A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN REFLECTIVE TEACHING, AND OVERALL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY OF IRANIAN LEARNERS

Mohammad Zohrabi

Department of English Language and Literature

Maryam Yousefi

Aras International Campus,
University of Tabriz, Tabriz, Iran

Abstract: *This study sought to explore the effect of reflective teaching on the proficiency level of the male Iranian EFL intermediate learners. To address the objectives of the study a correlational and a quasi-experimental design were adopted. As for the correlational phase of the study, initially some twenty teachers and some two hundred forty EFL advanced learners were identified. Then the questionnaires were distributed among them. The reflective teaching questionnaire was distributed among the teachers and the WTC along with the intrinsic motivation questionnaires were given to the learners to be filled out. In order to obtain the proficiency scores of the participants, a TOEFL was administered to the two hundred forty advanced learners. As for the experimental phase of the study, initially, two teachers, a reflective teacher and a non-reflective teacher, were selected based on the results of reflective teaching questionnaire. Following that, sixty participants who had been chosen based on the normal curve and standard deviation were divided randomly into two groups i.e. an experimental and a control group. The experimental group was taught by the reflective teacher. During this class, the teacher drew upon the principles of reflective teaching offered by Kumaravadivelu (2006). The control group was taught by the unreflective teacher. No tangible reflective actions were adopted by the teacher in this group. Finally, both groups sat for the PET exam the results of which were used to explore the impact of reflective teaching on the proficiency level of the participants. It was revealed that reflective teaching had a positive effect on the proficiency level of the participants.*

Key Words: *reflective teaching, overall language proficiency*

Introduction

Reflective teaching is an outstanding model in teacher education which has been taken into account by teachers and researchers in foreign and second language teacher education. As it is stressed in reflective teaching model, to enhance the teaching and learning of a language in EFL settings, it could be useful to think of the idea of the teacher as a learner and a professional. Canning (1991) asserts that by reflecting on their teaching, teachers are engaged in an interpersonal experience the outcome of which is insight about themselves as actors in the world.

Being reflective in a broad sense means being able to focus on our own professional behavior and practice for the purpose of improving and developing our efficacy (Clarke & Croft, 1998). The following research questions are studied in this research:

RQ1: Is there any significant relationship between reflective teaching and overall language proficiency?

H0: There is no significant relationship between reflective teaching and overall language proficiency.

AH: There is a significant relationship between reflective teaching and overall language proficiency.

RQ2: Does reflective teaching have any significant effect on the proficiency level of the participants?

H0: Reflective teaching does not have a significant effect on the proficiency level of the participants.

AH: Reflective teaching has a significant effect on the proficiency level of the participants.

Review of the Related Literature

Language proficiency

Language proficiency or linguistic proficiency is the ability of an individual to speak or perform in an acquired language. As theories vary among teachers as to what constitutes proficiency, there is little consistency as to how different organizations classify it. Moreover, fluency and language competence are generally known to be connected, but separate controversial subjects. In predominant frameworks in the United States, proficient speakers show both accuracy and fluency, and use various discourse strategies. So, native speakers of a language can be fluent and yet need not be considered proficient. Criper and Dodd (1984) conducted a research to evaluate the language proficiency of Tanzanian learners at all levels trying to see whether the level they have would facilitate learning in the medium of English. They discovered that the level of ELP among most Tanzanian students was extremely low so much that it hampered learning at a disturbing rate. In the primary level, they discovered that students get less input of English. In effect, only what they hear from their teachers in class. More importantly, they found that in primary schools teachers frequently put the emphasis on grammar and have pupils do written exercises on it; oral exercises were missing and teachers stressed on reading aloud tasks. In addition, they discovered that majority of the students enter secondary schools with low level of ELP which as a result there was not much improvement in English during four years of study. Consequently, the majority of secondary school students were not able to follow instruction in English. Hence, teachers of other subjects had to teach in Kiswahili and handing out notes in English.

At the university level too, they found out that the pupils have low language proficiency as a result of which many universities in the country had to establish a special department, the Communication Skills Unit, whose job is to train study skills and remedial English to students with low language proficiency. In general, they discovered that the level of ELP was low in all levels. As a result, they recommended serious actions to be taken to enhance ELP among the students in Tanzania. Later, in 2002, Dooey and Oliver studied the predictive validity of the IELTS test as an indicator of future academic success. Their study aimed to investigate the degree of accuracy of IELTS as a predictor of performance and success in the school of business, science and Engineering. In doing this, a small scale quantitative study was undertaken among first year undergraduate students from diverse non- English speaking background and who were admitted based of their IELTS scores. The results showed little indication of the validity of IELTS as a predictor for academic success, supporting previous research conclusions that suggest language is only one of the several important contributing factors.

Components of language proficiency

Since language proficiency is one of the main variables of the current study the main components of this construct including vocabulary and grammar are discussed in the following sections.

The importance of vocabulary in ELT

Learning lexical items plays an important part in acquiring both a first and second language. It is, therefore, understandable that the words serve as the building blocks upon which the second language learning is built. Up until early 80s, vocabulary acquisition was called "a neglected aspect of language learning" (Meara, 1980, p. 221). But then in early 80s, research in vocabulary learning and teaching attracted the interest among researchers in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Vocabulary also until recently had been mostly overlooked in the ESL/EFL classroom. Maiguashca (1993) reminded that "teaching or studying grammar is based on a set of rules with a coherent structure which students follow or remember, but the same is not true of vocabulary" (cited in Mehring, 2005, p. 3). According to Rodriguez and Sadoski (2000, p. 386), there are excellent reasons for paying attention to vocabulary. A "practical reason" is significance of vocabulary items in learning of a language. On the "theoretical level", the research on how learners acquire lexical items can give us some insights on language acquisition. In historical perspective, vocabulary teaching and learning were mostly specific to second language programs, but recently there has been lots of attention on the nature of vocabulary and its contributions to learning and teaching (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

While vocabulary plays a key role in communication, the importance of vocabulary teaching and learning is becoming more obvious. The research results have demonstrated that lexical problems frequently interfere with communication. In fact it is possible to say that,

communication breaks down when speakers do not use the appropriate words (Allen, 1983). Moreover, previous research on lexical acquisition showed that vocabulary learning is "the first step in the acquisition process and continues throughout the lifespan" (Mervis, 1983, p. 210). As Chomsky (1965) claims, the acquisition of syntax and grammatical rules come, at a later stage, around the age of puberty or thereabouts. Nevertheless, lexical acquisition has attracted far less research attention than syntactic acquisition, both in second language studies or in foreign language research (Erten & Tekin, 2008; Bruton, 2007; Yates & Kenkel, 2002; Prince, 1996). Although the research base is presently being imported into literature on vocabulary learning is developing substantially, "much of it has been slow to filter into mainstream pedagogy" (Schmitt, 2008, p. 330). Moreover, some scholars demonstrated that the use of dictionaries as a pedagogical tool in vocabulary or translation classes can potentially lead to incidental vocabulary acquisition, such as the retention of words that have been picked up during listening and reading activities (Hummel, 2010; Macizo & Bajo, 2006; Bruton, 2007).

Bruton (2007, p. 355) points out that "the use of dictionaries and glossaries is very much the focus of interest, as is the incidental learning of vocabulary as a by-product of processing texts for the message". Furthermore, teachers and students of translation theoretically agree that "the main purpose of a dictionary is to prevent or at least reduce communication conflicts which may arise from lexical deficit" (Burns, 1987, p. 21). Allen (1983, p. 5) stressed that "lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words". This underscores the significance of vocabulary in classroom teaching, since without vocabulary, it is hard to communicate. Yet, at that time priority to teaching was given to the notional and functional aspects of language, on the belief that it helps students to accomplish communicative competence directly, as a result the teaching of vocabulary was much less directly emphasized in many ELT classrooms. But because of the existing Trends of Vocabulary Teaching and Learning Strategies for EFL Settings, some attention was given to the value of integrating it in a general framework of foreign language teaching (Ostyn & Godin, 1985). At that time only a handful of well-known teaching handbooks were dedicated to vocabulary teaching in language classrooms, like Wallace (1982) and Allen (1983). However, only some of their teaching recommendations were centered on theories or research outcomes.

Books written specifically about practical approaches to vocabulary teaching proceed without the necessary recognition of problems in vocabulary acquisition. During the later1980s, vocabulary became a field that had attracted researchers' interest within the mainstream of L2 acquisition (Nation, 1997). Scholars came to understand that many of students' difficulties, both receptively and productively, are to do with an insufficient vocabulary, and even those who are at higher levels of language competence and performance, still find it necessary to learn vocabulary (Laufer 1986; Nation 1990). One consequence of research regarding the significance of vocabulary is that "lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence" (Meara, 1996, p. 35), and could be a "prediction of school success" (Verhallen & Schoonen 1998, p. 452).

Latest studies draw attention to the value of the study of second language (L2) vocabulary learning. For example, Gass and Selinker (2001, p. 372) discovered that: first, lexical errors, meaning vocabulary errors, represent most L2 errors and second, both learners and native speakers believe of lexical errors as the most critical and disruptive hindrance to communication. However, investigation in foreign language vocabulary teaching and learning is still inadequate (Bruton, 2007). The significance of vocabulary learning is to do with the need to convey one's thoughts in a foreign language. Currently, vocabulary acquisition is one of the main aspects of students' attention when it comes to language learning. They stress the necessity to learn vocabulary through various exercises: reading, repetition, using words in context, conversations and, most certainly, translations. Much study has recently been undertaken into the effectiveness of vocabulary teaching and learning by the means of a variety of activities or tasks. Lee and Muncie (2006) demonstrated that a post-reading writing task helped ESL students improve the effective use of higher-level target vocabulary. Newton (1995) showed that students learned vocabulary more effectively when involving in communicative tasks that required interactions than when dealing with word meanings explicitly. Wesche and Paribakht (2000) showed that students learned vocabulary more effectively when their learning combined doing text-based vocabulary exercises and reading a text in comparison with when they read a number of texts without exercises, because in the former case, they could learn the target words simultaneously with their lexical features.

Grammar and teaching

The part that grammar plays in language teaching has been subject to fluctuations during the history of linguistics in general and particularly in language teaching with disparities in opinions as complete focus on the grammatical structures to the total neglect of the part played by grammar in language learning. At the one end of the continuum stands the formal view of grammar and at the other end the functional role that it is believed to have.

Formal grammar

As Stern (1991) believes, in the beginning of the twentieth century, grammar teaching formed a fundamental part of language instruction, to the extent that other aspects of language learning were either totally neglected or considered unimportant. According to Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 145), "The argument was that if you knew the grammatical rules of the language, you would be able to use it for communication." This type of grammar came to be known as formal grammar as it put focus on grammatical forms and structures. In the words of Larsen-Freeman (cited in Carter & Nunan, 2002, p. 34)

> The prevailing formal grammar in the USA in the mid-twentieth century was
> descriptive or structuralism. Structural linguists based their work on the

assumption that grammatical categories should not be established in terms of meaning, but rather in terms of the distribution of structures in sentences.

Along the same lines, linguistics focused on formal structures of various languages, providing lists of grammatical structures making up a language. As Stern (1991, p.131) maintains, "Linguists gave attention increasingly to the second theme, grammar, which proved to be one of the most productive and most controversial areas of linguistics analysis". However, this attitude to grammar was strongly challenged, following the exuberance of many studies conducted on how children come to acquire their language in 1970s (Larsen Freeman, 2001). A clear challenge to conception of grammar was raised by Chomsky (1959, 1965) which seems to lay the foundation for another school of thought concerning the nature of grammar.

Functional grammar

This type of grammar as the names speaks for itself deals with different functions a language grammar serves. This was given attention as different social and cultural roles of language in the society caught the attention of both language researchers and linguists. Functional grammarian takes a different approach to grammar. Elaborating on the functionalists' views of language, Dik (1991, p. 247) maintains:

> The language system is not considered as an autonomous set of rules and principles, the uses of which can only be considered in a secondary phase; rather it is assumed that the rules and principles composing the language system can only be adequately understood when they are analyzed in terms of the conditions of use. In this sense, the study of language use precedes the study of formal and semantic properties of linguistic expressions.

To the functional grammarian, meaning plays a key role, that is, grammar is a resource for creating and exchanging meaning. In Halliday's systemic-functional theory, there are three types of meaning in grammatical structure: experiential meaning (the way our experiences and inner thoughts are conveyed), interpersonal meaning (the way we interact with other people through language) and textual meaning (the way coherence is formed in verbal communication and written texts).

Integration of formal and functional grammar

"In the last 10 years, however, theoretical perspectives on language teaching and learning have changed dramatically. New perspectives advocate a principled, form-focused approach to L2 learning, arguing that totally message based approach is inadequate for the development of an accurate knowledge of language" (Nassaji, 2000, p. 242). Barnes (1988) also believes that,

although teaching in classrooms should be based on true life situations and day-to-day communications teachers must not lose the needed focus on theoretical and formal knowledge, for in fact learners need both analyzing and acting together. Skehan (1996) stated that when we consider communicating fluently and accurately as major aims of teaching a second language, we must note that accuracy is the result of on focus, therefore the results should be enhanced if learners focus on form while they are communicating in real life situation. Sysoyev (1999) also supported this idea that the integration of two approaches will lead to highest effectiveness of the learning. An interesting way of integrating communication with focusing on form is using collaborative tasks and thus getting learners involved in deliberate and corporative comprehension and production of the language (Nassaji, 2000).

Grammar in language education

The two approaches to grammar mentioned above, namely formal and functional ones are reflected in language education. The former is the structural approach (Widowson, 1990), which focuses on practicing grammatical structures and lexical patterns until they are internalized. The means used for this purpose are pattern practice and structural drills. According to Larsen Freeman (2001, p. 36), "Partly due to the influence of transformational grammar, materials in the 1970s featured sentence-based linguistic rules with exercises asking students to transform sentence patterns into one another".

Fading role of grammar in1970s' language classes

Numerous studies on how first language is acquired supported the view that learning a language is not fulfilled by learning lists of grammatical structures. Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar posited the existence of a deep structure that determined the semantic interpretation of a sentence and a surface structure that realized the phonetic form of sentences. Drawing on Chomsky's new insights, language teachers avoided a focus on grammar in the classes. Raising the same point, Neupane (2009, p. 111) says: "There are people who claim that grammar teaching is not necessary because its teaching does not help in the acquisition of the language". Krashen and Terrell (1983 p. 144) support this view when they say; "we prefer to avoid oral grammar instruction in classroom simply because they take time away from acquisition activities". On the other hand, grammar even further lost its momentum in language classes due to the advent of communicative language teaching (CLT) and task-based approach to language teaching. The rise of CLT contributed a lot to putting grammar-based instruction in the margin. According to Bardakci (2014, p. 2),

> Focus-on-meaning, on the other hand, which was informed by Krashen and Terrell's (1983) Natural Approach to second language (L2) acquisition, completely refuses any direct instruction on grammar, explicit error correction, or even consciousness- rising, as L2 is claimed to be naturally acquired

through adequate exposure to language or "comprehensible input". According to this view, explicit knowledge about language and error correction is unnecessary and even harmful as it may interfere with the natural acquisition process in which learners would subconsciously analyze the forms and eventually deduce the rules from the language input themselves.

Correspondingly, Grammatical syllabuses were succeeded by communicative ones based on functions or tasks, grammar-based methodologies such as the Presentation-Practice-Production (P-P-P) lesson format underlying the Situational Approach was replaced by function- and skill-based teaching, and accuracy activities such as drills and grammar practice gave way to fluency activities based on interactive small-group work. The differences between traditional grammar-focused activities and communicative task work can be summarized as follows (Skehen, 1996, cited in Richrads & Renandya, p. 154):

Grammar-focused activities
Reflect typical classroom use of language.
Focus on the form of correct examples of language.
Produce language for display.
Call on explicit knowledge
Elicit a careful speech style.
Reflect speech style and controlled performance.
Practice language out of context.
Practice small samples of language.
Do not require authentic communication.
Task-based activities
Reflect natural language use.
Call on implicit knowledge.
Elicit a vernacular style.
Reflect automatic performance.
Require the use of improving, paragraphing, repairing and reorganization.
Produce language that is not always predictable.
Allow students to select the language they use.
Require real communication.

However, both form-based and meaning based teaching of grammar drew some criticisms as they were believed to have not effective contributions to learning a language per se. As Uysal (2014, p. 2) points out:

> Both focus-on-forms and pure focus-on-meaning have been subject to serious criticism (Long, 1991, 2000). Focus-on-forms has been criticized for being

teacher-centered, artificial, boring, and for not allowing meaningful communication and interaction, which are essential to language acquisition (Long, 2000). Focus-on meaning also has been called into question based on the empirical evidence that mere exposure to a flood of language input with no attention to grammar or error correction results in fossilization and poor L2 grammar in language production (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Higgs & Clifford, 1982).

The Study

The study sought to explore the effect of reflective teaching on the proficiency level of the participants.

Design of the study

This study is a quasi-experimental research. The study aims to examine the effect of reflective teaching on the proficiency level of the participants. To this end, treatment is carried out. Therefore, reflective teaching is the independent variable and language proficiency is the dependent variable.

Participants

The teachers were chosen randomly from among 60 teachers teaching at different institutes in Tehran. There were 11 male and 9 female teachers. Since experience is an important factor in reflective teaching care was taken to select those teachers who had between 2 to 4 years of teaching experience. The age range of these teachers was from 22 to 34.

Some 240 advanced learners of English were the second group of participants in this study. They were all male learners and were chosen randomly from among 625 advanced learners studying at different English institutes in Tehran. Their age ranged from18 to 32.

Some sixty intermediate learners of English participated in the experimental part of the study. Initially, the number of participants were 90 male students studying at Intermediate level at a language school in Tehran. These subjects were studying in 6 classes which were chosen randomly from among 12 such classes. The range of their age was between 16 and 30. All of the participants were studying English at intermediate proficiency level. They were mainly high school and university students studying English for the purposes of finding better jobs or pursuing their studies abroad.

Instruments

Preliminary English Test (PET)

A proficiency PET was administered at the experimental phase of the study to the intermediate participants of the study to make sure that they were homogenous in terms of their overall

language proficiency at the outset of the study. Preliminary English Test (PET), the Cambridge Preliminary English Test, or PET for short, is a qualification in English as a Foreign Language awarded by Cambridge ESOL. The test has these sections:

a- Reading and writing are taken together: 90 minutes

b- Listening: 30 minutes

c- Speaking and interview: 10 minutes

The test was administrated to the initial 90 participants. Next, those learners whose scores fell between the range of one standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen for the purposes of the study. That is, only the participants whose score fell under the normal curve were selected. Finally, 60 participants were chosen using this method.

Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL)

A Longman TOFEL language proficiency test (Philips, 2003) was administered to 240 advance participants of the study. The TOEFL test contained the following sections:

a- Structure and Written Expression (40 questions, 25 minutes)

b- Reading Comprehension (50 questions, 55 minutes)

Results

Testing the first hypotheses
The third hypothesis of the present study as there is no significant relationship between reflective teaching and overall language proficiency was examined by running Pearson correlation coefficient on the scores of the TOEFL test and the reflective teaching scores. Table 4.5 demonstrates the results of this analysis.

Table 1 Pearson Correlation Coefficient: results of the reflective teaching and language proficiency scores

		Reflective Teaching Scores
Reflective Teaching Scores	Pearson Correlation	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	20
TOEFL Scores	Pearson Correlation	.494*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027
	N	240

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

As Table 4.5 indicates, there is a positive and significant relationship between TOEFL scores and reflective teaching (r = .494, p = .027 < .05). Consequently, the third null hypothesis formed for the purpose of this study was rejected, too.

Testing the second hypotheses

In order to be able to test the fourth null hypothesis of this study as reflective teaching does not have any effect on the proficiency level of the intermediate participants, it deemed necessary to homogenize the participants in terms of overall language proficiency. As mentioned earlier to homogenize the participants of the study with respect to overall language proficiency PET was given to the 90 initial subjects selected randomly from a larger pool. Table 4.6 and figure 4.1 display descriptive statistics and the histogram of the participants' PET scores, respectively.

Table 2 descriptive statistics of the original 90 intermediate participants' PET scores

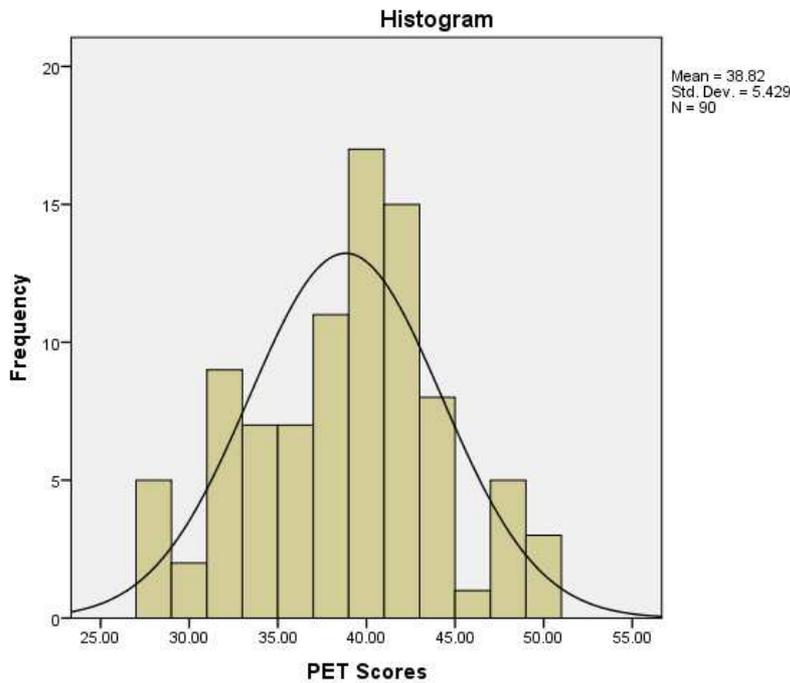|	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PET Scores	90	28.00	50.00	38.82	5.429
Valid N (list wise)	90				

Figure 1 Histogram of the original 90 intermediate participants' pet scores

As it can be noticed the mean score is 38.82 and the standard deviation is 5.429. Drawing on this data, the researcher excluded the participants whose scores fell beyond one standard deviation above and below the mean leading to the selection of 60 homogeneous participants for the purposes of this study. Following that, the participants were randomly divided to an experimental and a control group. Next, in order to assure that these two groups were not significantly different in terms of language proficiency an Independent samples T-test was run on the PET scores of the two groups. Tables 4.7 and 4.8 show the descriptive statistics and independent samples T-test results of the PET scores related to the control and experimental groups, respectively.

Table 3 Descriptive statistics of the control and experimental groups' PET scores before treatment

	PET Groups Control Experimental	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PET Control Experimental	Control Group PET	30	39.5667	1.50134	.27411
	Experimental Group PET	30	39.4667	.50742	.09264

Table 4 Results of Independent Samples t-test for comparing control and experimental groups' PET scores before treatment

		PET Control Experimental	
		Equal variances assumed	Equal variances not assumed
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	F	9.117	
	Sig.	.054	
t-test for Equality of Means	t	.346	.346
	df	58	35.540
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.731	.732
	Mean Difference	.10000	.10000
	Std. Error Difference	.28934	.28934
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference · Lower	-.47917	-.48707
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference · Upper	.67917	.68707

As it can be seen in Table 4.8, the level of significance is 0.731 which is higher than the confidence level of 0.05 leading to the conclusion that there is not any significant difference between the overall proficiency of the participants in the control and experimental groups prior to the treatment.

After the treatment was over, PET was administered again to the experimental and control group the results of which were drawn on to investigate the effect of the treatment on the proficiency level of the participants. Tables 4.9 and 4.10 display the descriptive statistics and T-test results of PET after the treatment.

Table 5 Descriptive statistics of the control and experimental groups' PET scores after treatment

	PET Groups Control Experimental	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PET Control Experimental	Control Group PET	30	41.2823	1.4758	.34522
	Experimental Group PET	30	45.2635	1.3232	.82526

Table 6 Results of Independent Samples t-test for comparing control and experimental groups' PET scores after treatment

		PET Control Experimental	
		Equal variances assumed	Equal variances not assumed
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	F	8.254	
	Sig.	.004	
t-test for Equality of Means	t	7.214	7.214
	df	58	36.540
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023	.023
	Mean Difference	3.9812	3.9812
	Std. Error Difference	.32251	.32248
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference — Lower	-.49857	-.48958
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference — Upper	.68584	.68589

As Table 4.10 displays, the level of significance is 0.023 which is lower than the confidence level of 0.05 leading to the conclusion that there is a significant difference between the overall proficiency of the participants in the control and experimental groups after the treatment.

Moreover, Table 4.9 indicates that the mean of the participants' scores for the experimental group is higher than that of the control group (M Experimental = 45.2635 > 41.2823 = M Control). Thus, it can be inferred that the treatment has had a positive significant impact on the participants' proficiency level. Therefore, the fourth null hypothesis of the study is rejected.

The results of data analysis shows that:

1- There is a positive and significant relationship between reflective teaching and intrinsic motivation.

2- Reflective teaching has a significant effect on the participants' proficiency test scores.

Discussion and Conclusion

The study sought to explore the effect of reflective teaching on the proficiency level of the participants. According to Choy and Oo (2012), teacher reflection can be thought of as taking necessary steps to analyze and articulate problems before taking action. This allows for more constructive action to be taken rather than implementing a quick fix (Boody, 2008). The challenge is to be able to demonstrate in action what is taught in the classroom. Many teachers fail to connect between their teaching and what they are actually practicing and vice versa (Rudd, et al. 2000). However, reflective teachers can take effective steps in due time in order to address the problems of the learners. Research consistently shows that teachers have the greatest potential to influence learners' education. Teachers can have large effects on students' achievement, as suggested by a large – scale study conducted by Kemp and Hall (1992) which found that the difference in achievement gains of students who had the most qualified teachers was greater comparing with the influences of race and parent education combined. As noted by Kemp and Hall (1992, p. 4) "the major research finding is that student achievement is related to teacher competence in teaching". Wright, Horn, and Sanders (1997) also believe that "more can be done to improve education by improving the effectiveness of teachers than by any other single factor" (p. 63). They state that the "single largest factor affecting academic growth of populations of students is differences in effectiveness of individual classroom teachers" (p. 59).

Special attention must be paid to this link between teachers and learners in countries like Iran where language learning happens mainly in formal classroom settings, and teachers, as the main source of language input to students, affect their learning directly. Second language teacher educators have begun to recognize that teachers, apart from the method or material they use, are central to understanding and improving the quality of English language teaching (Kemp & Hall, 1992). Teachers in general and language teachers in particular play a fundamental role in their learners' learning and academic achievement. Effective and efficient learning on the part of the students highly depends on teachers and the actions they take in their classes. The way teachers behave and the methodologies they exploit in their teaching, to a large extent, depend on their perceptions of effective teaching and the amount they reflect on the teaching and learning processes. One of the factors contributing to effective teaching is teacher's reflection. It also

affects the way they understand and organize instruction. Therefore, the teachers' reflection can highly influence their teaching and as a result their learners' learning.

Given the findings of the present study we are further reminded of the fact that the practice of teaching can influence the ways learners approach and view the learning process. As teachers, we need to reflect upon our practice in order to promote more effective learning on the part of ourselves and the learners. One way to do so is to adopt a reflective approach towards our teaching practice.

Teachers should receive explanations about the benefits of reflective teaching so as to be encouraged to become reflective practitioners. This can be done and supported by referring to the results of research. Giving more explanations to the teachers would make them have a better understanding of the procedures involved in reflective teaching practice.

The results of this research make both students and teachers aware of the benefits of reflective teaching.

Teacher educators can draw on the finding of this study to have more support in terms of the effectiveness of reflective teaching.

References

Ablard, K. & Lipschultz, R. (1998). Self-regulated learning in high-achieving students: Relations to advanced reasoning, achievement goals, and gender. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *90*(2), 94-101.

Adams, R. (2003). L2 output, reformulation and noticing: Implications for IL development. *Language Teaching Research, 7*(3), 347-376.

Akbari, R. (2007). Reflections on reflection: A critical appraisal of reflective practices in L2 Teacher Education. *System*, *35*(2), 192-207.

Akbari, R., Behzadpoor, F., & Dadvand, B. (2010). Development of English language teaching reflection inventory. *System, 38*(2)*,* 211-227.

Al-Issa. (2010). Training English language student teachers to become reflective teachers, *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*. *35*(1), 41-64.

Baker, J.&Westrup, H. (2003). *Essential speaking skills*: A handbook for English language teachers. London: Continuum.

Behzadpour, F. (2007). *Developing a measuring instrument for reflective teaching.* Unpublished master thesis, Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran.

Benware, C., & Deci, E. L. (1984). Quality of learning with an active versus passive motivational set. *American Educational Research Journal, 21*(4), 755–765.

Bolton, G. (2010). *Reflective practice, writing and professional development* (3rd Ed.). California: SAGE Publications.

Boody, R. M. (2008*).* Teacher reflection as teacher change, and teacher change as moral response. *Education, 128*(3), 498-506.

Boud, D., Keogh, R. & Walker, D. (1985). Promoting reflection in learning: A model. In: D. Boud, R. Keogh & D. Walker. (Eds.), *Reflection: Turning experience into learning.* (pp. 18-40). London: Kogan.

Bransford, J. D., Sherwood, R. D., & Sturdevant, T. (1987). Teaching thinking and problem solving.In J. B. Baron & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *Teaching thinking skills: Theory and practice* (pp. 120-134). New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.

Briere, E. J. (1972). Are we really measuring proficiency with our foreign language tests? In H. B. Allen & R. N. Campbell (eds.), *Teaching English as a second languages: A book of readings* (2nded.) (pp. 109-122). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Brookfield, S. (1985). Self-directed learning: A critical review of research. In S. Brookfield (Ed.). *Self-directed learning: from theory to Practice* (pp. 5-16).San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Brown, D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching.* (4th ed.). New York: Addison Wesley Longman

Brown, H. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (3rd). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Brown, H. D. (1990). M &Ms for language classrooms? Another look at motivation. In J. E. Alatis (ed.), *Georgetown University round table on language and linguistics* (pp. 383-93). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Teaching by principles.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Burns, A and Joyce, H. (1997). *Focus on speaking*. Sydney: National center for English language teaching and research.

Burns, A. (1998). Teaching speaking. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *18*(3), 102-123.

Bygate, M. (1987). *Speaking*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bygate, M. (1998). Theoretical perspectives on speaking. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*,*18*,(1), 20-42.

Canning, C. (1991). What teachers say about reflection? *Educational Leadership, 48*(6), 18-21.

Chang, H. H. (2005). *The relationship between extrinsic/intrinsic motivation and language learning strategies among college students of English in Taiwan*. Unpublished master thesis. Ming Chuan University, China.

Choy ET. al. (2012). Reflective thinking and teaching practices: a precursor for incorporating critical thinking into the classroom? *International Journal of Instruction, 10*(1), 15-19.

Clarke,R., Croft, P. (*1998*).*Critical reading for the reflective practitioner*. Butterworth Heineman, Oxford.

Clément, R. (1978). Second language proficiency and acculturation: An investigation of the effects of language status and individual characteristics. *Journal of Language & Social Psychology, 5*(2), 271-290.

Clément, R., Gardner, R. C., & Symthe, P. C. (1977). Motivational variables in second language acquisition: A study of Franco phones learning English. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science, 9*(1), 123-133.

Clément, R., Gardner, R. C., & Symthe, P. C. (1980). Social and individual factors in second language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science, 12*(2), 293-302.

Collins, K. M. & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2000, March). *Relationship between critical thinking and performance in research methodology courses*. Paper presented at the annual conference of Motivation: Reopening the research agenda.

Cornbleet, S. & Carter, R. (2001). *The Language of speech and writing*. London: Rutledge.

Courtney, M. (1996). Talking to learn: Selecting and using group oral tasks. *ELT Journal*. *5*(4), 318-325.

Day, D. V. (2000). Leadership development: A review in context. *The Leadership Quarterly, 11*(4), 581-613.

Deci I E. L., Nezlek, J., & Sheinman, L. (1981). Characteristics of the rewarder and intrinsic motivation of the rewardee. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 40*(1),1-10.

Deci, E. L. (1971). Effects of externally mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 18*(1), 105–115.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self: Determination in human behavior.* New York: Dublin Press.

Deci, E. L., Connell, J. P., & Ryan, R. M. (1989). Self-determination in a work organization. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(4), 580-590.

Deci, E. L., Eghrari, H., Patrick, B. C., & Leone, D. R. (1991). *Facilitating internalization*: *The self-determination theory perspective.* Unpublished manuscript, University of Rochester, Rochester, NY.

Deci, E. L., Koestelr, R., & Ryan, R. M. (1999). *A nieta-anualytic review of experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation*. Psychological bulletin.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process.* New York D. C: Heath and company.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process.* New York D. C: Heath and company.

Dickinson, L. (1995). Autonomy and motivation: A literature review. *System, 15*(1), 131-157.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign language learning,*Language learning, 40*(1), 46-78.

Dornyei Z, Csizar K. (1998). Ten Commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical Study. *Language Teaching Research*, *23*(2), 203-229.

Dörnyei, Z. (1994a). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(2), 273-284.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language teaching,31*(1), 117-135.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). New themes and approaches in L2 motivation research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 21*(1), 43-59.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow: Pearson.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in second language research*: *Construction, administration, and processing.* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Eckard, R. & Kearny, M. (1981). *Teaching conversational skills in ESL.* Washington: Center of applied linguistics.

Ellis, R. (1994*).* Activities and procedures for teacher preparation. In J. C. Richards & D. Nunan (eds). *Second language teacher education* (pp. 26-36). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University press.

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Facione, P., Facione, N. C., Blohm, S. W., Howard, K., & Giancarlo, C. A. F. (1998). *California Critical Thinking Skills Test*. Millbrae, CA: California Academic Press.

Farrell, T. (1999). Reflective practice in an EFL teacher development group. *System, 27*(2), 157-172.

Farrell, T. (2004). *Reflective practice in action: 80 reflection breaks for busy teachers.* Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press, Sage Publication Company.

Finch, A. (1999). *The task-based classroom in practice*. A paper presented at PAC2 conference.

Finch, A. E. & Hyun, T. D. (2000). *Tell Me More! Seoul*: Hakmunsa Press.

Florez, M. A. (1999). *Improving adult English language learners' speaking skills*. ERIC Digest. Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.

Foster, P., Tonkeyn, A. & Wigglesworth, G. (2000). Measuring spoken language: A unit for all reasons. *Applied Linguistics*, *21*(3), 354-375.

Gardner, H. (1983). Review of the book. Theory of multiple intelligences. *Early childhood tod*ay, *20*(3), 68-78.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning*: The roles of attitudes and motivation. London: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology, 13*(4), 266-272.

Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1992). A student's contribution to second language learning. Part I: Cognitive variables. *Language Teaching*, *25*(2), 211-220.

Graves, K. (2002). Developing a reflective practice through disciplined collaboration. *The Language Teacher, 26*(1), 19-21.

Green, S. (2000). *New perspectives on teaching and learning modern languages*. Toronto: Multilingual Matters Ltd

Grolnick, W. S., Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1997). Internalization within the family: The self-determination perspective. In J. E. Grusec& L. Kuczynski (Eds.), *Parenting and children's internalization of values: A handbook of contemporary theory* (pp. 135–161). New York: Wiley.

Gower, R. Diane, P. & Walters, S (2005). *Teaching practice a handbook for teachers in training*. Oxford: Macmillan Education.

Gower, R. and S. Walters. (1983). *A teaching practice handbook.* London: Heinemann.

Harackiewicz, J. (1979). The effects of reward contingency and performance feedback on intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37*(10),1352–1363.

Harmer, J. (1983). *The practice of English language teaching.* London: Longman.

Harter, S. (1981). A new self-report scale of intrinsic versus extrinsic orientation in the classroom room: Motivational and informational components. *Developmental psychology, 17(4),*300–312.

Hedge. (2000). *Oxford handbooks for language teachers*: Oxford University Press.

Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B. & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal, 70(1),* 125-132.

HosseiniFatemi. A, ElahiShirvan,M. Rezvani,Y. (2011). The effect of teachers' Self-refection on EFL Learners' writing achievement. *Cross-cultural Communication,7*(3), 175-181.

Howarth, P. (2001*).* Process Speaking. Preparing to Repeat Yourself. *MET, 10*(1), 39-44.

Hughes, R. (2002). *Teaching and researching speaking*. Warlow: Longman.

Inozu, J. (2011). Beliefs about foreign language learning among students training to teach English as a foreign language social behaviour and personality. *Society for Personality Research*, *39*(5), 645-654.

Javadi, F. &Khatib, M. (2014). On the relationship between reflective teaching and teachers' burnout, *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning, 3*(4), 368-374.

Jay, J. K., & Johnson, K. L. (2002). Capturing complexity: a typology of reflective practice for teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *18*(1), 73-85.

Jenkins, E. K. (1998). The significant role of critical thinking in predicting auditing students' performance. *Journal of Education for Business*, 73(5), 274 -279.

Kasper, G. (2001). Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development. *Applied Linguistics*,22(4), 502-530.

Kimura Y, Nakata Y, Okumora T. (1997). Language learning motivation of EFL learners in Japan: A cross-sectional analysis of various Learning milieus. *JALT Journal*,6(1),*47*-66

Koch, A. S. & Terrell, T. D. (1991). Affective reactions of foreign language students to natural approach activities and teaching techniques. In E. K. Horwtiz& D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 109-126). Englewood cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kramsch, C. (2001). *Language and culture.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to post method.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Lee, J. (2000). *Tasks and communicating in language classroom.* New York: McGraw- Hill Higher Education.

Legutke, M & Thomas. H. (1991).*Process and experience in the language classroom.* Harlow: Longman.

Leitch, R. & Day, C. (2000). Action research and reflective practice: Towards a holistic view. *Educational Action Research, 8*(1), 179 – 193.

Lepper, M. R., Greene, D., &Nisbett, R. E. (1973). Undermining children's intrinsic interest with extrinsic rewards: A test of the ''over justification'' hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 28*(1), 129–137.

Logan, G. E. (1980). Individualized foreign languages instruction: American patterns for accommodating learner differences in the classroom. In H. B. Altman & C. V. James (Eds.). *Foreign language teaching: Meeting individual needs* (pp. 94-110).Oxford: Pergamumpress.

Long, M. (1996). The role of linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie and T. Bhatia (Eds.). *Handbook of second language acquisition*, (pp. 413-468). Sand Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing speaking*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ma, L. & Ren, S. (2011). Reflective teaching and professional development of young college English teachers—from the perspective of constructivism, *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *1*(2), 153-156.

MacIntyre, K. MacMaster and S. C. Baker, (2001). *The convergence of multiple models of motivation for second language learning*: London: Routledge.

MacIntyre, P. D. & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Methods and results in the study of anxiety in language learning: A review of the literature. *Language Learning, 41*(1), 85-117.

MacIntyre, P. D. (1994). Variables underlying willingness to communicate: *A causal analysis. CommunicationResearch Reports, 11*(1),135–142.

MacIntyre, P., &Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 15*(1),3-26.

MacIntyre, P., Clement, R., Dornyei, Z., & Noels, K. (2002). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(6), 545-562.

Mackey, A., Gass, S., & McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive international Feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 22*(4), 471-497.

Martin, M. W. & Wedman, J. M. (1988). Identifying student teachers' routine and reflective thoughts through journal analysis. *Educational and Psychological Research, 8*(4), 279-289.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., &Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *52*(4), 397-422

McCarthy, M. & Carter, R. (2001). Designing the discourse syllabus. In D. Hall and A. Hewing's (Eds.). *Innovation in English language teaching*, (pp. 55- 63). London: Routledge.

Mccollum, S. (1997). *Insights into the Process of guiding refection during an early field experience of pre-service teachers.* Unpublished doctorate dissertation. Virginia polytechnic institute and state University, Virginia.

McCroskey, J. C. & Baer, J. E. (1985, February). *Willingness to communicate: The construct and its measurement.* Paper presented at the annual convention of the speech communication association, Denver, CO.

McCroskey, J. C. & Richmond, V. P. (1990). Willingness to communicate: A cognitive view. In M. Booth-Butterfield (Ed.), *Communication, cognition, and anxiety.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

McCroskey, J. C. (1992). Reliability and validity of the willingness to communicate scale. *Communication Quarterly, 40*(1), 16-25.

McDonough, J., and Shaw, C. (2003). *Materials and methods in ELT. 2nd ed.* Maine: Blackwell Publishing.

Miller, L. (2001). A Speaking lesson. How to make the course book more interesting. *MET*, 10, (1), 25-29.

Noels KA. (2001). Learning Spanish as a second language. : Learners' Orientations and perceptions of their teachers' communication styles. *Language Learning*, *51*(2), 107-144.

Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., & Vallerand, R. J. (2000). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language learning, 50*(1), 57-85.

Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

O'Donnell, A. M., J. Reeve & J. K. Smith. (2012). *Educational psychology. Reflection for Action*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Osterman, K. F., & Kottkamp, R. B., (2004). *Reflective practice for educators: Improving schooling through professional development* (2nd. Ed.) Thousand Oaks. CA, Corwin.

Parrott, M. (1993). *Tasks for language teachers: A resource book for training and development*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

PintricH, P. L. & Schunk, D. H. (1996). *Motivation in education: theory, research, and applications.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Pollard, A. Anderson, J., Maddock, M., Swaffield, S., Warin, J and Warwick, P. (2008). *Reflective teaching*. London, Continuum.

Pourhosein Gilakjani, A., Leong, L. & Sabouri, N. (2012). A Study on the role of motivation in foreign language learning and teaching, *International Journal of Modern Education and Computer Science*, *7*(1), 9-16.

Ragan, L. C. (1998). *Good teaching is good teaching: An emerging set of guiding principles and practices in design and development of distance education.* New York: Addison Wesley Longman.

Rahman, S., MohdJelas, Z., & Osman, K. (1999). *The Conception, perception and the practice of reflective thinking among student teachers*. (Report no. G6/99). Bangi: Fakulti Pendidikan, University Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Rezaeyan, M. & Nikoopour, J. (2013). The relationship between reflectivity of foreign language teachers with Iranian students' achievement. *Journal of Language Sciences & Linguistics, 1*(1), 9-20.

Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1996). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards. J. C., & Schmidt, R. (2010). *Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics (5ᵗʰ Ed.).* USA: Longman.

Richardson,V. (1990). The evolution of reflective teaching and teacher education. In R. T. Clift, W. R. Houston, & M. C. Pugach, (Eds.), *Encouraging reflective practice in education* (pp. 129-145). New York: Teachers College Press.

Roberts, J. (1998). *Language teacher education*. London: Arnold.

Rose, M. (2007). *The reflective practitioner*. European center for modern languages. Retrieved May 15, 2007 from http://www.ecml.at/html/quality/english/cotinum/self_assessment/teachers/MR_reflective%20practitioner html.

Rudd, R., Baker, M., & Hoover, T. (2000). *Undergraduate agriculture student learning styles and critical thinking abilities:* Is there a relationship? *Journal of Agricultural Education*, *41*(3), 2-12.

Ryan and Deci. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*(1), *54*–67.

Ryan, R. M. (1982). Control and information in the intrapersonal sphere: An extension of cognitive evaluation theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 43*(4), 450–461.

Ryan, R. M., & Grolnick, W. S. (1986). Origins and pawns in the classroom: Self-report and projective assessments of individual differences in children's perceptions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 50(5),* 550–558.

Sadighi F, & Zarafshan M. (2006). Effects of attitude and motivation on the use of language learning strategies by Iranian EFL University students. *Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities of Shiraz University*, *23*(1), 71-80.

Sayer, P. (2005). An intensive approach to building conversational skills. *ELT Journal. 59*(1), 27-36.

Schon, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner*: How professionals think in action. New York: Basic Books.

Schon, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. London: Temple Smith.

Schon, D. A. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner*: *Towards a new design for teaching and learning in the profession.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Slimani-Rolls, A. (2005). Rethinking task-based language learning: What we can learn from the learners. *Language Teaching Research, 9*(2),195-218.

Stanley, C. (1998). A framework for teacher reflectivity. *TESOL quarterly, 32(*5), 584-591.

Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: The uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research, 4*(3), 251-274.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.). *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, Mass: Newbury house.

Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97-114). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2002). Talking it through: Two French immersion learners' response to reformulation. *International Journal of Educational Research, 37*(3), 285-304.

Sze, P. (1999). Reflective teaching in second language teacher education: An overview. *Educational Research Journal,14*(1), 23-32.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Torres, R. M., & Cano, J. (1995a). Critical thinking as influenced by learning style. *Journal of Agricultural Educati*on, *36*(4), 55-62.

Tsangaridou, N., & O'sullivan, M. (1994). Using pedagogical reflective strategies to enhance reflection among Pre-service physical education teachers. *Journal of Teaching in physical Education*, *14*(1), 13-33.

Thornbury S. (2005): *How to teach speaking*. Pearson: Longman

Ur, P. (1991). *A course in Teaching English: practice and theory.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press,

Ushida, E., (2005). *The role of Students' attitudes and motivation in second language learning in online language courses*. Paper presented at CALICO 2005, Orlando, FL.

Valencia, J. A. (2009). An exploration of Colombian EFL teachers' knowledge base through Teacher's' reflection. *Languages & Encino, 12*(1), 73-108.

Vallerand, R. J. (1997). Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation*,* In M. P. Zanna, (ed.): *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 271–360). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). M*ind in society: The development of higher psychological processe*s. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wajnryb, R. (1992). *Classroom observation tasks*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wallace, M. (1996). Structured reflection: The role of the professional project. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 281-294). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wenden, A. L. (1991a)*. Learner strategies in language learning*. Englewood cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

White, R. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. *Psychological Review, 66*(3), 297–333.

Widdowson, H. (1998). Skills, abilities, and contexts of reality. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *18*(3), 323-33.

Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. Harlow: Longman.

Xiaoxiao, L., & Yan, L. (2010). A case study of dynamic assessment in EFL process writing. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *33*(1), 24-40.

Yildirim, A. G. O. (2008). Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and dynamic assessment in language learning. *Anadolu University Journal of social sciences, 8*(1), 301-308.

Zeichner, K. M., & Liston, D. P. (1996). *Reflective teaching: An introduction. New Jersey:* Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Publishers.

Ziahosseini M, Salehi M. (2008). An investigation of the relationship between motivation and language learning strategies. *Pazhuhesh-e Zabanha-ye Khareji*, *41*(1), 85-107.