers during negotiations and well-developed market for used cars are prerequisite for development of a good competitive strategy, by the side of existing competitors in the market, which requires good competitive positioning through the use of sustainable resources of competitive advantages. In the economics literature, there is a wide interest, but different views in the definition and measurement of the competitive position of micro level. There are a number of indicators, whose role is recognized as a measure of achieved results and success in the competitive struggle. The systematic and continuous process of monitoring and benchmarking the competitive position and the desire to occupy a more favorable, this is the main task of any enterprise in achieving a sustainable competitive advantage. In this aspect, the main aim of this article is to positioning in momentary and dynamic period of five years, five most preferred importers of new cars in Bulgaria on key performance indicators and indicators for growth, which determine the sustainability of their competitive advantages. By using DuPont analysis, Sustainable Growth Rate analysis, statistical analysis of structural changes and coefficients of normalization, applied to various indicators, is defined competitiveness of new cars importers and is given a proof, that their competitive positioning is stable, but there is strong variations in the obtained results and efficiency and need to use multidimensional set of indicators to define competitive position.

Keywords: competitive position, sustainable, new car, importers, dynamics, structural differences, structural changes.

1. Introduction.

Current processes of globalization, market oversaturation, rapid economic development, customers' high expectations and uncertainty lead to intensification of competitive struggle between companies. The existence and future development of economic subjects are progressively less dependent on the influence of isolated and slow-developing in time factors. Increasing role in the struggle for scarce resources acquires competitive behavior and interaction as a form of reaching and retaining competitive advantage.

For decades companies have fought to improve their performance in a situation of uncertainty and dynamics of competitive markets. Likewise, the strategy management theory has sought ways for achieving superior performances (Porter 1985; Porter 1996; Grant 1991; Peteraf 1993; Eisenhardt & Martin 2000; Proff & Fojcik 2011; Rumelt 1991). Holding a superior competitive position on the market requires from companies: to constantly seek and exploit innovative sources of competitive advantages; to implement strategies adequate to changes in the business environment and competitive dynamics in the market; and to apply 'isolating mechanisms' against creative distraction of competitive position. Nevertheless, a causal correlation between superior companies 'performance and competitive advantages has not been fully proven (Ma 2000; Powell 2001) and the content of sources of competitive advantage has not been uniquely defined, sustainable competitive advantage is considered a factor in achieving high companies' performance (and sometimes as a synonym for those). On other hand, superior performances are an indicator of competitive advantage, adequacy of the implemented strategies and management decisions by the firm. Dynamics in companies' competitive behavior alter sectors positioning chart fast and therefore, momentary measuring of business performance is not sufficient, and their sustainability attainable only if constantly adapting, setting up and retaining innovative sources of competitive advantages. There are differences in the content, number and scope of business performance at positioning, but most scholars direct their attention to utilizing a multidimensional set of indicators, due to differences in their importance for the company and the links between them.

Although automotive industry is one of the most significant and dynamically developing sectors both on a world scale (72.3m cars are produced at 70.9m car registration in 2014), and in Europe (provides for 5.6% of the workforce, generates positive trade balance of E 95.1 billion and invests E 41.5 billion in innovations annually) (ACEA 2016), new car dealers' business as the next link in the supply chain is relatively less researched. Automotive industry as a high concentrated sector with large players have market power at negotiations with car importers in different countries, which makes the sector less attractive for dealers and increases their dependency on internationally renowned car manufacturers' interests. Therefore, a research of competitive positions is of serious interest for business and in particular for companies specialized in new car trade in Bulgaria, whose studies are partial and limited. The competition intensity among the twenty-two official importers of new cars in Bulgaria is dictated by the lack of distinctive advantages (except car brand) and well developed market of used cars. A research conducted among managers of car dealers in Bulgaria shows that they seldom perform exhaustive competitive intelligence and rely on secondary sources of information, current practices and intuition to make a management decision (Hristova 2013).

The significance of business performance as a starting point for making adequate management decisions, related to competitive behavior, and achieving sustainable competitive advantages; as well as, the lack of sufficient competitive research in car market in Bulgaria; is a prerequisite for positioning the five most preferred new car importers by key performance coefficients and growth indicators both momentary and dynamically for a five-year period (from 2010 to 2014).

Competitive positioning is implemented through a set of various indicators grouped into two (a) key performance coefficients (MS, ROA, ROE, GPM, NPM, OPM, OROA, TAT, IT, Cost Of Good Sold Ratio (COGSR), Sustainable Growth Rate (SGR), Equity Multiplier (EM)), and (b) growth indicators, related to momentary indicators within the five-year period (growth rate indicators and indicator variances). Momentary and dynamic positioning of leading competitors on the new car market can identify: presence or absence of sustainable competitive advantages in their business, successfulness of activities initiated and opportunities for more favorable positioning in the future.

2. Literature review.

Competition is a process of continual change in firm's capability to know competitors and outperform them, which enforces continuous measuring current competitive position on the market. Occupying superior competitive position is related to the opportunity to achieve sustainable competitive advantage and implementation of competitive strategy which means business performance will not be hindered by 'creative destruction' by competitors (Grant 1991; Porter 1985; Baraskova & Krystallis 2010; Yamin et al. 1999; Horwath 2006). A range of business performance measuring tools stand at the basis of determining competitive position. A range of business performance that vary in amount, content and scope, stand at the basis of determining competitive position. They reflect competitive advantages achieved by a company and its capability to resist to the influence of market forces (Porter 1985).

Economists, researchers and practitioners have been questioning the method of achieving and retaining superior performance in industry for years on end. According to strategy management literature, favorable sustainable competitive positioning by business performance is linked to presence and retaining of sustainable competitive advantages (Barney 1991; Porter 1979; Grant 1991; Ismail et al. 2011; Yamin et al. 1999; Porter 1996). But the causes behind differences in competitors' business performance within an industry and their relation to competitive advantage is a subject of discussions in literature (Ma 2000). Thus, for instance, according to Market - Based View (MBV) in Strategy Theory market structure and industry attractiveness, along with firms' capability to adapt their behavior and strategy to defend their competitive position toward market powers, are at the basis of firms' profitability differences (Caves & Porter 1977; McGahan & Porter 1997; Fidalgo & Victoria 2007). Conversely, according to Resource-Based View (RBV) enterprises with value, rareness, inimitability, and non-substitutability resources achieve sustainable competitive advantage and outperform others (Rumelt 1991; Barney 1991; Mahoney 2001; Grant 1991; Fiol 2001; Lockett & Thompson 2001). As sources of competitive advantages and performance boosters can be viewed and: know-how and information (Hayek 2002; Wiklund, J., Shepherd 2003); capabilities (Grant 1991; Bani-Hani & Faleh 2009); relational rents (Dyer & Singh 1998), dynamic capabilities (Teece et al. 1997; Proff & Fojcik 2011; Smith, K. Ferrier, W. Ndofor 2001; Eisenhardt & Martin 2000). Therefore, both the content of sources of competitive advantages, and their definition remain a controversial issue (Rumelt & Kunin 2003), but are considered a basis for achieving successful competitive positioning and superior business performance.

In most cases achieving superior performance is directly and highly correlated with companies' competitive advantages (for example, Wiklund and Sheferd prove causal and direct dependence between the resources and business performance (Wiklund, J., Shepherd 2003)), which is recognized both by the theory of market structure, and by the resource approach, but yet, it is not identical to them (Ma 2000; Ma 1999; Rose & Abdullah 2010). It is likely for a firm to hold competitive advantages, which managers are not aware of, and thus, not to utilize their potential; not to own good combination of advantages, which are hard to imitate; or factors not dependent on the firm to get involved, which can lead to negative relation between performance and competitive advantages (Ma 2000). From this perspective, competitive advantages are not universal and reshape in different context, industries and time period. A unique and favorable competitive position based on business performance cannot be informative for specific competitive advantages which a company holds but is a possible indicator that such exist.

Without any doubt, to achieve superior business performance is the main objective of all organizations. The sustainability of the achieved results relates to firms' interests and it is their priority. Superior business performance for a continuous period of time, as well as sustainable competitive advantage, require adequate competitive behavior on the market. Traditional competitive strategies on cost leadership, differentiation and focus are static in their essence and do not reflect on the necessity of dynamics and adjustment to changes in external environment (Proff & Fojcik 2011; Cockburn et al. 2000). Based on competitive dynamic theory, accordingly with the hypercompetition conditions, enterprises perform network of actions and reactions aiming attack and defend the achieved competitive position and even enhance it, which is only possible with constant monitoring of the changing positioning map (Smith, K. Ferrier, W. Ndofor 2001; Teece et al. 1997; Eisenhardt &

Martin 2000). At the dynamics of competitive environment, each company strive to imitate and capture the position of a stronger competitor, which forces them to apply 'isolating mechanisms' against creative destruction (Smith, K. Ferrier, W. Ndofor 2001). From this point of view, an achieved competitive advantage is temporary due to the dynamics of firm's competitive behavior (Fiol 2001), and business performance sustainability achieved only if constantly adjusting, researching and implementing innovative sources of competitive advantages. There is a direct and strong relation between achieved business performance and the time to respond to a competitor's action (Boyd & Bresser 2008), which shows the necessity to monitor business performance for a prolonged period of time. Porter points that short-term changes in business performance are firm's operational management objective and due to permanent strive for enhancement and utilizing key resources and capabilities managers cannot see the overall picture of their business and apply a strategy for achieving sustainable competitive advantage and results (Porter 1996). The performance sustainability is related to a prolonged period of time during which it can be retained (Porter 1985). From this point of view, firm performance benchmarking at a momentary given period of time shows temporary and inexact picture of competitive positioning, which may reflect unrealistically the achieved firms' competitive advantages.

Dynamic competitive positioning by firms' performance provide enterprises with information about obtained success toward competitors, the correctness and adequacy of implemented competitive strategy and the required competitive behavior consistent with competitive dynamics in the future. Competitive positioning may be implemented both through management, and customers' point of view, and a range of methods and models are known so to measure the position through various in amount, scope and content indicators. Competitive positioning by business performance, which suggests it's benchmarking, is the basis of competitive behavior for achieving higher performance and it is related to comparing to particular business indicators with those of past periods of time and those of competitors (Eldanfour & Abushaiba 2004). While initially performance measuring was based on one key indicator (e.g., ROI, ROE or Market Share), with the theory and contradictions of the connection between the separate indicators development, the necessity of implementing a multidimensional set of performance is acknowledged for measuring competitive position along with lack of isolation of business performance and strategic management decisions (Bourne & Neely 2003). A considerable amount of authors analyze the connection between firm performance indicators, such as market share and profitability; and while some observe a positive correlation between them (Chu 2011; Buzzle et al. 1974; Yannopoulos & Business n.d.; Farris & Moore 2004), others observe a negative and indirect correlation (Jacobsen 1988; Rumelt, R. 1981; Davidsson, Per., Steffens, Paul R., Fitzsimmons 2009). The inconsistency between the relations of indicators requires competitive positioning thru a set of various indicators; and thus, to obtain a precise perspective of business and to set more adequate competitive goals and strategies (Kaplan, R. Norton 1992; Pintea 2012; Bourne & Neely 2003). Therefore, firm performance benchmarking should involve both financial measuring tools– ROE, ROI, ROS, FL, TAT; and nonfinancial (operating) ones, such as market share, putting new products on the market, marketing efficiency(Venkatraman & Ramanujam 1986; Yamin et al. 1999). In accordance to this paper objectives, in this research mainly financial performance measuring tools are used, which are base of performance set in most strategy research (Venkatraman & Ramanujam 1986; Yasar 2010). Using financial results as a basis for dynamic firm positioning gives better access to information and comparison at data output, yet it is criticized for not giving account of business variables, external focus and retrospective orientation, which predetermine the limits of the study.

3. Methodology.

This research is based on calculating key performance coefficients and growth indicators for the period 2010-2014, using data from the financial statement of the five most preferred new car importers in Bulgaria. As key performance indicators are used: Market Share (MS), Return on Assets (ROA), Return on Equity (ROE), Gross Profit Margin (GPM), Net Profit Margin (NPM), Operating Profit Margin (OPM), Operating Return On Assets (OROA), Total Assets Turnover (TAT), Inventory Turnover (IT), Cost Of Good Sold Ratio (COGSR), Sustainable Growth Rate (SGR), Equity Multiplier (EM). Applying these indicators is extensively used in theory and practice, while each of them has a cognitive significance for the company's operational activity, its capability to generate profit, to perform effectively and efficiently, and compared to competitors to generate superior performance (Walsh 2013; Fleisher, Craig S.; Bensoussan 2003). Key performance indicators are analyzed not only momentary, each year of the period, but also in dynamics. That leads to calculating growth indicators for each key performance cefficient. Thus, using mean relative growth rates (RGRm) and Integrated Coefficient of Inequality in Structure (ICIS), which shows irregularity or differentiation in distribution of a given indicator among structural units (Gatev 2007), explore the dynamics of the competitive positioning. For the purpose of establishing the concentration on the market of new cars in Bulgaria for each year individually and mean, concentration ratio of the five biggest competitors on the market (CR_5) is measured, which define the intensity degree of competitive struggle. To determine difference in market share distribution and competitors' profitability (through the years of the period and mean), the Integrated Coefficient of Structural Differences – ICSD is used, which would confirm or reject the hypothesis of lack of direct relation between company's size and performance indicators (Gatev 2007). Sustainability of indicators distribution in time between companies is

studied through calculating Integrated Coefficient of Structural Changes - ICSC (Gatev 2007; Kovaleva 2015; Yelhina 2014). DuPont Analysis and Sustainable Growth Rate analysis are used to determine the relations and dependences between each indicator and the reasons behind them. Applying those types of analyses is considered applicable to competitive positioning in search for the factors behind position achieved and capabilities of enhancement. A procedure of unity-based normalization of rescale the value of each indicator is applied in order to eases determining the exact importer' position by each indicator, calculating each importer's general competitive position and the differentiation between them.

4. Results and discussion of dynamics in competitive positioning of importers of new cars in Bulgaria.

New car market in Bulgaria is extremely dynamic, where suppliers- world renowned car manufacturers, customers with comparatively low income and their preference for second-hand cars have important influence. The data taken from the Automobile Manufacturers' Association and their authorized dealers in Bulgaria and the European Automobile Manufacturers' Association (ACEA) show 100,934 new cars in total were sold in Bulgaria in the 2010 – 2014 period. The sales trend is inconsistent and while in 2011 they are increased 14.23% toward 2010, then decreased 9.8% in 2013 toward 2011 and then, again went up 5.2% for the last year of the period. So the mean relative growth rate in sales on the whole market is increased 2.37%. Twenty-two new car importers operate on the market and they are often authorized dealers of a particular manufacturer and its brands for the Bulgarian market. The number of competitors is comparatively low, yet concentration is relatively high - CR5 is about 60 % and rising in the last couple of years. That serves as a proof for Bulgarian customers' preference to these particular importers and their car brands.

Table 1 shows key performance indicators and growth indicators for the 2010-2014 period of the five most preferred new car importers in Bulgaria, which are: Renault Nissan Bulgaria, Toyota Balkans, Porsche BG, Moto Pfohe BG and Sofia France Auto. The first importer is an authorized dealer for Renault, Dacia and Nissan; the second one for Toyota and Lexus; the third one imports Volkswagen and Audi; the fourth one for Ford, Volvo, Jaguar and Land Rover; and the fifth one for Peugeot. Table 1 and Figure 1 show no significant changes in market share positioning for the period. Leading importer is Renault Nissan Bulgaria, followed by Porsche BG, Toyota Balkans, Moto Pfohe BG and Sofia France Auto. The leader Renault Nissan Bulgaria has the highest rise in market share, and Toyota Balkans the lowest.

Firms' sale performance is characterized with rise in car sales for all importers, with highest for Renault Nissan Bulgaria and Porsche BG, and lowest for Toyota Balkans and even distribution (ICIS on sales between 0.07 and 0.35). Gross profit margin is the highest for Sofia France Auto, which means that the importer market power in negotiations both with suppliers and customers. The indicator rises approximately 3.28% each year of the period, while the same falls for the others importers regardless better sales performance. This may be an indicator for better price strategy, or more likely, for superior position at negotiations with suppliers, which reduces commodity investments (proved by significantly lower levels of Cost of Good Sold Ratio for Sofia France Auto). Sofia France Auto's OPM and NPM dominate, as well, which state management capabilities and owners' flexibility to turn revenues into profit, to manage and optimize OPEX and fund their activity with other resources but sales revenue. The competitors' operational and net profit on every 100 lv revenue are several times lower, which puts them a competitive disadvantage at OPEX management and this of financial expense. Although commodity investment management efficiency, expenses on personnel and advertisement are not so good as those of Sofia France Auto, the OPM and NPM mean growth rate for Toyota Balkans and for Renault Nissan Bulgaria shows increase respectively with 175% and 139% and approximately 14% average per year. ICIS of NPM indicates relatively even development with Toyota Balkans exception, where more fluctuations in net profit on every 100 leva revenue occurred.

The highest rate of return on assets is observed by Renault Nissan Bulgaria, which succeed to achieve higher operational profit than its competitors regardless of less invested funds and slightly lower net profit on assets than that of Porsche BG. Growth rate of ROA и OROA are satisfactory in Renault Nissan Bulgaria (on average 33,25% OROA growth rate per year and 31,5% ROA), but they are even better in Toyota Balkans, which - contrary to disadvantages in performance, is capable to increase investment profitability over 130% on average per year but inequality in time.

Figure 1 clearly shows, that the competitive position of Renault Nissan Bulgaria (the sales leader) enables achieving high inventory turnover in 2014 - 13.45 turns in comparison to approximately 7 per competitor (Moto Pfohe BG, the weakest performer– 4,61 turns). Inventory Turnover growth is higher for the sales leader, while Porsche BG show slight turnover slowdown, which is linked to non optimal and groundless investment in inventory. Leaders in total asset turnover are Porsche BG and Renault Nissan Bulgaria, which in respect to inventory turnover positioning means, that Porsche BG take competitive advantage of noncurrent assets use, accounts receivable and short-term investments.

DuPont analysis shows that profit on every 100 leva equity invested by the owners is highest in Renault Nissan Bulgaria and Porsche BG – over 30%, with relatively stable distribution in time and increasing approximately 30% per year. The weakest achiever is Sofia France Auto, which generate lower return for the

owners, with the lowest growth rate but relatively stable for the period. In Toyota Balkans ROE is 11.74%, yet, contrary to its high mean growth rate – 138.19%, it is the lowest for the 2010-2013 period and immensely fluctuating (ICIS of ROE=0.52).

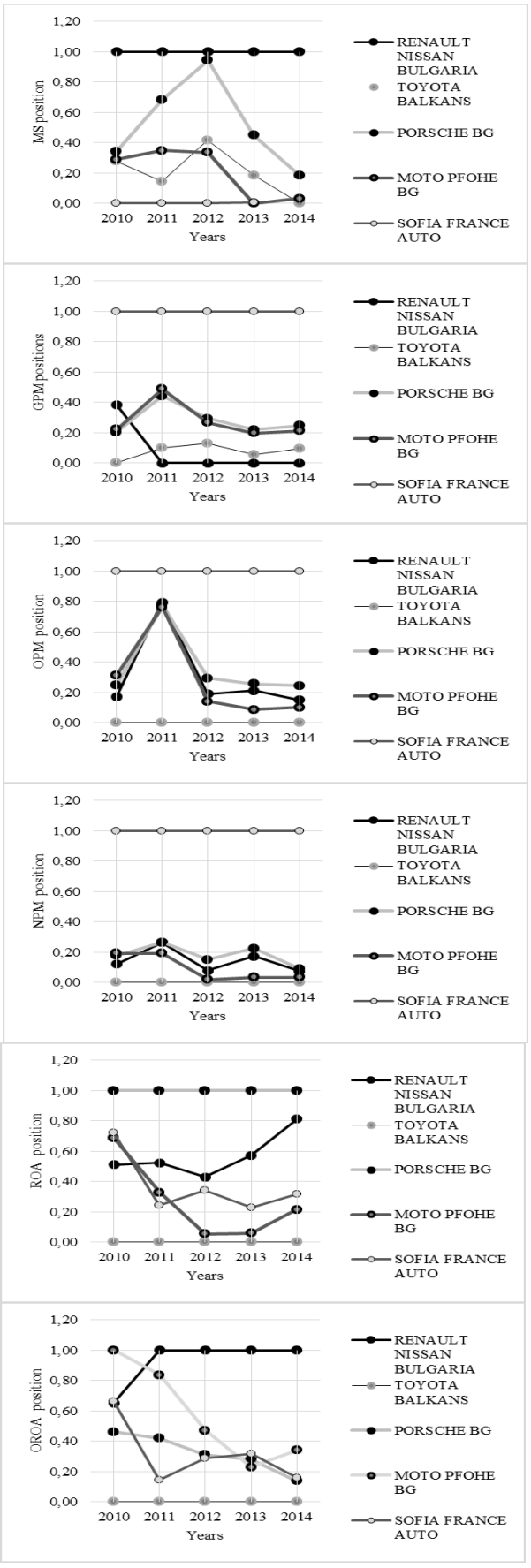
As it is known, increasing ROE not always have advantageous impact on business performance and may be linked to high financial risk due to prevalent liabilities. The dynamic relation between NPM and TAT (fig.2) illustrates importers' strategy and policy differences. While Renault Nissan Bulgaria, Porsche BG, Toyota Balkans and Moto Pfohe BG implement similar strategies - using assets effectively in a situation of lower return on sales through the years of the period, Sofia France Auto have significantly higher assets value, which is not effective in sales revenue, but generate high net profit for the owners. The first four market share importers generate considerable OPEX, financial expenses and have low-price strategy, but use assets more rationally. Conversely, Sofia France Auto rely to greater extend on equity and even on financial funds from other activities, hold good negotiation position with suppliers (high GPM indicates that), optimize expenses on personnel and advertisement, and accumulate more financial income than expenses (NPM is higher than OPM). EM proves these conclusions. As a measuring tool of financial leverage, Equity Multiplier is two and more times lower for Sofia France Auto than that of the competitors, which is an indicator for lower financial risk, but as well, for higher owners' investment to generate profit. The other four competitors rely to greater liabilities to finance their business and utmost loading and using their assets for generating profit. None of the firms has managed to achieve a position of maximum profit which would be the case in upper right corner of Figure 2.

Sustainable growth rate is a measure for companies' potential to generate sales at established levels of profit margin, total assets turnover, financial leverage and dividends policy. Figure 1 shows Moto Pfohe BG have highest sales growth potential, followed by Toyota Balkans. In 2014 both importers reached such a correlation between funding their business and its performance, that enables them to prolong the existing strategy in order to generate more sales; but yet, sustainable growth rate positions are dynamic in time. Porsche BG have the most negative SGR, which is due to dividends policy - more dividends paid and not reinvesting in business, as it is with Renault Nissan Bulgaria - with hardly 4.19% growth potential with the implemented strategy in 2014.

In Table 1 is analyzed the hypothesis of sustainability of competitive positioning, competitive results and presence of variations in distribution of each indicator in time.

Table 1. Structural changes, inequalities and differences in sales, NPM, ROA and ROE for a five year period

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	geometric mean
Integrated Coefficient of Inequality in Structure (ICIS)						
sales	0,17	0,19	0,25	0,28	0,24	0,22
NPM	0,65	0,56	0,71	0,64	0,65	0,64
ROA	0,34	0,46	0,50	13,49	0,37	0,83
ROE	0,43	0,41	0,46	0,52	0,36	0,43
Integrated Coefficient of Structural Changes (ICSC)						
sales	0,09	0,08	0,10	0,13	0,22	0,11
NPM	0,18	0,16	0,23	0,12	0,08	0,15
ROA	0,31	0,26	0,16	0,10	0,19	0,19
ROE	0,56	0,35	0,36	0,14	0,20	0,29
Integrated Coefficient of Structural Differences (ICSD)						
sales to NPM	0,995	0,997	0,998	0,998	0,996	1,00
sales to ROA	0,997	0,997	0,996	0,997	0,997	1,00
sales to ROE	0,993	0,994	0,994	0,993	0,993	0,99


MS position
GPM positions
OPM position
NPM position
ROA position
OROA position
1,20
1,00
0,80
0,60
0,40
0,20
0,00
2010
2011
2012
2013
2014
Years
RENAULT NISSAN BULGARIA
TOYOTA BALKANS
PORSCHE BG
MOTO PFOHE BG
SOFIA FRANCE AUTO

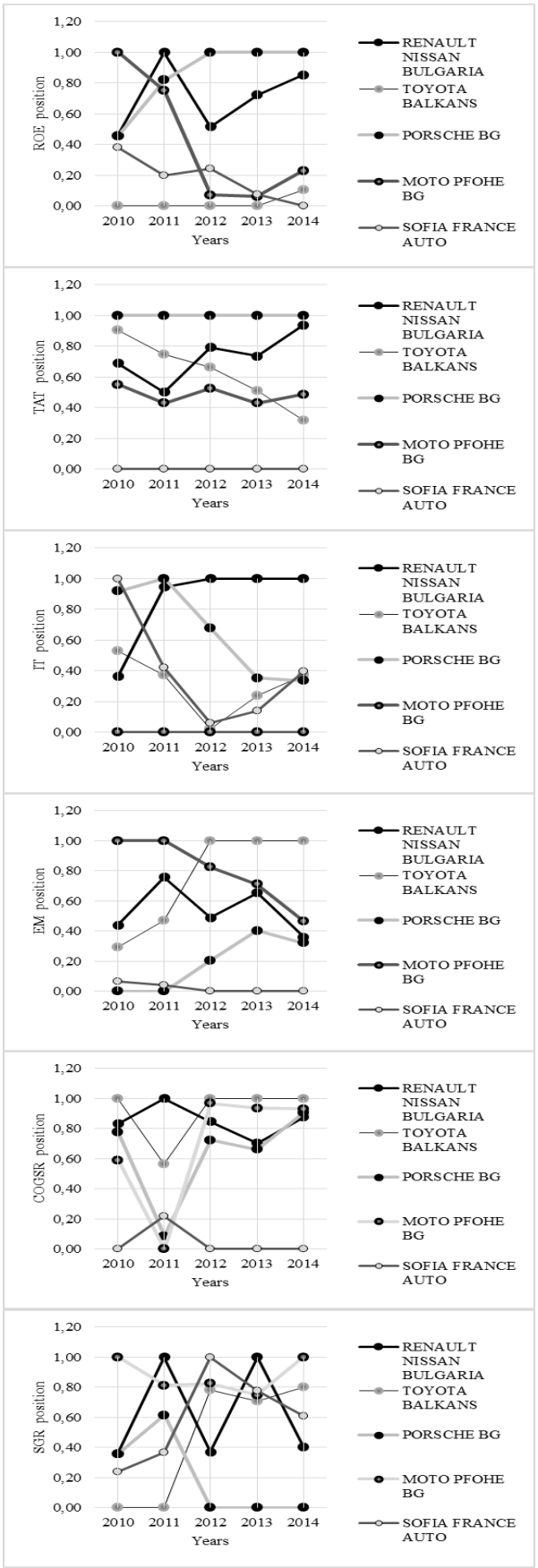


Figure 1. Dynamics in competitive positioning in Key Performance Indicators for a five year period

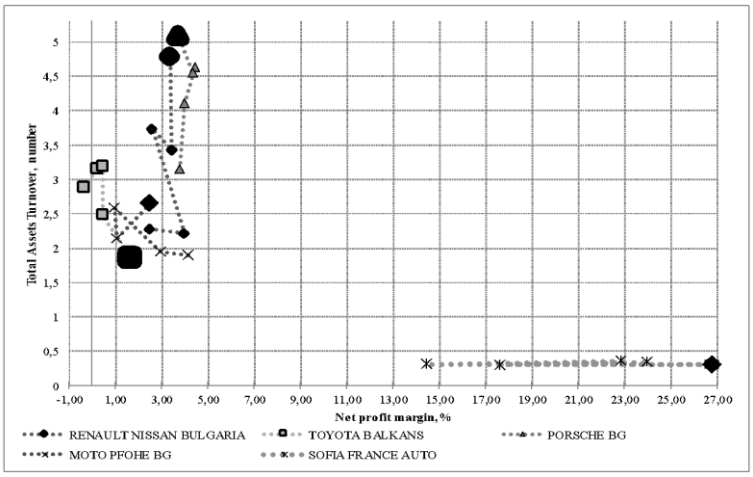


Figure 2. Dynamic competitive positions of five importers of new car in Bulgaria in NPM and TAT

Data show that no crucial changes have occurred in sales distribution, NPM, ROA and ROE during the 2010 – 2014 period. In practice, no significant fluctuations in indicators value or dynamics in competitive positioning of importers are present for the period. Meanwhile, a considerable structural inequality of NPM and ROA among importers exists in the years, which assumes differentiation in strategy and policy toward expenses, business funding and utilizing assets. The research results are consistent with the hypothesis of variances in sales distribution and performance measure indicators, such as NPM, ROA and ROE. Thus, the firm with most sales generated is not the most profitable. Competitive positioning only by sales or market share, or any other single indicator would lead to hasty and unrealistic measurement of a competitive position. Therefore, a multidimensional set of indicators is applicable.

General competitive positioning by momentary key performance indicators and growth rate indicators (Table 2) suggest that Renault Nissan Bulgaria have a superior position on the market with 13.84 units, followed by Sofia France Auto with 11.62 units, Porsche BG, close by Toyota Balkans and last Moto Pfohe BG. Renault Nissan Bulgaria leader positioning is due to fine balance between momentary position by KPI and dynamic positioning by growth rate indicators. The importer outperforms others at Market share, OROA and IT, and also it has the highest growth rate of MS, sales, IT. It is positioned highly by ROA, ROE, TAT, ICIS of NPM, ICIS of ROE. Likewise, Sofia France Auto has fine balance between momentary and dynamic position. PM, EM, COGSR, RGRm GPM, ICIS of NPM, ICIS of ROA, ICIS of ROE are on the basis of its good competitive positioning. The third ranked performer, Porsche BG, balances its momentary and dynamic results and outperforms by ROA, ROE, TAT, ICIS of NPM, ICIS of ROA and ICIS of sales. Toyota Balkans and Moto Pfohe BG occupy the last two places, and while the first has weak momentary position in 2014, the latter lacks strong positions in general, mainly from dynamic perspective. General competitive positioning shows that results would not be consistent if only either momentary or dynamic positioning were measured; thus, balance on superiority by separate group indicators is important for achieving higher competitive positioning.

As main strategic opportunities for repositioning of the importers can be listed: Renault Nissan Bulgaria - optimization of OPEX and better position toward market forces; Toyota Balkans - differentiation and product portfolio approach, better position toward market forces, optimization of expenses, lowering financial risk, utilizing assets more effectively and efficiently; Porsche BG - better positioning, optimization of expenses, more rational approach to inventory and changes in dividend policy; Moto Pfohe BG - rise in sales through more adequate price strategies and warranty and post-warranty car service, better positioning toward market forces and higher resource efficiency; Sofia France Auto - improvement in customer loyalty policy, product utility, implementing a product portfolio approach and other strategic drivers for higher levels of sales and market share.

Table 2. Total dynamic competitive positions of five importers of new cars in Bulgaria for five years, normalized values

Indicators to competitive positioning		RENAULT NISSAN BULGARIA	TOYOTA BALKANS	PORSCHE BG	MOTO PFOHE BG	SOFIA FRANCE AUTO
		Normalized values				
Key Performance indicators	Market Share (MS)	1,00	0,00	0,18	0,03	*
	Gross Profit Margin (GPM)	0,00	0,10	0,25	0,21	1,00
	Operating Profit Margin (OPM)	0,15	0,00	0,24	0,10	1,00
	Net Profit Margin (NPM)	0,07	0,00	0,09	0,04	1,00
	Return on Assets (ROA)	0,81	0,00	1,00	0,22	0,32
	Operating Return on Assets (OROA)	1,00	0,00	0,14	0,34	0,16
	Return on Equity (ROE)	0,85	0,11	1,00	0,23	0,00
	Total Assets Turnover (TAT)	0,94	0,32	1,00	0,49	0,00
	Inventory Turnover (IT)	1,00	0,37	0,34	0,00	0,40
	Equity Multiplier (EM)[1]	0,64	0,00	0,68	0,53	1,00
	Cost of Good Sold Ratio (COGSR)[1]	0,12	0,00	0,09	0,07	1,00
	Sustainable Growth Rate (SGR)	0,40	0,80	0,00	1,00	0,61
Total position on key performance indicators:		7,00	1,70	5,01	3,26	6,48
Relative Growth Rates mean (RGRm) and Integrated Coefficient of Inequality in Structure (ICIS)	RGRm sales	1,00	0,00	0,58	0,34	0,27
	RGRm Market share	1,00	0,00	0,41	0,17	0,47
	RGRm GPM	0,04	0,53	0,26	0,00	1,00
	RGRm OPM	0,11	1,00	0,06	0,00	0,19
	RGRm NPM	0,10	1,00	0,00	0,09	0,09
	RGRm OROA	0,18	1,00	0,10	0,00	0,16
	RGRm ROA	0,18	1,00	0,01	0,11	0,00
	RGRm ROE	0,19	1,00	0,18	0,06	0,00
	RGRm IT	1,00	0,36	0,00	0,28	0,31
	ICIS sales[1]	0,72	1,00	0,86	0,90	0,00
	ICIS NPM[1]	0,83	0,00	1,00	0,37	0,79
	ICIS ROA[1]	0,60	0,00	1,00	0,33	0,85
	ICIS ROE[1]	0,89	0,00	0,81	0,29	1,00
Total position on Relative Growth Rates mean (RGRm) and Integrated Coefficient of Inequality in Structure (ICIS)		6,85	6,89	5,27	2,95	5,14
Total competitive position		13,84	8,59	10,28	6,21	11,62

[1]-Normalized value is reduced with 1, because of negative meaning of indicator to competitive position

5. Conclusion.

Strategy management, the theory of competitive advantages and competitive dynamics are in a constant struggle to find the reasons and factors behind superior competitive positioning of enterprises. Companies' capability of attaining sustainable competitive advantages stands on the basis of achieving superior performance and it sustainability in time. Respectively, positioning toward market forces or firm's superiority by valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable resources, capabilities and behavior are on the basis of sustainable competitive advantages. The direct dependence and almost sameness between superior business performances and competitive advantages are not proved fully, but accepted in a number of researches. Sustainability of competitive advantages in the state of hypercompetition on current markets is less and less achievable and depends on enterprise's competitive behavior, which leads to dynamic changes in competitive positioning by

performance indicators. From this perspective, momentary superiority can be destructed by competitors' actions, and thus, the positioning map needs to be observed dynamically in order to establish the sustainability of the results. The content of indicators used to measure competitive position is not unambiguously defined, but necessity of implementing a multidimensional set of indicators is recognized in order to avoid conflicts in relations and dependences between them.

The dynamics competitive positioning of the five most preferred new car importers in Bulgaria for the 2010-2014 research is unique in its nature and the following conclusions can be made:

1. The most favorable positioned importer is Renault Nissan Bulgaria, and the least favorable - Moto Pfohe BG.

2. Competitive positioning by performance indicators provides guideline to the presence and type of competitive advantages and disadvantages, and the possible management decisions leading to better positioning in the future. That serves as a proof to the many scholars' thesis for a positive relation between the number and quality of competitive advantages and superior performance.

3. The research shows that there are significant structural differences in distribution of MS, and of other performance indicators like: NPM, ROA, ROE. Therefore, it is necessary competitive positioning to be conducted by a multidimensional set of indicators with different use and significance for determining a realistic picture of the achieved competitive advantages and making adequate management decisions for future development.

4. Importers' positions are sustainable in time, but highly inconsistent in performance and its efficiency. This determines competitive advantage sustainability, but also the difference in the way results are achieved and their magnitude.

5. Achieving superior competitive position according to the research conducted is dependent not only on the size of more favorable readings of separate indicators, but also on the number of the achieved more favorable results and the balance between their momentary and dynamics readings.

A direction for future researches in this field is that of competitive dynamics and the network of concrete actions and reactions among the five competitors on the new car market in Bulgaria, leading to exact level of competitive positioning, and also including performance indicators of customers' satisfaction and preferences in the multidimensional set of indicators.

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The Effect of Written Feedback on Iranian Intermediate Learners' Knowledge of Passive Sentences

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Abstract.
The current study was done to see the effectiveness of applying written feedback on Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' knowledge of passive sentences. To see if any change has occurred for both groups between their pretest and posttest separately, two paired-sample T-*test* were calculated. The results of the paired-sample t-*test* calculation showed that the EG group benefitted from written feedback .Finally, in order to compare the performance of experimental and control groups in the post-test, first their gain scores were calculated, then the gain scores of experimental as well as control groups were compared using an *Independent T-Test*. The average of the scores in the Experimental group was meaningfully higher than the control group ($p<0.00$).Thus the outcome of this study is that applying written feedback has positive effect on Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' knowledge of passive sentences.
Keywords: written feedback, writing ability, EFL learners, passive sentences

1. Introduction.

Writing in a foreign language is one of the most challenging and complex tasks for language learners. It is a difficult skill that requires considerable effort and practice on the learners' part to reach an acceptable level of writing. Due to the complexity of this skill, many students find it very difficult to master all the mechanics of writing and to produce an adequate piece of writing; therefore they do not produce acceptable compositions. What makes writing a very troublesome task for EFL learners is the fact that it requires some criteria of acceptability relative to different aspects of writing which include content, organization, vocabulary, language use, spelling, punctuation and accurate capitalization and paragraphing (Hamadouche, 2010).

To written feedback (WF) – which is the focus of this study –Truscott (1996) paid special attention. He pointed to the fact that there was no sufficient research in favour of grammar correction. He also claimed that grammar correction is neither helpful nor effective, and worse it is harmful. This claim led to a controversy among the specialists in the field – which in turn yielded a growing body of research.

A number of studies examined the research results for or against grammar correction and concluded that earlier research findings failed to provide clear evidence whether WF helps learners improve linguistic accuracy (Ferris, 1999; Geunette, 2007). Many researchers have done studies to clear the issue; however, the experts in the field are still unable to reach a conclusion. As extensive reviews of the available empirical research show (see Hyland & Hyland, 2006) the findings about the efficacy of WF are mixed and thus inconclusive.

Most of the studies on WF make a distinction between two kinds of feedback, namely direct CF and indirect CF (Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005; Hendrickson, 1978, 1980; Lalande, 1982). In the case of direct CF the students are provided with the correct form (Ellis, 2009) the teachers cross out an unnecessary word, insert a missing word, and write the correct form. This type of feedback is desirable for low-level-of-proficiency students who are unable to self-correct, and cannot provide the correct form. However, the learners perform the least processing and thus it does not contribute to long-term learning (Ellis, 2009). However, Sheen (2007) indicates that direct CF can be beneficial for learning only some specific grammatical features.

Indirect feedback occurs when the students are informed in some way that an error exists but are not provided with the correct form, thus placing the burden of spotting the erroneous forms on students. The experts in the field argue that indirect feedback is superior for most students, because it involves them in "guided learning and problem solving" (Lalande, 1982), focusing their attention to linguistic forms that may lead to long-term learning (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Reid, 1998). However, the findings of different studies which have focused on the difference between direct and indirect CF are very mixed. Some studies (Ferris & Helt, 2000; Lalande, 1982) claim that indirect feedback enables students to correct their errors, however, some suggest the opposite (Chandler, 2003), and others (Robb, et al., 1986; Frantzen, 1995) found no difference. In this study the researcher tries to find the impact of WF on Iranian EFL learners' knowledge of passive sentences.

2. Review of Literature.

The terms 'writing' and 'accuracy' have been variably defined. Raimes (2002) believes that writing is a chaotic and messy process as well as a generative idea. Leki (2002) states that writing is a text-composing and social construction process. And Chandler (2003) maintains that the increase of accuracy is when learners have learnt to avoid their many errors.

There are three arguments in favour of direct modes of feedback (Chandler, 2003). First, it has been stressed that direct feedback is more helpful to learners because of the reduction of misunderstanding and confusion. Second, learners are provided with more information for resolving the complex errors. And third, immediate feedback is provided to learners based on their hypotheses. However, Ellis (2009) stresses a disadvantage of direct corrective feedback, saying that "it requires minimal processing on the part of the learner and thus, although it might help them to produce the correct form when they revise their writing, it may not contribute to long- term learning".

Another distinction is made between coded and uncoded feedback in the relevant literature. Coded feedback is one that specifies the exact location of an error and indicates the type of error with a code. Uncoded feedback, on the other hand, refers to instances when the teacher underlines or circles an error, or places an error tally in the margin, but, in each case, leaves the student to diagnose and correct the error (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron., 2005).

Glover and Brown (2006) examined the perceptions of teachers and students towards written corrective feedback. The teachers complained that although written corrective feedback was adequately provided, there was no engagement on the part the students. On the other hand, students reported that they did pay attention to the feedback but did not act upon it.

Rahimi (2009) investigated the effect of written corrective feedback on Iranian EFL learners' writing accuracy over time. The study consisted of two groups: one that received indirect feedback and a control group which received general comments and no written corrective feedback. Both groups wrote four essays during a semester. The errors of the experimental group were underlined and coded with the grammar categories. At the end of the semester, the learners were interviewed, the results of which showed that learners who did not receive written corrective feedback on their grammatical structures were discouraged and demotivated. Moreover, the results of the study showed that corrective feedback helps learners improve their writing over time.

Writing is an important language activity, and a major classroom procedure. It is an effective technique for reinforcing the oral language material. It is important for providing evidence of our students' achievements. It is a communicative skill to send, store and retrieve messages with the help of written symbols. Writing can be expressive, poetic, informative and persuasive. According to the type of writing, the writer concentrates on the subject matter of the written piece, on the reader, and on one's own feelings and thoughts. (Millrood, 2001, p.134)

According to Brown (2000) written products are often the result of thinking, drafting, and revising procedures which require specialized skill that not every speaker develops naturally. Writing needs thinking that focuses students on how to generate ideas. Written product involves thinking, drafting, and procedure. Skills are also important in writing activity.

Despite the relative plethora of previous research in the area of written corrective feedback, few have focused on grammatical and lexical writing accuracy in an EFL context. Even fewer studies have had control groups; most of them have compared the effect of various modes of feedback without a comparison condition. Thus, the present study aims to explore Iranian learners' perceptions towards written corrective feedback and the effectiveness of direct, coded, and uncoded written corrective feedback versus a control condition on grammatical and lexical writing accuracy.

3. Research Question and Null Hypothesis.

This study aims to seek answer to the following question:

RQ: Does written feedback have any effect on Iranian pre- intermediate learners' knowledge of passive sentences?

HO: Written feedback doesn't have any effect on Iranian Intermediate learners' knowledge of passive sentences.

4. Research Design & Participants.

The researcher in this study adopted a Qusi-experimental design. A pretest of passive sentences was administered to both EG (Experimental Group) and CG (Control Group). The EG participants then had the advantage of being treated with the feedback whereas the participants in the CG could only benefited their existing method of learning passive sentences. At the end of the semester a posttest of passive structures was administered to both EG and CG.

The total population in this study was students at Islamic Azad University of Tonekabon Branch. By an SPT (solution Placement Test) the researcher selects 60 Intermediate TEFL and Translation students who were homogeneous based on the SPT scales. The researcher then randomly divided them into two EG and CG groups. Each group consisted of 30 participants.

5. Procedures.

The researcher of this study selected 60 Intermediate homogeneous participants by applying SPT (solution Placement Test). Their age range was from 18 to 22 years old with a mean age of 20 years. All of the participants were female. These participants were then randomly divided into two EG and CG groups. A pretest of passive structures was administered to both EG (Experimental Group) and CG (Control Group).Then the EG participants had the advantage of being treated by feedback plus their regular course book at the university whereas the participants in the CG could only benefited their regular course book. At the end of the semester a post test of passive structures was administered to both EG and CG. To see if any change has occurred for both groups between their pretest and posttest separately, two paired-sample *t-test*s were calculated. Finally, in order to compare the performance of experimental and control groups in the post-test, first their gain scores were calculated, then the gain scores of experimental as well as control groups were compared using an *Independent T-Test*.

6. Data Analysis Procedure.

The researcher analyzed the data obtained via calculating a t–test between the post – tests of passive exam scores of the experimental and the control groups of the study and two two paired-sample *t-test*s between the pre – tests and post – tests of the experimental and control group of the study to see any progress happened from pre – test to the post – test or in fact during the treatment period.

6.1. Data Analysis and Findings: Descriptive Analysis of the Data

As mentioned in the procedure, three tests were employed in this study. Firstly, a proficiency test based on Oxford placement Test was administered to homogenize the groups in their language proficiency. Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics of the proficiency test.

Table 1. descriptive statistics of the proficiency test.

Groups		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of Mean
Control Group, proficiency test	0	25.4ooo	8.9002	1.6249
Experimental Group, proficiency test	0	26.6333	4.9722	.9078

In order to find out whether the participants consisted homogeneous groups at the onset of the study, a two-tailed t-test ($p<.05$) was conducted between the means of the proficiency tests in two groups which is displayed in Table 2.

Table 2. T-test between scores of proficiency test between two groups ($p<*.05$)

	t-test for Equality of Means			
Scores of proficiency tests		f	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Equal variances assumed	.663	8	.510	-1.233

Regarding the results represented in table 2., one can conclude that since the p-value is above .05, the null hypothesis (HO) considered in this t-test is retained and the difference between the means of the proficiency tests in two groups is found not to be significant at .05 level of significance, that is, the two groups were probably homogeneous in their proficiency level in English at the onset of the study. To investigate passive structures, a pretest of passive knowledge was conducted before the treatment for both the control and the experimental groups. Table 3 displays the descriptive statistics of pre-tests' scores in the control group and the experimental group.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of the pre-test

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control Group, pre-test	30	6.3667	2.8826	.5263
Experimental Group, pre-test	30	6.4333	2.5688	.4690

Table 4. T-test between scores of pre-tests between two groups (p<*.05)

	t-test for Equality of Mean			
Scores of pre-tests	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Equal variances assumed	-0.095	58	0.925	-0.0667

The investigation of the results in tables 3.and 4. reveals that the p-value, being above .05, the difference between the means of the pre-tests in two groups is not significant at .05 level of significance. In other words, the two groups can be considered as having almost the same level of knowledge in passive structures, too. Then, the treatment, i.e., feedback was implemented for the experimental group teaching the same material. After the treatment, a post-test of passive knowledge related to the same content taught during the course was administered to examine whether the treatment had any influence on the experimental group. The descriptive statistics of the post-tests is displayed in Table 5.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics of the post-test

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control Group, post-test	30	13000	5.3379	0.9746
Experimental Group, post-test	30	24.2333	6.6834	1.2202

In order to see whether there would be a difference between the means of the post-test between the two groups, that is, to see whether the treatment for the experimental group was beneficial, a t-test was also run to determine the difference between the two groups of learners in their scores. Table 6 reveals the statistics.

6.2. Inferential Analysis of the Data

Table 6. T-test between scores of post-tests between two groups (p<*.05)

Roups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Control Group, pre-test Control Group, post-test	6.3667 19.3000	2.8826 5.3379	30 30
Experimental Group, pre-test Experimental Group, post-test	6.4333 24.2333	2.5688 6.6834	30 30

In the results of comparing the means through the t-test (table 6.), the p-value is shown to be lower than .05. Thus, the difference between the post-test means in the two groups represents a significant difference at .05 in favor of the experimental group. It seems that the written feedback has been fruitful in the experimental group. The result of descriptive statistics of the pre-tests and post-tests in the two groups are displayed in Table 7.

Table 7. Descriptive statistics of two groups.

	t-test for Equality of Means			
Scores of post- tests	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Equal variances assumed	-2.519	58	0.015	-3.9333

In order to compare the mean scores of both groups simultaneously and to see whether the observed variability between group means in their pre-test and post-test is significant, a one-way ANOVA was also applied (Table 8).

Table 8. One-way ANOVA between the pre-tests and post-test of two groups (p<*.05)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-test post-test, groups	120.000	1	120.000	5.450	.021
Pretest posttest, variables	7552.533	1	7552.533	343.028	0.000
P_P, group * P_P, variables	112.133	1	112.133	5.093	0.026
Error	2554.3000	116	22.017		
Total	34992.3000	120			
Corrected Total	10338.667	119			

7. Results of Hypothesis Testing.

In this part, the results of testing the hypothesis of the study have been presented and explained in detail the rejection or support of the hypothesis. Before the hypothesis of the study was rejected or supported, it was repeated below:

H0: Written feedback doesn't have any effect on Iranian Intermediate learners' knowledge of passive sentences.

The analysis of the results of Table 8 reveals that the difference between the means of the pre-test and post-test in two groups was significant. That is, the statistics supports that of the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of passive knowledge, which rejects the null hypothesis.

8. General Discussion.

The findings of the present study support Ferris and Roberts (2001), who noted that there were no significant differences among the effects of coded and uncoded feedback modes on the learners' writing accuracy. In this study, this was confirmed with regard to both grammatical and lexical writing accuracy. In addition, much like the findings of Ferris and Roberts, this study showed that both coded and uncoded feedback modes are more effective than the no feedback condition. However, the learners' preferences toward the different feedback modes in this study do not correspond to those of Ferris and Roberts' study. Unlike their study, in which only 48% of the participants favored the feedback mode, there was a significant preference (79%) for the same mode of feedback here.

Moreover, Bitchener and Knoch (2008) found evidence suggesting that all kinds of feedback are more effective than the control condition on learners' grammatical accuracy. While this study fully supports such a result with respect to lexical accuracy, it is only in partial agreement with it regarding grammatical accuracy. In this study, written feedback turned out to be more effective than the no feedback mode.

The findings of the present study also partially corroborate those of Rahimi (2009). He reported that indirect feedback is more effective than no feedback on learners' grammatical accuracy. In this study, written feedback (a kind of indirect feedback) was indeed significantly more effective than no feedback.

The results of this study also lend support to those of Chandler (2003), whose university level ESL learners were primarily East Asian, in several ways. She did not distinguish between grammatical and lexical errors. But she found that direct correction and underlining (uncoded) were the best feedback modes for increasing accuracy on new writing even though her students, like the Iranian students, said they learnt most from coded (underline and describe) feedback. In keeping with the findings of the present study, Chandler also concluded that underlining was best for errors students could correct themselves.

At the same time, the results of the present study are different from those of a number of studies that were reviewed earlier. These findings contradict Ellis' (2009) claim that direct feedback does not influence long-term learning. In fact, these results show that direct feedback does contribute to improving learners' writing.

Frantzen (1995) found no significant difference among the corrective feedback modes. Similarly, Truscott (1996) and Polio et al. (1998) concluded that written corrective feedback is not effective for learners. Such results are in contrast with the present study. In fact, this study indicated that written feedbacks studied here are significantly better than the control group receiving no corrective feedback.

One of the possible reasons for such differences may be partially attributable to the different linguistic background and cultural preferences of the participants in this study in comparison to other studies. It might be argued that because of the linguistic distance between the native language of the learners and the target language, and probably due to social distance, coupled with the fact that satellite is forbidden in Iran, Iranian learners of English lack a strong intuitive (acquired) knowledge of English.

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Needs Analysis From different Perspective: Period, Focus and Scope of Analysis

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Abstract.
Term "needs", or needs analysis (NA)itself, is a general term with several interpretations The present study is an attempt to shed lights on the concept of needs analysis from theoretical and practical aspect. This paper delves into the issue of needs and the corresponding classifications. To undertake the study, this paper provides the origins of needs analysis by focusing on different scopes in various perspectives. It considers needs from different aspect and the tentative methodology and steps one needs to conduct a study in this field. The paper finally ends with the major arguments regarding the needs analysis in the ERFL/ESL context.
Keywords: Needs analysis, Situations analysis, Deficiency, Target situation**,** means analysis

1. Introduction.

Origins of the term "analysis of needs" go back to India where it first appeared in the 1920s (Howatt, 1984, p. 245; White, 1988, p. 12). Michael West introduced the concept of NA to refer to the "need" which covers what learners will be required to do with the foreign language in the target situation, and how they might best learn the target language during training. In West's approach, "needs" also refers to those which are determinable in broad terms only but could not be defined precisely (Howatt, 1984). Since West, the concept of need did not reappear for almost 50 years.

With the advent of English for Special Purposes (ESP), NA returned to central prominence and has become a key tool in course design. The Makerere Conference held in 1960 was where the term ESP was first introduced (Howatt, 1984). During its fledgling days, NA was done intuitively or informally by language teachers who frequently based their teaching on some kind of informal analysis of students' needs (Tarone & Yule, 1989). However, it was during the early 1970s that formal NA came into existence as a result of the work of the Council of Europe and ESP practitioners (Richterich, 1973 as cited in Tarone & Yule, 1989). The heydays of ESP started with

John Munby's Communicative syllabus design (Munby, 1978). The size and scope of Munby's work showed that NA is crucial to any ESP course design step (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). NA has implicit and explicit theoretical bases and principles mainly established by both the Council of Europe (Richterich, 1973 as stated in Tarone & Yule, 1989) and Munby (1978).

One of the main underlying theoretical bases of NA is curriculum development which includes three main tendencies, i.e., improving teaching methods, adapting the teaching to the type of learning, and training the learner how to learn. NA has been rooted in adapting the teaching to the type of learning part and training the learner how to learn. For Munby, the theoretical bases of his NA were related to the communicative competence whose principles were derived from Hymes (1971). It is also possible to build a model of needs analysis on the basis of linguistic competence by considering both target needs and present levels of competence (Tarone & Yule, 1989). Chronological evolution of NA is summarized in Table 1 below.

Table1. History of NA (West, 1994, p.1)

Stage	Period	Focus		Scope of analysis	Examples
1	Early 1970s	ESP	EOP	Target situation analysis	Richterich, 1971/1980 ELTDU, 1970 Stuart & Lee, 1972/85
2	Later 1970s		EAP	Target situation analysis	Jordan & Mackay, 1973 Mackay, 1978

3	1980s	ESP & General Language Teaching	Target situation analysis, Deficiency analysis, strategy analysis, means analysis, language audit	Tarone & Yule, 1989 Allwright & Allwright, 1977 All wright, 1982 Holliday & Cooke, 1982 Pilbeam, 1979
4	Early 1990s	ESP	Integrated/computer-based analysis, materials selection	Jones, 1991 Nelson, 1993

2. Different Types of Needs.

There is no agreement on the definition of needs: "The very concept of language needs has never been clearly defined and remains at best ambiguous" (Richterich, 1983, p. 2 as cited in West, 1994). According to West (1994), the main source of this ambiguity is the distinction or even contradiction between different concepts of need, e.g., need as necessities (also called objective, product-oriented or perceived needs), or as demands (also known as want, subjective, or felt needs).

Brindley (1989) categorizes needs as subjective and objective. While objective needs can be determined through observation of a situation, the learners, and their use of language, subjective needs are more complex and difficult to observe as they involve the wishes and expectations of learners. According to Brindley, objective needs refer to the needs which can be collected from different kinds of information about learners, how they need to use language in real life communication situations, along with their current level of language proficiency and everything they need to learn. The second term refers to the needs of learners in the learning situation and can be understood from affective and cognitive factors points of view, such as learners' personality, confidence, attitudes, wants, expectations regarding learning English, cognitive styles, and learning strategies.

Brown (1995) made a further classification on the types of needs as situation needs and language needs. By situation needs he refers to the type of information focusing on a language program's human aspect, referring to the physical, social, and psychological context in which learning occurs. The language teaching materials available, and the differences and similarities in the students' social backgrounds can be given as examples of the language programs' features which might affect the learning process. By language needs he refers to information including the target linguistic behaviors that the learners should gain. Language needs include details about the situations in which language will be used, required competency, learners' reasons for learning a language, and so on.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987), on the other hand, make a distinction between target needs (including necessities, lacks and wants), and learning needs. Target needs involve what learners require to act in the target situation effectively and learning needs involve what learners are required to do in order to learn effectively. Brindley (1989)'s subjective needs and Hutchinson and Water (1987)'s learning needs are similar in terms of their role throughout the learning process.

Brindley's objective needs, Hutchinson and Water's necessities, and Brown's language needs refer to the same category of learner language requirements (West, 1994). The term "needs", or NA itself, is a general term with several interpretations. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) propose a useful classification of needs which is going to be explained in details in the following.

3. Necessities.

Necessities refer to the type of need being defined by the demands of the target situation, i.e., what the learner has to know in order to act effectively in the target situation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). These needs are also known as the objective needs which may consist an analysis of typical everyday situations. This type of NA approach to identify these necessities is called the Target-Situation Analysis (TSA) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; West, 1994). Necessities are the course objectives to show the short- or medium term goals or aims being used throughout courses rather than target necessities or goals which are defined by language audits. TSA identifies which languages are needed in a course, prioritizes language skills, defines needs in situational or functional terms, and specifies what grammatical or lexical language components are necessary for a particular function (West, 1994).

4. Lacks.

Knowing necessities and the target goals to study English in a course alone is not enough. We also need to know what the learner knows already; so that we can decide which of the necessities the learner lacks. The

target proficiency is where our course is heading toward, while we need to know the existing proficiency level of the learners to know where to start the course. The gap between the ending target proficiency and the current level of learners' proficiency can be referred to as the learner's "lacks" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 55). Hence, lacks are what learners do not know and Present Situation Analysis (PSA) can help identify them (West, 1994).

5. Wants.

Wants are what the learners want or feel they need (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). These needs are personal and are sometimes referred to as subjective needs which are not predictable and differ from learner to learner and therefore indefinable. It is often pointed out that these may differ, even conflict, with necessities as perceived by a sponsor or employer, and lacks as identified by the teacher. This, however, does not mean that wants are any less real and ways will have to be found to determine them. Although wants are idiosyncratic or even opposed to the aims of the intended course

(Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), there may be wants which are perceived by the majority of the potential participants which can then be used in designing syllabus, especially if this is negotiated between instructor and learner. Deficiency analysis, which asks learners to identify their own learning priorities, is the NA approach used to identify wants (West, 1994).

6. Learning Strategies.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 60-62) distinguish between two types of learning needs: "the learner's preferred learning strategies for progressing from where they are (present situation/ lacks/deficiencies) to where they want to go (target situation/necessities)". Strategy Analysis will help identify preferred learning strategies (West, 1994). The second type is the teacher's interpretation of suitable strategies which may differ from learner's expectations about these learning strategies.

7. Constraints.

These include the potential constraints of the learning situation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). These are the external factors which may include the resources (staff, accommodation, time) available, the prevailing attitudes or culture, and the materials, aids and methods available. Constraints are often ignored in early approaches to needs analysis such as Munby (1978)'s as cited in West (1994); however, they are now seen as central to the process of course design and Means Analysis is the NA approach to define constraints.

8. The Language Audit.

The sixth and the last type of NA as proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) is the language audit which is a large-scale survey undertaken by a company, an organization or even a country to determine what languages need to be learnt, for what reasons, by how many people, to what level, in what type of institution, by what methods, at what cost, and so on. These are big and often political questions. In general, a language audit differs from a NA in its scale, i.e., "the NA is used to determine the various needs of an individual or group; a language audit defines the longer-term language-training requirements of a company, country or professional sector, and can thus be seen as a strategy or policy document" (West, 1994, p. 3). The language audit may include all the levels or layers of a NA.

9. Methodology of NA.

Before conducting a NA, we need to decide on who will be involved, what type of data will be collected, how they will be collected and how they will be analyzed and interpreted (West, 1994). According to Brown (1995), there are four different philosophies related to NA: the democratic, the analytic, the diagnostic and the discrepancy philosophies or methodologies. “The importance of such philosophies lies in the fact that they will affect the types of information that will be gathered”(West, 1994, p.6).

In the democratic philosophy, a need is defined as any change that is desired by a majority of the group involved. Whether this group consists of the students themselves, their teachers, program administrators, or the owners of a private school, the democratic philosophy would lead to a needs analysis that would gather information about the learning most desired by the chosen groups (Brown, 1995).

In the analytic philosophy a need is whatever the students will naturally learn next based on what is known about them and the learning processes involved, that is, "the students are at stage X in their language development, and they next need to learn X+1 or whatever is next in the hierarchy of language development" (Brown, 1995, p. 25). A diagnostic philosophy proposes that a need is something whose missing is harmful (Brown, 1995).

Finally, the discrepancy philosophy is one in which needs are viewed as differences or discrepancies, between a desired performance from the students and what they are actually doing. For the data collection instruments various methods and types of instruments can be used to analyze the needs of the students. The most frequently used instruments are existing information, tests, observations, interviews, meetings and questionnaires (Brown, 1995). Existing information refers to any preexisting information that may be available including data sources within a program or external data sources. According to Brown, tests are a good source of information in terms of identifying the general ability levels of students. Also, observing a group of people while they are meeting and engaged in a task may provide useful information about the people and the program. Questionnaires

are a useful and time efficient way of collecting data that can be applied to a large group of people (Brown, 1995).

10. When to Conduct NA.

The right time to conduct NA is not easy to anticipate. There seem to be three or four possible answers to this question, for example, before, at the start, during the training course, and/or end of a course (West, 1994). According to Robinson (1991), the standard is to conduct NA before the start of the course as much as possible, however, it is now generally accepted that NA should be repeated during the course in a way that it becomes an on-going process. Taking a process view towards any aspect of ELT seems acceptable (West, 1994).

Based on different timings for NA, we have another categorization of NA: The "off-line" NA analysis (Chambers, 1980, p. 28) is the one which involves analysis before the start of the course. In this type of NA the course designer has enough time to prepare a syllabus and select appropriate training materials. Off-line approaches are based on the target situation and involve questions from sponsors, managers, employers, or those currently working in the target situation who may or may not have an accurate view of learners' language requirements. Also, off-line NA may require learners to complete questionnaires to identify their needs and wants. But since learners' perceptions of their own needs may be inaccurate and incomplete, courses designed based on off-line analyses have to be reviewed and revised (Chambers, 1980). Munby (1978) also took off-line procedure to NA.

On the other hand, the "on-line" or "first-day" (West, 1994, p. 5) NA is the one which takes place on the first day and at the start of a course. As opposed to the off-line approach, in the online NA, the trainer or course designer has little time to prepare a detailed course outline, but it is possible to ensure that the information obtained is complete, relevant and accurate even for a short time. Learners' perceptions of their needs change as the course passes (Chambers,

1980). So TSA and the analysis of lacks based on the present situation analysis (PSA) are not sufficient. In addition, teachers' perceptions of the learners' needs also evolve as the course goes on. "A process of on-going needs re-analysis is therefore required in response to these changing perceptions, so that both learner and teacher can identify new or short-term priorities" (West, 1994, p. 6). It is also motivating for the learners to reformulate their objectives every now and then. Therefore, on-going re-analysis is necessary; frequent but small-scale surveys can provide a more accurate picture than elaborate, large-scale procedures, "since each new attempt can draw on and refine the last" (Gardner & Winslow, 1983, as cited in West, 1994).

11. Who Does the NA?

There are three main categories of needs based on people who are involved in NA (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1980):

- teacher-perceived needs
- student-perceived needs
- company-perceived needs (p.8)

Teachers, students and sponsors cooperate with each other in an ideal NA situation (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1980); however, it's important to have the maximum number of sources of information. Although some may assume that learners are not accurate and complete sources of information in NA as their knowledge of their own needs is not impeccable, the involvement of the learners in the process of NA has several advantages (Nunan, 1988, p. 5):

1. "Learners come to have a more realistic idea of what can be achieved in a given course.
2. Learning comes to be seen as the gradual accretion of achievable goals.
3. Students develop greater sensitivity to their role as language learners and their rather vague notions of what it is to be a learner become much sharper.
4. Self-evaluation becomes much sharper.
5. Classroom activities can be seen to relate to learners' real-life needs.
6. Skills development can be seen as a gradual, rather than an all-or-nothing, process".

According to Brown (1995), four categories of people are and should be involved in the NA process: The target group, the audience, the needs analyst, the resource groups. The target group refers to people or learners about whom we gather information. They can be learners or teachers whose needs are being analyzed.

Audience refers to the people who will directly make use of the outcomes of the assessment process. This group usually involves teachers, administrators and governmental institutions. Needs analysts are those who are responsible for conducting the needs analysis in a reliable and valid way. A resource group includes any group of people who may serve as sources of information about the target group.

This group may consist of parents, language instructors, content-area instructors, and employers. Brown points out that special attention should be given to identifying these groups of people in order not to exclude important individuals or groups in the process.

12. Methods to Conduct NA.

In NA, there are several instruments to gather information such as scientific surveys or informal tools used by a teacher in a class (West, 1994). It is also possible to employ more than one method in a single NA

project depending on the objectives of the course. The kind of data to be gathered by the needs analysis varies according to the instrument used and the purpose of the survey.

Berwick (1989 as cited in West, 1994) makes a distinction between inductive, e.g., observations and case studies, and, more common, deductive methods, e.g., questionnaires, surveys or other data-gathering instruments.

Richterich (1983 as cited in West, 1994) lists various methods for gathering data in NA which cover both inductive and deductive approaches. Examples of such methods are as follows (Jordan, 1977):

1. Pre-course placement/diagnostic tests which measure the approximate language level of the student, but the main application of such tests is selection rather than diagnosing.

2. Entry tests on arrival which potentially have greater diagnostic value and are more precise in identifying learners' language weaknesses and lacks.

3. Self-placement/diagnostic tests to enable learners to identify their own level of language proficiency and areas of special priority.

4. Observation of classes Yalden (1967 as cited in Jordan, 1977) suggests classroom observation as an approach which includes a checklist or a set of notes. This approach is specifically valuable for deficiency analysis.

5. Surveys based on questionnaires

6. Structured interviews which are information-gathering techniques for NA.

Mackay (1973 as cited in Jordan, 1977) points out the advantages of the interview over the questionnaire which is its completeness of coverage and the opportunity to clarify and extend, economy, familiarity, and lower levels of specialist training.

It is possible to combine interviews with questionnaires.

7. Learner diaries which tended to focus on four areas: course input, tutor performance, learner performance and external factors affecting study.

8. Case studies which are the in-depth investigations of the learning needs and difficulties of individual students or groups (West, 1994).

9. Final evaluation/feedback which takes place at the end of the course and provides information for the student on the effectiveness of learning which can be used as the basis for future self-improvement. It also indicates the soundness of the initial NA and can suggest ways in which future courses could be improved.

10. Previous research about the needs and deficiencies of certain categories of learners. Examples of the previous research can be case studies of individuals or small groups and surveys of large groups.

13. Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

The most common form of needs analysis is the TSA which determines the learners' language requirements in the occupational or academic situation they are being prepared for (Chambers, 1980 as cited in West, 1994). The earliest TSA procedures were designed to determine how much English was used via a questionnaire. The most well-known approach to TSA was the one devised by Munby (1978) for the British Council. Munby's work has attracted a lot of attention as the most comprehensive approach to NA (Dickinson, 1995). Dickinson believes that the subsequent developments in NA have either been derived from Munby or in many ways been a reaction to the shortcomings of Munby's model.

14. Deficiency Analysis.

Deficiency analysis is an approach to NA that has been developed to find learners' present needs/wants as well as the requirements of the target situation which may be called analyses of learners' deficiencies or lacks. Other aspects of deficiency analysis may include discovering whether students are required to do something in the target language which they cannot do in their mother tongue (West, 1994).

15. Strategy Analysis.

During the 1980s, NA extended from what to include in a syllabus as content into how to do so. Language teachers need to know the preferred learning styles and expectations of their students when they learn a language (West, 1994). In this type of NA, students' preferences in terms of grouping size, extent of homework, learning in/out of class, learning styles, correction preferences, use of audio/visual sources, and methods of assessment are analyzed. Strategy analysis shows the methodology

Tarone and Yule (1989 as cited in West, 1994) discuss the conflict that may arise between teachers' and learners' expectations. The problem gets worse when learners

have inefficient learning strategies. Strategy analysis helps with the student-learner difference and the development of learner autonomy.

16. Means Analysis.

Means analysis is also called the ecological approach to NA (Holliday & Cooke, 1982). According to this view, the course designer or teacher first identifies the relevant features of the situation, i.e., the ecosystem and then sees how the positive features can be used to advantage to accommodate what would conventionally be seen as constraints. Holliday (1984) identifies four principal steps in such a means analysis (p. 45):

1. Observe lessons, taking random notes on all significant features

2. Use the notes to construct a report on the lesson to form the basis of discussion with the teacher.
3. Review all the original notes and draw out significant features common to all observations.
4. Construct a communicative device (chart, diagram, etc.) which expresses the findings.

This approach is directly opposite to the way in which NA is usually done, where the categories are defined before the observation and are based on linguistic descriptions and the situation is not being observed (Holliday & Cooke, 1982). The Means Analysis approach allows sensitivity to the situation.

17. Steps in NA.

There are certain kinds of models with different steps suggested for NA.

McKillip (1987), for example, proposes the following steps:

1. Identify users and the uses of the needs assessment
2. Describe the target population and the service environment
3. Identify needs (describe problems and solutions)
4. Assess the importance of the needs
5. Communicate results

Gravatt, Richards, and Lewis (1997, as cited in Richards, 2001) state the following procedures which have been used in NA:

1. Literature survey
2. Analysis of wide range of survey questionnaires
3. Contact with others who had conducted similar surveys
4. Interviews with teachers to determine goals
5. Identification of participating departments
6. Presentation of project proposal to participating departments and identification of liaison person in each department
7. Development of a pilot student and staff questionnaire
8. Review of the questionnaires by colleagues
9. Piloting of the questionnaires
10. Selection of staff and student subjects
11. Developing a schedule for collecting data
12. Administration of questionnaires
13. Follow-up interviews with selected participants
14. Tabulation of responses
15. Analysis of responses
16. Writing up of report and recommendations

18. Criticisms of NA.

Richards (2001, p.52) states that NA in language teaching can be used for a number of different purposes, for example:

- "To find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as sales manager, tour guide or university student;
- To help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students;
- To determine which students from a group are most in need of training in particular language skills;
- To identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important;
- To identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do;
- To collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing".

By all these, Nunan (1988) points out the criticisms and limitations of the NA. In general, several criticisms of NA and its applicability to language teaching have emerged since the mid-1970s (Nunan, 1988), some of which are as follows:

- The lack of awareness of the existence of NA as a tool in course design;
- Problems of familiarity and expertise;
- There is also little information on the validity or reliability of the instruments used and the results obtained.

19. NA in EAP.

English for Academic Purposes is needed not only for educational studies in countries where English is the native language, but also in the countries where English is the official language and medium of instruction in the higher learning institutions (Jordan, 1997). The concept of EAP is interpreted and implemented differently based on the needs and situation of countries' educational policy.

The expansion of the demand of EAP to suit the particular needs of students and the development of higher education varies according to the particular country's situation. The future development of EAP in higher education has been widely discussed by ESP practitioners. For instance, Mo (2005 as cited in Jordan, 1977)

predicts that more attention will be paid to EAP at pre-tertiary levels in the future as there are already many researches on EAP needs that concern students at undergraduate and postgraduate level.

The design and implementation of any curriculum for EAP courses should take into consideration the different language needs of the target learners. Undoubtedly, by determining learners' language needs, a strong foundation pertaining to the whole idea of conducting the particular language courses could be formed. With that preliminary knowledge, the whole process of designing curriculum, from the construction of course objectives to the selection of course contents and learning activities can be made easier. This could provide assurance in the quality of the courses especially in making the learners to achieve the expected learning outcomes. To start collecting information on the learners' language needs, a needs analysis has to be carried out (Jordan, 1977). On the other hand, needs analysis is referred as "the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students" (Brown, 1995, p. 35).

As a result, using NA as a short-cut approach of determining course syllabus will pose risks to both the instructors and students because the quality of learning might be questioned. Therefore, in developing curriculum for any language courses, a little effort must be put in to conduct needs analysis so that any doubts pertaining to the quality of the curriculum could be avoided (Brown, 1995).

According to Brown (1995), NA is able to identify how learners will use English in their technical fields; it gives the instructor initial insights about the prospective students' current level of performance in English and fourthly, needs analysis provides an opportunity to collect samples of authentic texts, spoken and written, which will be used by them in the target environment. Hence, NA can be certainly viewed as an integral part in language curriculum development especially in EAP.

Brown (1995) proposed a model related to the use of NA in EAP context. In this model, it is noted that NA is placed as the first phase in the whole system. This is then followed by the other five phases: objectives, testing, materials, teaching and evaluation. It is in this initial phase that administrators collect and analyze all the necessary information about students' language needs in order to develop the course objectives, testing methods, instructional material and teaching methodologies. It is also noted in the model, after the fifth phase or a course has been implemented, a needs analysis has to be re-conducted. This shows that curriculum development, therefore, is actually a cyclical system and needs analysis is also an on-going activity.

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Exploring Iranian EFL Teachers' Perspective Towards the Junior High School Textbook: Prospect III

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Abstract.

In countries where the textbooks are designed and developed by the Ministry of Education and not selected by the EFL teachers, textbook evaluation seems to be inevitable and necessary. With the advent of communicative language teaching textbook evaluation has received a considerable attention over the last two decades, only a few studies have been conducted on the evaluation of newly- developed textbooks for Junior high schools in Iran. Since a new English book has been developed for the 9th grade students in Iran, this study aimed at evaluating the newly developed textbook from perspective of the teachers who has been incorporating in their classroom. To do so, sixty- seven male and female English Junior high school teachers ranging from 9 to 30 years of teaching experience took part in this study. A questionnaire was developed to evaluate the book based on six domains, namely, structure and vocabulary, general theme, appearance and illustrations, dialogues, exercises and activities, and supplementary materials. The findings revealed that the most EFL teachers were satisfied with the general theme, appearance and illustrations, and supplementary materials, while nearly half of them were not satisfied with the dialogues, vocabulary, structure, exercises and activities. It can be concluded that, despite advantages, some modifications seem obligatory from teachers' perspectives. The suggestions and presented in detail.

Keywords: Textbook evaluation, EFL teachers' attitude, Prospect3, Iran

1. Introduction.

Textbooks are one of the crucial components of the language teaching programs, furthermore they are one of the factors that may encourage learners developing on their materials. They are a kind of support for both teachers and learners. Textbooks give students a kind of consistency. By using textbooks, learners can go forward step by step and find their ways, and on the other hand, they are a kind of plan for teachers and help them manage their time in order to enhance learning in the classroom. There has been considerable controversy about the role of EFL textbooks in teaching and learning foreign languages all over the world. There is a strong relation on textbooks in on ELT classroom because "materials and textbooks are not simply the everyday tools of the language teacher, they are an embodiment of the aims, values, and methods of the particular teaching / learning situation ″(Hutchinson, 1987: p, 37). Similarly, Ur (1996) asserts that textbooks are a supportive teaching instrument. In other words, textbooks are″ designed to give cohesion to the language teaching and learning process by providing direction , support and specific language- based activities aimed at offering classroom practice for students" (Mares, 2003: P, 131) and foster effective language learning (Cunnigsworth, 1995) . For example, in a study, Richards, Tung, and Ng (1992) found that textbooks were one of the main sources of the teaching materials. In another study carried out by McGrath (2006) it was revealed that English teachers of Secondary schools considered the use of the textbooks as important.

Studies have shown that textbooks are very common in ELT contexts and ELT professionals use textbooks for daily teaching purposes and the fact is that very few of them would not use the published materials at some stage of their profession (Byrd, 2001: Litz, 2005; McDonough &Show, 1993).Since they are the most essential component of an EFL classroom, the evaluation of the textbooks is of great importance. Textbooks are revised and republished and sometimes new books are written to meet the changing focuses of instruction as well as changing language needs of the learners. A number of researchers have emphasized the importance of post-use evaluation of a textbook, since it can provide data concerning the actual effect of the textbook on the users (Tomlinson, 2003; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004). Actually, when a book is nearly developed for an ELT context, its evaluation is even of more importance because its pedagogical value need to be determined before long-term use.

In Iran many researchers have conducted studies on textbook evaluation in the contexts of high schools and guidance schools to find out why teachers and students are not satisfied with their EFL textbook. Where is the problem? It depends on many factors, one is textbook. It seems that Iranian EFL textbooks are not designed according to the learners' needs or interests.

However, many studies had focused on the previous high school and Junior high school textbooks in Iran which were based on the traditional teaching methods for many years (Azizifar, 2009; Jahangard, 2007; Rahimpour and Hashemi, 2011; Riazi, 2003; Riazi and Aryashokouh, 2007, and only a few studies have focused on the evaluation of the newly developed book in Junior high schools.

Alavi , B. M (2013 a) stated that the textbook "Prospect 1" was designed to help students to learn English for communicative purpose using all the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing and based on communicative language teaching approach. Alternatively it was believed that the last previous textbooks suffered from lack of communicative skills, and the students were unable to use the language in real situation, so we were interested to find the teachers' perceptions in this regard.

Alavi and Hesami (2013) indicated that the previous Junior high school textbooks were not acceptable from the teachers' point of view and did not meet their expectations. In the same time, Shabani and Mansoori Nejad (2013) analyzed the Junior high school textbooks and support this claim that there have not been slight changes in the textbooks for many years even in the pictures. Moreover, some of the students use communicative textbooks to learn English in the foreign language institutes.

Prospect 3 developed for 9th grade students is a new textbook in Iran. Hence, there is a great need to collect empirical data to evaluate the book from different angles. The present study was conducted to collect data eliciting the attitudes of the EFL teachers teaching in several parts in Amol as to evaluate the extent to which the expectation of the material developers are fulfilled. This study serves as a guide to help teachers have a better and deeper understanding of textbooks and to overcome the problems by careful planning and time management. It will also be of benefit to the educationalists and textbook developers and help them have a better view about revising and republishing the textbook "Prospect 3".

2. Research questions.

In accordance with what has already been argued, the following research question is proposed:

What are teachers' perspective on Prospect 3 in terms of the structure and vocabulary, general theme, appearance, illustrations, dialogues, exercises and activities, and supplementary materials?

3. Methods.

3.1. Participants.

A total of the 67 English teachers teaching English in the 9th grade (36 males and 31 females) took part in this research. They were from Mazandaran Province, Amol, with the mean age of 37.5 years. Their teaching experience ranged from 3 to 29 years. Among them 11.9% had associate Art (AA), 67.5% hold a BA degree, and 20.9% were MA holders. Eighty-eight percent of the teachers were involved in teaching in urban areas and 11.0% in rural areas.

Table 1: Demographic information of the participants

	Gender		**Age**	**Teaching Experience**			**Workplace**		**Degree**		
	Male	Female	20 -39	Up to 9	10-19	20-over	City	Village	AA	BA	MA
Number	36	31	41	10	28	29	59	8	8	45	14

3.2. Procedure.

In this study an English book, Prospect 3, was received according to 67 teachers' Prospect teaching it, to do so the participants were required to fill out the 43 statements from various evaluation checklists in Byrd (2001), Skierso (1991), and Ur (1996) ranging from " Strongly Agree", " Agree", "Disagree", to "Strongly Disagree" for the textbook "Prospect 3" regarding their teaching experience they had in teaching the textbook, so data collection were exploratory involving qualitative data which were analyzed interpretively. Before conducting the study, various checklists by different researchers mentioned above were collected and analyzed to determine the specific criteria relevant to the study. After all, the completed questionnaire was analyzed in accordance with the objectives of the textbook using SPSS version 18, to find the answer to the research question, descriptive statistics such as Frequency, and Percentage were employed. Finally the results of the evaluation Junior high school textbook Prospect 3 according to the teachers' perspective revealed that the newly published textbook in contrance with previous book contained privileges but to some extent in urgent needs of revision and modification.

3.3. Materials.

The material for this study is on locally produced English language textbook used in Iranian Junior high school. The researchers selected book, that is one of the Prospect series "Prospect 3". Alavi et al (2015) in order to attain the aim of the study.

3.4. Questionnaire.

To achieve the purpose of the study, a questionnaire was developed based on the different checklists of Byrd (2001), Skierso (1991), and Ur (1996) utilized. I contained two main parts. One was about their Demographic information, and another was used to investigate EFL teachers' point of view toward "Prospect 3" while teaching based on the types of objectives which are presented aforementioned for the textbook. Among of

these three checklists by consulting researchers and teachers one checklist was selected by combination of mentioned checklists. It contained two main parts. One for gathering demographic information of the participants (gender, age, teaching experience, workplace, and degree), and the second about the textbook Prospect 3 evaluation scheme consists of four main factors containing 43 items measured on a Four-point Linker Scale which includes "Strongly Disagree" (1 point), "Disagree" (2 points), "Agree" (3 points), and "Strongly Agree" (4 points). The checklist including six criteria is as follows:
1) Language components including structures and vocabulary 2) General Theme 3) Pictures and Appearance 4) Dialogue 5) Exercises and Activities 6) Supplementary Materials.

4. Results.

To find the answer to the research question, descriptive statistics such as Frequency and Percentage were applied to the data obtained from a questionnaire was developed based on the different checklists were aimed to collect the teachers' perspective towards the textbook (Prospect 3) in the case of six domains, namely, structure and vocabulary, general theme, appearance and illustrations, dialogues, exercises and activities, and supplementary materials.

The results of the study are presented below in Table 2.

Table 2. The Frequency and Percentage of the EFL Teachers' Perspective towards the 9th Grade English Book, "Prospect 3".

Variables		Structures & Vocabulary	General Theme	Pictures & Appearance	Dialogue	Exercises & Activities	Suppl. Materials
Strongly Disagree	Freq.	6	2	3	7	2	0
	Perc.	9	3	4.5	10.4	3	0
Disagree	Freq.	32	18	14	23	28	22
	Perc.	47.7	26.9	20.9	34.3	41.8	32.8
Agree	Freq.	25	28	36	30	33	38
	Perc.	37.3	41.8	53.7	44.8	49.3	56.8
Strongly Agree	Freq.	4	19	14	7	4	7
	Perc.	6	28.3	20.9	10.4	6	10.4

As can be seen from table 2, overall 43.3% of the participants agree that the new words and structures are introduced appropriately and in meaningful situations to facilitate understanding, the number of introduced words in each lesson is appropriate, and they reappear in the subsequent lessons for the sake of reinforcement. Moreover, they agree that new structures are introduced based on the student's need in a logical order and real daily situations.

The results also reveal that overall 70.1% of the participants are in agreement with the general theme of the book. In other words, they agree that the culture and religious issues are adequately included in the textbook. With regard to the theme of pictures and appearance, the result shows that 74.6% of the teachers, taking part in the study, accept that illustrations used in the book are relevant, clear, and simple.

The font used in the book is also found to be suitable for the students at this age; moreover, they agree that the book has an eye-catching cover. The table 2 shows that 55.2% of the participants believe that the dialogues used in the book are attractive, up-to-date, and appropriate for the students' language knowledge, and there is a broad variety of dialogues, in addition, the dialogues are arranged reasonably, rationally, that is, from simple to hard and are fit for the student's needs. Overall, it can be concluded that the newly published textbook, although teachers have just been teaching, is much more efficient than the previous one, so some revisions and modifications are required to improve it. The EFL teachers' attitude towards the exercises and activities included in the book, the results show that 55.3% of them approve of the appropriateness and attractiveness of the exercises. They also believe that exercises create a meaningful situation for enhancing learning and that they are developed based on CLT. They also agree that the exercises can promote group work in the classroom. Finally, concerning the supplementary materials provided for this book 67.2% of the participants agree that the listening CD is related to the content of the book, and it can help students to promote their listening ability and pronunciation. Moreover, they think that the workbook contains exercises that are appropriately developed according to the students, book. They also believe that the teaching aids are available and the teachers' guide provides them with the information they require for teaching.

5. Discussion.

Sheldon (1988) asserts that "textbook are physical artifact, and the author needs to recognize that lay out, format, typography, and graphics are also essential for a successful course book" (p8). According to the results of the present study, it can be inferred that Junior high school EFL teachers have a rather positive attitude towards the general theme, illustrations and appearance as well as the supplementary materials of the newly developed book, the developers of the newly developed textbook have emphasized that while developing the

textbook, they considered the Islamic Iranian cultural values. The attitudes of the teachers approve this claim (83.6% for culture and 61.2% for religious). It has been argues that since English is used as an international language, the cultural content of ELT materials should not be limited to native English speaking cultures and that when teaching English is viewed as teaching an international language, the culture should become the world itself (Alptekin 2002: 62: McKay 2003: 139-40).

The findings of this study showed that about half of the participants agreed that the vocabulary and structure, dialogues, and exercises that activities are presented appropriately. Such findings suggest that the book needs some revisions and modifications in these parts in order to be appropriate for the students and promote learning.

Regarding the suitability of the exercises for the four language skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing. McDonough and Show (2003) maintain that any materials should enable the students to see effective use of the four skills in an appropriate context because in this way we can involve the learners in authentic tasks and increase their motivation.

In Iran several projects have been carried out to evaluate textbooks (e.g. Ansary & Babaii, 2002; Jahangard, 2008; Hashemi & Rahimpour, 2011). For example, Jahangard (2008) evaluated four EFL textbooks which had been prescribed to be used in Iranian high schools by retrospective or post- use procedure. He elaborated merits and demerits of the textbooks according to a checklist. In the results sections of this study, he mentioned that the ultimate goals of the curriculum were not clarified and final objectives were not clearly specified. Another example is Hashemi and Rahimpour's (2011) study, which is the evaluation of three English language textbooks of Iranian high schools. At the end she declared that English language textbooks that are taught at Iranian high schools do not meet teachers' expectations.

However, evaluating the previously taught book, Ghorbani (2011), Golpour (2012), Mahdizadeh (2005), and found that the activities included in the book were not conductive to improving these skills.

Fortunately in the introduction of the newly developed English textbook, it has been claimed that the textbook developers have paid attention to all four language skills and none of them has been ignored. Although teachers taking part in this study implicitly accept that all these skills are included (58.2% for listening, 58.2% for speaking, 47.7% for reading, and 43.3% for writing skills).

They do not approve of the adequacy of the activities, as the percentages reveal, it seems that the majority disapprove of the adequacy of the activities which have been designed for the tow important skills of reading and writing, with regard to the importance of communicative exercises and activities, Nunan (1991) emphasized that "the way materials are organized and presented, as well as types of content and activities will help to share the learner's view of language" (p210).

It is important to note that, in spite of the disagreement of the majority of the teachers with the adequacy of the activities, they agreed that the exercises were based on CLT and integrated different skills.

Sheldon (1988) asserts that "textbooks are physically artifacts, and the author needs to recognize that layout, format, typography, and graphics are also essential for a successful course book" (p8).

6. Conclusion.

Today where international communication is essential and English is used as the dominant international language, developing appropriate and efficient textbook for EFL students is very important, efficient and improve their language skills. They will enable them to apply the language correctly. Overall, it can be concluded that the published textbook is much more efficient than the previous one, though some revisions and modifications are required to improve, since the textbook has localized in Iran. It is important for teachers to continuously evaluate the textbook from different angles to meet the learning needs of the students, this way they can maximize its learning potential and enhance the status of English teaching in Iran. The present study has also some limitations that should be taken into account. The first limitation is that, the present study compared only one of the Iranian Junior English textbook with one of the books of Prospect series. The second limitation of the study is that it was not accompanied by an interview and the students' opinions were not considered. The findings of this study have implications for curriculum designers and textbook developers to modify the textbook to improve its efficiency.

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Unmasking Factors affecting Learning Pronunciation: Critical Period or Sensitive Period?

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Abstract.
The age-related decline in ultimate second language (L2) attainment is perhaps one of the most controversial topics in the L2 acquisition research due to its theoretical and practical implications. Among the various linguistic features, the acquisition of L2 phonology is the least controversial for an age of learning effect. Research findings show opposing results about the effect of age on second/foreign language learning. This study provides an overview of the literature to reexamine the role of age in EFL context. In so doing, this research took a theoretical perspective regarding the effect of age in language learning. More precisely, pronunciation of English language teaching and its corresponding components along with different factors affecting the pronunciation will be delved into the issue. This paper ends with the recent works done in EFL/ESL context. This paper has pedagogical implication for EFL and ESL context.
Keywords: pronunciation, critical period or sensitive period, age, native language factor

1. Introduction.

The history of the field of SLA goes back to about 40 years and most of the research during the earlier years emphasized language teaching. The approach to L2 learning in the 1950's and 1960's was mainly based on behaviorism and structuralism. While behaviorism as a general theory of learning, explained learning as a process of habit-formation and stimulus-response associations, structuralist theories, as the theory of linguistics, described language as a set of formal patterns without reference to meaning (Ellis, 1990).

Research during the 1960s and 1970s focused more on cognitive approaches to language learning. The aim of the empirical research of that time was to find out to what extent L2 learning was different from L1; Issues such as the age of acquisition (AoA) and its effect on second language learning were among the first popular topics within the new paradigm. During the last 25 years, however, studies of SLA began to focus on understanding the nature of language learning (Gass&Selinker, 2001) and to emphasize the internal mental processing and the learner as an active participant in the language learning process. The Monitor Model (MM) proposed by Krashen (1981;Krashen& Terrell, 1984), was proposed during this period. The MM tried to make distinction between two different ways of developing knowledge of an L2: learning(a conscious knowledge of an L2) and acquisition(a subconscious process similar to the process used in the L1 acquisition).Children, when starting to learn L2 at very young ages, tend to acquire L2 while adults learn it. Neurobiological changes seem to be responsible for this difference as well as sociocultural and contextual factors. Supporters of CPH believe that after a certain age, children start to learn a second language rather than acquiring it. There are different views about the role of age in adult versus child L2 learning, but scholars are more equivocal with regard to aspects related to pronunciation.

2. Pronunciation in English Language Teaching (ELT).

Pronunciation was not considered important until the emergence of communicative language approaches to English language teaching (CLT). In Grammar Translation method, pronunciation had no place in classes as it is known that the purpose of language teaching and learning was not pronouncing the language (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996). Reform movement changed the ideas and principles in the language classrooms and with the use of Direct Method (DM) in the late 1800s and early 1900s, pronunciation started to be taught through imitation and intuition (Celce- Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996). Teacher, as the role model was the source of input for students to imitate and repeat. With Audiolingualism,(ALM), pronunciation gained remarkable significance. However, in 1960s, pronunciation teaching lost its importance again as grammar and vocabulary became more popular and many ELT programs started to exclude teaching pronunciation. In 1980s, with communicative approach, there was a trend in ELT to teach pronunciation again (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996). Since then, pronunciation has been included in language teaching. The goal of ELT became communication; and this aim encourages pronunciation in the teaching process with a goal of intelligible pronunciation and communication.

According to Brown (2002), pronunciation has sometimes been referred to as the "poor relation" (p.1) of the ELT. He remarked that in pronunciation it is the nature of the process to practice listening and speaking by interpreting and producing phonological features respectively. So pronunciation as a skill includes both recognition and production. If a person has poor and unintelligible pronunciation, a successful communication cannot take place even if s/he has fluent speech with precise grammar and vocabulary use. Likewise, if a person is not aware of the phonological features of the foreign language, it will be difficult to interpret what the speaker means; therefore, pronunciation should be regarded as a crucial part of communication and it should be integrated in classes (Brown, 2002).

2.1. Components of Pronunciation.

Pronunciation has two main components or features:1) segmental features which include individual sounds; vowels and consonants., and 2) suprasegmental features which include features beyond sounds; such as intonation, rhythm, and stress.

Segmental features are the separate sound units which are known as phonemes (Roach, 2009). These features may cause difficulties for learners, particularly if learners' mother tongue does not have some sounds English language has or if the place of articulation for the same sounds in native and target languages are different. In order to overcome such problems, Scarcella and Oxford (1994) suggest comparing target sounds with sounds in mother tongue. Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996) support the presentation of phonemic transcription because they think being competent with phonemic transcription will enable learners comprehend the pronunciation aspects both visually and aurally. Also presenting minimal pairs would be an effective way to teach how to differentiate among different sounds. Providing texts containing minimal pairs will contribute to mental coding of sounds in a meaningful context (Bowen, Madsen, &Hilferty, 1985;Gilakjani&Ahmadi, 2011). Hinkel (2006) believes that teaching has to focus on issues of segmental clarity (e.g., the articulation of specific sounds), word stress and prosody, and the length and the timing of pauses, too.

However, comprehensibility can be achieved by not only focusing on the segmental features but also, and more importantly, focusing on the suprasegmental features of pronunciation. These features include the stress in words and sentences, rhythm, connected speech, intonation. Stress in a word or sentence can be seen in the form of syllables or words that are longer and higher in pitch as well as making a distinction between stressed and unstressed syllables. When word stress and sentence stress are combined accompanied by pauses, rhythm occurs (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996).

2.2. Factors Affecting the Learning of Pronunciation.

A number of factors may affect the pronunciation learning. During pronunciation lessons teachers need to pay attention to factors that can have influence on a learning process of their students. It is usually the native language that is taken into consideration and others are overlooked(Kenworthy, 1990).

1. The Age Factor. One of the main factors, which might affect one's ability to learn the sound system of a new language, is the person's age. Many people assume, that the younger the learner is, the better are they able to hear, distinguish and imitate the new sounds. Kenworthy (1990, p. 4) believes that "prepubescent children learning second language with adequate exposure to the target language can attain near native-like pronunciation", and if a person doesn't begin to learn a second language until adulthood, they will never have a native-like accent even though other aspects of their language such as syntax or vocabulary may be indistinguishable from those of native speakers. However, it is not easy to clearly state, whether there is or is not any age-related limit to the ability to acquire a perfect pronunciation of a second language, since the results of the numerous related studies are conflicting.

Penfield, Roberts and Lenneberg agree with this by stating that there is a period (around puberty) after which brain lateralization, or the assigning of certain functions to the different hemispheres of the brain, is completed (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, &Goodwin, 1996). Based on the findings we can say that it is important to start teaching pronunciation at the earlier stages of second language learning to attain native-like pronunciation with ease.

2. The Native-language Factor. L2 learners' first language phonetic system affects L2 pronunciation and difficulty of learning new features. Each language has a specific system of sounds. When contrasting two languages, there are always more or less differing points to be found, concerning individual sounds, as well as intonation, rhythm or various combinations of sounds (Celce-Murcia, Brinton,& Goodwin, 1996).

Unlike children learning second language, adult learners have already fixed their speech system in terms of the sound system of their mother tongue. It is possible that learners will probably have problems with pronunciation of those phonemes that are similar to those occurring in their mother tongue since they have tendency to pronounce L2 utterances using their L1 phonological system.

Celce-Murcia and Goodwin (1998 as cited in Sharkey 2003, p. 11) claim that" the second language filters through the learner's first language facilitating acquisition when the target pronunciation features are similar and interfering with acquisition when the features are dissimilar or non-existent."

The influence of L1 on L2 pronunciation can be summarized as, the inability to pronounce some letters, which occurs at the beginning stage of learning a new language and makes the learners impossible to pronounce sounds correctly. Another problem experienced by learners is the wrong production of final consonants. In many languages sounding final consonants are restricted and therefore, non-native speakers can have intelligibility problems. Also, some sounds may be absent in L1 and their articulation will be difficult and in some cases impossible for L2 learners (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996).

3. Exposure to L2 Factor. The extent to which the learner is being exposed to L2, and also if they listen to the language in its native or non-native form affects the learning of L2 pronunciation system (Kenworthy, 1990).More exposure leads to a closer pronunciation to the English native accent.

4. Learners' Phonetic Ability. Even a certain degree of aptitude might influence the pronunciation learning. "Some people are able to discriminate between two sounds better than others, and/or are able to mimic sounds more accurately" Celce-Murcia et al. (1996, p.36).

5. Learner's Attitude and Identity. Just as ELT teachers cannot influence learners' age or motivation, nor can they have control over their attitude or sense of identity (Sharkey, 2003). A learner's sense of identity and his/her attitude towards the target language can increase or obstruct acquisition of comprehensible pronunciation. If learners stay attached to their native culture their ability to acquire intelligible L2 pronunciation is very limited. Learners who unconsciously or consciously apply ethnicity markers into the target language will never achieve native-like pronunciation since their speech will become resistant to changes. This is closely related to Schuman's Acculturation model (Ellis, 2008). Kenwothy suggests that "personal commitment to a community, and a willingness to be identified with the members of that community, can be revealed through the way a person chooses to speak" (1990, p. 8). Also the learner's feeling of identity plays an important role. Generally said, the closer emotional relationship the person has towards the learned language, towards its native speakers and/or the country where the language is spoken, the more probable it is, that they will tend to try to mimic its sound accurately (Kenwothy, 1990).

6. Motivation.

Motivation is related to attitude and appears to be a very influential factor as some of the nonnative speakers are more concerned about their pronunciation than others.Celce-Murcia and Goodwin (1998 as cited in Sharkey 2003) agree that "if the learner's motivation to improve is strong and if the investment of time and effort is genuine, there will be perceived improvement" (p.16).

Sharkey (2003) outlines several motivational factors that make learners focus more on their pronunciation:

- learners want to improve themselves;
- learners want to become a part of the target language community;
- learners need their speech to be intelligible to their children's teachers;
- learners want to improve their employment prospective;
- Learners want to improve their everyday communication skills;

There are also different types of motivation: integrative and instrumental motivation (Brown, 2002). Integrative motivation is defined as a desire to identify or become a member of the target language community. Whereas, instrumental motivation is described as a matter of immediate desire, since the speakers are only orientated towards attaining intelligible pronunciation for their specific purposes.

2.3. Definition and Importance of Pronunciation.

Burgess and Spencer (2000) define pronunciation as "the practice and meaningful use of target language phonological features in speaking, supported by practice in interpreting those phonological features in TL discourse that one hears" (p. 191). They remarked that, in pronunciation it is the nature of the process to practice listening and speaking by interpreting and producing phonological features respectively. So pronunciation as a skill includes both recognition and production.

Hence, it is not difficult to see the importance of pronunciation in a foreign language and its classrooms (Brown, 2002). If a person has poor and unintelligible pronunciation, a successful communication cannot take place even if s/he has fluent speech with precise grammar and vocabulary use. Likewise, if a person is not aware of the phonological features of the foreign language, it will be difficult to interpret what the speaker means; thus, it will not be easy to achieve smooth communication. Therefore, pronunciation should be regarded as a crucial part of communication; since the focus of language learning is communication- at least in theory-, it should be integrated in classes (Brown, 2002; Celce-Murcia, 1996).

2.4. How to Teach Pronunciation.

How to teach pronunciation is a subject of debate. Studies have differed in their findings in regards to whether formal instruction has an effect on pronunciation or not (Flege& Fletcher, 1992 as cited in Chela-Flores, 2001). According to Chela-Flores (2001), pronunciation teaching should begin with teaching rhythm. She argues that although it is perhaps the most difficult component of pronunciation, once the learners have a basic understanding of the rhythmic features, it will be easier for them to progress in other features of pronunciation which will ultimately give way to comprehensibility and comprehending ability.

Also the distinction between the content words and function words can be made familiar to students which will lead in grasping stressed words in a sentence easily (Chela-Flores, 2001). As mentioned earlier, content words in sentences carry stress and thus convey the meaning while the function words remain unstressed. This instruction can go along with vocabulary patterns and referring expressions such as pronouns.

Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996) also suggest several techniques and practice materials on how to teach pronunciation; these techniques and activities are commonly used by teachers when pronunciation is addressed: 1) Listen and imitate, 2) Phonetic training, 3) Minimal pair drills, 4) Contextualized minimal pairs, 5) Visual aids, 6) Tongue twisters, 7) Developmental approximation drills, 8) Practice of vowel shifts and stress shifts related by affixation, 9) Reading aloud/ recitation, 10) Recordings of learners‟ production (pp. 8-10)

2.5. Teaching Pronunciation.

Celce-Murcia et al. (1996) state that in comparison to such areas of language as grammar and vocabulary, the study of pronunciation began much later, and thus language teachers have often been better skilled at the teaching of the first two. Pronunciation pedagogy has since developed into two approaches (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996, p. 2):

- the intuitive-imitative approach;
- the analytic-linguistic approach.

The intuitive-imitative approach relies on the learner's imitation based on heard models of spoken language. It does not therefore involve specific information and teaching aboutpronunciation. The analytic-linguistic approach, on the other hand, employs various aids such as phonetic symbols and images of speech organs. Today the two approaches complement rather than exclude each other. Initially the teaching of pronunciation was designed to imitate the natural acquisition process of a child's first language. For instance, the Direct Method was based on observing and imitating a model. The method was a naturalistic method which share the notion that language should only be listened before an attempt to speak is feasible. With the advent of the Reform Movement in the late 1800s and along with the establishment of phonetics as a science, a more analytic approach to teaching pronunciation took hold, and in particular phoneticians called for a more thorough education in phonetics for both teachers and learners. The Reform Movement challenged the grammar-translation methods and promoted a scientific approach to language teaching. The International Phonetic Alphabet was also created at this time and it provided a practical tool for the teaching of speech sounds.

At the beginning of the 20th century the so called Oral approach was developed in the UK and what distinguished it from previous methods was its heavy focus on context that is, learning a language in meaningful situations (Knight, 2001 as cited in Celce-Murcia, 2007). In the 1940s and 50s an approach called Audio-Lingualism (ALM) was established and pronunciation was "at the core of language teaching" (Celce-Murcia, 2007. p. 3). In Audiolingualism the explicit teaching of pronunciation also involves the so called minimal pair drills, in which learners are taught to listen to sounds and to distinguish between minimal pairs, that is, word pairs that vary in only one phoneme such as deep/dip and sheep/ship.

As part of the cognitive approach of the 1960s, however, teaching grammar and vocabulary was preferred over pronunciation since native-like pronunciation was seen as an unachievable objective. Several humanistic methodologies emerged in the 1970s and what they had in common was a holistic view of the learner as well as of the learning environment (Knight, 2001as stated in Celce-Murcia, 2007). The Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia and Total Physical Response methods all aimed at focusing on learners' emotional and/or physical resources in order to enhance the outcome of learning. Community Language Learning also emphasized the learners' responsibility of their own learning and used a technique called human computer in teaching pronunciation (Celce-Murcia, 2007). This meant that the learners' successful utterances were recorded on tape and could be played back to them if they wished to further practice the pronunciation of specific sounds.

"At present language learning is considered to be primarily about communication" (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996, p. 7).Celce-Murcia's (2007) model for communicative competence consists of six areas which can be further divided into sub-components.

2.6. Teachers' Role in Teaching Pronunciation.

As models of pronunciation, teachers have a huge responsibility in their classrooms; they influence their learners either in a positive or negative way and their main goal is to create a friendly and supportive atmosphere. On the other hand, their practical proficiency is not sufficient since if the teacher can only exemplify pronunciation by his or her own speech performance, the learners will not be able to know what is significant to focus on (Dalton &Seidlhofer, 1994). During the pronunciation teaching, teachers not only serve as guides who help their students to form necessary categories and establish priorities, but also they need to provide their students with appropriate exercises and relevant feedback.

On one hand, there are so called gifted learners that are able to pick up the pronunciation of the target language only by being exposed to it, and on the contrary many students need explicit explanations to be able to acquire and imitate difficult sounds when speaking. Generally speaking they need a teacher who would draw their attention to how sounds should be pronounced and guide them in order to achieve intelligible pronunciation (Dalton &Seidlhofer, 1994). Kenworthy (1990) offers several roles for teachers in pronunciation learning process:

a. Helping learners hear

The role of teachers is to help their students to perceive sounds that are often misperceive because of the false similarity in learners' mother tongue. "Teachers need to check whether their learners are hearing sounds according to the appropriate categories and help them to develop new categories if necessary "(p. 1).

b. Helping learners make sounds

In this situation teachers have to explain and guide their students how to imitate and pronounce new sounds that do not exist in their mother tongue.

c. Providing feedback

Teachers need to give their students accurate and constructive feedback about how they are doing, since they are not able to judge whether their pronunciation is comprehensible or not. Not providing students with feedback could mean that students make wrong assumptions about pronunciation.

d. Pointing out what's going on

As speaking is unconsciously controlled, students can miss important features of conversation, and therefore teachers should always highlight the key features.

e. Establishing priorities

Learners themselves are aware that their pronunciation is in some ways different in comparison with native speakers, but what they are unaware of is whether it is relevant or not. Here teachers guide them which features they should focus on and which not.

f. Devising activities

When choosing the most suitable activities that offer the best opportunities for practice teachers need to also take into consideration students learning styles as the effectors of their progress.

g. Assessing progress

Assessing progress is not an easy task for any teacher but providing students with information about their progress is essential for further motivation.

2.7. Techniques to Develop Listening Comprehension.

According to researchers (Rost, 2002; Graham, 2006), learners should be trained in the aforementioned processes of listening, bottom-up and top-down processes, to use the both together because one alone is not enough to develop listening comprehension. Brown (2008) explains that in real-world listening bottom-up and top-down processes occur together, and which one is needed more depends on the purpose of the listening, the content of the input, learners' familiarity with the text type, and so forth. Wherefore, it is difficult to separate these two processes.

Using top-down and bottom-up strategies alone will not aid in improving this involved process (Ur, 1984). The previous literature suggests integrating various techniques into classrooms such as benefiting from authentic materials, and use of technology (Ur, 1984). Using technology can promote the development of listening comprehension by providing learners with compelling, interesting material and it can also aid listening comprehension development by enhancing listening input (Rost, 2007). Using authentic materials include use of songs, TV serials, movies, documentaries; and using technology includes use of videos, computers, soft wares, and the Internet. With this respect, it is not difficult to conclude that authentic materials and technology take place together since they are overlapping; also, technology is needed to operate authentic materials.

Another important point to take into consideration is integrating different language skills in order to enhance the development of each skill (Rost, 2002). It is almost impossible to separate skills when conducting an activity in a lesson. A teacher needs to make use of listening while introducing a speaking topic, or s/he needs to employ vocabulary activities before a reading passage. Integrating skills will make the activities, classes more meaningful, motivate students and create interesting contexts.

2.8. The Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH)

The ease with which children acquire pronunciation can be explained by the critical period, which is "biologically determined period of life during which maximal conditions for language acquisition exist"(Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996, p. 15). It is nearly impossible for learners, who start learning foreign language after this critical period, to achieve natural pronunciation since the brain losses its plasticity (Celce-Murcia, et al., 1996). This means that during the critical period a second language is acquired naturally and more easily since the brain is more flexible. The fact that the critical period lasts till puberty explains why adolescents and adults find pronunciation learning so problematic and need explanations how to produce different sounds in order to be able to pronounce them (Kenwothty, 1990).

Lenneberg (1967) presented three important arguments implicating puberty as the close of the critical period. The first is based upon studies in neurology which indicate that various maturational growths remain steady during the early teens. The second argument concerns findings in aphasia which seem to showthat the chances for recovery of lost language functions are very different for children and adults. The third argument is related to the language development of Down's Syndrome children which appears to follow a normal but slowed-down course until it is "frozen" at puberty (p.175).

The CPH mainly contends that the ability to learn a language is limited to the years before puberty after which, most probably as a result of maturational processes in the brain, this ability disappears. Since Penfield and Roberts (1959), and especially since Lenneberg (1967), this has been one of the most hotly debated issues in psycholinguistics and, generally, in cognitive science. Bley-Vroman (1989) assumes that first and second language acquisition are two fundamentally different processes. Nowadays there seems to be a wide acceptance that there is a CP for first language (FL) acquisition, with compelling evidence that, unless they are exposed to language in the early years of life, humans lose the ability to learn a language, especially its grammatical system. The situation with (adult) L2 acquisition is less clear.

According to Long (1990, p. 256) "the homogeneity of the process in terms of onset, rate, sequences, age of completion, level of ultimate attainment, etc. across cultures and environments suggests that it is biologically scheduled", which means that he believes in the existence of a critical period for L1 acquisition. In addition, there is an increasing body of evidence from a variety of sources, such as "L1 acquisition by linguistically isolated children like Genie, acquisition by hearing children of deaf adults, by deaf children of hearing adults, and late acquisition of American Sign Language, etc." (p.262) all of which support the CPH also for L1 acquisition.

Critics of the CPH however point out that the attested age-related decline in adult L2learning ability is too gradual to be seen as the result of a critical period. They also point to the nature of errors which adult L2 learners have been found to make: more often than not these errors affect SL structures which are different from the learners' L1 (Bley-Vroman, 1989). According to Bley-Vroman (1989), the issue of CPH is closely related to the issue of access to Universal Grammar (UG) in L2 learning in that after a certain age (puberty) UG is no longer available. Following the Fundamental Difference Hypothesis(FDH) proposed in Bley-Vroman (1989), in contrast to first language acquisition, L2 learning uses the L1 (rather than UG) as background knowledge.

Age is one of the main factors that affect the second language (L2) acquisition process. It is commonly believed that younger L2 learners acquire the language better than older learners. However, studies in language acquisition show that there are four propositions that are related to the effect of age on second language acquisition (Singleton & Ryan, 2004). The first position states that L2 learners whose exposure to the L2 begins in childhood are globally more efficient and successful than older learners. This position is supported by the Critical Age Hypothesis (Singleton & Ryan, 2004), which states that there is a fixed period of years during which second language learners can achieve native-like proficiency and after which it is not possible to achieve.

The second position states that L2 learners whose exposure to the L2 begins in early adulthood are globally more efficient and successful than younger learners. Singleton and Ryan (2004) suggested that, "Evidence favoring the hypothesis that older L2 learners are more successful than younger ones mostly comes from studies of learning as an outcome of formal instruction …" (p. 72).

The third position states that L2 learners whose exposure to the L2 begins in childhood are more efficient and successful than older learners only in some respects.

Because of the contradicting results of the research referred to in the previous two sections, some researchers suggested that younger learners might be better than older learners in certain linguistic areas.

The fourth position states that adolescent/adult L2 learners are initially more efficient, but in the long run the younger a learner is when the L2 acquisition process begins, the more successful the outcome of that process will be (Singleton & Ryan, 2004). According to Larson-Hall (2008), most studies on the critical period seem to favor the theory that "the younger, the better" (p.46). However those studies have been conducted when learners were active participants and culturally involved in the target country. The participants were actively exposed to the target language on daily basis and received great amount of exposure to the target language outside of the classroom. Researchers agree on the importance of the amount of exposure regarding the critical age of SLA because there is no guarantee of "the younger the better" when the exposure is minimal. As discussed by Larson-Hall, children and adults learn language through different strategies and have different learning abilities. She talks about how young learners learn in an implicit way, which makes minimal exposure to the target language not enough to form morphological, syntactic or phonological system. This statement is confirmed when older results are analyzed and show that there is no linguistic advantage of SLA, having in mind "the younger the better" when the exposure is minimal (Larson-Hall, 2008).

2.9. Sensitive Period Hypothesis (SPH).

Throughout the CPH literature, there is a large variety of views on its nature, e.g., whether it is a critical, a sensitive, or an optimal period, on its origin, e.g. whether it is caused by maturational or cognitive or some other factors, on its onset and completion times, etc.(Patkowski, 1980). There have been a number of studies (e.g. Oyama, 1976; Johnson & Newport, 1989, etc.) showing that young children have advantage over adult L2 learners with regard to ultimate attainment. However, such studies have often been criticized; according tothe critics of the CPH(e.g., Bialystok, 1997), the crucial question is not whether children are more successful L2 learners than adults, but rather whether it is impossible for adult L2 learners to achieve native competence in the target language; Long (1990, p. 274) puts it, "the easiest way to falsify CPH would be to produce learners who have demonstrably attained native-like proficiency despite having begun exposure well after the closure of the hypothesized sensitive periods".

According to Hurford (1991as stated in Ellis, 2008), the term "sensitive period" (p.159) is sometimes used for a less marked kind of criticalperiod. The difference between a critical period and a sensitive period is "fuzzy" (p.160). SP maintains the likelihood of a period which declines, but notabsolutely abrupt/stop. Aitchison (1989) concludes that there is no evidence of a sudden start, or final endpoint of the CP. "Instead, we are dealing with a phenomenon well known in animals, i.e., the fact that young brains are more flexible than older ones"(Aitchison, 1989, p. 89). Oyama (1976) also gives evidence for a sensitive period for the acquisitionof the phonological system of a second language.

Sensitive periods are of interest to scientists andeducators because they represent periods in developmentduring which certain capacities are shapedor changed by experience. Critical periods are a specialclass of sensitive periods that result in irreversiblechanges in brain function (Oyama, 1976).

By all these, the notion of a sensitive period for the acquisition of a second languagehas been debated in the field of L2 acquisition for some time. CPH concernsthe existence of acritical period for the acquisition of a first language extending from about the age of two to the close of puberty (Lenneberg proposed 14 years as the critical turning point) (Oyama, 1976). CP refers to the notion that the age limitation is absolute in the case of first language acquisition which basically means no L1 language can be acquired after the CP, and evidence from Genie and other children who have been deprived from L1 until after puberty confirms that. Hence, Lenneberg's CPH applies for L1 acquisition specifically while the term "sensitive period" can mainly be used in the case of second language acquisition.

On the other hand, SP refers to the fact that the age limitation on L2 acquisition is not absolute in the same sense as CP. It is indeed possible to acquire a second language after the sensitive period, but it would theoretically not be possible to do so to the extent of attaining native-like proficiency (Patkowski, 1980).

Concerning the implication of CPH for L2 acquisition(Lenneberg, 1967) asserts that our ability to learn foreign languages tends to confuse the picture. Most individuals of average intelligence are able to learn a second languageafter the beginning of their second decade, although the incidence of "language learning blocks" (p. 176) rapidly increases after puberty. Moreover, a person can learn to communicate in a foreign language at the age of forty. This does not trouble our basic hypothesis on age limitations because we may assume that the cerebral organization for 1anguage learning as such bas taken place during childhood and since natural languages tend to resemble one another in many fundamental aspects, the matrix for language skills ill present.

2.10. English Language Consonant Sounds.

Consonants are sounds that are produced with closed or nearly closed articulations and are "formed by interrupting, restricting or diverting the airflow in variety of ways" (Kelly, 2000, p. 47). According to Kelly (2000), Consonants are classified based on three criteria: The manner of articulation, the place of articulation, and the force of articulation. The force of articulation is focused on a difference between voiced (Lenis) and voiceless (forties) consonants.The manner of articulation means the way to produce sounds in the vocal tract. Based the manner of articulation consonants can be divided into six categories (Roach, 1992):

1. Plosives which are produced when a complete stricture is created somewhere in the vocal tract and the soft palate is raised at the same moment. After forming the closure and having compressed the air behind it the sound released making the sound of explosion. g. /k/, /g/.
2. Fricatives which are created when the air that goes through a small passage in the vocal tract produces a hissing sound e.g. /s/, /f/.
3. Affricatives which begin as plosive consonants but they finish as fricative e.g. /tʃ/.
4. Nasals. When air passes through the lowered soft palate they are formed, and nose since the lips make a closure e.g. /m/, /n/
5. Lateral. The tip of the tongue causes a partial closure against the alveolar ridge and therefore the air passes along the sides of the tongue e.g. /l/.
6. Approximants. During the production of the consonant the articulators do not approach enough to create a complete consonant e.g. /w/, /r/.

As far as the place of articulation is concerned, various organs of speech must be taken into consideration (Roach, 1992; Kelly, 2000) and we have 8 categories of consonants:

1. Bilabial: The lips are almost or totally pressed together e.g. /p/, /m/.
2. Labiodentals: The lower lip is in contact with the upper teeth /f/, /v/.
3. Dental: The tongue touches the teeth e.g. /ð/, /θ/.
4. Alveolar: The tip of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge e.g. /t/, /s/.
5. Palate-alveolar: The tip of the tongue is pressed behind the alveolar ridge e.g. /tʃ/.
6. Palatal. The tongue is in the middle raised against the palate e.g. /j/.
7. Velar. The back of the tongue is raised against the soft palate e.g. /k/.
8. Glottal. A gap between the vocal folds is used to produce audible friction, e.g. /h/.

2.11. English Dental Fricative Sounds.

The fricative consonants, /ð/ and /θ/, are dental sounds produced when the tip of the tongue is placed between the upper and lower teeth; the soft palate is raised all the time. In other words, the sounds are made by putting the tongue between the teeth so that the blade is extended just forward of the teeth and the tongue is the active articulator (Roach, 1992). The consonant /ð/ is "voiced interdental fricative", whereas /θ/ is "voiceless interdental fricative" (Roach, 1992, p. 50).

Since these two consonants do not exist in Persian language and their mispronunciation may influence learners' intelligibility, teachers need to focus on the explanation how to produce them. Kelly suggests teachers

to "ask students to put the front of your tongue against the back of your teeth. Let the air pass through as you breathe out. Don't use your voice. Hold the sound and, add your voice"(2000, p. 55).

Another technique that may help learners to pronounce the sounds is to 'put a finger against the lips and try to make the finger touch the tip of the tongue and then breathe out" (Kelly, 2000, p.56). Since the voiceless dental fricative /θ/ does not exist in Persian, the speakers might replace it by /s/, /f/ or /t/. Also English speakers whose L1 is Persian might replace /ð/ by /z/ or /d/.

2.12. Minimal Pairs.

The Minimal Pairs can be useful ways to teach the /ð/ and /θ/ contrast to L2 learners. Catford states that "phonemes are the minimal sequential contrastive unites of the phonology of language"(1992, p. 198). The contrastive function of phonemes is that there are the bits of sounds that differentiate one word from the other e.g. pin is differentiated from bin by the distinctive initial consonants/p/ and /b/. The sequential function means that" the phonological form of a word consists of a sequence of phonemes, and that every phoneme consists of a set of (simultaneous) distinctive features"(Catford, 1992, p. 201). The minimal function of phonemes means that phonemes are the smallest units which cannot be further divided (Roach, 1992). In teaching English dental fricatives we can have, day and they, or three and tree.

2.13. Accent and Intelligibility.

It is a widely accepted fact that a person's first language (L1) has impact on second/ foreign language learning, including pronunciation (Derwing, 2008). For instance, Japanese learners of English tend to have difficulty in distinguishing between and producing the liquid consonants /r/ and /l/ since in Japanese the two are allophones (Derwing, 2008). As a result, they are said to have nonnative English accent. Accent is a common term to describe the way in which a person pronounces a language. Language cannot be spoken without pronouncing it, thus everybody has an accent (Andersson&Trudgill, 1990 as cited in Derwing, 2008).

However, the term accent tends to be used of ones that differ from our own and reveal that the speaker hails from somewhere else. For example, Ladefoged (2005as cited in Derwing, 2008, p. 2) notes that "An accent is always what the other person has; we seldom view ourselves as speaking our native tongue with a particular accent". Sometimes the term accent is confused with intelligibility or comprehensibility, although they can be considered separate aspects of oral output(Ladefoged, 2005as cited in Derwing, 2008).Ladefoged explains how accents can be divided into subgroups based on their cause and possible implications. One division is intralanguage versus interlanguage accent. The former refers to accents within one language. It is usually the result of regional variation and present in all living languages. The latter describes the possible effects of a person's first language on second or foreign languages.

Foreign accent is an evidence of language transfer, and although there was a time when it was classified even as a speech disorder, today it is perceived as highly predictable for second language learners, particularly if they learn a language at a later age, and as something that as such need not be a problem (Derwing, 2008).Accents can also be categorized as phonetic or phonological, depending on the extent to which they deviate from the standard of any particular variety. A phonetic accent does not change the meaning of a word but might hinder its intelligibility and cause confusion in the listener, sometimes prompting requests for repetition. A phonological accent, on the other hand, alters the meaning of a word as the speaker has trouble producing the correct sound.

Scheuer (2005 as cited in Derwing, 2008) notes that it is important to distinguish between accent and intelligibility and to remember that having a foreign accent does not automatically make anybody's speech unintelligible. In many cases foreign speech can be difficult to comprehend not because of its sounds as such but because of its speed as well as cultural references that might not be familiar to the listener. In intercultural communication situations native speakers should speak at a lower rate and avoid the use of idioms, colloquialisms and very formal language.

2.14. Language Attitudes and Native-Accent.

There is a current view on English being the lingua franca, and the communication that takes place between people is mostly among non-native speakers of English, rather than between native speakers and non-native speakers (Jenkins, 2000; Canagarajah, 1999; Hinkel, 2006). Therefore, it is not expected from a learner to produce all aspects of pronunciation such as the connected speech; reduced forms, and so forth. Also, the consensus over the intelligibility purpose of pronunciation teaching suggests learning the target language pronunciation well enough to be able to communicate: speak intelligibly and comprehend what is uttered (Hinkel, 2006). In this respect, pronunciation teaching does not always need to focus on production to the full extend; rather it may focus on recognition; awareness raising activities.

It can be speculated whether learners have more positive attitudes towards traditional native models because they are aware of other people's prejudice against non-native accents, or whether they truly have the aims of acquiring native pronunciation any reason (Jinkins, 2000). Seidlhofer (2005, p. 64 as emphasized in Hinkel, 2006) predicts that the attitudes towards the native English accent will change with time in the same way as American English has come to be accepted as a model over the past decades.

Most importantly, research shows that eliminating the first language's influence on second language pronunciation is the most difficult task for second language learners to overcome (Flege, 1987). Accent is statistically the last skill to attain native-likeness and it is thus the most common first language aspect that is rarely eliminated. Because of the inherent obstacles that non-native speakers (NNSs) face in adopting native-like pronunciation and usage, an English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) movement has developed. This movement aims to ignore native standards altogether and to instead identify those structures NNSs have in common. As for the motivational aspect of young learners towards SLA, they generally have more positive attitude towards SLA and are highly motivated. Therefore, the teacher plays a significant role during the learning period. However, as they grow older, the impact changes and other factors seem to influence the ups and downs of young learner's motivation.

To explore further the motivation and attitudes towards learning a second language, Larson-Hall's investigation from 2008 suggests that young learners have more positive attitude towards studying a foreign language (Larson-Hall, 2008). In conclusion, the study made by her focused on if there was any correlation between starting early and high scores in environment that provided minimal input of exposure to the second language as the debate has often been about how age plays a significant role in a natural or immersion environments. According to her, this is not always true as she argues that "age does seem to play a non-negligible role in improving second language acquisition, given that language learners receive enough input" (p.24). Moreover, the reality is that age can play a role in improving second language acquisition, but it is important to provide students with enough exposure to the target language during their learning process.

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2.15. ELT Methods and Pronunciation.

In the early 19th century, the grammar translation method was primarily focusing on translations "into and out of the target language" as well as the reading and writing skills (Richards &Rodgers, 1992, p. 3). Until the Reform Movement(1880s) the focus of language teaching did not shift to speech. The IPA (International Phonetic Association-1986) was, in this sense, founded and itwas designed in order to represent the transcriptions of the all languages' sound patterns. The disciplines of the movement gained new status to teaching speech and phonetics appeared as a new field. The principles were including important ideas concerning the position of pronunciation teaching; the study of the spoken language, phonetic trainingin order to establish good pronunciation habits, the use of conversation texts and dialogues tointroduce conversational phrases and idioms" were fundamentals of language teaching (Richards &Rodgers, 1992).

The pioneers of the movement have thought that language teachings have been beyond teaching grammar rules and translation of written materials. To them, speech patterns, rather than grammar, were the fundamental elements of language and their teaching methodology was shaped according to this view (Howatt, 1984), and added "training in phonetics would enable teachers to pronounce the language accurately" (Richards &Rodgers, 1992, p. 8). The reformists inspired the basic rules of the Direct Methodists and provided new classroom teaching methods such as the ALM.

2.16. The Audio-lingual Method (ALM).

During the period of the World War II, the American Army needed military personnel that could speak and understand the enemy's language. Therefore, Army Specialized Training Programs were formed in 1942. American Universities were, on the other hand, responsible for training both these officers and students by applying intensive language programs. Especially during and after the war, thousands of foreign students had come to America in order to get a University degree. Training in English language was obligatory before attending to any university. These resulted to new approaches to language teaching (Richards &Rodgers, 1992). In this sense, the informant method was developed by Bloomfield (1940s as cited in Richards &Rodgers, 1992) and his colleagues at Yale University. In the informant method, there was not text book, and a native speaker of language was the model for teaching, instead. It was represented as a source of phrases and vocabulary, and the teacher provided just sentences for imitation. Learners were expected to learn by taking part in conversation with informant and learn how to speak as well as to practice grammar. The program of informant method was an intensive one including "fifteen hours of drill with native speakers and twenty to thirty hours of private study spread over two to six week sessions"(Richards & Rodgers, 1992, pp. 44-5).

In the 1940s, the "Oral Approach, Aural-Oral Approach, and Structural Approach" were used together in foreign language teaching. In the second half of the 1950s, Fries and his colleagues added behaviorist

approaches to this combination. That combination was later called the Audio-lingual Method in the linguistics literature (Howatt, 1984).

ALM was regarded as a process of mechanical habit formation by applying stimulus response chains in language teaching. Spoken forms of language were more important than the written forms. Changes in language teaching methodology also influenced pronunciation teaching methods and curriculum. For example, Hişmanoğlu (2006) states that pronunciation programs during ALM were viewed as meaningless non communicative drill and exercise gambits". He explains the reason for this condition by citing that "for many, little relationship exists between teaching pronunciation in the classroom and attained proficiency in pronunciation; the strongest factors found to affect pronunciation (i.e. native language and motivation) seem to have little to do with classroom activities" (p. 103).

However, the information conveyed by Howatt (1982) shows that pronunciation teaching has been an important part of language teaching at least since theReform Movement. Howatt (1982), in this context, notes that "The heart of the Reform Movement's philosophy was the supremacy of the spoken language. The children hear the new language first, spoken properly by the teacher in the classroom, before seeing it in its written form. Moreover, when they did come to read the texts, they should not be misled by the use of the phonetically irregular and inconsistent traditional orthography, but should see the words in especially prepared, phonetically transcribed form first" (p. 265).ALM demanded native like pronunciation which seems an unrealistic goal. One of the most widely accepted points of criticism toward this method is that, the learners lacked engagement in meaningful language use and had only limited opportunities to use the target language creatively while interacting with their peers.

2.17. Communicative Language Teaching.

In the late 1960s, the ALM was replaced by a new approach, CLT. With the emergence of this method, pronunciation teaching gained its real position as Hişmanoğlu (2006, p. 103) stated" Chomsky's new principles in language and linguistics played an important part in this process. To provide communicative competence and develop procedures for the teaching of four language skills to language teaching became two basic essentials".

3. Empirical Studies.

3.1 Works Done in the ESL Context.

Studies on accent by Oyama (1976) and Seliger, Krashen, and Ladefoged(1975) which investigated the relation of age of acquisition with the attainment of native-like pronunciation have supported evidence for the notion of a sensitive period for the acquisition of a second phonological system. The results in both cases showed that age of acquisition is a strong predictor of accent, while various motivational and practice factors have little effect.

It is important to investigate if L2 learning capacity declines over a period. There are relatively few studies that investigate SLA achievement between old and young language learners. Seright (1985 as cited in Singleton & Ryan, 2004), points out that only few studies dealing with success and age-related issues between young and old learners, show that the younger learners perform better than adult L2 learners.

Within the ESL context, since the early 1990s, some studies have shown positive results of older beginners that achieve high level of L2 proficiency. White and Genesee (1996 as cited in Singleton & Ryan, 2004) hardly found any differences between English Grammatically test scores among native-like French speakers who began learning English after the age of twelve and those attained by native-speakers in language control groups.

There is another hypothesis that indicates that younger learners are extremely efficient in acquiring native-like accent in second language. It has to be taken into account that for this to happen, it is important that the exposure to the target language is sufficient. Moreover, this is confirmed by Singleton and Ryan (2004) as he states "the strong version of this position being that unless exposure to the L2 begins in the childhood years an authentic accent will not normally be acquired" (p. 84). However, Singleton and Ryan points out that all of those investigations were the result of formal instruction. In other words, these investigations are short-term research and based on SLA in primary school classroom and L2 bilingual programs. Also, the results of some immigrant studies indicate an advantage for older learners.

In the ESL context, a number of studies show that early age of entry into the country where the target language is used leads to successful second language acquisition (Singleton & Ryan, 2004). For example, Asher and Garcia (1969) conducted a study that involved 71 Cuban subjects who entered the US ranging in age from 7 to 19 years old. Thirty American students served as the control group. The subjects in both the groups were asked to utter sentences in English. The scores were based on a four-point scale, ranging between native speaker and definite foreign accent. Most of the subjects who entered the US at an early age achieved a near-like accent. Asher and Garcia concluded that age can predict the success in second language acquisition.

In an ESL context, Fathman (1975) also examined 140 subjects who came to the US and who spoke different L1s. The ages of the subjects ranged from 6 to 15 years old, and they were all exposed to English for the same period of time. The test had two sections: phonology and morphology and syntax. This study showed that subjects between the ages of 6 and 10 achieved significantly higher scores than subjects between the ages of

11 and 15 in the phonology test. On the other hand, subjects between the ages of 11 to 15 achieved significantly higher scores than the younger subjects on the grammar test.

3.2. Works Done in the EFL Context.

In the EFL context, one of those earlier studies from 1974 (e.g., Oller and Nagato, 1974) involve Japanese elementary school students who were starting to learn English (1-2 hours per week) and they compared them with older students who were beginning their SLA in junior high. Statistical differences were diagnosed within the younger learners but not within the older and the conclusion was that the advantages of the younger learners were not present anymore.

Regarding the relationship between age and pronunciation, several studies give advantage to children. Cochrane and Sachs (1979) made a comparison between children and adults on imitation of Spanish words and found children to be superior in imitative tasks and suggested that they may possess some special aptitude for phonological acquisition. Neufeld (1979) also argued that he was able to teach second language learners to perform like natives on certain tasks after specialized training.

Rosenman (1987) concluded in his study that young English speaking adults discriminate and are able to reproduce Spanish sounds better than children. A large body of literature exists on international teaching assistants (TA) and professors that further our understanding of NS – NNS accent attitudes. Rubin (1990) found that forty percent of their undergraduate sample said that they preferred to avoid classes taught by foreign teaching assistants. Bresnahan,Ohashi, Nebashi, Liu, & Shearman (2002) found consistently strong correlations between stronger foreign accent and negative attitudes. An attitude towards accents study was made by Estekiand Rezazadeh in(2009). The study "relies on the assumption that gender differences contribute to the exploitation of a foreign accent while speaking in English. In other words, male and female language learners adopt different attitudes towards recoursing to their L1 accent." (p.140). In recoursing to their own accent, such learners reflect their attitude towards the foreign language. Thirty advanced Iranian EFL learners studying at the Language Institute of Khomeini Shahr participated in the two measuring instruments designed for this study, namely a questionnaire and a structured interview. The researchers concluded that there was a significant relationship between the gender of the subjects and their susceptibility to preserve their L1 accent. Males' speech in English was, unlike the females', greatly affected by their L1 local accent. This, however, proved the "widely- held belief … that girls are more capable to approximate their accent to a native-like status" (p. 142). Thus, they unlike the males, reflected a positive attitude towards the English accent they were learning in the institute.

Another important point to take into consideration is integrating different language skills in order to enhance the development of each skill. It is almost impossible to separate skills when conducting an activity in a lesson. A teacher needs to make use of listening while introducing a speaking topic, or s/he needs to employ vocabulary activities before a reading passage. Integrating skills will make the activities, classes more meaningful, motivate students and create interesting contexts. For listening, the case is similar. Many researchers (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Hinkel, 2006) emphasize the strength of integrated presentation over the separate presentation of skills. Listening can be used as an aid to reading or speaking skills throughout different sections of classes; similarly, listening can benefit from particular skills like pronunciation. There have been various research studies examining the effects of using technology and authentic materials within classes on listening comprehension. In their study exploring the efficacy of videos with subtitles on listening comprehension, Hayati and Mohmedi (2011) formed three groups: L1 subtitled group, L2 subtitled group and without subtitle group. The findings indicated that the group with English subtitles (L2 subtitled) outperformed the other groups.

In Iranian context, Moyer (2004) tried to find the relationship between age and the perception and production of English speech sounds by Persian speakers. She also tried to find out the relationship between gender and the discrimination and production of English speech sounds. Sixty subjects took part in her study. They were divided in two groups of thirty children and adults, including fifteen males and fifteen females. The results supported the idea that children and adults have equal aptitude for perception and production of the English sounds, and that there is still room for an innate faculty to continue its work in adulthood. Moreover, gender did not affect perception and production of English sounds.

Daryagasht and Khodabandehlou (2014)investigated the effect of instruction of pronouncing absent consonants of English in Persian on female intermediate EFL learners' pronunciation. 80 students participated in their study. After a pre-test of pronunciation, the experimental group went under 20 sessions of treatment on pronunciation. All the recorded voices were evaluated using Rosetta stone software. The results showed the pronunciation of participants in the experimental group improved significantly.

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Incorporating principles of Exploratory Practice for fostering learner Autonomy

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Abstract.

This study embarks upon probing different ways of learning chosen by students, consciously or unconsciously, to proceed and improve their learning. The argument about the ambiguous taxonomies of learning strategies has been presented, and the need to make a clear distinction between "training" and "development", from learners' point of view, has been explained. Learners' phases of learner development should proceed in a similar way to teacher development. Consequently, it is crucial for this study to call for the need to be aware of the fact that learners do normally move on to learner development, whether or not teachers/researchers neglect this fact. This article also examined how researchers and teachers have tried to help learners to learn better by providing learner- or strategy training.

In addition, the review discussed the value, from a sociocultural viewpoint, of journal writing, group talk and making use of experiences. In addition, the relationship between writing, talking, learning and reflection has been linked to stress how learners advantage from it to create a better situation for learning for themselves and for others.

Key words: exploratory practice, reflective learning, learning strategy, collaborative learning, cooperative learning

1. Introduction.

The exploratory practice (EP) framework is based on a set of principles for practitioners research honed over 20 years of working with teachers, learners and researchers .EP was developed in the early 1990s by Allwright.

Reflective learning is as the core element in learning from experience and is the same as reflection in a mirror. It "gives back not what it is, but what it might be, an important on the original" (Biggs, 1999). It encourages learners to address "why" things happen.

Learning strategy is the discovering of the characteristics what could be learned from them. It is a set of the factors investigated by researchers that contribute to enhancing learners' effectiveness.

Cooperative Activity is a group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others (Olsen and Kagan 1992). It is an instructional strategy that addresses academic and social skill learning by students. Students work towards fulfilling academic and social skill goals. It is a team approach where the success of the group depends upon everyone pulling his or her weight.

Collaborative Activity is an activity that learners help each other to achieve a shared goal which is beneficial for themselves and other learners as well. They tend to work in small groups and lead the whole group to maximize learning through teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction (Rogers& Johnson 1998, p. 34). Collaborative learning is commonly illustrated when groups of students work together to search for understanding, meaning, or solutions or to create an artifact or product of their learning. Further, collaborative learning redefines *traditional student-teacher* relationship in the classroom because activities can include collaborative writing, group projects, joint problem solving, debates, study teams, and other activities in which students team together to explore a significant question or create a meaningful project.

The aim of this study is to find out what happens in learners' reflection and how learners make sense of their own learning. I am interested in the processes that take place when an opportunity is given to learners to reflect on their own learning – in whether they make use of these opportunities, and, if they do, how they do so. I will discover these research questions:

a) How do students make sense of their learning?
b) How do they monitor their progress?
c) How do they react to their own understanding when it occurs?
d) How do students show evidence of their ongoing development?
e) Are low-level learners in Iran capable of reflecting on their language learning in English?

The study was motivated by my observation of students' defeat with learning English, caused by their under-achievement in English proficiency tests or teacher evaluations. Students' English education in Iran is test-oriented, especially during the years immediately before they go to university, so it is common for those who do

not perform well in tests to feel frustrated, or even embarrassed. It seldom seems to happen to Iranian learners that tests are not the only way to judge their learning.

In order to discuss the importance of helping students find out the purpose of their learning, and how they can make their learning more enjoyable, this study investigates learners' English learning experience and reflection in an elective one-semester course for human students at Farhang school in Babol**,** which was designed to enhance and promote learners' reflection on their own language learning processes. The course also attempted to recover students' eagerness for learning, which had often been lost or weakened for the reasons given above. Without reflection, students tend to underestimate themselves and let their unsuccessful learning experiences take away their self-confidence. Students with negative self-attributions "may cause the learner to slip into helplessness, withdraw from learning opportunities and give up the attempt, feeling discouraged. The learner loses his interest and curiosity for learning and lowers his expectations accordingly" (Kohonen, 2001:33).

Traditionally, students in Babol have been educated to learn from mistakes as the principal means of enhancing their success in learning. Looking at some common Chinese proverbs about learning, there are few which encourage people to learn from positive experience. Typical ideas traditionally instilled into students in Chinese cultures are that they should "*stand up from where they fall*", and that "*failure is the mother of success*".

In the reflection-based course, Exploratory Practice for Reflective English Learners, on which this study is based, students were given opportunities to rethink their goals in learning English, keep weekly study journals, and regularly share their reflection with others in groups with the support of Exploratory Practice (EP). EP was established by Allwright and associates to promote quality of life and understanding in the foreign language classroom. Students' journals and recorded group talk sessions have been posted on the course website since 2008, with the aim of representing, on the one hand, and investigating, on the other, how students can help themselves by using their own strengths, and exploring their own ways of learning. What students reveal in their reflections can help teachers and researchers better understand the characteristics of learner development, an area that has been little discussed in the field of language teaching and learning.

It is an important priority in EP to encourage students (and teachers) to recall their successful learning experiences, as well as the unsuccessful ones. Over the past nine years of observation of classes doing EP with students, I have observed that in group talk most students can, at least at first, think of few successes in their English learning experience. Every semester in the EP-based course, only around two or three successful experiences are brought up. Perhaps it is because students are never encouraged to recall successful experiences of learning English. Perhaps their experiences mainly consist of unpleasant memories, so their frustrations and worries hide their successful experiences after they occur. Moreover, in the Iran context particularly, people are educated to learn from mistakes and also are encouraged to keep their successes quiet. In other words, if they have enjoyed successes, they feel it would be free to tell others about them.

The principles of EP make a distinction it from other research approaches in various ways. First, EP aims to bring learners, teachers and researchers together through cooperative and collaborative activities. Second, it aims to develop better understanding of teaching and learning without producing an extra burden of work. Third, it is not a one-shot, short-term experiment, but rather aims for supportable, long-term investigation. Fourth, it is probably the only approach which, apart from focusing on the effectiveness of teaching and learning, is also concerned with people's quality of life. Allwright has emphasized the issue of the quality of life for teachers and learners for more than two decades. As Gieve and Miller (2006) highlight, "life" should not be forgotten or suppressed when "work" dominates. These distinguishing features encouraged me to use EP with my students. In particular, the students in the Farhang school where I am working have to meet endless deadlines for practices, displays or performances. English appears to be a weakness for most of these students, who are often perfectionists in their specialized areas but have little time or energy for other things. Most of their time is devoted to their human training. Their language learning performance is generally characterized by consistent under-achievement, and they therefore tend to lack confidence in themselves when using English.

2. Different ways of learning.

The four kinds of learning proposed are: non-reflective learning, naturally reflective learning, experiential learning, and supported reflective learning. In order to focus on the relationship between reflection and learning, which is the main concern of this study, the discussion of learning in the article does not attempt to cover all possible categories of ways of learning. Instead, with the aim of looking for an understanding of how reflection relates to the process of learning. The study will focus on research that throws light on the characteristics of learning when students reflect, or when they do not reflect, and how that reflection affects learning.

3. Non-reflective learning.

First, It is going to be discussed how learners react to and understand the situation if their learning is non-reflective, and how a non-reflective approach tends to encourage low student self esteem, and a tendency to focus only on errors and problems. Ridley (1991) provides a detailed description of how learners accept unexamined one's self and external environments as "truth", and what happens in reality is not considered as a question of the learner's own choice if there is no reflection. Non-reflective learners tend to take things for

granted, and accept learning results without much questioning, so they allow a habitual learning style to become established easily (Habermas, 1976,p.16). For example, students who consistently get poor results in English may assume that they are simply destined to always be bad at this subject, rather than thinking that the situation might be changed through reflection, a change of attitude, or seeking new sources of motivation. The role of reflection in learning is an important and dynamic process that can engage learners in letting their thinking flow before they make judgments about their performance in learning. Kohonen (1992,p.17) considers reflection as a bridge between experience and theoretical conceptualization. He implies that non-reflective learning appears to miss the opportunity for "recycling the experience at deeper level of understanding and interpretation". Learners who are not reflective tend to be followers.

4. Naturally reflective learning.

Boyd and Fales (1983) see reflective learning as the "key element in learning from experience", saying that it is "the core difference between whether a person repeats the same experience several times... or learns from experience in such a way that he or she is cognitively changed or affectively changed." Some learners are naturally good at reflection. They naturally reflect on their learning. Unfortunately, and perhaps this is human nature, when people reflect they tend to look mainly at their weaknesses. For foreign language learners, this means the negative side of learning. According to my experience in Babol, at least, it seems that when learners are asked to reflect, they are encouraged and even educated to look for problems.

The three questions people are expected to ask themselves are "Have I completed the task asked by my employer or friends?", "Have I misled my friends?", "Have I practiced taught skills?" Tsen Tzu's ideas of reflection are to examine oneself and see what is in need of "improvement".

Through traditional school and cultural education, learners in Babol are convinced that learning from mistakes is the major rationale for reflection. When reflecting in this way, there is a desire for only problems and weakness to be taken into account.

Although it is true that people can sometimes learn from negative and unsuccessful experience, if learners exaggerate this kind of reflection, the danger is that they will blame themselves too much. Gradually, they might lose confidence in their ability to learn, if they continually focus on their experiences when things do not go well. Experiences without understanding do not produce further success, as Marsick stressed. "[...], for a variety of reasons, people do not learn from their experience, or if they learn, they may simply reinforce errors." (Marsick, 1991,p. 36).

For naturally reflective learners, their intra-personal intelligence is one of their strengths, and this can be an asset for language learning, especially for oral skills. Yet it is likely that they will neglect this asset if they only look at what they have done wrong in reflection.

5. Experiential learning.

Mezirow (1981) placed critical reflection of experience at the heart of all learning. Rogers (1996) interprets learning as a cycle that begins with experience, followed by reflection and later proceeding to action. Kolb (1984) provides a well-known learning cycle which starts with experience, continues with critical reflection and abstract conceptualization and moves on to active experiment.

In experiential learning, according to Kohonen (1992), personal experience and giving subjective personal meaning to abstract concepts is seen as the focal point for learning. In short, it is about learning from actual experience through reflection. Learners' own experiences have an important place in this kind of learning. According to Kohonen (1992,p.18), the rationale for experiential learning can be seen in the following arguments:

(1) it facilitates personal growth;

(2) it helps learners adapt to social change;

(3) it takes account of differences in learning ability; and

(4) it responds to learner needs and practical pedagogical considerations.

More specifically, learners are encouraged to learn from reflection. Though the role of reflection has been relatively little discussed, Kohonen proposes reflection as a component of co-operative learning.

Kohonen (1992) provides an experiential model for creating an atmosphere of shared partnership, common purpose and joint management of learning. "Learning requires an explicit awareness and understanding of what it is that needs to be learned (metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness), and why such learning is necessary" (Kohonen, 2004). Without sufficient understanding, learners might solve false problems or create new frustrations. Marsick also raises the risk of actions without understanding.

"Unfortunately, learning from experience can lead to repetition of mistakes" (Marsick, 1991,p.24). This is because under experiential learning, learners are encouraged to look at problems in their reflection, and then they are generally expected to make changes. In this respect, experiential learning is similar to the other approaches mentioned above.

The core of experiential learning lies in reflective learning. Boyd and Fales (1983) explain in their introduction: "Reflective learning is the process of internally examining and exploring an issue of concern, triggered by an experience, which creates and clarifies meaning in terms of self, and which results in a changed

conceptual perspective. We suggest that this process is central to understanding the experiential learning process." Kohonen summarizes four characteristics of experiential learning as follows:

1. Learning takes place along a continuum of meaning, ranging from "meaningless" routine learning to "meaningful", experiential learning that involves the learner.

2. Learning is a continuous process that is grounded in experience. Thus knowledge and skill gained in one situation become instruments of understanding and dealing with situations that follow.

3. The process of learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of grasping and transforming experience.

4. Learning is a holistic process of relating to the world. It involves feeling, observing, thinking and acting, as a cyclic process. (Kohonen, 2001,p.30)

Kohonen has moved reflective learning towards a larger learning community that arouses students' independent learning and at the same time actively allows students to socially involve in helping other practitioners. Kohonen's work (2004) with portfolio assessment in Finland combines experiential learning, collaborative learning and learner autonomy, and thus provides a way of helping learners engage in individual and mutual learning.

Experiential learning certainly offers a promising model for learning. However, it encourages change as well as understanding, which might lead to certain risks. For example, learners might expect, or feel they are expected, to make changes for change's sake. But in fact, not everyone needs to or wants to change after reflection.

6. Exploratory Practice.

In this kind of learning, learners' awareness of learning is treated as part of the thinking that belongs to every learner. Learners do not need any special training to acquire the skill of reflecting. All they need is opportunities for learning, reflection and encouragement from themselves, teacher and group members.

From the perspective of a psycholinguist, F. Smith states: Monitoring, reviewing, reflecting and revising are regarded as "metacognitive" skills, involving thinking about thinking, which is regarded as a higher kind of thinking than thinking about anything else. "Observing" and "controlling" one's own thought processes are supposed to be different and superior modes of thinking, not practiced by many people because they have not learned how. But once again these are all fictitious and prejudicial concepts, favored by people with vested interests in finding ways of categorizing individuals….. No one needs to learn how to think about the consequences of their own thought, although we all have differing propensities to become analytical (and self-critical) in particular circumstances. (Smith, 1992,P.26) According to F. Smith, nobody needs training to reflect. Though every learner has the ability to think and to reflect, not every learner is given opportunities to do so. Supported reflective learning can reduce the danger of reinforcing errors and can in this way contribute to building learners' confidence.

Reflection with the help of exploratory practice goes through a process that is similar to experiential learning. However, with EP, understanding is the first priority. Learners can start their reflective journey because they want to make their learning more enjoyable or pleasant, but not necessarily because they have problems. Besides, actions or changes are optional not absolute. After discussing about different ways of learning from the perspective of how learners treat their learning, the article examines learner and strategy training.

7. Learner training.

First, the study reviews what researchers and teachers have done to investigate how to improve the quality of learning in the field of learning English as a foreign language. Three decades ago, in order to help learners make good use of a self-access center in the hope of promoting learner autonomy, a school of thought emerged in which learners were expected to develop skills related to self-management, self-monitoring and self-assessment. Meanwhile, the "good language learner" described by Naiman's and associates (1978) became a model for learner training. Therefore, learner training started to play a growing role in language teaching (Dickinson and Carver, 1980; Holec, 1980). If learners focus on solving problems, learners' individual positive learning experience will not be discovered, understood or repeated.

There are two specific approaches to improving learning: learner training and autonomous learning. Learner training for independent learning was, in its origins, related to a sudden interest in setting up self-access centers. Interestingly, Holec (1980) thinks teaching learners how to carry out self-directed learning would be counterproductive, since the learning would by definition no longer be self-directed. However, Holec's advocacy of autonomous learning based on decisions made wholly by learners seems to mean that learners take all of the responsibility for learning and teaching. Dickinson (1992) also views learner training as a resource to help learners to engage more actively in classroom learning. That is to say, learner training began by encouraging and helping learners to use a self-access center well, and it gradually became a part of classroom teaching.

Sinclair (2006) describes two extreme positions on learner training in her review of learner training over two decades. One is a highly teacher-directed approach (e.g. what teachers typically do in "study skills" course), the other is a wholly learner-directed approach to learner training (Breen 1984).

Sinclair categorizes “strategy training” as a similar approach to learner training, though some researchers now also include encouraging students to reflect on the processes of learning (see Cohen, 1995; Oxford, 1990). This traditional “teacher-centered transmission position” (Kohonen, 2001) means that students miss out on the learning opportunities involved in decision-making.

The opposite “extreme” approach to learner training categorized by Sinclair is the wholly learner-directed approach. She sees this extreme version as having emerged from a background of critical theory and what has become known as the “process approach” to language learning (Breen, 1984). She further points out that only if learners find they need to discuss learning processes will there be a specific focus on these.

Sinclair argues that some students might be able to manage under a learner-directed way of teaching, but others might still need teachers' suggestions to improve their learning. She then proposes a “teacher guided/ student-centered” approach as a “middle” way for learner training. This version of training does not impose a set of strategies on learners, but it does offer them some guidance.

In her review, different researchers address learner training as “learner development”, “learning to learn”, and “promoting autonomy”. Apparently, Sinclair does not see the need for distinguishing the different use of the terms. However, it should be pointed out that there is still a need to make a distinction between learner development and learner training.

8. Strategy training.

The initial focus in strategy research was on discovering the characteristics of “good language learners” (Naiman et al., 1978; Rubin, 1975) and what could be learned from them. Researchers addressed the question of how to teach the strategies used by good language learners to less successful learners, under the assumption that if weaker learners are taught “good” strategies, they will become more successful. However, there are problems with this assumption. Chamot mentions that the good language learner cannot be described in terms of a single set of strategies, but rather through the ability to understand and deploy a personal set of effective strategies (see Chamot, 2005 for an updated review). Larsen-Freeman (2001) highlights the fact that each piece of research on learner action in terms of learning strategies has tended to be studied in isolation from the social context. She also comments that much of the research on learning strategies continues to be descriptive. She gives two examples of contradictory findings in learning strategies research. One is from Green and Oxford (1995). They conclude from their research that more successful students use more strategies. The other example is from Huda (1998). She reports that good language learners use fewer strategies than less proficient learners. Thus, the findings from different researchers contradict each other. In Hassan et al's (2005) systematic review of strategy training, they conclude that it is evident that strategy training is effective, but it is not possible to say from the research evidence that the effect can be long-lasting. Hassan et al (2005,p.3) state that: There is sufficient research evidence to support claims that training language learners to use strategies is effective, but it is not possible to say from this evidence whether the effect of training is long-lasting or not.

One of the main critiques of strategy training, identified by Dornyei and Skehan (2003), is the absence of a theoretical basis for the concept. One of the most fundamental problem seems to Dornyei (2005) to be the ambiguity of the literature in explaining the difference between “engaging in an ordinary learning activity and a strategic learning activity”.

The early development of strategy training started off by recording what most successful learners do. Further research in the 1980s and 1990s in the area continues to be largely descriptive. Cohen and Macaro (2007) comment that much of the research on strategy training so far has resulted in the development of taxonomies which have limited value for the development of the field. They argue that researchers into strategy use and training face an enormous challenge: on the one hand to identify how learners learn; on the other to throw a spotlight on the interrelationship between teaching and learning (Cohen and Macaro, 1997,P.27-8).

9. A broad view of “learner training” and “learner development”.

If teachers are generally expected to move on to teacher development from teacher training, are learners also expected to move on to learner development at some point in their process of learning? Do learners have to rely on teachers to develop their learning indefinitely? It seems to some researchers that learners are unable to get to the stage of learner development if they are not trained first. Benson places a strong emphasis on strategy training. In his book “Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning”, he mentions six approaches to learner development:

1. Direct advice on language-learning strategies.
2. Training based on “good language learner” research and insight.
3. Helping learners to consider the factors that affect their learning and to discover the learning strategies that suit them best.
4. Synthetic approaches drawing on a range of theoretical sources.
5. Integrated approaches treating learner training as a by-product of language learning.
6. Self-directed approaches in which learners are encouraged to train themselves through reflection on self-directed learning activities. (Benson, 2001,P.143)

Holec (1987) Esch (1997) have described self-directed programs of this kind.

Perhaps surprisingly, in writing that is supposedly about learner autonomy, each of the approaches advocates teacher-directed "training". Though points five and six above put less stress on direct training, they still seem to suggest first training learners to be self-directed, only after which they will become autonomous. Also, approaches three and six actually sound similar. The differences between learner training and learner development can be divided into three areas. First, learner training implies "imposition" from outside, while learner development happens without direction by others, and it is directed by learners' own choices. Second, learner training tends to be based on the expectation that it will produce effective learning outcomes, but learner development focuses on the learners' learning process. That is to say, learner training appears to be product-oriented but learner development is process-oriented as well. Thirdly, learner training implies a limited time scale, and teacher dependence, while learner development, because it comes from within the learner, is independent of the teacher and indefinitely sustainable.

10. A critical review of learner training.

Perhaps, in reality, learners do not necessarily need extra strategy training due to the rich existing learning experience they have had. Perhaps what learners need is better understanding of their background experience to enable them to choose and strive for their goals. Rees-Miller (1993) gives a critical appraisal of learner training. She cautions teachers/researchers to provide empirical evidence for a correlation between conscious strategy use and greater gains in language proficiency. She argues against making too much effort in strategy training because it is not likely to be cost-effective. She also questions whether the effects of promoting good learning strategies are long-lasting. In fact, Rees-Miller (1993, 1994) raises four major objections to the underlying assumptions of strategy training:

1. There is no empirical evidence for a causal relationship between awareness of strategies and success in learning.

2. Some of the characteristics associated with success in learning, such as being active in the learning process, cannot be defined as specific behaviors and may therefore be unteachable.

3. Case studies of unsuccessful learners suggest that the adoption of strategies employed by successful learners is insufficient in itself to lead to more effective learning.

4. Successful learners do not necessarily use recommended strategies and often use non-recommended strategies.

Rees-Miller's criticisms directly question the need for strategy training. Teachers who would like to introduce strategy training presume that transferring successful strategies to students can alter their philosophy and approach to learning. Macaro (2001), for example, hopes to train students to think through adapting strategies provided by the teacher. However, some researchers have expressed concerns about this approach. It also appears that attempts to characterize good and poor language learners according to the strategies they use are over simplistic. A number of studies indicate that unsuccessful learners actually employ the same strategies as those used by successful learners. In this case, the reasons for their lack of success may be far more complex, and the teaching of more learning strategies may not be the answer (Williams and Burden, 1997,P.161-162).

Allwright (1996,p.1) also raises major concerns about learning strategy training in three questions: Firstly, do we actually know what language learning strategies are *typically* productive? Secondly, do we have reason to believe that these strategies will be productive for the *particular* learners we are trying to help? And, thirdly, do we know *how* to teach them? All three are serious questions that need further investigation.

11. Are strategies teachable?

Claxton (1990) presents a different view of how and why learning takes place. He proposes that strategies are definitely learnable, but equally definitely not teachable. The fact that they can be identified does not mean that they can be deliberately acquired through practice. This is because an essential aspect of intelligence is knowing intuitively the power and limitations of each of the For example, in conversations, what might be involved in "real" choice and uncertainty could include students' word choice and the uncertainty of a fellow-speaker's reactions.

At best, strategy training might thus appear to be unnecessary, while at worst it could be counterproductive. Claxton notices that the teaching practice of many teachers does not reflect what/how they were trained in the teaching course, but instead reflects how they were themselves taught as learners. This is an interesting reflection, which suggests again that what learners are taught may not determine what they learn, nor the way in which they learn if it differs from their previously acquired habits, beliefs and attitudes (Allwright, 1991 & 1984).

12. Strategy training and autonomy.

Some researchers seem to suggest that strategy training is the key to leading learners to being autonomous. Most of the research about strategy training aims to measure the effectiveness of the use of certain strategies, which have usually been selected by teachers or researchers. Some researchers seem to suggest that learners cannot learn better or be autonomous without training. This is ironic in view of the fact that learner/strategy training has been closely associated with the concept of learner autonomy (Ellis and Sinclair,

1989; Dickinson, 1992). Cohen (1998), for example, views autonomy as the aim of strategy training. However, when Benson (2001) talks about strategies and autonomy, he recognizes that inviting learners to explore their reasons for language learning might be more conducive to autonomy development than a focus on awareness of strategies and skills. It is at least questionable whether we should assume that "training" creates "better learners". Strategy training leads to what R. Smith (2003,P.130-131) calls a "weak" version of pedagogy for autonomy. He describes two versions of pedagogy for learner autonomy.

13. Is learner/strategy training equivalent to learner development?

In this study, a central idea is to stress the need for distinguishing between learner/strategy *training* and learner *development*. In Chamot & Rubin's (1994,P.771) response to Rees-Miller (1993), they explain that though "*learner training"* is a widely used term, they prefer the terms *education*, *instruction*, and *development*. Wenden (2002) also explains her choice of using "learner development" as an alternative term to "learner training", "learner education" and "learning to learn". In fact, for many researchers there seems to be no distinction at all between learner training and learner development. It seems that many researchers into strategies and strategy-training think that different words are simply being used here for the same thing, so the wording does not really matter. However, if teacher development is recognized as an important area for teachers and researchers, and is seen as distinct from teacher training, then it would seem reasonable for learner development to be similarly recognized as a distinct enterprise from learner training.

14. Distinction between learner training and learner development.

Though there is no absolute distinction between strategy training and learner development, it is nevertheless essential in this study to raise the issue of recognizing the value of learner development, a topic which has probably been overlooked in favor of training planned and directed by teachers. Yet the principles of EP suggest that in fact learners are capable, with some help, of directing their own learning and keeping up sustainable development with their own initiatives in setting goals, monitoring their progress and achieving their personal goals rather than being forever trained to fulfill their teachers' goals.

15. Learner development.

Following the clear distinctions drawn by Kohonen between learning training and learner education, it may help if I draw a parallel between teacher training and teacher development, on the one hand, and learner training and learner development on the other. A distinction is commonly made by researchers between teacher training and teacher development. Development is a strategy of influence and indirect intervention that works on complex, integrated aspects of teaching; these aspects are idiosyncratic and individual (1989,P.40).

Teachers learn the basic knowledge and skills of how to teach during their training, but when they start working in real classrooms, they are generally expected to continue their teacher development on their own. They need to think about how to deal with real classroom situations as they arise, and to develop their own ways of teaching. In brief, teachers are told what to do in teacher training, but then it is teachers' own choice and responsibility whether and how they want to initiate or continue their own teacher development (Underhill, 1988; also Head and Taylor 1997). Likewise, teachers should not dismiss the possibility of learner development for the sake of holding on to their power as teachers. On the contrary, teachers should trust learners and be confident that they can and do move on to learner development, with or without out their current teachers' recognition

Palfreyman (2003,P. 245) defines learner development from a social point of view as "supporting learners in participating with increasing confidence and empowerment in a language community". Learner development can be defined as the process of developing as learners: learners willingly seeking for or creating learning opportunities for themselves and each other, consciously or unconsciously, whether inside the classroom or in real life situations. Learners' realization of their learning process grows as their development increases and vice versa.

16. Learning, journals, reflection and group talk.

Dewey explained the principle of continuity of experiences. It "means that every experience both takes up something from those which have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those which come after" (Dewey 1938,P.35). Learning is continuous, so past experiences that students have had might come to light and be useful if students have a chance to record, recall and understand them. On making the connection between past and present, Dewey wrote: As an individual passes from one situation to another, his world, his environment, expands or contracts. He does not find himself living in another world but in a different part or aspect of one and the same world. What he has learned in the way of knowledge and skill in one situation becomes an instrument of understanding and dealing effectively with the situations which follow. The process goes on as long as life and learning contribute. (Dewey, 1938, p. 44)

Journals give students adequate space to step back and rethink their process of learning. Journal writing is effective in raising the learners' consciousness of their own learning process (Matusmoto, 1996). During the process of reflection, students can go through the process of making sense of their learning experience in at least two possible ways – journal writing or group talk. It is hard to imagine students continuously moving on to further learning development without understanding their learning experiences. Students can easily lose their

drive for learning if they do not even know what it is they want to learn, how they want to learn or why they want to learn.

This is how Mercer illustrates the relationship between language, learning and experience: We use language to make the future from the past, to build a relationship between what has been and what is to come; and we use the resources of past experience to make new, joint, knowledge and understanding. Using language, we can transform the raw material of our shared life experiences into stories which have continuity and coherence. This is a joint enterprise, in which we have to make assumptions about the amount of relevant prior experience and understanding we share with the people with whom we are communicating, and draw partners' attention to what is relevant. (Mercer, 2000,P.46)

Learners are actually eager to find out what other people do and think when learning English. This is where group talk comes in. With the support of group talk, stories of learning experiences can be retold, shared and hopefully understood. The accumulation of experience does not automatically in itself allow learning to take place. From a sociocultural perspective, the events that happen to people can only make sense if they can be fitted into an existing plot, or if the plot itself can be reconfigured or replaced (Pavlenko and Lantolf, 2000,P.140). Mercer stresses the importance of conversations that stimulate people to think collectively. In this way, people do not only share information. "Rather, they gain a completely new way of using their minds in combination for the purpose of solving problems, transforming individual experience into shared knowledge and making shared knowledge available to individuals." (Mercer, 2000,P.168) According to Garrison (1995), "For Deweyans [followers of Dewey], the mind that manipulates meaning emerges socially through participation in the social process of meaning construction" (p.722).

17. Conclusion.

This study sheds lights on how a mixed ability group of learners were able to understand their process of learning, through both reflecting on positive and negative learning experiences, and doing cooperative and collaborative practice with related picture description of the main reading text and thus made their learning more satisfying.

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Language Learning Beyond the Classroom

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Abstract.

This paper provides an overview of learning within the second language classroom and how the classroom together with teachers, learners and learning resources can paved the ground for learning to occur.
In so doing this paper focus on five main aspects, which are as what follow: Involving the Learner in Out-of-class Learning, Using Technology and the Internet , Learning Through Television, Out-of-class Projects, Interacting with Native Speakers. The paper concludes with a number of things emerge from learning beyond the classroom such as providing an opportunity to address some of the limitations of classroom based learning, providing an compass the development of language and communication skills, providing authentic language experience integrating classroom based learning, to name a few.

Keywords: Extensive reading, On-line learning, Extensive viewing, Project-based learning, Study-abroad experiences

1. Introduction.

Today English become the global language and there are two important dimensions to successful second or foreign language learning: what goes on inside the classroom and what goes on outside of the classroom (C. Richards, 2010). But the traditional concept of classroom based language learning were criticized for placing learners exclusively inside its four walls. Language learning shouldn't limited to the classroom, but can take place at any time and in any place, including the home and the community (Hyland, F.2014). Out-of-class learning and activities provide opportunity to address some of the limitations of the classroom-based leaning (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Today, however, the internet, technology and the media and the use of English in face to- face as well as virtual social networks provide greater opportunities for meaningful and authentic language use than are available in the classroom (C. Richards, 2010). As suggested by Nunan (1991), learners' application of their developing skills outside classroom is important in their second language development. They are important because they contribute greatly to ESL learning (Hyland, 2004). This paper provides an overview of learning within the second language classroom and how the classroom together with teachers, learners and learning resources can paved the ground for learning to occur. In so doing this paper focus on five main aspects, which are as what follow: Involving the Learner in Out-of-class Learning, Using Technology and the Internet , Learning Through Television, Out-of-class Projects, Interacting with Native Speakers. This paper reflects some observations of how successful language learning occur, the learners are highly motivated, their look for different opportunities to learn by themselves and also they reflect on their progress. The paper concludes with a number of things emerge from learning beyond the classroom such as providing an opportunity to address some of the limitations of classroom based learning, providing an compass the development of language and communication skills, providing authentic language experience integrating classroom based learning, to name a few.

2. Involving the Learner in Out-of-class Learning.

For language acquisition the context in which learning takes place makes a vital contribution to the success of learning. Most students in non-English speaking countries faced with the lack of an authentic English environment, they are immersed in first-language environment with limited exposure to English out of the classroom. In such countries the only contact with English is in the classroom so Out-of-class learning can play an important role to facilitating learning a foreign language. Out-of-class learning includes any sort of activities that lead to language learning in the contexts outside the classroom (Benson, 2011). Benson (2011) views out-of-class learning as entailing learners' deliberate and "independent interaction" with material social and technological resources available to them to self-direct their own learning (p. 127). This paper intended to say that more effort needs to be made Such as power of extensive reading, vocabulary learning outside the classroom, writing dialogue journals, extensive listening and etc. in language learning beyond the classroom, To increase opportunities for these students to encounter English and proceed out of class learning process, so through these opportunities students are highly motivated; they can set goals for themselves and they reflect and assess on their language learning progress.

Extensive reading in the target language in an excellent vehicle for learning that language, Research has clearly demonstrated that learners who read extensively in the target language become fluent readers, improve

their reading comprehension, and thus increase their listening, speaking, and writing skills (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Researchers of extensive reading programmes are very positive about the role such an approach can play in both improving reading skills and developing learner language.

2.1. Extensive reading (ER).

Extensive reading (ER), an approach to reading pedagogy that encourages students to engage in a large amount of reading, is an instructional option that has been steadily gaining support and recognition in the field of second language (L2) reading pedagogy (e.g., Day & Bamford, 1998; Grabe, 2009; Grabe & Stoller, 2011). ER "means reading in quantity and in order to gain a general understanding of what is read. It is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, pp. 193–194).

An extensive reading approach is the ideal out-of-class learning experience for learners who can read in their first language (Nunan & Richards, 2015). (Day & Bamford, 2002) laid out ten principles of extensive reading for instructional purposes, Nunan & Richards (2015) believe that their first five principles should be followed when engaging in extensive reading in an out-of-class environment. Following these should help learner in learning the target language, let's take a glance at these five:

1. The reading material is easy.
2. A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available.
3. Learners choose what they want to read.
4. Learners read as much as possible.
5. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower.

(Day &Bamford, 1998, p. 27)

Extensive reading can develop positive attitudes and a strong motivation to read. This discussion shows the important role that extensive reading can play in extending language proficiency. There are gains to be made in vocabulary, reading and writing proficiency. Extensive listening is another way for enhancing language proficiency in a foreign language learning process. Learning to listen in a new language takes practice and time, often more time than learners have in class so this is another kind of out-of-class learning activity. In order to improve their listening abilities, learners must do more than just listen to interesting programs---they must also think about how they listen and what they could do to improve their listening (Nunan & Richards, 2015).

2.2 Extensive listening (EL).

Extensive listening came after extensive reading as an approach to improve L2 learners' listening fluency and overall listening skills. EL can be defined as all types of listening activities that allow learners to receive a lot of comprehensible and enjoyable listening input (Renandya and Farrell, 2011). The aim of extensive listening is not the explicit learning of vocabulary and grammar through listening, but as a result of listening to texts, new or repeated, learners will be introduced to grammar and vocabulary many times and may learn implicitly through context and have a greater opportunity to meet the word and grammar structure again and again (Scot MATSUO, Extensive Listening inside and outside the classroom, 2016-03-31). Teachers can facilitate learner's out-of-class listening by helping them access appropriate materials and teaching them ways to reflect on their listening experiences (Nunan & Richards, 2015).

Waring mentions some guidelines for choosing listening material that is appropriate for extensive listening. Some of the qualities of the content should be:

1. Over 90% of the content should be easily understandable
2. Over 95-98% of the vocabulary and grammar should be understandable
3. Understandable without having to stop or pause the listening text
4. The listener should be enjoying the listening material.

(Waring, 2008)

The aim of extensive listening is not the explicit learning of vocabulary and grammar through listening, but as a result of listening to texts, new or repeated, learners will be introduced to grammar and vocabulary many times and may learn implicitly through context and have a greater opportunity to meet the word and grammar structure again and again (Scot MATSUO, 2016).

The task of learning vocabulary is common to all language learning contexts (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Foreign language learners usually acquire new vocabulary in target language through new words in their text books during the classroom but they may not be able to use that word properly in different contexts or pronounce it correctly. One of effective ways to enhance learning vocabulary is learning new words in real life situation. Language learners almost universally report that learning the vocabulary of the target language is a priority, and many learners use rote learning with vocabulary lists as an independent vocabulary learning strategy (Schmitt, 1997). This tendency to independently study vocabulary in a focused manner suggests that vocabulary notebooks can be used by language learners at all proficiency levels and in virtually all settings (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Another way for foreign language learners, whose direct, face-to-face contact with native speakers may be limited, to access many new vocabulary is the Internet. This input contains a great deal of useful vocabulary that

is meaningful to the learners (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Learners who notice and try to learn that vocabulary will in turn improve their language skills in other areas, such as reading comprehension (Nation, 2001; Walters, 2006).

In the final of this part, this paper intended to describe the use of dialogue journals as an out-of-class activity which takes the form of a written conversation between teachers and students used consistently overtime.

2.3. Dialogue journals.

Journaling in its different shapes is a means for registering individual thoughts, experiences, and to develop gradually insights (RogHiemstra, 2002). Journal writing is systematic way of recording thing as the writer develops ideas on specific topic or event. It encourages students with drawing, song/poetry, maps to make journal writing help students in the field of psychology, literature, teacher education, sociology, etc. (Dyment&O`connek, 2003). Dialogue journal writing is a collaborative activity (Staton, 1988). Dialogue journals are reciprocal, ongoing, written exchanges between teachers and students used overtime (Peyton, 1993). Dialogue journals can be employed at almost proficiency levels and in almost all educational contexts (Mirhosseini, 2009, p. 43). Dialogue journals provide opportunities for teachers to enter students 'various zones of proximal development (ZPD). Central to understanding the ZPD is the idea that through collaboration, language learners have the opportunity to develop target language skills more effectively than do those working alone. Dialogue journals allow teachers to better understand their learner's ZPD, and to provide private, tailored input and modeling to each individual while engaging with their ideas (Chiesa & Bailey, 2013).

For EFL learners writing is a very important skill. One of the methods that we can teach EFL writer is self-monitoring and self-editing. Dialogue journals can provide students with the ability to communicate ideas through collaboration, discussion and presentation. Speaking is almost universal and has a strong innate component; but writing is a skill that has been recently focused pedagogically).The same set of sentences seems to be acceptable in written or spoken language, the mechanism is the same but differs in output. Dialogue writing allows writers to use the full range of available language functions, or "speech actions". Complaints, questions, promises, challenges, directions are all part of dialogue writing(Bagheri & Pourgharib, 2013). In a foreign language context, dialogue journals give students input and let them generate individual output in the target language compared to their English class alone, these comments provided a vehicle for the students to develop their language skills as well as their cognitive skills (Chiesa & Bailey, 2013).

3. On-line learning.

Today, technology plays an important role in human society development and our life is highly affected by the era of information technology. We can use technology in all parts of our lives from communication among friends to shopping, from education to media tools. These days' students want to learn English as a second language so they need to practice and improve their listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills (Ybarra & Green, 2003) .to do this they need different and various tools which can help them to learn the language easily and effectively. One of these ways is on-line learning that it defines as the use of new technology in teaching and learning a second language (Basheer, 2013) . In recent years, a new wave of online resources has recognizes the social nature of autonomous language learning through social media. The term social media is generally understood to refer to a set of online tools and practices with which people share personal information, ideas, and opinions for the purposes of social interaction (Cohen, 2011; Nation, n.d.). Facebook, Twitter, and blogging are all examples of social media. Social media has been adapted to enrich the language learning experience and enfranchise learners without access to the benefits of conversation with a native speaker because they live in a unilingual society or because of prohibitive costs associated with having a target-language teacher (Nunan & Richards 2015).

Each day we are getting involved with technology and it is getting more present in the daily life. Technology have imbued a great many students' lives especially in developing and developed countries witch technology such as mobile phones, interactive videos and games (Moyle, Wijngaards, & Owen, 2012). Although there are differences in the access and the intensity of technology use (Sanchez, Salinas, Contreras, & Meyer, 2011) and their use is generally is not linked to educational purposes, new generations of students are more comfortable with technology though using it in their life for a variety of purposes such as communication with friends, gaming and listening to music. Given that students access to the Internet easily and use it for several purposes, teachers also must be open to join their students to benefit from their being comfortable with technology to infuse into daily activities in classrooms (Barsotti, Martins, 2011; Gray, Andrews, & Schroeder, 2012) and to individualized learning processes more than that in a traditional classrooms (Volume, 2005; Larsen-freeman & Anderson, 2011). Teachers are eager to integrate technology into their classrooms and benefit from CALL-based activities.

There is a question: How can we improve our language skills through on-line learning?

3.1. Listening.

A good listener has the ability to better understand and process information; it is important to understand and comprehend the speakers and it needs to realize the speaker's accent and pronunciation, speaker's grammar and vocabulary, and comprehension of meaning (Saricoban, 1999).listening is very important in the process of second language learning. To improve our listening in on-line learning we can use Computers, Broadcasting, CD-players, and Tap-Recorders

3.1.1 Use of computers.

The use of computers in listening problems provides students with visual and voice inputs which can enhance their information and idea, and develop their listening skills (Hoven, 1999). Computer-based listening tests are very important in reinforcing the understanding skills of the listener. CD-ROM based learning films can also provide significant advantages over the traditional methods. Finally, Internet voice chatting using the second language may also aid the communication capabilities of the student (Nomass, 2013).

3.1.2 Use of CD-Players.

The use of CD-player device is another tool to enhance listening. CD-players are electronic instrument used to run audio CD-ROMS.

3.1.3 Use of Tap-Recorders.

Tape-recorders are one of the oldest technical listening tools, and their use is rapidly decreasing now a days. However, they are still be utilized in certain cases and are attached with some English language learning text-books.

3.2. Reading.

Reading is the process of understanding a written text by the learner. It is an important input skill which depends on the vocabulary background knowledge of the learner in the second language (Constantinescu, 2007). Tim Green explored that we can improve our reading skill through the use of technology. Computers can improve the student's level of interest while keeping the text simple and easy to read. Computer based reading instruction also allows for "increased interaction with texts, attention to individual needs, and increased independence through an ability to read texts they would not otherwise be able to read"(Case & Truscott, 1999). We can use different ways to improve our reading in on-line learning some of them are the use of Computer Reading-Based Programs, Use of Multimedia Software, Browsing the Internet, Use of Electronic Dictionaries and Reading CD-ROM Based Newspaper. Computer software and games provide many fun opportunities for students to practice literacy skills. There are numerous software packages for improving spelling, phonics skills, grammar and sight word vocabulary. When English Language Learners are learning their second language, any and all language experiences are valuable to assist in reading ability (Ybarra, 2003).

3.3 Speaking.

Learning English is not complete without speaking abilities. With the use of new technology, speaking empowering students and professionals with excellent English speaking skills .The people can communicate just when they can understand each other. Inserting technology in learning English language speaking can take several forms for example use of internet chatting and the use of speech synthesis program. Modern computer programs can signals and decode human sound. These types of programs are defined as artificial intelligence computer programs and can be a very useful tool for improving the speaking capability. Practicing with such programs will strengthen vocabulary and pronunciation abilities as well (Nomass, 2013). With easy access to the online world, there is a great opportunity to use this technology for learning English online. With online English courses, you have the opportunity to speak with Native English speaking professors from anywhere in the world. We use a dynamic and interactive curriculum which results in rapid and visible progress. Using Skype, Google, You tube, and many other online resources, help ESL students toward their goal of speaking English with confidence.

3.4. Writing.

Computers can help ELL students develop their writing skills. When using a computer, however, the use of graphics can make this much more enjoyable and can make them express thoughts more clearly (Lewis, 1997). Writing paragraphs can be very challenging for the students. The learner can highlight a specific part of the written text through underlining, bolding, italicizing, or changing the font size and color of the text with the aid of these programs which have the capability of automatically checking the spelling and grammar. So, the use of computer as a tool in studying grammar is much more motivating for the student than the process of traditional writing with pencil and a paper (Ybarra &v Green, 2003). Electronic mail is a modern way for writing and transferring messages through the internet. Using e-mail can be a very effective means for improving writing skills. Students can use E-mails to learn how to respond to the incoming messages using some formal statements and meaningful language (Singhal, 1997). Text chatting is another important technical method for developing writing ability. It provides an on-line and quick tool for writing and expressing thoughts, transferring ideas, and responding instantaneously with the other side writer.

Using technology in learning a second language has become a real necessity nowadays. Different methods can be used to improve the four language skills of the learner and new technology help learners to

achieve this goal. As technology has developed, the incorporation of this medium into the instruction process becomes necessary and the computer is being viewed more as an integral part of the learning activity, and as a means by which skills are transferred to learners. Theory and practice in second language learning can be matched together by the use of modern technology and Modern technical ways should be followed for effective learning and teaching of the second language. English language teachers should encourage their students to use technology in developing the language skills and finally, educational institutions should modernize their technical instruction capabilities by using new equipment and laboratories for supporting the teaching process.

4. Learning through Television.

TV is one of the most familiar and popular media technologies. Over 98% of households in the EU and North America have access to television and for many the TV set is the focal point of the household. People of all Educational levels, ages and social classes are already familiar with television and use it comfortably (S.Fallahkhair, J.Masthoff, L. Pemberton.2004). Since the 1980s, researchers (e.g., Candlin, Charles, & Willis, 1982; Eisenstein, Shuller, & Bodman, 1987) have been exploring the ways in which popular media can be used effectively to enrich the English learning experience (M.S. Lyn & A. Siyanova, 2012). English as a foreign language (EFL) learners are particularly encouraged to watch English movies and television outside the classroom since research shows that they can facilitate the learning of English vocabulary, discourse and culture (Meinhof, 1998; lin, 2014).Television is therefore *already* a powerful learning environment for language learners, Interactivity adds new facilities for information retrieval and communication (Gawlinski, 2003). Watching television has long been cited by learners as a useful input to out-of-class learning (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Television viewing has been found to support many aspects of language learning, including listening comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, as well as cross-cultural awareness (Danan, 2004; Vanderplank, 1998, 2010). The greatest value of television for language learning might be its potential to provide large amount of L2 spoken input, which can contribute to the development of vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension, as well as other aspects of L2 learning (Webb, 2014). Watching l2 television extensively as a supplement to extensive reading could help to fill the need for greater L2 input. Here we mention two examples to show how connections between television viewing and language learning can be made.

4.1. Extensive viewing.

Webb (2014) describes the use of extensive viewing – an activity that involves regular silent uninterrupted viewing of television both inside and outside of the classroom – as a means of improving vocabulary as well as to improve listening comprehension. One of the positive features of extensive viewing program is that L2 television programs are widely available resource for language learning, it is best for learners to watch in a where they have control of the material (Webb, 2014). Richards (2014) says Television viewing has a number of features that make it a useful out-of-class learning activity:

Accessibility: The ability to watch television on mobile technology means that the learning situations available for the learner are extensive.

Intensity of Exposure: Learners are likely to spend extended periods of time watching television, providing much greater exposure to meaningful input than they can get in the classroom.

Motivational: Watching television constitutes entertainment for many people, and is hence likely to be an activity students enjoy.

Flexibility: Students can choose different ways of watching television, such as showing or hiding subtitles, repeated viewing of scenes.

Multimodal: Television provides input in several forms, orthographically, aural and visual.

Notice Gaps: When students watch television they often see examples of English being used for informal social interaction in everyday situations. If their exposure to English has largely been classroom-based learners may now have the opportunity to observe how English is really used and spoken, to notice gaps in their own knowledge, become more aware of differences between spoken and written language and learn some of the ways in which English is used for casual interaction, including small talk, humor, and for expressing feelings and emotions.

If students watch L2 television regularly over a long period of time, learning gains should be a function of television viewing time; with greater viewing time, comprehension and vocabulary learning should improve to a larger degree (Webb, 2014). Vocabulary learning may be occur through the learning of new words and improving recognition of the spoken forms of word, comprehension can also be supported through the creation of glossaries that list key words (Webb, 2010) and materials designed to increase background knowledge of the characters and storyline. Also some research has shown that multiple reading of the same text can improve comprehension and vocabulary learning (Webb & Chang, 2012).

4.2. Internet Television.

Lin and Siyanova-Chanturia (2014) point out many young people like to watch TV dramas, soap operas and comedies as a source of input of authentic, everyday English but that until recently, accessing them has been problematic in many situations. With advent of Internet television (television delivered on any internet-enabled devices such as smartphones, tablets, personal computers using video streaming), ubiquitous foreign language

learning can finally become reality (Chang, Tseng, & Tseng, 2011). So the learner can take internet television with them wherever they go, accessing their favorite programme with just a few clicks on the internet-enabled smartphone (Richards, 2014). This convenience in access means that any EFL learner can receive authentic input, even if they have only ten minutes on the train (Lin & Siyanova-Chanturia 2014). With Internet television readily available, learners are no longer limited to watching movies in a self-access Centre and can spend 'dead time' on the subway, bus, or bus stop, watching television programs in English (Richards, 2014).

5. Project –based learning.

The context in which learning takes place makes a vital contribution to the success of learning; this is true in particular for language acquisition. Countries in which English is not a primary language often lack an authentic English environment. In such countries, in-class instruction may be the only contact students have with English. Once students leave the classroom, they are totally immersed in their own first-language environment, which seems to offer little exposure to English materials and few chances to see or use English in real settings. Because sole reliance on classroom instruction is far from sufficient for EFL learners to practice the target language (Xiao & Luo, 2009), more effort needs to be made to increase opportunities for these students to encounter English. Collaborative learning offers an environment to liven up and supplement the learning practices. Establishing interactive classmates into an educational system creates more practical social contexts, thereby increasing the effectiveness of the language teaching. Such an environment would uphold the language learners' interests and provide more natural learning surroundings (Vivekanandan, 1996). In language learning classrooms, collaborative learning can be a supporting means for the instructors in order to create a rich and meaningful learning process. Collaborative learning has a major role in constructive cognitive development (Piaget1928, Piaget1932). This theory is reliable with other well-known learning theories (Vygotsky, 1978, Fox & Karen, Thomas & Funaro, 1990) in highlighting the significance of collaboration.

Textbooks often fail to achieve a meaningful level of involvement on the part of the learners; learning need not be confined to the classroom with set textbooks and practice (Griffiths & Keohane, 2000). Students need to develop the ability to acquire information that is available both inside and outside the classroom context (Field, 2007). In school learning tends to be symbol-based, while out-of-school learning is more directly connected to events and objects in the physical worlds, with the result that learning well in schools is not sufficient preparation for functioning well outside of school (Resnick, 1987). Hyland agrees: "[Language learning] can take place at any time and in any place, including the home and the community" (2004, p. 180). In a study by Nunan (1989), a majority of students found classroom instruction itself to be insufficient for the development of English competence; on the other hand, engagement in outside classroom learning enhanced their language development, demonstrating the need to incorporate activities outside the classroom for greater learning success.

According to Wan (1990), the term 'Communicative activities' refers to the techniques which are employed in the communicative method in language teaching. Activities such as games, exercises, practices and projects are teaching devices in which English language becomes the vehicle throughout the activities. In addition to that, the learners involve in completing their tasks with the use of English language help from the instructors. The language-using activities for communication are not restricted to conversation and may involve listening, speaking, reading, writing or an integration of two or more skills (Wan, 1990). There are several principles that language instructors should know in establishing collaborative learning atmosphere. According to Whipple, (1987), firstly, both facilitators and learners become active participants in the educational process. Secondly, the hierarchy between facilitators and learners is eliminated. Next, a sense of community is created. Finally, knowledge is created, not transferred. These principles are the guidelines for the instructors to adapt collaborative learning approach in their language classes. In fact, the learners will start assessing themselves with one another the group and this encourages reflective learning which really helps them build their characters, knowledge and values. In a collaborative learning setting, learners have the chance to converse with peers, express and support ideas, exchange diverse beliefs, question other conceptual frameworks, and be actively engaged (Cooper and Robinson, 1997). Collaborative learning assumes that knowledge is socially, rather than individually, constructed by communities of individuals and that the shaping and testing of ideas is a process in which anyone can participate (MacGregor 1990; Novotny, Seifert, and Werner 1991). Furthermore, it stresses the importance of common inquiry in learning, a process through which learners begin to experience knowledge as something that is created rather than something that is transmitted from the facilitator or teacher to the learner (Sheridan 1989). We can have a collaborative learning atmosphere through PBL. Stoller (2006) defines PBI as: (1) having a process and product; (2) giving students (partial) ownership of the project; (3) extending over a period of time (sev- eral days, weeks, or months); (4) integrating skills; (5) developing students' understanding of a topic through the integration of language and content; (6) collaborating with other students and working on their own; (7) holding students responsible for their own learning through the gathering, processing, and reporting of information from target language resources; (8) as signing new roles and responsibilities to students and teacher; (9) providing a tangible final product; and (10) reflecting on both the process and the product.

Stoller also maintains, however, that PBI is more than merely engaging students in projects; PBI takes on a variety of forms, depending

On the teacher, the students, and the situation. In addition to the projects themselves, students engage in many types of learning, including experiential and negotiated learning, problem solvinig, and research. Projects often elicit collaboration among students; they can be simple assignments or very intricate, multiphase tasks that take weeks or even months to complete. Although models of what projects might look like abound (see, e.g., Blumenfeld et al. 1991; Boss and Krauss 2007; Katz and Chard 2000; Mitchell et al. 2009).

By bringing real-life context and technology to the curriculum through a PBL approach, students are encouraged to become independent workers, critical thinkers, and lifelong learners. Teachers can communicate with administrators, exchange ideas with other teachers and subject-area experts, and communicate with parents, all the while breaking down invisible barriers such as isolation of the classroom, fear of embarking on an unfamiliar process, and lack of assurances of success. PBL is not just a way of learning; it's a way of working together. If students learn to take responsibility for their own learning, they will form the basis for the way they will work with others in their adult lives. So we conclude that team project and PBL can facilitate communicative ability, enhance self-confidence and teamwork, incorporate language learning strategies and promotes the frequent use of English language. The team project activity is derived from socioaffective aspect in language learning strategies and adapting a project-based approach as a vehicle to encourage communicative ability throughout the process of completing it. According to Chou (2004) socioaffective strategies can be considered as an effective approach to accelerate Asian learners' speaking competence as well as their learning motivation. Moreover, socioaffective strategies should be fully integrated into classroom contexts and everyday learning (Chou 2004).

6. Interacting with native speakers.

Language learning has been defined as "a deeply social event that requires the incorporation of a wide range of elements of the L2 culture" (Dornye, 2001, p.195). In a foreign language learning, interacting with native speakers or advanced language users is one of the essentials to facilitate the process of learning. This is a kind of out-of-class learning based on contact with native speakers which provides opportunities for developing communicative competence outside the classroom. Davies (1991) claims that "The first language a human being learns to speak is his *native language*; he is a *native speaker* of this language" (Bloomfield, 1933, p. 43). *Native speaker* here is a monolingual person who still speaks the language learnt in childhood. There are many ways which provide contacts with native speakers, here we intended to introduce some of them, such as study-abroad experiences and immersion experiences such as language villages, these experiences provide extended interaction and authentic language contact with native speakers also enhance the cross-cultural and language skills.

(Arnold, J. & Fonseca-Mora. 2015) Describe that Study-abroad programs are designed in general for university students to have the opportunity to study languages and get credits for their degree in their home university but in a country where the language is spoken. Many language learners, educators and students believe that living in the target language country effectively increase language competence and cultural understanding of a foreign language. Isabelli-García ("Study Abroad") suggested that "contact with the host culture outside of the classroom and attitudes towards the host culture can be related to the development of oral communication skills and accuracy" (Tina Badstübner & Peter Ecke). Within natural interaction, learners can practice listening comprehension, retaining information and connecting it with what comes next so speakers tend to adapt to their listener's competence and modify their speech to facilitate understanding (Arnold, J. & Fonseca-Mora. 2015).

Language learning, according to Norton and McKinney (2011), "engages the identities of learners because language itself is not only a linguistic system of signs and symbols, but also a complex social practice through which relationships are defined, negotiated, and resisted" (p. 77). Language immersion also known as immersion program is another kind of experience for students to learn a foreign or second language through professional context and negotiate with native or skilled speakers. Language immersion is an approach to foreign language instruction in which the usual curricular activities are conducted in a foreign language, This means that the new language is the medium of instruction as well as the object of instruction, Bostwik (2011).

Immersion represents the most intensive form of content-based foreign language instruction (Snow, 1986). In immersion programmes learners are fully immersed in the target language for a certain period of time, both in and outside the class, one of the out of class model of immersion program is "Language Villages", which provides an opportunity for authentic language contact and develop communicative competence and cultural awareness of the learners. Language villages offer learners a very important advantage, they do not have to travel abroad in order to have close and intensive contact with the native speaker. Language villages prepares learners to involve in more real contact with the foreign language in a week rather than in several months of classes and as much actual use of the language to communicate as some stay abroad, which are over a longer period of time

but do not provide the direct, structured communicative work with the language that is found in the language villages (Arnold, J. & Fonseca-Mora. 2015). In an intensive village experience, learners have an opportunity to improve their language skills as well as their understanding of different cultures, and they do so in a setting that is stress free and social in nature (Richards, 2014).

7. Conclusions.

In summary, out of class learning provides authentic language opportunities and improve learners' both linguistic and communicative skills. Out-of-class language learning raises issues for second language acquisition theory, and as Benson (2011: 15) suggests, challenges us to develop 'a theory of second language learning beyond the classroom similar to the theory of instructed second language acquisition proposed by Ellis (1999)'. Language learning can be observed as changes situated in social interaction. As reasons, purposes, norms and expectations of communication change according to the context in which language is used, language learning is conceptualized as a multidirectional change (or adjustment) in language that fulfills a socio-communicative goal (Jenks, 2010: 148). Learning beyond the classroom has many benefits for both learners and teachers, learners can learn depending on their interests and needs, they can have social interaction with others, and manage their own learning so this interaction and management can improve their confidence and motivation, and cause intercultural awareness. This kind of learning can provide a pleasurable and positive language use experience However Bailly (2011: 128) points out that the success of out-of class learning may vary for individual learners: …successful out-of-class learning depends on learners fulfilling at least three necessary conditions, or success factors: motivation, learning resources and learning skills. Some students can easily find or develop these ingredients in their environment but others cannot. If one element is lacking then the learning process is likely be interrupted. Teachers' benefits may include; through out of class activities teachers can provide some opportunities that are too difficult to create in the classroom and also they can provide some links between classroom and out of class learning environment. Teachers need to become familiar with the range of activities learners make use of and the potential such experiences have for making connections with classroom-based teaching. Teachers may also need to acquire the skills needed to guide their learners in effective ways of using out-of-class learning to support their in-class learning (Richards, 2010).

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Prompt versus recast; the effect of negotiated feedback in language learning

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Abstract.

Becoming bilingual is an important aspect in todays' life. It can is affect people's whole person as they struggle to reach beyond their first language. Negotiation and interaction promotes interlanguage (IL) development. Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis proposes that second language learning is facilitated through interactional processes because interaction ''connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways''. Gass (1997) and Pica (1994) have made similar arguments for the efficacy of interactional feedback. (Mackeya & Oliver, 2000) SLA researchers argue that CF occurring in context at the time the learner makes the error will work best when it. These comments pertain to oral CF. (Ellis, 2009)

This paper explores the role of negotiation and teacher–student interaction on improving second language learning and argues that feedback obtained during Conversational interaction promotes interlanguage. Also two different types of oral feedback_ prompt and recast_ will be compared. Recast as the implicit reformulation move that has received increasing attention in both L1 and L2 contexts, a well-formed reformulation of a learner's nontarget utterance with the original meaning intact. And prompt which provide less ambiguous and more cognitively engaging feedback. Prompts provide a solution to Swain's (1985) call for immersion teachers to "push" their students to be more accurate in their output. They include the following four types of teacher response: Clarification requests, repetitions, metalinguistic clues, elicitation.

Keywords: negotiation, interaction, feedback, oral feedback, prompt, recast

1. Introduction.

Bilingualism is a way of life. Your whole person is affected as you struggle to reach beyond the confines of your first language and into a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, feeling, and acting. (Brown, 1987) Various researchers have invoked information-processing models to describe L2 learning as the acquisition of complex cognitive skills (e.g., Dekeyser, 1998, 2001; Hulstijn, 1990; Johnson, 1996; McLaughlin, 1987, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Towell & Hawkins, 1994). As Lyster and Mori (2006) argued, "teacher-student interaction has a clearly pedagogical focus that relates not only to meaning but also to formal accuracy, quality of expression, and literacy development".

Also in order to diminish the rate of inhibition, the teacher must adopt more leaner-centered approaches and "Negotiated Curriculum" (Nunan, 1988, p. 12). Negotiation is defined as a problem-solving process in which two or more people voluntarily discuss their differences and attempt to reach a joint decision on their common concerns. Negotiation requires participants to identify issues about which they differ, educate each other about their needs and interests, generate possible settlement options, and bargain over the terms of the final agreement. (Creighton, Priscoli, Dunning & Ayres1998). Negotiation is trigged by an attention to form and occurs when "one interlocutor tries to 'push' the other towards producing a formally more correct and/or appropriate utterance" (Van den Branden, 1997, p. 592).

Theoretical support for negotiation comes from various interactionist perspectives on L2 acquisition. One such perspective is Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis, which emphasizes that negotiated interaction is an important source of L2 learning (Gass, Mackey, & Pica, 1998; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Long, 2006). In a sociocultural view, language learning is essentially seen as a socially mediated process and one which is highly "dependent on face to face interaction and shared processes, such as joint problem solving and discussion" (Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

The role of feedback has a place in most theories of second language (L2) learning and language pedagogy. In both behaviorist and cognitive theories of L2 learning, feedback is seen as contributing to language learning. In both structural and communicative approaches to language teaching, feedback is viewed as a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy.

Feedback can be positive or negative. Positive feedback affirms that a learner response to an activity is correct. Negative feedback signals, in one way or another, that the learner's utterance lacks veracity or is linguistically deviant. In other words, it is corrective in intent. Corrective feedback constitutes one type of negative feedback. Some SLA researchers also disagree about the role CF plays in L2 acquisition. Krashen

(1982) called error correction "a serious mistake" (p. 74). He offered two main reasons for this view. First "error correction has the immediate effect of putting the student on the defensive" (p. 75) with the result that the learner seeks to eliminate mistakes by avoiding the use of complex constructions. Second, error correction only assists the development of "learned knowledge" and plays no role in "acquired knowledge."

Also some methodologists distinguish between "accuracy" and "fluency" argues that CF has a place in the former but not in the latter. Harmer (1983), for example, argued that when students are engaged in communicative activity, the teacher should not intervene by "telling students that they are making mistakes, insisting on accuracy and asking for repetition" (p. 44). This is a view that is reflected in teachers' own opinions about CF (see, for example, Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004). Harmer's advice has the merit of acknowledging that CF needs to be viewed as a contextual rather than as a monolithic phenomenon. SLA researchers -especially those working within an interactionist framework (see, for example, the collection of papers in Mackey, 2007) - take a different view, arguing that CF works best when it occurs in context at the time the learner makes the error. These comments pertain to oral CF. (Ellis, 2009)

The sociocultural perspective places particular emphasis on social and dialogic nature of feedback (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). It considers that the effectiveness of feedback depends to a large degree on the degree of negotiation and meaningful transactions between the learner and the teacher. (Nassaji & Swain, 2000)

Accordingly, corrective feedback can best be considered as part of negotiation rather than as separate from it. Yet, as Pica (1994) points out, SLA researchers investigating negotiation have shown considerably more interest in negotiation that places ''emphasis on achieving comprehensibility of message meaning'' and much less interest in interaction that ''can be interrupted by a correction'' (Pica, 1994, pp. 494–495).

For negotiation to be a useful notion in both SLA research and classroom pedagogy, it needs to account for corrective feedback and include both focus on form and meaning. Braidi (1995) argued that, for interactional analyses to be more beneficial to the study of SLA, a more precise way of distinguishing between form-focused and meaning-focused interaction is needed. (Lyster 2002)

Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis proposes that second language learning is facilitated through interactional processes (Mackey, 2006) and that feedback obtained during Conversational interaction promotes interlanguage (IL) development because interaction ''connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways''. Gass (1997) and Pica (1994) have made similar arguments for the efficacy of interactional feedback. (Mackey & Gass, 2000)

One study is that by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), which, within a socio-cultural perspective, examined negotiated feedback as it occurred in oral interactions between three English as a second language (ESL) writers and one tutor. The researchers operationalized negotiated feedback. The results showed that when feedback was negotiated, it facilitated students' learning of new forms and also increased learners' control over already known forms.

Nassaji and Swain (2000) compared the effectiveness of negotiation in a case study of two adult ESL learners. The results of qualitative and quantitative analyses showed that negotiated feedback was more effective than random feedback in not only promoting learner accuracy as measured in subsequent error correction posttests, but also in accelerating development by making learners able to correct similar linguistic errors on subsequent occasions with much less assistance.

One quasi-experimental study that examined the effect of error correction is that by Dekeyser (1993). The study involved two French as a second language high school classes in Belgium. To evaluate the effect of the error treatment, a variety of measures of L2 proficiency were administered at the beginning and at the end of the school year. In addition, measures of learner variables such as foreign language learning aptitude, extrinsic motivation, and French class anxiety were also collected. DeKeyser found that error correction did not have an overall effect on student proficiency in the L2 but that it did interact with learner variables. Thus, for example, learners with low extrinsic motivation did better on oral tasks after error correction whereas those with high extrinsic motivation did better on oral tasks without error correction. This study highlighted the fact that instructional treatments such as error correction may interact with learner characteristics and contextual features in complex ways.

Of the larger scale investigations, Chaudron (1977, 1986, and 1988) observed three French immersion teachers. Chaudron also examined the relationship between different types of teacher repetitions and the rate of correct student responses that followed the feedback. He found that students were more likely to produce a correct response when the teacher reduced the learner's utterance to isolate the error and added emphasis through a questioning tone or stress.

Also Doughty (1994) reported on a pilot study involving 6 hours of interaction in one class on three different occasions. She was interested in comparing L2 classroom learning to L1 acquisition in terms of the degree to which feedback is finely tuned. Student turns were coded for number of errors, and teacher turns were coded for the type of feedback (clarification request, repetition, recast, expansion, or translation). Doughty concluded, tentatively, that the feedback to L2 learners is predictable in the same way that the input for L1 learners is and that learners respond in a way that suggests that the information conveyed by the teacher is

noticed. This result was in sharp contrast to Fanselow's findings and highlighted the expertise of this particular teacher and the expertise of these particular students rather than providing a generalization about L2 learning in the classroom. (Lyster &Ranta, 1997)

In Nassaji, (2011) he examined the effects of oral feedback, particularly feedback that involved negotiation, in addressing L2 written errors. Data were collected in two adult ESL classes. Three types of feedback were compared: direct reformulation with no negotiation, prompt + reformulation, and feedback with negotiation. The results showed a clear advantage for negotiated feedback when the data for the two types of errors were combined.

A well-known argument against corrective feedback has often been presented as a paradox, summarized by Chaudron (1988, p. 134) as follows: ''teachers must either interrupt communication for the sake of formal correction or let errors pass 'untreated' in order to further the communicative goals of classroom interaction.''

Teachers do not have to choose, therefore, between communication on the one hand and corrective feedback on the other; because they can integrate both during teacher–student interaction (see also Doughty & Varela, 1998; Spada & Lightbown, 1993). (lyster2002)

In current study two very different types of oral feedback- prompt and recast - will be compared.

2. Recast.

Recast, as a notion, originated in the first language (L1) literature. It is one type of implicit reformulation move that has received increasing attention in both L1 and L2 contexts is the recast a well-formed reformulation of a learner's nontarget utterance with the original meaning intact. Some researchers, however, have argued that the juxtaposition of the learner's ungrammatical utterance with the teacher's reformulation provides the learner with an ideal opportunity to make a cognitive comparison and to notice the gap between the targetlike and nontargetlike forms, especially because meaning is held constant and so the learner's processing resources are freed up to focus on form (e.g., Doughty, 2001; Long; Long & Robinson, 1998).

Definitions of recasts Long (1996): Recasts are utterances that rephrase a child's utterance by changing one or more components (subject, verb, object) while still referring to its central meaning. (Ellis, 2006). It contends that recasts which arise naturally from negotiating for meaning create opportunities for acquisition. Therefore, the primary focus of recasts must be on meaning (i.e. conversational recasts), not form (i.e. didactic recasts). (Sheen, 2006)

Bohannon, Padgett, Nelson, Melvin: (1996) Growth recasts are a broad set that includes all recasts that display relations between an initial child utterance (platform utterance) and a recast that expands, deletes, permutes, or otherwise changes the platform while maintaining overlap in meaning.'(Bohannon et al, 1996)

These two definitions both emphasize that recasts occur while the focus of the reformulated utterance is on meaning. (Sheen, 2006)

Long (2006): A corrective recast may be defined as a reformulation of all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which one or more nontargetlike (lexical, grammatical, etc.). Items are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s), and where, throughout the exchange, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning not language as an object.

Lyster and Ranta (1997): Recasts involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance minus the error.

Braidi (2002): A response was coded as a recast if it incorporated the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect NNS utterance and also changed and corrected the utterance in some way (e.g., phonological, syntactic, morphological, or lexical). He points out; whether the source of feedback is meaning or form needs to be established operationally if such interactional analyses are to achieve the required rigor.

Sheen (2006): A recast consists of the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance that contains at least one error within the context of a communicative activity in the classroom.

Some researchers believed that recasts facilitate second language (L2) development. For example, Long (1996) contends that the juxtaposition recasts create between learners' erroneous output and target forms aids language acquisition and that the negative evidence provided by recasts aids the process of 'cognitive comparison' and thus is more effective than positive evidence in the form of 'models'. (Sheen, 2006)

And some researchers suggest that recasts are effective in showing learners how their current interlanguage differs from the target (Long & Robinson, 1998). Doughty and Varela's (1998) results showed that learners who received the corrective recasts improved more in terms of developmental progress, accuracy, and frequency of use of pastime reference than learners in a control group who received no systematic corrective feedback. (Lightbown, Nicholas, Spada, 2001)

Long, Inagaki, and Ortega (1998) showed that during experimentally controlled interaction with adults, recasts can be more effective for some target features than models, which are provided to learners before they speak and, thus, are not a comparable type of semantically contingent feedback. Mackey and Philp (1998) showed that experimentally controlled interaction during which a researcher provides L2 learners with intensive recasts, which focus consistently on one type of structure, is more effective, in the case of adults developmentally ready to learn the target form, than interaction without intensive recasts (Han, 2002).

Han (2002) in his study showed that recast appeared to be successful during oral and written performance. Also he identified four conditions that may be necessary for recast to facilitate learning: individualized attention, consistent focus, developmental readiness and intensity.

With young learners in content-based classrooms, Doughty and Varela (1998) showed that corrective recasting, which includes a recast preceded by a repetition of the learner's error and intonational stress added to both repetition and recast to emphasize the incorrect and correct forms, is also more effective than no feedback. Ohta (2000) showed that four adult learners who produced private speech with moderate to high frequency while wearing lapel microphones in a form oriented foreign language classroom tended to repeat recasts, regardless of whether they were the intended recipients of the recasts. (Nabei & Swain, 2002)

Morgan, Bonamo, and Travis applied synchronous and time-series regression techniques to observational data to detect effects of recasted error correction on children's emerging grammar. Results showed that recasts did not facilitate learning but actually impeded it. (Bohannon et al, 1996) The effectiveness of recasts may depend in part on the overall developmental level of proficiency or interlanguage variety of the learner.

When learners do modify their ill-formed utterances (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), the modification may be only a mechanical repetition of the alternative form. As positive evidence in classroom input, recasts may nonetheless help learners with encoding new information; accordingly, whether or not learners repeat a recast may even be inconsequential with respect to L2 development, as suggested by the Mackey and Philp (1998) study. (Lyster 2002)

Some researchers have distinguished specific types/categories of recasts: e.g. partial recasts (Roberts, 1995), isolated/incorporated recasts (Lyster, 1998b), corrective recasts (Doughty and Varela, 1998; Long, in press) and intensive recasts (Mackey and Philp, 1998). (Sheen, 2006)

Lyster also distinguishes four types of recasts: (1) isolated declarative – when corrected reformulations have no added meaning; (2) incorporated declarative – when corrected reformulations have additional meaning; (3) isolated interrogative; and (4) incorporated interrogative.

Doughty and Varela 1998, Conducted an experimental study of what they called corrective recasting, which consisted of two moves: (a) teacher repetition of a learner's error, with emphasis placed on the erroneous word(s), and (b) a reformulation of the complete learner utterance. (Ellis, 2006)

Farrar (1992, p. 92), in a study of recasts in child language acquisition distinguished between corrective recasts ("a recast that corrects a target error") and noncorrective recasts("a recast that does not correct a target but models a target").

In SLA research, Lyster and Ranta (1997) used the same terms but defined non corrective recasts as reformulations of learners' error-free utterances. Another distinction of potential importance is that between full recasts and partial recasts. (Ellis, 2006) As it was mentioned earlier Lyster and Ranta (1997), in their extensive study of corrective feedback in French immersion classrooms, defined recasts as 'the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error.' This definition points to the fact that the reformulation can involve either the entirety or a part of the original erroneous utterance. The latter is what Roberts (1995) calls 'partial recasts', when the 'teacher only models the segment of the utterance in which the error occurs.' Lyster (1998a) calls this type 'recasts with reduction'.

Chaudron (1977), in one of the earliest discussions of recasts in the L2 literature, specifically addressed the role of emphasis through stress and intonation. He distinguished two different subcategories of recasts: (1) recasts that 'simply add correction and continue to other topics'; and (2) recasts that 'add emphasis to stress location of error and its correct formulation' (1977: 39). (Sheen, 2006)

Mackey and Philp (1998), recasts that focus on a particular linguistic item repeatedly during communicative discourse have been called 'intensive recasts', as in while recasts that focus on multiple linguistic items in one discoursal move have been labeled 'complex recasts' (as opposed to 'simple recasts') (Long, in press; Long and Robinson, 1998). (Sheen, 2006)

3. Prompt.

In addition to recasts, this study will observe a set of interactional moves that provide less ambiguous and more cognitively engaging feedback, referred to interchangeably as the "negotiation of form" (Lyster, 1998a, 2002a; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), "form-focused negotiation" (Lyster, 2002b), and "prompts" (Lyster, 2002b; Ranta & Lyster, 2003). Prompts provide a solution to Swain's (1985) call for immersion teachers to "push" their students to be more accurate in their output. In the immersion context, because learners have had years of exposure to L2 input, including the target forms that they consistently have problems acquiring, they need to be pushed, when their focus is on academic content, to use target forms that are in competition with highly accessible interlanguage forms (Ranta & Lyster, 2003; Swain, 1985). (Lyster, 2004)

Prompts, therefore, may be particularly beneficial in immersion classrooms and other meaning-focused instructional contexts where continued recasting of what students already know may prove to be less effective for promoting the restructuring of interlanguage representations and the proceduralization of competing targetlike representations. L2 learners benefit more from being pushed to retrieve target language forms than

from merely hearing the forms in the input, because the retrieval and subsequent production stimulate the development of connections in memory. (De Bot, 1996)

Swain and Lapkin (1995) proposed in their study that (a) feedback enables learners to notice problems in their output and pushes them to conduct an analysis leading to modified output, and (b) what occurs between the first and second output is part of the process of L2 learning. (Lyster 2002) Similarly, language production—particularly the production of modified output—benefits L2 development because it pushes learners to move from semantic to syntactic processing of language. (Swain, 1995)

Prompting movements include the following four types of teacher response:

1. Clarification requests: the teacher indicates to the student, by using phrases such as "Pardon me" and "I don't understand" used to indicate that the student's message has either been misunderstood or ill formed and that a repetition or a reformulation is required.

2. Repetitions: the teacher replicate the student's error verbatim, usually with rising intonation and stress to highlight the error

3. Metalinguistic clues provide comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form (e.g., ''Do we say 'goed' in English?'').

4. Elicitation entails direct questions, the teacher directly elicit correct forms from students by asking such as "How do we say that in French?" or pauses that allow students to complete the teacher's utterance. (Lyster, 2004) or by asking students to reformulate their utterance (e.g., ''Try again'').

Although these four prompting moves used separately or in combination, represent a wide range of feedback types, they have one crucial feature in common: They withhold correct forms (and other signs of approval), and instead offer learners an opportunity to self-repair by generating their own modified response. This approach resembles the "clueing" procedure or "withholding phenomenon" identified by McHoul (1990) in his study of feedback in subject-matter classrooms, In contrast, recasts provide learners with correct target forms, which frequently co-occur with signs of approval. (Lyster, 2004)

In the case of prompt feedback, learners must attend to the retrieval of previously encoded information. This pushes them to reanalyze what they have already learnt and contribute to a destabilization of interlanguage forms.

Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) have supported this idea in their study in which the learners who responded with self-repair following clarification requests improved more than the learner who did not modify his output following the feedback.

When learners are prompted to retrieve the correct forms from what they already know, thus they will engage in a different type of retrieval process than repeating or simply hearing a recast embedded in meaning-focused negotiation. Support can be found in studies of educational contexts other than those dealing specifically with L2 learning. For example, Lepper, Aspinwall, Mumme, and Chabay (1990) found that expert tutors rarely give students correct answers (except as a last resort) and, instead, offer students hints, in the form of questions or remarks. This approach resembles the ''clueing'' procedure or ''withholding phenomenon'' identified by McHoul (1990). there is also some evidence from L2 classroom research (Slimani, 1992) that learners recall target features that they utter in response to teacher prompts more than features that are recast by the teacher (see Panova & Lyster, 2002). (Lyster 2002)

Comprehension can easily be achieved in classroom interaction, despite the students' use of non-target forms. For this reason, Swain (1985) argued that teachers, in order to benefit their students' interlanguage development, need to incorporate ways of ''pushing'' students to produce language that is not only comprehensible, but also accurate. (Lyster 2002)

Also self-repair provides L2 learners with opportunities to proceduralize target language knowledge already internalized in declarative form and to thereby increase their control over these already-acquired forms (e.g., Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993).

Ellis (1997) and others (e.g., Bialystok & Sharwood Smith, 1985; de Bot, 1996) have distinguished between two types of acquisition: acquisition as the internalization of new forms, and acquisition as an increase in control over forms that have already been internalized. In this view, as exemplars of positive evidence (see Braidi, 2002; Leeman, 2003), recasts occurring in appropriate discourse contexts can facilitate the encoding of new declarative knowledge. Prompts, on the other hand, given their aim to elicit modified output, can enhance control over already-internalized forms—that is, prompts serve to assist learners in the transition of declarative to procedural knowledge (regarding the psycholinguistic effect of output, see de Bot, p. 549). (Lyster, 2004)

This was the case in Ammar's (2003) recent classroom study, which revealed superior effects for prompts over recasts in the acquisition of possessive determiners by Grade 6 Francophone learners of English as a second language (ESL). She also found that prompts were particularly effective for lower proficiency learners, whereas higher proficiency learners appeared to benefit similarly from both recasts and prompts. Other studies as well have suggested that low-proficiency learners might be at a disadvantage in their limited ability to notice recasts as corrective feedback (Lin & Hedgcock, 1996; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Netten, 1991). (Lyster, 2004)

Whereas Doughty (2001) argued that recasting is an ideal type of feedback, because L2 learners are able to store the target reformulation in working memory and to make a direct comparison between input and output, de Bot (2000) suggested that "there is never a direct comparison between input and output because the input information is immediately processed and not stored in memory in that form". Conversely, in response to prompts, learners must attend to the retrieval from long-term memory of previously encoded representations, retrieving either an alternate exemplar or a rule for computing a more targetlike form. De Bot (1996, 2000) argued that this increased level of activation enhances the likelihood of the retrieved item being selected again, because the attention required for retrieval from long-term memory and subsequent production stimulates the development of strong connections in memory. By retrieving target forms stored in long-term memory, therefore, L2 learners are more likely to restructure existing interlanguage representations than by merely hearing the forms in the input (de Bot, 1996). The restructuring of knowledge representations and concomitant processing constraints specific to grammatical gender are addressed in the next section. (Lyster, 2004)

4. Conclusion.

A well-known argument against corrective feedback has often been presented as a paradox, summarized by Chaudron (1988, p. 134) as follows: ''teachers must either interrupt communication for the sake of formal correction or let errors pass 'untreated' in order to further the communicative goals of classroom interaction.'' According the findings of current study prompts in oral feedback has been more successful than recasts.

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The Role of Writing Diary in a Classroom

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Abstract.

As a reaction towards the traditional methods of writing, the idea of 'diary' came into existence. multiple definitions for a diary has been revealed by a widespread review of the literature (Brogoff, 1975; Bailey's, 1990; Richards, 1992; Porter et al. 1996; Hiemstra, 2001; Johnson, 2002; Curtis & Bailey, 2009; Barjesteh et al. 2011; Zittoun & Gillespie, 2011). For instance, most authors see that a diary is usually handwritten, arranged by date for the expression of personal feelings, thoughts and experiences on daily basis and it is not intended for publication (Johnson, 2002; Curtis & Bailey, 2009). Others look at diaries as a kind of free-writing activity where writers write without fear of being evaluated (Barjesteh et al., 2011). Still, others see it as an introspective research tool for the initiation of writing and communicating meaning (Porter et al, 1996; cited in Taqil, H. N. et al, 2015). Diaries help students to become members of the discourse community by giving them opportunities to write within it and to get responses from their teachers. These exchanges give students both a real audience within the community and a developing sense of being a member of the community (Porter et al, 1996). This paper provides an in-depth overview of diary writing and it has a close look at diary, its establishments and definition. also different types of diary will be presented then, the researcher will outline the merits and objectives of diary and the use of diary as introspective/retrospective tool. Finally fuctional rule of diary writing to improve students' writing ability will be reviewed according to some related empirical researches on the effect of diary writing on students' writing

Keywords: EFL, Writing, diary wrinig, journal, Accuracy, Fluency

1. Introduction.

Writing is a procedure that requires not only ideas and thinking but vocabulary, grammar and punctuation to express those ideas. Harmer (2004) believes that good writing is a complex process compared to speech. To master writing, a writer needs to master all the features related to it including a rich vocabulary, knowledge of grammar and the mechanics of writing. (Bitchener, 2008).

Although, teacher-written feedback has been seen by both teachers and students as crucial in the writing process (Goldstein, 2004; Ferris, 2002), some authors believe that it has a detrimental effect on students' writing (Truscott, 2007; Truscott & Hsu, 2008). For example, Truscott (2004) argues that corrective feedback may have a negative effect on students' writing fluency which might affect their overall writing. Hence, teachers need to provide indirect feedback (Ferris, 2004). Straub (1997) notes that students prefer feedback on their overall writing such as topic, organization coherence and cohesion as well as on vocabulary, spelling, grammar and punctuation.

As a reaction towards the traditional ways of writing, the idea of 'diary' came into existence. The word 'diary' came from the Latin word 'diarium' where 'di-' means 'day' in modern English and the suffix 'arium' and its modern equivalent the suffix 'ary' stands for 'in connection with or pertaining to'. Thus, a diary is a daily log that records the events that happen during the day. It is updated on a daily basis, private and written for an audience of one.

A diary is a frequently kept, often daily, record of personal experiences and observations in which ongoing thoughts, feelings, and ideas can be expressed. Increasingly diaries are being used to investigate social, psychological, and physiological processes within everyday situations in many academic, vocational, and educational settings (e.g., Kacewicz, Slatcher, & Pennebaker, 2007; Pennebaker, 2004; Burton & King, 2004; Daniels & Harris, 2005; Poppleton, Briner, & Kiefer,2008). Diaries are thought to capture"the little experiences of everyday life that fill most of our working time and occupy the vast majority of our conscious attention." (Wheeler & Reis, 1991:340). One key benefit of diary methodology is that it permits the examination of reported events and experiences in their natural, spontaneous context, providing information complementary to that obtainable by traditional research designs (Reis, 1994). Also, diaries reduce the likelihood of retrospection as the minimum amount of time elapses between an experience and recall.

Diary, also called a journal, is a notebook where people can write anything they want such as their feelings thoughts, ideas, or experiences. Each person may have a different reason for writing a diary. Someone is worried about forgetting most of the things they have done. Someone is afraid to talk to other people. There can be a lot of reasons. For example, some people are ashamed of their secrets or they just do not want to reveal them. All these reasons may lead to diary writing.

Some scholars such as Klimova(2015) believes that diaries can be written on a daily basis, but at least once a week And also in teaching and learning of languages it has crucial role. As Rubin (2003) points out, more successful learners are in control of their learning; they know what they are doing and what they want to achieve; they know when they make mistakes; and they know how to go about correcting them. And in this process

teachers can help their students provided that students allow them to see their diaries, comment on them and make relevant suggestions. In their classes teachers can then employ the technique of scaffolding, a kind of support which would help students in their learning and overcoming their learning difficulties.

A diary is a fist person account of a language learning or teaching experience documented through regular, candid entries in a personal journal." (Bailey, 1990, p. 215) It is a hybrid genre positioned between 'life narrative' and ' university essay'. (Crème. 2008)

In the academic context, a diary is an academic instrument that is used to record introspective reflection in first person about someone's learning or teaching (Bailey, 1990). The teacher or student reports issues such as affective factors, perceptions, and language learning strategies (Bailey & Ochsner, 1983). Diaries are useful to obtain classroom issues and constitute a valuable tool in order to discover teaching or learning realities that are not possible to be discovered through direct research observation(Nunan, 1992; Bailey, 1990; Numrich, 1996). Goodson and Sikes (2001) state the importance of a diary: Not only is a document of this kind useful for providing factual information, it can also help with analysis and interpretation, in that it can jog memory and indicate patterns and trends which might have been lost if confined to the mind. (p. 32)

A diary is typically a notebook, booklet of blank pages, or any other source for students to record thoughts, reactions to learning experiences, and even innermost fears about a learning activity. Some learners prefer to create electronic or audio diaries. Regardless of the format, entries of daily experiences, insights, and problems often are made. Progoff (1975) writes, "Diary writing usually involves the unstructured, chronological recording of the events of a person's life" as they are perceived. "We have to recognize, however, that the mere fact of continuously writing entries, as is done in the keeping of a diary, is not sufficient in itself to bring about deep changes in a person's life" (p. 87)Another feature of a diary is being able to look back on specific days or time periods in an attempt to sort out personal feelings. Combining such features with instructor feedback, the development of something like a statement of personal philosophy can begin to take shape. In subsequent writing and reflection, the learner can begin to recognize desired or even unanticipated personal changes as they begin to surface. I recommend that learners read Christensen's (1981) work describing how a personal diary can be used as a supplement to classroom activities.

An extensive review of the literature has revealed multiple definitions for a diary (Brogoff, 1975; Bailey's, 1990; Richards, 1992; Porter et al. 1996; Hiemstra, 2001; Johnson, 2002; Curtis & Bailey, 2009; Barjesteh et al. 2011; Zittoun & Gillespie, 2011). For instance, most authors see that a diary is usually handwritten, arranged by date for the expression of personal feelings, thoughts and experiences on daily basis and it is not intended for publication (Johnson, 2002; Curtis & Bailey, 2009). Others look at diaries as a kind of free-writing activity where writers write without fear of being evaluated (Barjesteh et al., 2011). Still, others see it as an introspective research tool for the initiation of writing and communicating meaning (Porter et al. 1996). Bailey (1990), for example, defines a diary study as a first person account of a language learning or teaching experience written regularly and is analyzed later for recurring themes. Similarly, Hiemstra (2001) writes about learning diaries where learners record their thoughts, feelings and reactions to specific course activities.

Diaries usually focus on meaning rather than form where learners send a message about a topic of interest to them. Similarly, teachers do not correct linguistic errors but respond to the message in a meaningful way. Hence, learners have the freedom of writing without worrying about form (Bagheri & Pourgharib, 2013). Fluency, according to Brown (1994 in Patterson, 2014) is "saying or writing a steady flow of language for a short period of time without any self or other correction at all." Mac-Gown-Gilhooly (1991) reports that when fluency was stressed over accuracy in classrooms, learners showed more signs of self-confidence and teachers noticed students writing apprehension decreased, specifically for slow learners. Students also felt better as they developed more fluency in writing and were able to generate more ideas compared to when they were corrected on form (McDonough & McDonough, 1997; Rubin, 2003). In spite of that, learners' responses in diaries differ where some report stories while others list a number of activities.

As to research, diaries are excellent tools for language research as Nunan (1992) says that diaries can be "important introspective tools in language research" (p.118). They help researchers elicit valuable knowledge about learners "they give us access to participants voices (Bailey & Nunan, 1996:199). Learners can also get their problems solved by talking about them and teachers gain valuable insights to the language learning processes. (Peterson, 2012).

It follows that writing is an important skill especially for college students who are going through an important time in their lives where they experience change in their personality and educational career. Thus, it is crucial to find out how classroom practices affect students during their college life. One of the classroom practices that is thought to have an effect on students' progress is 'praise', defined as "favourable interpersonal feedback" (Baumeister et al. 1990) or "positive evaluations made by a person of another's products, performances or attributes".

. Diaries are seen as good examples of writing where students write without fear of being corrected on grammar and spelling and where their attempts are praised. Writing regularly results in fluency and improvement of writing skill. Nevertheless, Haimovitz & Corpus, (2011) report that a search through the literature has shown

most of the studies done on the topic of 'praise' were related to children and only a few discussed the topic in relation with adults.

2. Brief history on the use of diaries as a research tool.

In noting that descriptive and interpretive research are particularly suited for 'investigating behaviour in context'(1992:118), Nunan asserts that "diaries, logs and journals are important introspective tools in language research," (1992:118). McDonough and McDonough, (1997:121) concur, commenting on diary suitability: "Indeed the theme of change over time and the sense of writing about a process is one that resonates directly with the use of diaries in educational research." In spite of the advantages of diary study in researching classroom and teacher processes over time, McDonough and McDonough (p.131) note that there are relatively few studies of teachers researching their work in diary form compared with other studies of SLA. However, this trend may be changing with the advent of the online Internet diary, otherwise known as a 'blog'.

Table 1 below lists a variety of applications of the diary in research with illustrative examples.

Table 1. Applications of diary in research.

		Author	Area Of Research
pedagogic	Learners in classrooms	Peck, S. (1996)	growth of cultural sensitivity in FL learners
		Block, D. (1996)	(oral diaries):the problem of uptake and gaps in teacher and learner perceptions of learning
	trainees	Thornbury, S. (1991)	use of teaching practice logs for trainee self-assessment and awareness
		Richards, K. (1992)	reflection on FLL as a consciousness-raising tool
expert	language learning	Bailey, K. (1983)	the role of affective issues ('anxiety' and 'competition') in LL
		Campbell, C. (1996)	prior LL experience in FLL(re-use of prior learning styles and strategies)
	experienced teachers	Ashton-Warner, S. (1963)	importance of learner-centred methods in vocabulary acquisition
		Towndrow, P. (2004)	Laptop journal exploring on-line tutoring difficulties
	teacher trainers	Bailey, K. (1996)	class-group diary and the dialogic process

3. Diary writing as a reflective tool.

Experience does not guarantee learning. Rather this experience must be explored, tweaked, and questioned to transform to knowledge (Dyke, 2006). Experience lacks the reflection needed to reach personal insight. Some critics claim the concept of 'reflection' is loosely used and too often regarded as 'just thinking' (Knight, 2002). A diary becomes a learning tool when reread and scrutinized for patterns (Jeffrey and Hadley, 2002). Dyke (2006) further claims that learning is achieved when working with those patterns to re-evaluate the recorded experience. Whereas keeping a diary is a way of recording experiences, it is reflection on action that leads to deeper understanding and change(Dyke, 2006; Pring, 1999).

McDonough and McDonough (1997) point out the value of introspective research for teachers as an appropriate research method. Diaries are a means to better understanding teaching and learning behaviors and

practices. According to Progoff (1975), "experiences that would otherwise be intangible and therefore too elusive to grasp thus become accessible to us so that we can work with them" (cited in McDonough and McDonough, 1997, p.135). These authors argue that writing down subjective experiences makes them tangible.

4. Ways to Keep Diaries.

Personal diaries about the events of the classroom can be kept by teachers to reflect on them. Diaries have been used as multi-functional; recording events for later reflection, or evaluating thoughts and decisions (Burton, 2005). Personal diaries are perceptive and improve personal professional development. As already noted, diaries provide reflection on the events recorded, however, Day (1993, p.88) argues that "reflection is a necessary but not sufficient condition for learning." Day (1993) also claims confrontation by self [or others] is needed to challenge and enhance professional development. In this sense diaries allow for reflection that can lead to a questioning of teaching methods and behaviors which ultimately are vital to positive change.

Diaries can be a component of collective research such as collaboration or action research. A diary shared by two or more colleagues allows collaboration through this shared medium (Gebhard and Nagamine, 2005). There is an appeal for collaborative critical analysis with capabilities beyond the individual. Gebhard and Nagamine (2005) elaborate, noting that it creates a relationship with teachers who have similar sensitivities and this relationship helps our development as teachers. Additionally, diaries in action research are crucial when accompanied by observations and peer dialogue. Action research is a practical research approach encompassing specific inquiry in a cyclical process (Burns, 1999; Dfaz-Maggioli, 2004; Richards and Farrell, 2005). Broadly, it enhances reflective practice and professional development.

5. Problems and issues with diary writing.

It is argued that 'bias' and 'perspective' are important in keeping research dependable and credible (McDonough and McDonough, 1997), hence diary reflection calls into question issues of subjectivity and objectivity. Bias can occur with research involving diary writing since in reflective self-inquiry and evaluation the inquirer is in conflict as both the object and subject of the study (Jopling, 2000). The overlap of the researcher and the subject could see personal feelings integrated into the research and not objectively suspended. Jopling (2000) claims feelings of 'impartiality' are in conflict with opposing feelings of 'self-regard' and self-denial. Writing impartially about what occurred can be difficult on account of having personal bias and not seeing reality with detachment. This addresses the question of what one remembers occurring in the classroom verses what is really happening. Richards and Farrell (2005) suggest using video recording or lesson transcripts to recognize differences between 'subjective perceptions' and 'objective reality.'

Creating distance from the experience, according to Regan (2007), could promote better understanding and an objective analysis. 'Temporal distance' as a process, allows feelings and experiences to be more tangible to attain their full meaning (Regan, 2007). Jopling (2000) addresses 'stepping back' as a way to detach from research and allow more objectivity but argues this detachment is misleading in giving a sense of independence and the first person perspective is still problematic. "The appearance of disassociation is not reliable" (Jopling, 2000, p.64).

Assumptions and beliefs can be made objective by being publicly available for viewing and criticism (Pring, 1999). Conversely, Jopling (2000) contends that the findings can be largely inaccessible to anyone but the diarist. Pring (1999) agrees that relevance is an issue but points out that, though diary case studies are unique in context, sharing experiences can still relate to others in similar situations. Objectivity in self-reflection is still debatable and requires further investigation.

6. Validity of Research Based on Reflection.

Arguably, 'validity' is an issue in research based on diary writing. In qualitative research, validity may be subjective but nonetheless deals with the accuracy and means of assessment (Winter, 2000). The role of validity is paramount in studies, such as action research, which pertain to 'knowledge use' (my emphasis) in a specific context. Its 'transformative' nature allows for changes and constant retesting (Burns, 1999). Of the five validity criteria discussed by Anderson et al. (1994, cited in Burns, 1999, p.160162), process and dialogic validity specifically involve diary writing and reflection.

'Process validity' involves questions of 'dependability' and 'competency' of the research (Anderson et al., 1994, cited in Burns, 1999, p.160-162). It focuses on bias and accountability issues, requiring different, objective, perspectives to examine findings. Burns (1999) suggests monitoring researcher bias to help combat this issue. However, if diary writing is a sole endeavor, the question then becomes 'who is the monitor source?'

'Dialogic validity' involves critical peer review to help assess the 'goodness' of the research (Anderson et al., 1994, cited in Burns, 1999, p.160-162). With the goal of publication, the value of the work requires dialogue with peers. As an individual action research tool, the diary ignores the need for outside sources; thus compromising its validity.

7. Conclusion.

Accordingly, diaries can be considered as a useful tool in the classroom to achieve a number of purposes. A wide-ranging list of the these purposes has been given by Absalom & Leger (2011), for instance, to reflect a learner's exeprience in learning a or as a method for pre-service teachers to reflect on their practices. On this

regard a learner can use the diary to develop critical skills or analytic strategies. Learners also can use the diary as a means to improve their communication skills and develop their creativity. Diaries can be used to support planning for research and finally, diaries can be used by the teacher to find out whether students understood the concepts in the lesson.

Although, diaries get more importance in the literature not only for their different uses but mainly for the benefits and gains they may fulfill. A large part of the literature was devoted to a description of this issue. While Barjesteh et al. (2011) talks about a diary being beneficial as it makes students write more, Elbow (1998) stressed the fact that diaries should not be edited which results in increasing students' fluency. They can also use the diaries for reflection to go back and evaluate their own performance. This promotes autonomous learning where students take the responsibility of their own learning, monitor their progress and the strategies they use which will eventually result in developing their cognitive skills (Richard & Lockhart, 1996; Lagan, 2000; Marefat, 2002; Hamp & Heasley, 2006; Kirkgoz, 2009).

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On the effectiveness of Focus-on-Form instruction on Iranian EFL learners' grammatical competence

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Abstract.

Form-focused instruction is a method that emphasizes the value of communicative teaching standards, which include student-centered instruction and authentic communication. The purpose of this thesis is to examine the effectiveness of 'focus on form' instruction on Iranian EFL learners' acquisition of grammatical items. In an attempt to uncover the possible effects of form-focus instruction on learners' grammatical knowledge, an *empirical* study was conducted. This study used a Quasi-experimental design. In so doing, the study was performed in one of the Iranian Universities. The participants were 60 Iranian pupils (20 males and 40 females), enrolled in two classes of the second grade, and were selected through a random sampling procedure. After laying the ground for the study, participants in both experimental and control groups were pretested on the grammar measures. Afterwards, grammar instruction for both groups was carried out. The main difference between two groups lay in the methods of teaching and providing feedback on the grammatical features. While the experimental group was trained through form-focused instruction for improving their linguistic competence, the control group was received no direct focus-on-form instruction on grammatical features. And the final stage dealt with post-testing participants on the same measures that were used in the first phase. To examine whether significant differences existed between the two groups of participants prior and after the instruction, descriptive statistical procedures, and ANCOVA were applied to ascertain the extent to which form-focus instruction influenced the learners' grammatical knowledge. Upon reviewing the results of the one-way ANCOVA data analysis procedure concerning grammar knowledge of two groups, it was revealed that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group after the intervention indicating that the form-focused instruction was successful in improving Iranian EFL learners' grammatical knowledge on those certain grammatical features [F (1, 57) = 127, Sig = .000, partial eta squared = .73].

Keywords: grammatical knowledge, form-focus instruction, focus on form, focus on forms

1. Introduction.

Language learning and acquisition is not an abstract process of memorizing vocabulary and the application of grammatical rules. On the contrary, a complex process involves an intricate interaction between the distinct personalities of the learners, the teacher and his or her actions and intentions and the overall leaning process. The language learning process is also interplay of learners' background, culture, experience beliefs, perceptions and learning environment. In this case, instruction methodology plays a crucial role in how a second language is acquired, and whether the language learner acquires adequate skills to communicate effectively in the second language, both orally and in writing.

The teaching of linguistic forms, especially grammar, continues to occupy a major place in language pedagogy. Discussions of how to teach form usually consist of accounts of the various pedagogical options available to the teacher and the relative advantages of each option (see, e.g. Ellis, 1994). Somewhat less attention has been paid to the actual methodological procedures that teachers use to focus on form in the course of their actual teaching (but see Borg, 1998). Given the growing importance that is being attached to teaching form in the context of communicative activity (see the articles in Doughty and Williams, 1998), the procedures for achieving this deserve careful consideration. Arguably, initial training courses for teachers need to ensure that teachers are equipped with the skills needed to focus students' attention on form and that they have an understanding of the potential advantages and disadvantages of the different procedures involved.

The purpose of this thesis is to examine the effectiveness of 'focus on form' instruction on Iranian EFL learners' acquisition of grammatical items. Form-focused instruction is a method that emphasizes the value of communicative teaching standards, which include student-centered instruction and authentic communication. This methodology also values the study in grammatical forms of L2 that is more suggestive of non-communicative form of instruction. In this case, the responsibility to assist L2 learners in understanding problematic grammatical forms of L2 lies with both teachers as well as peers (Long & Robinson, 1998). The emphasis is giving L2 learners sufficient exposure to spoken and written discourses, which reflect real-life communication, like letter writing, engaging in debates or doing an interview.

In form-focused instruction, both teachers and peers will assist learners who are perceived to have difficulties in production or comprehension of some grammatical forms in L2. This is accomplished through providing explanation of the forms as well as supplying their models. This way, the teacher and peers will enable the L2 learner identify forms that they are deficient in, but which are critical in their overall acquisition and development of L2. Form-focused instruction can therefore be understood as an approach that is not focused on

the instruction of specific grammatical items, but a method whose aim is to enable L2 learners to acquire L2 and its use in manner that reflects realistic communicative situations.

Focus on form instruction is essentially different from meaning based instruction as though it focuses on teaching L2 in real life communicative scenarios. There is the occasional attention given to discrete forms through correction, direct explanation, negative feedback and recast (Long & Robinson, 1998). Meaning-based instruction does not pay attention to the discrete parts of language but lays emphasis on communicative language in real life. This is illustrated by the natural approach theory that does not permit direct grammar instruction (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

2. Literature Review.

In the early 1991's Michael Long extended Krashen's original input hypothesis by stating that in order to understand more fully the nature and usefulness of input for second language learning, greater attention should be paid to interaction in which learners are engaged (Long, 1981). Long believes that the more the input is queried, recycled and paraphrased, the greater its potential usefulness as input, because it should become increasingly well-targeted to the particular developmental needs of the individual learner. Long called this the Interaction hypothesis.

Long (1985) proposed a more systematic approach to linking features of language input and learner's second language development. He proposed that it could be done in the following manner.

Step 1 – Show that a) Linguistic/conversational adjustment promote b) comprehension of input.

Step 2 – Show that b) Comprehensible input promotes c) acquisition

Step 3 – Deduce that a) Linguistic/conversational adjustments promote c) acquisition (Long, 1985).

In the same paper in 1985 Long reported two studies where he showed that 'lecturettes' pre-scripted and delivered in a modified, foreigner talk discourse style were comprehensible to adult second language learners than were versions of the same talks delivered in an unmodified style. This supported the argument that linguistic modifications could promote comprehension of input, which refers to Long's step 1 above.

Further, in his Doctoral research (Long, 1981, 1983) Long analyzed the speech interaction of 16 native speaker/native speaker and 16 non-native speaker /native speaker dyads carrying out the same set of face-to-face oral tasks. (Informal conversation, giving instructions for games, playing games etc.) He showed that there was little linguistic difference between the talk produced by both groups as shown on measures of grammatical complexity. However, the differences were seen in the two groups when analyzed from the point of view of conversational management and language functions performed. In order to solve ongoing communication difficulties the native speaker /non-native speaker dyads were much more likely to make use of conversational tactics such as repetitions, confirmation checks, comprehension checks and clarification requests. Long argues that this was done in order to solve comprehension problems when speaking to the non-native speakers and not any conscious motive to teach grammar (1983) which refers to Long's step 1 again. However, from the perspective of the interaction hypothesis such collaborative efforts should aid language learning. That is in terms of Krashen's terms, they receive i+1.

Other studies, Loschky (1994), Gass & Veronis (1994), Mackey (1999) provide evidence that taking part in interaction can facilitate second language development, which supports Long's steps 2 and 3.With regard to the effect of interaction, Larson –Freeman and Long (1991) state that:

"Modifications of interactional structure of conversation …..is a better candidate for a necessary (not sufficient) condition for acquisition. The role it plays in negotiation for meaning helps to make input comprehensible while still containing unknown linguistic elements, and hence, potential intake for acquisition". (Cited in Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p.168)

Based on research, both input and interaction have been considered as prerequisites for SLA. However, although they promote intake, (i.e. to process the language sufficiently to become incorporated into the learner's second language system) it does not result in successful production of the language according to some researchers. (E.g., Swain, 1985).

Focus on form was initially distinguished by Long (1991) where he made a distinction between the different types of focus on form. (i.e. Focus on form/focus on forms) According to Long, focus on forms (FonFS) refers to the lessons in which language features are taught or practiced according to a structural syllabus that specifies which features are taught and in which sequence. It may involve teaching approaches such as mimicry and memorization or grammar translation and they are all based on the assumption that language features should be taught systematically, one at a time.

Focus on form (FonF) on the other hand refers to instruction in which the main emphasis remains on communicative activities or tasks but in which a teacher intervenes to help the students use the language more accurately when the need arises. Originally Long defined focus on form as "reactive and incidental ". (Spada and Lightbown, 2006).

3. Methodology.

3.1. Research Question.

The study aims to answer the following major research question: Does using Focus-on-Form instruction enhance a more accurate production of passive sentences than the non-Focus-on-Form method in Iranian Intermediate EFL learners?

3.2. Research Design.

In an attempt to uncover the possible effects of form-focus instruction on learners' grammatical knowledge, an *empirical* study was conducted. This study used a Quasi-experimental design. A quasi-experimental design is one that looks a bit like an experimental design but lacks the key ingredient- random assignment. With respect to internal validity, they often appear to be inferior to randomized experiments. But there is something compelling about these designs; taken as a group, they are easily more frequently implemented than their randomized cousins.

3.3. Participants.

Because of the school's policy and regular teaching program, it was not possible to randomize all of the participants into the two groups and thus the students were required to remain intact in their regular classes during the intervention time slots . In the current study students remained in their intact class, allocated into different experimental groups, and received different instructional interventions at the same time in the same class.

The study was performed in one of the Iranian Universities. The participants were 60 Iranian pupils (20 males and 40 females), enrolled in two classes of the second grade, and two teachers providing instruction in the classes. For this study, the researcher used a convenience sample that consisted of two classes taking part in the quasi-experimental design.

3.4. Materials: The researcher-made grammatical multiple-choice test.

A 30 item multiple-choice test of English grammar on the specific grammatical features under the investigation was developed by the researcher. The grammatical items were mainly selected from those items taught and given exposure during the course to both groups. The validity and reliability of the test was checked. The test was used as the assessment tool in the pre-test and the post-test phase of the study. Two internal consistency estimates of reliability which included coefficient alpha and a split half coefficient expressed as Spearman-Brown correlation were computed for the grammar test. For the split half coefficient, the test items were split into two halves based on odd and even numbers to nullify the effects of unwanted factors such as tiredness of the test takers. The value for coefficient alpha was .83 and the value of the split half coefficient was .90, each indicating a very satisfactory reliability.

To take validity of the test into consideration, most of the items as well as the distracters were selected from the grammatical items under the focus of the study and also a list of structures and words they had been exposed to through the course was compiled by the researcher prior to the instruction and was given to both groups of participants during the instruction. The criterion-related validity of the test revealed .83 of coefficient of determination which was satisfactory.

3.5. Procedures.

The present study took place in three general phases, namely *Before* the instruction phase, *During* the instruction phase, and *After* the instruction phase. In the first phase, after laying the ground for the study, participants in both experimental and control groups were pretested on the grammar measure and in different sections. In the second phase, grammar instruction for both groups was carried out. And the final stage dealt with post-testing participants on the same measures that were used in the first phase.

Prior to the initiation of the study, the researcher met the head of the English Department of Islamic Azad University of Rasht and explained the specific information about the purpose of the study in order to obtain the required permission. Having gained his permission, the researcher did the preliminary stages of sampling procedures for the study. Then, he obtained the required information on the schedule of different courses. A week later, after the completion of the sampling procedures and identification of the target sample for the survey study, the data collection procedure began.

Afterwards, both groups were pre-tested on Grammar Test by the researcher. Each group answered the test in a separate session spending 20 minutes. The experimental and the control groups were instructed by the researcher once a week (totally 70 minutes per week) over a 14-week period. The main difference between two groups lay in the methods of teaching and providing feedback on the grammatical features. While the experimental group was trained through form-focused instruction for improving their linguistic competence, the control group was received no direct focus-on-form instruction on grammatical features.

To counter any potential threats to the internal validity of the research and to neutralize the likely material and test effect, the researcher used the same reading materials, the same activities, the same length of teaching time, the same classroom environment, and the same examination. However, the experimental and the control groups were taught through different teaching methods.

In the final phase, both the experimental and control groups were post-tested on the same measure which were used in the pre-test, namely English Grammar Test.

3.6. Data Analysis and Results.

To examine whether significant differences existed between the two groups of participants prior and after the instruction, descriptive statistical procedures, and ANCOVA were applied to ascertain the extent to which form-focus instruction influenced the learners' grammatical knowledge.

The present study made an attempt to investigate the effectiveness of two different methods of instruction and two different approaches for providing feedback on learning certain kinds of grammatical features. In so doing, two intact classes consisting of 60 EFL learners were selected and were divided into two groups. While the experimental group was trained through form-focused instruction for improving their linguistic competence, the control group was received no direct focus-on-form instruction on grammatical features. The results of test scores were compared for the pretest and posttest of both groups to ascertain whether there has been any significant difference between the groups in terms of their linguistic knowledge on certain types of the grammatical structures under the study. It is worth noting that the first comparison group has been labeled as the experimental group and the second group as the control group by the current researcher.

3.6.1.Research Question.

Therefore, in this regard, one general research question has been set forward to be answered by the current research: Does using Focus-on-Form instruction enhance a more accurate production of passive sentences than the non-Focus-on-Form method in Iranian Intermediate EFL learners?

Based on the research question the following hypothesis is raised:

3.6.2. Null Hypothesis.

Using Focus-on-Form instruction does not enhance a more accurate production of passive sentences than the non-Focus-on-Form method in Iranian Intermediate EFL learners.

3.6.3. Descriptive Analysis of the Data.

This section of the data analysis has to do with the interpretation of the descriptive analysis of the data. The results of the groups' descriptive statistics are summarized and tabulated in Tables 1 and 2 presents the result of the descriptive statistics of the control group on both pretest and posttest measures.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the control group

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
pretest	30	5	14	11.75	1.17
posttest	30	6	16	13	1.05
Valid N	30				

According to the above table, it is revealed that the pretest mean value of the control group for grammar test was 11.75 with the standard deviation of 1.17. With regard to its performance on the posttest, the control group showed some degree of improvement on the grammar test [Mean= 13, SD= 1.05].

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of the experimental group

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
pretest	30	8	15	12	2.03
posttest	30	12	18	15.50	1.18
Valid N	30				

Table 2 indicates the result of the descriptive statistics of the experimental group on the grammar measures before and after the treatment. Prior to the instruction, the experimental group had a mean value of 12 with the standard deviation of 2.03. However, it is revealed that its performance on the grammar test improved after the treatment. It can be inferred that the focus-on-form instruction was effective in enhancing learners' linguistic knowledge [Mean= 15.50, SD= 1.18].

3.6.4. Inferential Analysis of the Data.

A one-way between-groups analysis of covariance was conducted to investigate the possible effect of Form-Focused Instruction on Iranian EFL learners' linguistic competence. Participants' scores on the pre-intervention administration of grammar knowledge were used as the covariate in this analysis.

The main ANCOVA results are presented in the Table 3, labeled Test of Between-Subjects Effects.

Table 3. Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	323.757[a]	2	161.878	166.024	.000	.853

Intercept	48.247	1	48.247	49.483	.000	.465
covariate	143.490	1	143.490	147.164	.000	.721
Groups	144.852	1	144.852	127	.000	.736
Error	55.577	57	.975			
Total	11046.000	60				
Corrected Total	379.333	59				

a. R Squared = .853 (Adjusted R Squared = .848)

The findings of the Table 3 indicates that after adjusting for pre-intervention scores, there was a significant difference between the two intervention groups on post-intervention scores of grammar tests, *F* (1, 57) = 127, *Sig* = .000, partial eta squared= .73. Hence, the ANCOVA has revealed statistically significant difference between the two groups on the grammar test when the potential differences at pre-test were taken into account. All in all, it can be concluded that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in the posttest which shows that the form-focused instruction was of the great effectiveness for teaching grammatical items to Iranian EFL learners.

Upon reviewing the results of the one-way ANCOVA data analysis procedure concerning grammar knowledge of two groups, it was revealed that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group after the intervention indicating that the form-focused instruction was successful in improving Iranian EFL learners' grammatical knowledge on those certain grammatical features [*F* (1, 57) = 127, *Sig* = .000, partial eta squared = .73]. Hence, the null hypothesis of the study that "Using Focus-on-Form instruction does not enhance a more accurate production of passive sentences than the non-Focus-on-Form method in Iranian Intermediate EFL learners." was rejected at the level of significance of .05.

3.7. Conclusion and Discussions.

The findings of the study indicated that focus-on-form instruction was highly successful in improving Iranian EFL learners' production of passive sentences. Traditionally, language instruction has been directed at developing rule-based competence (i.e. knowledge of specific grammatical rules) through the systematic teaching of pre-selected structures – what Long (1991) has referred to as a focus-on-forms approach. While such an approach certainly receives support from the research that has investigated direct intervention in interlanguage development, curriculum designers and teachers need to recognize that this type of instruction is as likely to result in students learning rote-memorized patterns as in internalizing abstract rules (Myles, 2004). This need not be seen as an instructional failure however as such patterns are clearly of value to the learner. It points instead to an acknowledgement of what can be realistically achieved by a focus-on-forms approach, especially with young, beginner learners.

There is now a widespread acceptance that acquisition also requires that learners attend to form. Indeed, according to some theories of L2 acquisition, such attention is necessary for acquisition to take place. Schmidt (1994), for example, has argued that there is no learning without conscious attention to form. Again, though, the term 'focus on form' is capable of more than one interpretation. First, it might refer to a general orientation to language as form. Schmidt (2001) dismisses this global attention hypothesis, arguing that learners need to attend to specific forms. Second, it might be taken to suggest that learners need to attend only to the graphic or phonetic instantiations of linguistic forms. However, theorists such as Schmidt and Long are insistent that focus on form refers to form-function mapping (i.e. the correlation between a particular form and the meaning(s) it realizes in communication). Third, 'focus on form' might be assumed to refer to awareness of some underlying, abstract rule. Schmidt, however, is careful to argue that attention to form refers to the noticing of specific linguistic items, as they occur in the input to which learners are exposed, not to an awareness of grammatical rules.

Instruction can cater to a focus on form in a number of ways:

- Through grammar lessons designed to teach specific grammatical features by means of input- or output processing. An inductive approach to grammar teaching is designed to encourage 'noticing' of pre-selected forms; a deductive approach seeks to establish an awareness of the grammatical rule.
- Through focused tasks (i.e. tasks that require learners to comprehend and process specific grammatical structures in the input, and/or to produce the structures in the performance of the task).
- By means of methodological options that induce attention to form in the context of performing a task. Two methodological options that have received considerable attention from researchers are (a) the provision of time for strategic and on-line planning (Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Foster and Skehan, 1996) and (b) corrective feedback (Lyster, 2004).

Instruction can seek to provide an intensive focus on pre-selected linguistic forms (as in a focus-on-forms approach or in a lesson built around a focused task) or it can offer incidental and extensive attention to form through corrective feedback in task-based lessons. There are pros and cons for both intensive and extensive grammar instruction. Some structures may not be mastered without the opportunity for repeated

practice. Harley (1989), for example found that Anglophone learners of L2 French failed to acquire the distinction between the preterite and imparfait past tenses after hours of exposure (and presumably some corrective feedback) in an immersion program, but were able to improve their accuracy in the use of these two tenses after intensive instruction. However, intensive instruction is time consuming (in Harley's study the targeted structures were taught over an 8 week period!) and thus there will be constraints on how many structures can be addressed. Extensive grammar instruction, on the other hand, affords the opportunity for large numbers of grammatical structures to be addressed. Also, more likely than not, many of the structures will be attended to repeatedly over a period of time.

Further, because this kind of instruction involves a response to the errors each learner makes, it is individualized and affords the skilled teacher on-line opportunities for the kind of contextual analysis that Celce-Murcia (2001) recommends as a basis for grammar teaching. Ellis et al (1993) reported that extensive instruction occurred relatively frequently in communicative adult ESL lessons through both pre-emptive (i.e. teacher or student-initiated) and reactive (i.e. corrective feedback) attention to form. Loewen (2002) showed that learners who experienced such momentary form-focused episodes demonstrated subsequent learning of the forms addressed in both immediate and delayed tests. However, it is not possible to attend to those structures that learners do not attempt to use (i.e. extensive instruction cannot deal with avoidance). Also, of course, it does not provide the in-depth practice that some structures may require before they can be fully acquired. Arguably, then, instruction needs to be conceived of in terms of both approaches.

Discovering the effectiveness of form-focused instruction on Iranian EFL learners' production of passive sentences still leaves the possibilities for further study.

1. The findings of the study suggested that the application of form-focused instruction was highly influential in heightening the students' ability to produce certain grammatical features. Since the number of the participants was rather small, further studies should be conducted with a greater number of participants.

2. This study focused on teaching certain grammatical features. It is worth investigating whether form-focused instruction could be effective for teaching other language skills and components such as listening, reading, vocabulary and speaking.

Other studies should be conducted with participants from different levels of learning in EFL contexts. It would be fascinating to see if such kind of training would still be beneficial to those other groups.

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Relationship between Complex Syntax and Non-native Reading Comprehension

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Abstract.
Pronunciation is an important concept in Second language learning. In this article at first I selected 30 girl students randomly. They are intermediate level. Then I took an oral exam in order to find their level in pronunciation. Most of the students didn't get good marks. Then during classes, teacher checked students' pronunciation and check instruction of new vocabularies one by one. Students practiced instructions themselves. After that, I got a post-test and calculate differences between post-test and pre-test. At last, I resulted in improving students pronunciation. In conclusion, students can pronounce better by checking instructions.
Keywords: pronunciation, instruction, vocabulary

1. Introduction.

English instructors have to deal with foreign accented speech in their classrooms on a daily basis. Although most have become skillful at interpreting their students' deviant pronunciations, oftentimes small misunderstandings or complete breakdowns in communication still occur in the classroom. Unfortunately, many English teachers do not know how to help students improve their pronunciation in order to prevent, or at least reduce, these communication breakdowns.

One of the key requirements for language proficiency is to secure understandable pronunciation for the language learners. Direct or explicit instruction is hypothesized to result in conscious learning, not subconscious acquisition. If this hypothesis is correct, language acquisition theory predicts that the effect of explicit instruction will appear only when three conditions for the use of conscious learning (Monitor use), are met: When the second language performer (1), consciously knows the rule, (2), has time to think about the rule, and (3), is thinking about correctness, or is focused on form. So far, research results are consistent with these predictions for grammar instruction (Krashen, 1982, 2003).

Pronunciation instruction was absent from the second/foreign language (L2), 1 classroom for a long time due to the conventional beliefs that pronunciation is not important, cannot be taught, and can be "picked up" by learners. These beliefs have been questioned and pronunciation teaching has undergone a shift, so that nowadays, its frameworks mayencompass not only linguistic competence, but also discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence (Morley, 1994).

In this article, we want to study about pronunciation instruction that improve female students' pronunciation. How to improve pronunciation by checking new vocabulary?

2. Literature Review.

The Saito and Lyster study is the only one that provides possible evidence that instruction can influence the acquisition, and not just the learning, of accent. Thus, the entire case supporting the hypothesis is that instruction and correction can lead to the acquisition of improved pronunciation is based on a single study involving training on one sound, and there are plausible reasons to hypothesize that acquisition did not take place. Follow-up testing, with an even longer period of time between the instruction and the post-test, under conditions where Monitoring is highly improbable can resolve this issue (e. g. areal conversation with people not associated with the pronunciation instruction, with no suggested target words presented).

Pronunciation instruction is increasingly being recognized as one of the important components of the L2 classroom. As observed by Pennington (1994, p. 105), the value of pronunciation instruction lies in the fact that it can help learners develop their interlanguage phonology by giving them "the perceptual and the productive experience they need to reconceptualize the performance targets while offering motivation to change and social experiences to develop a new value set".

The Direct Method and the Naturalistic Approaches regard the process of learning a L2 as being the same as that of acquiring a L1. Thus, by listening to an appropriate model, L2 learners "pick-up" the pronunciation. Consequently, the methodology for pronunciation teaching consists of imitating a model through repetition, and the imitation can start after an initial "silent period", during which the learner listens to L2 samples, but is not required to speak.

A very popular series in Brazil is *Interchange*/*New Interchange* (Richards et al., 1990, 1998). The four books in the series are designed to take learners from the beginning up to the intermediate level. An analysis of

books 1, 2 and 3 reveals that the pronunciation component is present in almost all units. The pronunciation tasks are generally very short and simple, consisting of presentation through a model, listening discrimination, identification, repetition, and a few exercises require in g learners' elaboration of examples based on the model.

Most of these procedures, as well as the content (stress, intonation, linking, deletion), are recurrent in the three books, as well as the way they are presented and practiced. What varies is the grammar of the sentences and the vocabulary being practiced, which are directly connected to the unit where the pronunciation task appears.

As regards the pronunciation manuals, most of them are directed at intermediate or advanced learners (Prator & Robinet, 1985; Orion, 1987; Hagen & Grogan, 1992; and Gilbert, 1993). Hewings' (1993), manual is the only one directed at Preintermediate learners.

Furthermore, pronunciation materials sometimes ignore other major factors such as the learners' L1. The justification for this might come from the fact that it is not easy to account for every L1 difficulties. Nevertheless, it seems that a motivating environment in the pronunciation classroom depends on working with issues that learners might recognize as being important to improve their pronunciation.

What constitutes a good pronunciation training Study?

As Norris and Ortega (2006), state, a traditional narrative analysis is subject to the biases of its authors; therefore, we clarify here our conception of an ideal pronunciation instruction study (noting that we have yet to conduct any ideal Studies ourselves).

We believe that pronunciation research and instruction should be primarily concerned with helping learners become more understandable. This aligns with Levis' (2005), definition of the Intelligibility Principle, in opposition to the Nativeness Principle, which Levis defines as the notion that 'it is both possible and desirable [for adults] to achieve native-like pronunciation in a foreign language' (p. 370). These two principles are reflected in Munro and Derwing's (1995), tripartite distinction among accent (how different an L2speaker's productions are from a local variety), intelligibility (how understandable L2 speech is), and comprehensibility (how easy L2 speech is for a listener to understand).

An ideal quantitative study should: (i), provide enough detail about participants and procedures to allow replication; (ii), have large enough samples to conduct statistical analyses, including effect sizes; and (iii), employ a control group to verify that improvement is a result of instruction. The latter is especially critical in cases when instruction occurs while learners are newly immersed in their L2 environment—when naturalistic improvement is most likely to happen. Moreover, an ideal study would not limit assessment stimuli measuring learners' pronunciation ability to reading aloud; extemporaneous or spontaneous speech that better reflects natural communication is important. Assessment should also include a delayed post-test to Determine whether the intervention had a lasting effect.

To address concerns regarding ecological validity, the ideal study should be conducted in a classroom—although laboratory research can be extremely informative. If strong evidence of improved intelligibility and comprehensibility is found in language classrooms as a result of pronunciation instruction, more language instructors may be willing to teach pronunciation in systematic and principled ways.

3. Methodology.

3.1. Participants

Participants are 30 female students in an institution. They are in intermediate level from Rasht. I selected them randomly. All of them had a high school education and were placed into language classes according to assessment level.

3.2. Materials.

An English book, oral exam, written pronunciation exam

3.3.Procedure. At first, I gave an oral exam that students just pronounced some words. After collecting marks, I concluded that most of them can't pronounce

Short and long vowels. Then, they studied English instruction that explain how to pronounce words. Teacher explained instructions in class intervals. After two weeks, I gave a post test *(that is in Appendix).*

3.4. Results.

Table 1. Pre-test and post-test marks are stated below.

pre-test SCORE	mean	x-m	$(X-M)^2$	pre-test SCORE	mean	x-m	$(X-M)^2$
5	10.5	-5.5	30.25	10	10.5	-0.5	0.25
5	10.5	-5.5	30.25	11	10.5	0.5	0.25
6	10.5	-4.5	20.25	11	10.5	0.5	0.25
6	10.5	-4.5	20.25	12	10.5	1.5	2.25
7	10.5	-3.5	12.25	12	10.5	1.5	2.25
8	10.5	-2.5	6.25	12	10.5	1.5	2.25
8	10.5	-2.5	6.25	13	10.5	2.5	6.25
8	10.5	-2.5	6.25	13	10.5	2.5	6.25

pre-test SCORE	mean	x-m	$(X-M)^2$	pre-test SCORE	mean	x-m	$(X-M)^2$
8	10.5	-2.5	6.25	13	10.5	2.5	6.25
9	10.5	-1.5	2.25	14	10.5	3.5	12.25
9	10.5	-1.5	2.25	14	10.5	3.5	12.25
9	10.5	-1.5	2.25	15	10.5	4.5	20.25
10	10.5	-0.5	0.25	15	10.5	4.5	20.25
10	10.5	-0.5	0.25	16	10.5	5.5	30.25
10	10.5	-0.5	0.25	16	10.5	5.5	30.25

Total (x-m): 0. Total(x-m) 2: 290.

Table 1**.** Continued.

post-test SCORE	mean	x-m	$(X-M)^2$	post-test SCORE	mean	x-m	$(X-M)^2$
10	15.5	-5.5	30.25	17	15.5	1.5	2.25
10	15.5	-5.5	30.25	17	15.5	1.5	2.25
11	15.5	-4.5	20.25	18	15.5	2.5	6.25
11	15.5	-4.5	20.25	18	15.5	2.5	6.25
11	15.5	-4.5	20.25	18.5	15.5	2.5	6.25
12	15.5	-3.5	12.25	18.5	15.5	2.5	6.25
12	15.5	-3.5	12.25	18.5	15.5	2.5	6.25
12	15.5	-3.5	12.25	19	15.5	3.5	12.25
13	15.5	-2.5	6.25	19	15.5	3.5	12.25
14	15.5	-1.5	2.25	19	15.5	3.5	12.25
14	15.5	-1.5	2.25	19.5	15.5	4	16
15	15.5	-0.5	0.25	20	15.5	4.5	20.25
15	15.5	-0.5	0.25	20	15.5	4.5	20.25
15	15.5	-0.5	0.25				
16	15.5	0.5	0.25				
16	15.5	0.5	0.25				
16	15.5	0.5	0.25				

Total: 0. Total: 299.25.

Table shows that pre-test and post-test scores, standard deviation and Variance. It indicates that there is difference between scores. Scores were increased.

4. Data Analysis.

I use quantitative method in order to analyze data

$$t = \frac{\overline{x1} - \overline{x2}}{\sqrt{\frac{s1^2}{N1} + \frac{s2^2}{N2}}}$$

V=299.25/30=9.975 SD=√9.975=3.158

T-test= 5/12.81=0.390

V= variance sd= standard deviation t-test=statistic hypothesis test

N= number m=mean x= average

Results indicate the difference between pre-test and post-test score.

So, the difference between pre-test and post-test is: *preSD= 9.66 Post SD=9.975.*

5. Findings and Discussion.

Checking instruction is helpful in improving students' pronunciation. Students remind instructions more and more and they practice it.

Keeping in mind helps students to say correct pronunciation. These results demonstrate that even adding only a relatively time-limited explicit pronunciation component in a primarily communicative classroom can lead to beneficial results in production for learners.

6. Conclusion.

Listening discrimination practice has been shown to not only have a positive effect on learners' perception abilities, but also in their production capabilities of the target feature (Rochet, 1995; Wang & Munro, 2004).

Pronunciation instruction, unlike grammar or vocabulary, however, poses some unique sensory and physiological challenges to learners, as it requires motor control in addition to cognitive mastery. Therefore, teachers need to provide tactile and kinesthetic learning approaches in addition to the traditional rule-based explanations (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010).

These findings suggest that the efficacy of pronunciation instruction is not contingent upon the hours of instruction, or the necessity of an "expert" or native speaker pronunciation teacher, but instead upon the methods and materials used for the instruction.

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Appendix:

Choose the best one

1) The word "----------"has a different vowel sound from the other three.
a) fool b) soon c) food d) cook
2) The word "……" has a different vowel sound from the other three.
a) pull b) rude c) do d) too
3) The word "……" has a louder first syllable.
a) myself b), sixteen c), believe d), never
4) The word "……" has a louder second syllable.
a) People b), hobby c) hello d) garden
5) The word "……" has three syllables.
a) Wanted b) sometimes c) building d) remembered
6) Which word ends with /Iz/?
a) Bakes b) moves c), teaches d) writes
7) Which word has stress on the second syllable?
a) Yellow b), dinner c) around d) even
8) The word "----------"has a different consonant sound from the other three.
a) Dogs b) foes c), maps d) pens
9) In the word "----------"the stress is on the second syllable.
a) Awake b) happy c), pretty d) simple
10) In the word "----------"the stress isn't on the second syllable.
a) Umbrella b), dictionary c) eighteen d) complete
11) In the word "----------"the stress is on the first syllable.
a) Chinese b) winter c), enough d) allow
12) In the following group of words the word "----------"has the short / ʊ / sound.
a) Wool b) fool c) loose d) tooth
13) The word "----------"has the / ɑɪ / sound.
a) Child b) voice c) hair d) wait

14) Which word has the sound / u: /?
a) Foot b) boot c) cook d) look
15) Which word have a different sound?
a) Fork b), work c), walk d) talk
16) Which word has the sound /ɑ ʊ /?
a) young b) would c), south d) touch
17) Which word has the sound /ɑ ʊ /?
a) Hpe b), come c) move d), more
18) (comb), a), come b) some c) home d) more
19) (he'll), a) weak), b) hear c) real d) wear
20) (cook), a) put b) cup c) bus d) sun
21) (break), a) treat b) great c) preach d) breath
22) The pronunciation of (U), is like the pronunciation of (U), in…….
a) Beauty b) turkey c) ruler d) guide
23) Which word has the sound /u:/?
a) Cool b) soon c) roof d) look
24) The pronunciation of ((ou)), in though is like the pronunciation of ((ow)), in……
a) How b) now c) show d), down
25) The ((o)), in fork is pronounced like ((oo)), in…….
a) Door b) boot c) roof d), cook
26) Which word doesn't have the sound / e:/ ?
a) Burn b) turn c) earn d), worn
27) a) fool b), pool c), wool d), tool
28) a) wear b), hear c), near d), fear
29) The ((ou)), in should is pronounced like ((ou)), in……..
a), group b), could c), found d), cloud

Scaffolding: An Indispensable Technique in Language Teaching

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Abstract.
Scaffolding is a procedure utilized by educators to decipher language and also assist pupils in attaining a higher degree of discernment. In particular, it is one of the persuasive dexterities in grammar learning. As a result, the concept of scaffolding has received great deal of intentness in educational research over the past few decades. It can be conducted by either direct or indirect enlightenment. This process increases self-assurance and self-fulfilling. The purpose of this study is to review the underpinning theoretical and practical definition of scaffolding. Secondly, it purports to elaborate on the contribution of scaffolding in language teaching. Finally, the impressiveness of grammar learning and supremacy of scaffolding on teaching grammar are dissected and also implications will be suggested.
Key words: scaffolding, teaching grammar.

1. Introduction.

Scaffolding underline one of the key outlook of children's learning, namely that is often guided by others (stone, 1998). Scaffolding a student does not mean clarifying the task or concept during the learning experience or event; but rather, the task or concept remains constant, and the teacher provides varying degrees of support according to how well the child is doing on the task or with the new learning (Dorn & Soffus, 2001).The teacher brought the student to novel levels of skill and understanding by breaking up a task into smaller and more comprehensible steps. Some steps were more complicated than other and required more help.

Applebee and Langer (1983) used the notion of instructional scaffolding as a way to describe essential features of formal instruction. They believed that learning is a process of slow internalization of schedules and procedures available to the learner from the social and cultural context in which the learning take place.

According to Vygotsky (1978) a learner has the potential to progress from their actual developmental level to their potential developmental level via scaffolding that occurs during interaction with knowledgeable person. Vygotsky also mentions that a child's performance in completing a task with help of others would exceed what he or she could do without assistance. Vygotsky labels this potential performance through Scaffolding within the Zone of proximal development (ZPD). Learning is shaped usefully through the Zone of Proximal development with assistance. Zone of proximal development occurs during an interactive activity where a trainee and a knowledgeable work together to complete the targeted task.

One way educators often help learners' accomplishment of new or difficult tasks is by managing task complexity to maximize student task control (Applebee, 2002) instructors using scaffolding as an instructional approach to model the desired learning strategies or tasks for the students throughout the lesson. They should also teach the students to comprehend the relevant information in levels or stages of comprehension that will then gradually shift responsibility of learning about the concept from the teacher to the students. His suggestion shows scaffolding does help the student become autonomous learners (Vacca, 2008).

Vygotsky(1978)stated that Zone of proximal development (ZPD) as the difference between what a child can do independently and what he or she is capable of doing with targeted assistance (Scaffolding).Instruction focused within each student's ZPD is not too difficult or too easy, but just challenging enough to help him or her develop new skills by building on ones that have already been established. Students are most receptive to instruction within their ZPD because it represents the next logical step in their ongoing skill development.

Tutors help the students master a task or a concept by providing help. The support can take many shapes such as outlines, recommended documents, storyboards, or key questions. Instructional scaffolding is most helpful when it contributes to the learning environment in an effective learning environment. Scaffolding is gradually added then modified and finally removed according to the needs of learner. Eventually instructional scaffolding will fade away. This learning process should never be in place permanently. Eventually, the goal should be for the student to no longer need the instructional scaffolding (Tudge, 1990).

Usually classroom teachers asked themselves how they could help young children especially, those low performing children in their own rooms, acquired new learning and accelerate at faster rates. Many researchers felt that the strategies that would best accomplish this were ones that help learning within the child's zone of proximal development. Useful scaffolding need that teachers are sensible of what a student already know (background or earlier knowledge), the student's misconceptions, and the students' zone of proximal development. Effective scaffolding means that teachers need to listen and watch for clues from their students as to when teacher assistance is or is not needed. Obviously, teachers do not want students to fail, but they should not allow students become too dependent on the teacher. Students with learning disabilities need a supportive

classroom environment that can help them recognize their strengths and feel confident about their abilities in order to achieve at least some degree of independent functioning. Through carefully scaffolded instruction, special education and general education teachers can take proactive paths of moving their students toward independence and achieving success. Explicit grammar instruction supplies the declarative knowledge of grammar whereas implicit grammar instruction supplies procedural knowledge of grammar. Explicit grammar instruction creates awareness and leads to conscious learning and noticing (Schmidt, 1990).

Pupils learn grammar as an essential part of learning to speak from earliest stages. The expansion of oral language is vitally important in its own right as well as being essential to success in literacy. In the course of development, children will use grammar in a wide variety of ways, often with considerable complexity. Very young children will imply meanings using single words in a variety of grammatical ways. For example, a one-year – old saying 'milk' could mean: Look! There's some milk; Can I have more milk? ; is that one milk ? etc., showing what they mean by tone of voice and/or gesture. older children often use very complex grammatical construction in speech which may not be appropriate as written forms. (Tager, Flusberg, & Calkins, 1990).

2. Review of literature.

Scaffolding is the fortification the expert gives to the apprentice, or the teacher plans for the student, for tackling the task at hand. Scaffolding adapted to the level of the learner in both cases ensures success at a task the child cannot do on his or her own. The amount of scaffolding needed and provided decreases as the skill level of the learner increases. The teacher thus follows a moving ZPD. Ultimately, the scaffolding structure becomes internalized, enabling independent accomplishment of the skill by the learner. For a learner at a given level of skill, a greater scaffold is provided as a task difficulty increases (Richard, & Schamidt, 2002).

Exploration has demonstrated that higher level of guidance has a greater effect on scaffolded learning. But it is not a guarantee of more learning. The efficacy of a higher amount of guidance is dependent on the level of detail and guidance applicability. Having multiple types of guidance (i.e. worked examples, feedback) can cause them to interact and reinforce each other (Vygotsky,1978).

Brown (2009) stated that an operative position could be best done in the leaner's ZPD in the form of scaffolding. His study showed that collaborative learning would be the key for advanced learner's activities through content- based instruction, which would correspond very well to task- based language instruction.

Applebee and Langer (1983) used the view of systematic scaffolding as a way to describe essential characteristic of formal instruction. They believed that learning is a process of slow internalization of schedules and procedures available to the learner from the social and cultural context in which the learning take place.

Instructional scaffolding is the condition of enough help to promote learning when concepts and skills are being first introduced to students. These help may include resources – a compelling task – and template and guides- guidance on the development of cognitive and social skills (Applebee & Langer, 1983).

Scaffolding is not just any assistance which helps a learner accomplish a task. It is help which will capable a learner to complete a task which they would not have been quite able to manage on their own, and it is help which is intended to bring the learner close to a state of competence which will enable them eventually to complete such a task on their own. (Maybin, Mercer & Stierer, 1992). Scaffolding then, can be understood as assisted accomplishment of new or difficult tasks (Applebee, 2002).

The tutor is a negotiator between the student's existing proficiency and the desired performance of the targeted language feature or task as required on a particular scale. The assistance provided during the mediation not only could identify learner's immature language features but also would promote their development (Pohener, 2005).

According to Poehner and Lantolf (2010), when the teachers provided their assistance for the purpose of diagnosing and evaluating the student's abilities and inabilities, they were called mediators. The mediation process in the learner's ZPD was known as dynamic assessment.

According to Grigorenko and Sternberg (2002), a student who was close to perform a certain language feature independently needed a few implicit hints while a weaker student needed more explicit hints. Each level of this graduation was provided only when the learner's own abilities ceased to be of help to her or him. By identifying the level of explicitness, the mediator could measure the level of maturity for abilities that were still in the making. The mediator could identify precisely which language features and information were needed for the learner to reach the desired independent performance.

Everyone conform that assessment is inherent to education, but discussion about how to improve it is prone to contention and people talking past one another. A major problem is that people don't share a language that is rich enough to discuss interpenetrating issues that arise at many levels- personal, social, educative, economic, technological, and statistical, to name a few. People who may be quite knowledgeable in their own areas of expertise draw mainly on their personal experience as students with familiar kinds of assessments (Braun & Mislevy, 2005).

Tutoring, coaching, or mediation were integrated in the assessment sequences for the purpose of obtaining better evaluation of the learner's cognitive abilities and more accurate prediction of his or her potential learning (Allal & Pelgrims Ducrey, 2000).

According to Lantolf and Poehner (2004), Dynamic Assessment not only yield a more complete picture of learners' abilities but also assist the learners to develop their L2 abilities by means of appropriate mediation or instructional intervention. DA is grounded in the concept of zone of proximal Development (ZPD), which in its simplest terms, can be understood as the difference between what learners can do independently and what they can achieve with assistance. In DA, the goal of assessment is not just to assist learners to get through a specific task but also, through mediation that is negotiated between the instructor and learners, to help the learners with their future tasks (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005).

3. Suggested implications.

This study introduced diverse implications for L2 grammar instruction and research. It was greatly basic for L2 grammar teachers to understand the nature of scaffolding methods used by the teacher. Scaffolding could have positive and helping impacts on learner's grammar development.

As a pragmatic study in the realm of English language teaching, the ongoing study has several implications for instructors in foreign of second language teaching. This study revealed that the implication of scaffolding can be effective as a technique of teaching. These finding can be helpful for the teachers who investigate the effective techniques for teaching grammar.

In Iran, most of educators think the use of scaffolding cannot replace the learner's grammar learning, but in this case of study, it showed that scaffolding has a significant effect on learning grammar. Therefore, it should be noted that they can use more techniques through scaffolding for teaching grammar.

As a result of the findings it is more appropriate to use scaffolding through examples, feedback as an alternative technique to accelerate attractive atmosphere of language learning strategy. That is to say the teacher can use scaffolding on a few session in order that catch the learner's attention to learn further. If the scaffolding is applied repetitively, it will make enjoyable for them to learn. It means for promoting learner's attention and noticing, we can use diverse techniques of scaffolding.

4. Implication for the Material Developers.

A growing number of material developers and publication apply scaffolding techniques in their materials too much. It means they rely on the effectiveness of scaffolding on learning specially the aspect of learning grammar. They tend to provide face to face tutorial sessions in their books in order to facilitate the teenage learner's learning of grammar. It seems that they think scaffolding can be effective in aspect of learning grammar.

Although it is generally accept that scaffolding are beneficent for learning grammar, the finding of this study were shown that scaffolding has a significant effect on grammar learning. There is an implication for material developer in this case of study, in order to effectiveness of scaffolding on grammar learning, material developers should use implicit and explicit techniques through better procedures of teaching grammar. It is better for material developers to let instructors for using different techniques available in their course books. With respect to different techniques of grammar learning, teachers can gain from variable techniques in their teaching and apply the elements of grammar and suggest ideas for strategies in monitoring role, advising, assisting and providing comments on their conversation for the teachers according to the students' progression.

This survey may have diverse values for test developers. The basic is easier manner for them to design test and to correct the answer sheet. It means, most of the time test developers should apply scaffolding techniques in order to facilitate the test for the learners, this study prove that the use of scaffolding techniques and strategies has a significant effect on learning grammar.

The second is that test developers can design implicit and explicit test according to the learners needs and apply the elements of grammar in order to help students transfer knowledge better than hints, especially on difficult problems.

5. Conclusion.

Even though previous researchers advocated a lot to the knowledge based on teacher scaffolding topic, more researches were needed in order to find the effect of teacher scaffolding on student's grammar in a second or foreign language and to date, however, few studies had been done systematically explored and validated the effect of teacher scaffolding on student's improvement in grammar. Therefore, the present study tried to investigate to what extend teacher scaffolding behaviors might help student's grammar development in an EFL context.

The finding of this review study provided several implications for teachers, material developers, and test developers. By knowing the helpful influence of scaffolding on teaching and learning, teachers should allocate more time for using this techniques in their classes.

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Management of economic security

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Abstract.
The economic security is the balance between the defense of the economic values and the risks which treat these values. The economic values are multiple but all them are more or less related to the way and the quality of the public life.
The paper considers risks and conflicts for national economy. A simple model of choosing strategy under embargo is presented.
Key words: security, conflicts, embargo

1. Introduction.
The concept economic security is used for first time in 1971 by the Ministry of Export and Industry in Japan. It denotes the dependency of internal growth on international relations. Later the concept obtains broader distribution and sense.
The economic security is the balance between the defense of the economic values and the risks which treat these values. The economic values are multiple but all them are more or less related to the way and the quality of the public life.
From national point of view the economic security is internal and external.
The external economic security presents the dependence of the economic growth of the country on the international relations.
Initial condition for the security is the adaptation of the national economy to the system of world trade. This means to guarantee stable supply of needed quantity of commodities, materials, goods and services.
Other important condition is the maintenance of the trade positions of the country in the global trade. These positions should guarantee the necessary financial revenues. Clear indicator for achieving this condition is the sustainable and positive trade balance of the country. This means there are no major dependencies from the trade partners.
Third condition for external economic security is the guaranty of trade and logistic connections – freedom of the transportation of goods, services, people and capital.
Forth condition for internal economic security is the maintenance of reserves of key commodities, materials and products needed for functioning of the economy in conditions of crisis. Common practice in developed countries is to maintain basic reserves for 160 days and reserves of strategic commodities and materials for several years ahead.
Internal economic security denotes the dependence of the economic growth on internal disturbing factors.
Key issue of the internal security is the maintenance of sustainable growth of the economy, which means growth with social and ecological concern, leading to increase in the nation's welfare. Growth means increase of GDP. Increase in savings, increase of the accrued capital and improvement of quality of life.
Second important condition for internal economic security is the achievement of full employment in order to use human resources in full capacity.
Third important condition for internal economic security is stable level of prices and inflation control.
External as well as internal economic security are dependent on quality of the management of the national resources in an environment of continuous treats and disturbs.
The paper considers risks and conflicts for national economy. A simple model of choosing strategy under embargo is presented.

2. Risks, crises and conflicts in the economy.
The risks for the economic security are potential treats for the economic system which may cause economic crisis. Every treat is related to a specific agent initiating it. The agent can be a person, organization or institution.
The negative impact may be on the status or on the development of the economic system. Blocking a desired change is sometimes more dangerous than disturbing usual stationary economic process.
The treats can be short- or long-term depending on their duration. They are internal or external depending on that which kind of security – internal or external is affected.
Internal treats can be treats for the growth (for GDP, for savings, for capital, for wellbeing), treats for the employment and treats for price level stability. External treats are treats for the import, for the export, for the deliveries or for the reserves.

The countries in the today's world have two main options – to maintain mainly open or mainly closed economy. The opening of the national economy is a major challenge for a nation in our time. The main reason is because it brings external dependence, instability and uncertainty. The economic environment becomes a field for competition. Fail in this competition can lead to worsening of the life quality, uncertainty and economic destruction. The opening is condition for adaptation, not for stability. The rate of opening should comply with the rate of performance of economic reforms and should stimulate them.

The realized economic risks are denoted as crises. The factors generating an economic crisis can be internal (in the frames of the economic system) and external (scientific disclosures, disclosure of new resources, natural hazards, political factors). The crises are often related to conflicts. Conflicts are characterized with different kind of participants. The participants can form coalitions. Both participants and coalitions take decisions about their future actions called strategies. The choice of strategies determine the outcome of the conflict. The participants have different preferences and interests. Preferences are often measured by gain or loss.

The solving of this conflict model is subject of game theory. Game theory deals with taking finding optima solutions in conditions of certainty, risk or uncertainty. Certainty means that the outcomes and probabilities of their occurrence are known. At risk, the outcomes are known but the probabilities of their occurrence are not known. At uncertainty, both outcomes and probabilities are not known.

In case of severe internal and external conflicts the heuristic analysis is very useful.

Economic conflict usually takes softer forms than political and military ones. But often the economic conflict can rise political one and the political conflict in its turn can generate military conflict. According to Du Montsel (1981), there are two main types of economic conflicts: conflict related to control and conflict related to relations.

The conflicts related to control are based on the property and use of resources: territory (with people and natural resources attached to them), technologies, information, communication and transport channels and others.

The conflicts based on relations deal with the conditions of economic exchange between countries. Main types of conflicts based on relations are: conditions of foreign exchange, customs and non-customs rules, price conditions for exchange of goods, conditions for investments and credit access.

3. Types of conflicts.

Depending on their intensity the external economic conflicts can take different forms: boycotts, economic sanctions, and economic wars (Ivanov, 2002).

Boycotts are usually applied in relations to concerns about human rights, environment or human values. The effectiveness depends on the degree of dependence between the both sides as well as on the coordination between the countries setting the boycott.

The economic sanctions are trade and/or financial bans or penalties aiming change of the basic policy of a country. They are usually combined with diplomatic measures to attract other countries also to raise sanctions. The strength of the sanctions is highest at the beginning and decreases with time as the affected country adapts to the new situation.

The economic sanctions can be strategic and common embargo. The strategic embargo forbids the delivery of goods and technologies which increase the defense capacity of a country. It is not economic but political action and can lead to some losses for the applying country. It ails long-term objectives. The common embargo is a specific trade ban applied by government or other state institution which forbids the import or export of goods, technologies, currencies, financial instruments or gold. When applied in conditions of peace, it is a way of pressing the concerned country. In war time, it is a means for enforced stopping of assets at the territory of the applying country.

Legal basis for embargo is the UN establishing contract, giving right to the Security Council, in conditions of treat or aggression, to apply such measures which should lead to restoration of the peace.

Examples for embargo are:

1. Embargo on import of military technologies by China. It is applied by USA and EU since 1989.

2. Embargo for Republic of South Africa, applied by UN in 1972 with Resolution 418 of Security Council and lifted with Resolution 919 of 1994.

3. Embargo for Iran, applied by UN with Resolution 1747 of Security Council in March 2007.

4. Embargo for Argentina applied by USA since 1976. UK joins the embargo in 1982. Embargo is lifted in 1990.

5. Embargo for Indonesia applied by USA in 1999 and lifted in 2005.

The economic war is an ultimate form of economic pressure, typical for the transition period to political war. Using the economic power is a means to increase the chances for success in a potential political war. The economic war includes clear and escalating application of sanctions without presumption for return to normal trade. The objective is to damage maximally the economy of the enemy.

The economic conflicts and in particular the economic wars contain four main phases: preparatory phase, phase of stating pretentions, phase of posing conditions and phase of applying measures.

The preparatory phase includes informing of the public about the interests affected and debate on possible responses.

The second phase is stating pretentions and accuses in twisting law by the targeted country.

The third phase includes posing conditions, for example refusal of trade, if the policy of targeted country does not change.

The last phase is applying the measures. They may be penalties, de-stimulating or stimulating. The measures may have acceptable or aggressive character.

4. Strategies for guaranteeing the economic security.

There are two main strategies for guaranteeing the economic security.

The first one is strategy of opening and adaptation. It is typical for liberalism. Open economy is highly involved in international trade. Export or import can surpass 60% of GDP. This strategy leads to maximal use of comparative advantages of a country but also to very high dependence on the international economic system.

The second strategy is the one of isolation, and resistance. It is typical for protectionism. Autarchy is isolationistic policy aiming maximal self-satisfaction and small dependence on external trade connections. It is usually applied in pre-war periods.

Criteria to choose one or another strategy are the duration of the disturbing factor and competitiveness of the economy. When disturbing factor is short-term, keeping the economic balance depends on the sustainability of the economy, i. e. by its possibility to resist to the disturbance and to restore its initial state. When the destabilizing factor is a result of long-term change of the economic environment, the ability for adaptation is a crucial factor for survival.

5. A simple quantitative model of embargo situation.

We consider a model of arms embargo at which a part Y of the import of arms of a country X can not be received due to embargo. The affected country then looks for substitution with alternative import. After this alternative import, the missing part must be ensured by conversion of civil to military production.

Let the maximum substitution rate be $0 \le s \le 1$ and the chosen substitution is $0 \le x \le s$. Let $c + \nu x Y$ be the substitution expenses where c are constant expenses related to substitution and ν is the coefficient of the variable expenses (supposed to be linear with the substitution). Let also r be the norm of expenses of conversion. Then the optimal norm of substitution x can be obtained by solving the linear optimization problem:

$$r(1-x)Y + c + \nu x Y = xY(\nu - r) + c \to \min .$$

If $\nu > r$, i. e. the coefficient of variable expenses of substitution is greater than the norm of expenses of conversion, minimum is obtained for $x = 0$, i. e. zero substitution. If $\nu < r$, i. e. the coefficient of variable expenses of substitution is less than the norm of expenses of conversion, minimum is obtained for $x = s$, i. e. zero conversion.

The comparison of the variable expenses of substitution and the norm of expenses of conversion here play a key role. Also, precise estimation of the maximal norm of substitution is important to determine the minimum.

6. Conclusion.

The choice of strategy for guaranteeing the economic security is a political issue. It depend on the readiness to sacrify part of the public wellbeing in the name of some traditional or new ideals. Most often nowadays, some intermediate choice is made by most countries – moderate protectionism with multiple trade restrictions.

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The Importance of Willingness to Communicate and Self-Esteem in Language Learning and Teaching

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Abstract. Several social, cognitive, and affective factors are seemed to be important in the second language acquisition process among which willingness to communicate (WTC) and self-esteem take a high consideration. Learners are different with regard to their attitudes toward the second language, motivation, age, and personality. They bring their personality differences to the social environments such as a classroom, a meeting, or even a family gathering. Since some of these factors such as WTC and self-esteem have much more fundamental role in entering into a communication or for beginning a relation through speech, a review of them sounds to be essential. In regard to second language contexts, WTC is described by MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, and Noels (1998) as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with specific person or persons using an L2" (p. 547), while self-esteem stresses the learners' beliefs about his/her capabilities and attributes. The purpose of this study is to review the importance of WTC and self-esteem. The study can shed light on the significance of these two factors.

Key words: Willingness to communicate, Self-esteem.

1. Introduction.

The second language acquisition process may get influenced by numerous social, cognitive or effective factors. In EFL classrooms, instructors are mostly dealing with a couple of major problems. At first they should teach and inform the students or language learners and after that, the teachers must have these learners communicate with each other due to their already learned materials through four skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Since Iranian people learn English as a foreign language, they find it much more difficult or tough work than any other way of communication .Teachers have to do lots of various treatments to encourage the students communicate or at least be eager and interested in participating and attending in class activities as well as performances. More ever, sometimes the teachers' strategies and experiences don't work and students are not motivated enough to participate in the process of communication that is although they have been getting different treatments since they started language learning classes ,there sure are other environmental as well as effective factors which differentiate some students' communicative abilities rather than others.

Numerous studies have recently attempted to explain the role of various effective factors in language proficiency among which self-esteem and willingness to communicate have, in turns, absorbed lots of consideration. Although these studies investigated different aspects of WTC or self- esteem and in some cases the effect of each on the procedure of language learning, there are still niches in the literature to be occupied by other researchers. The review of the literature indicates that the relationship between EFL learners' WTC and self-esteem of participants in different classroom task types were not investigated enough yet, and the present study attempts to fill this gap in the literature.

This study is of significance since, to the researcher's knowledge no previous study has specifically probed into the relationship between these two psychological factors. The present study can shed light on the factors that might affect the amount of learners' talk in foreign language speaking classes. The present study benefits both researchers and language practitioners. The results of this study can highlight the relationship between a state variable (WTC), and another trait-like variable (self-esteem). This can inform them, partially, about how to predict EFL learners' WTC based on their more enduring traits. Furthermore, the findings of this study can help language teachers pinpoint those students who might speak less in conditions when they are not called upon and scaffold them in speaking courses.

2. Litrature Review.

MacIntyre et al. (1998) conceptualized WTC in L2 in a theoretical model in which social and individual context, affective cognitive context, motivational propensities, situated antecedents, and behavioral intention are interrelated in influencing WTC in second language acquisition. Some researchers have argued that a fundamental goal of second language education should be the creation of WTC in the language learning process. It is also suggested that higher WTC among learners leads to increased opportunity for practice in L2 and authentic L2 usage (MacIntyre et al., 2003). In the communicative classroom, conscientious language teachers want motivated students who demonstrate a willingness to communicate in the L2.

A lack of willingness inhibits effective interaction and language production. Recent technological advances have changed the classroom so that interaction has come to mean not only spoken interaction but electronic interaction as well. Focusing on the classroom context, MacIntyre et al. (2001) measured L2 WTC in the four skill areas of speaking, reading, writing, and listening both inside and outside the classroom. social context model does not deal with L2 usage, but describes the interrelations among interethnic contact, L2

confidence,L2 competence, and L2 identity, as Within the pyramid model of WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998), social situation refers not only to the physical location of interaction but also other elements of the interaction, including the participants in the social exchange, A situation in which social acceptance is one of the most salient motives for adolescents. It seems that the students' ability to feel secure in the relationship with the other person is a major concern and a key influence on WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

3. Individual Differences and WTC.

One of the ID variables which has recently been introduced in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research is willingness to communicate (WTC). MacIntyre, Baker, Clement and Donovan (2003) defined WTC as "…the predisposition toward or away from communicating, given the choice" (p.538). Supposing that many factors influence a person's willingness to communicate, such as fear of speaking, lack of self-esteem and the issue of introversion and extroversion, the importance of evaluating the degree of the effect of WTC in success in SLA becomes clear. In order to estimate the level of WTC in communicating in second language (L2), it is necessary to identify the people's reactions to speaking situations. When presented with an opportunity to use their L2, some people choose to speak up and others choose to remain silent. WTC represents the psychological preparedness to use the L2 when the opportunity arises (MacIntyre, 2007). It is assumed that the degree of WTC is a factor in learning a second language and the ability to communicate in that language. The higher WTC a speaker has the more likely he is to succeed in second language (L2) acquisition. High WTC is associated with increased frequency and amount of communication. The choice to speak or to remain silent seems to be a factor in the success of a second language learner. When the opportunity to use the L2 arises, it is not unusual to be 'of two minds'; one mind wishes to approach the opportunity and the other wishes to withdraw from it (MacIntyre & MacKinnon, 2007). So if one can determine the contributing factors in the learners' choice of the first alternative: i.e. to approach the use of the L2, one has in fact created a successful learning situation. According to MacIntyre (2007), both individual factors (anxiety, motivation, attitudes, interpersonal attraction, etc.) and social contextual factors (ethno linguistic vitality, language contact, etc.) can enhance or reduce WTC. These factors interact at the moment a person chooses to speak in L2. WTC model of communication as a new trend of the study of second language acquisition (SLA) has brought about a lot of controversy in the field (MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, Conrod, 2001; Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre, 1994; MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Donovan, 2002; Yashima, 2002). If one takes it for granted that WTC plays an important role in L2 acquisition, we have to go a step further and determine the factors that contribute to the enhancement of it. One of these factors is the learner's motivation. It has been recognized that students' motivation is directly(Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, Donovan, 2002; Yashima, 2002; Baker, MacIntyre, 2000) or indirectly related to their WTC. However, Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) viewed L2 WTC as an extension of the motivation construct. Therefore the relationship between the two concepts becomes an important issue to the extent that a path has been perceived between L2 WTC and motivation. MacIntyre and Charos (1996) inferred a path leading from L2 WTC to motivation. The other way around was proposed by Yashima (2002). He hypothesized a direct path from motivation to L2 WTC, based on MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) WTC model. The other important contributing factor to the enhancement of WTC is the learner's attitude. It has been suggested that, if a person has a positive attitude toward learning the second language, they may be more willing to use it in the future (McIntyre & Charos, 1996).Studies have illustrated a direct and/or indirect relationship between WTC and attitude. While Yashima (2002) indicated a direct relation between students' WTC and their attitude toward international community in the EFL (English as a Foreign language) context, in the ESL (English as a Second Language) context, Clement et al. (2003) showed an indirect relation through linguistic self- confidence between WTC and attitude toward the other language group. Some studies have focused on the role of personality traits on the degree of WTC. MacIntyre et al. (1999) have illustrated that personality traits of introversion/extraversion and emotional stability are related to WTC through communication apprehension and perceived language competence. Similarly, MacIntyre and Charos (1996) have demonstrated that while personality traits of intellect, extraversion, emotional stability, and conscientiousness are related to WTC through perceived language competence, communication apprehension, and motivation, the personality trait of agreeableness is directly related to WTC. However, McCroskey and Richmond (1990) treated WTC as a personality trait and defined it as variability in talking behavior. They argued that even though situational variables might affect one's willingness to communicate, individuals display similar WTC tendencies in various situations. Moreover, they identified introversion, self-esteem, communication competence, communication apprehension and cultural diversity as antecedents that lead to differences in WTC. Therefore, the study of the contributing factors in WTC leads to a sort of integrative motivation which includes all of the factors in a unified whole. MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, and Noels (1998) developed a comprehensive model of willingness to communicate in L2. They integrated linguistic, communicative and social psychological variables to explain one's WTC in her second language. WTC as "the probability of engaging in communication when free to choose to do so" (p. 546). However, MacIntyre et al. (1998) did not treat WTC in L2 as a personality trait but as a situational variable that has both transient and enduring influences. Moreover, they theorized that WTC influence not only speaking mode but also listening, writing and reading modes. Consequently, the study of the role of WTC in L2 learning

necessitates a close examination of it in the real language use environment. Hashimoto (2002) conducted a study with Japanese ESL students to investigate the effects of WTC and motivation on actual L2 use. Another controversy is the investigation of the components which are more important in WTC in L2 learning. In their WTC in L2 model, MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, and Noels (1998) proposed that personality has an influence on one's willingness to communicate in second/foreign language. Similarly, MacIntyre et al. (1998) maintained that certain personality types may predict one's reaction to a member of second/foreign language group. MacIntyre et al. (1998) hypothesized that authoritarian personality types would not be willing to communicate with a member of an ethnic group who is believed to be inferior. Similarly, they argue that an ethnocentric person, who believes that her ethnic group is superior to other ethnic groups, would not be willing to communicate in a foreign language. These factors help explain why some learners who achieve high levels of L2 linguistic competence remain reticent L2 speakers, as well as those with limited competence who speak incessantly. Theoretically, levels of anxiety and perceived competence coalesce to create a state of L2 self-confidence that, when combined with the desire to speak to a particular person result in WTC in a given situation (Maclntyre et a1., 1998). Clement (1986) considers L2 self-confidence to be a motivational process, one that links WTC to a broad literature on motivation. Therefore, WTC is a composite ID variable that draws together a host of learner variables that have been well established as influences on second language acquisition and use, resulting in a construct in which psychological and linguistic factors are integrated in an organic manner (Dörnyei, 2005).

Arnold (1999) and many other researchers refer to the importance of affect in the language classroom. Language learning is an anxiety-provoking experience for many students (Muchnick & Wolfe 1982; Horwitz et al. 1986; MacIntyre and Gardner 1991; Rubio 2004). As Horwitz et al. (1991, 31) note, "The importance of the disparity between the "true" self as known to the language learner and the more limited self as can be presented at any given moment in the foreign language would seem to distinguish foreign language anxiety from other academic anxieties such as those associated with mathematics or science. Probably no other field of study implicates self-concept and self expression to the degree that language study does."

Generally speaking, self-esteem is one of the central drives in human beings. When the level of self-esteem is low, the psychological homeostasis is unbalanced, creating insecurity, fear, social distance and other negative situations. Self-esteem can exercise a determining influence on a person's life, for good or bad; when there is very low self-esteem, this may even bring about a need for clinical treatment. However, though in the context of language learning low self-esteem is a non-clinical phenomenon, it can have serious consequences. Students may avoid taking the necessary risks to acquire communicative competence in the target language; they may feel deeply insecure and even drop out of the class. Taking these effects into consideration, in the language classroom it is important to be concerned about learners' self-esteem. However, this implies more than doing occasional activities to make students reflect about their worthiness and competence. As a first step, teachers themselves need to be aware of their own self-esteem, to understand what self-esteem is, what are the sources and components, and how applications can be implemented in the language classroom. This implementation should be based on a valid framework. In this book, many authors have adopted Reasoner's model (1982), which comprises security, identity, belonging, purpose and competence as the main components of self-esteem. Applications of a self-esteem model should be pre-planned in the teaching units and integrated within the foreign language curriculum.

4. Conclusion.

Due to the above mentioned investigations, the relationship between the participants' WTC and self-esteem was significant. The components of WTC were also significantly correlated with the participants' self-esteem, however the participants' self-esteem level in most studies was not correlated with the amount of participation in pair activities, although, their self-esteem level was significantly correlated with the amount of the participants' participation in group and whole class activities.

To sum up, the results of mentioned studies indicated that willingness to communicate was significantly correlated with self-esteem. It was also found that WTC has significant relationship with EFL learners' self-esteem. The level of self-esteem was also found to affect the amount of learners' participation in pair-, group, and whole class activities. With regard to pedagogical implication, it can be concluded that pair-work activities should be included whenever possible since all students with different levels of self-esteem participate in these activities without major problems. This can lead to the provision of participation opportunities for all learners. However, group work and whole class activities should not be ostracized from the syllabus since these activities are usually samples of authentic situations, and the students should be encouraged to participate in different types of activities to become prepared for real life conditions.

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