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Mohammad Ali Salmani Nodoushan
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NOTE: The order of papers in this journal is random.

Objective-based achievement testing in the context of schema theory

Ebrahim Khodadady, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

This paper reports the performance of 38 non-native senior university students of English on two achievement tests: a traditional content-based multiple choice item test (MCIT) and a schema-based cloze MCIT measuring course objectives. The former was developed on the whole content of a teaching methodology textbook sampled in a stratified manner and taught during an academic semester. The latter was constructed on some randomly selected passages of another teaching methodology textbook suggested for outside reading. The results indicated that schema-based cloze MCITs measuring objective-based achievement correlate significantly with traditional content-based MCITs and thus have empirical validity. They also enjoy superior construct validity in terms of their construction theory and measuring objectives rather than specific content. In contrast to the traditional content-based MCITs, schema-based cloze MCITs measuring course objectives, however, have lower reliability because they are developed on unseen passages and are heterogeneous in nature.

Key Words: Schema Theory, Testing, Objective-based Achievement, Content Based Achievement

1. Introduction

Educational programs are designed and conducted to teach learners the knowledge, ability and/or skills they lacked when they enrolled in these programs. Although teaching the materials presented in educational programs is essential, it is not sufficient. The learners' achievement of the knowledge, ability and/or skills must also be measured to ensure that the educational programs have attained the objectives for which they were designed. It follows that measuring achievement is an integral part of teaching if it is to be effective or of any value.

Almost all scholars working on achievement tests have focused on primary and secondary schools. For example, Cronbach (1960) believed that achievement tests are employed to 'measure progress in school up to a particular point in time' (p. 31). To my knowledge, few studies have focused on achievement testing at tertiary level, if any. The present study was, therefore, designed to address achievement testing at Iranian universities and offer schema-based cloze multiple choice item tests (MCITs) as its viable

measures. Recent research, however, shows that these tests are equally applicable to achievement testing at pre-university centers (Ghaffary, 2000).

2. Background

Two major approaches have been adopted to measure achievement in general at all levels of education: Content-based and objective-based. Although these two approaches share the same function, i.e., quantifying achievement, they differ from each other in sampling the content upon which they are constructed and the testing methods by which the content is questioned.

2.1. Content-Based Achievement Tests

Content-based achievement tests are developed on the basis of the necessity that teachers must measure their learners' mastery of "the instructional content of a particular language course" (Clark, 1972, p. 25). To achieve this goal they utilize various testing methods such as multiple choice item tests (MCITs) and open-ended questions.

Similar to other content-based achievement tests, the present study was carried out to measure Iranian undergraduate university students' mastery of a course entitled "Teaching Methodology: Theories." The instructional content of the course was based on the textbook *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). The whole textbook consisting of 11 chapters was taught during the first semester of the academic year 2000.

Since achievement tests generally represent a terminal evaluation of the students' completion of the course (Anastasi, 1968, p. 391), they should measure what has been taught during the course as thoroughly as possible. This requires developing items on almost all topics covered during the academic term or school year, especially the ones that have provoked most questions on the part of learners and consumed most of the class time. To fulfill this requirement, the best sampling and testing methods are, according to Genesee and Upshur (1996), stratified techniques and multiple choice item tests, respectively

2.2. Objective-Based Achievement Tests

The alternative approach to the assessment of achievement rests on the "instructional objectives" (Harris, 1969, p. 3). These objectives are expressed either in broad course objectives and/or in terms of test tasks. The present study addressed objective-based achievement testing from the latter perspective.

The broad objective of the course Teaching Methodology: Theories, according to the former Iranian Ministry of Culture and Higher Education, was to “familiarize the students with the theories of learning and different methods and techniques of teaching the English language” (High Council for Planning, 1996, p. 44). This objective was translated into test tasks.

Genesee and Upshur (1996) divided instructional objectives measured via test tasks into three categories: skill focused, structure focused and communicative focused. Based on these categories, the students should be able to do one of the following at the end of the course, respectively.

1. Sustain a conversation in English with a native speaker for five minutes. They should converse about given topics taught during the course. Obviously this objective is not pursued in the present study.
2. Answer 80 percent of multiple choice items developed on the course. For example, the items can be developed on the vocabulary used in the textbook covered during the course or suggested for outside reading. A typical example follows.

We now turn to the third of our principle categories, the level at which activity ... considerably within individuals as well as across individuals.

- a. varies*
- b. deviates
- c. modifies
- d. departs

Note: * the keyed response

The schema-based cloze MCIT employed in the present study was developed on the basis of this objective. The participants were supposed to answer 50 percent of schema-based cloze multiple choice items to pass the course.

3. Answer factual questions employing at least three levels of probability. For example:

Q: Is it going to rain this afternoon?

A: It doesn't seem much like it, or

Probably not, or

It shouldn't and so on.” (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, p. 160)

This objective might be attainable if the students are required to answer oral questions related to language learning and methods of teaching. The objective however, measures test takers' communicative competence rather than their reading comprehension ability.

The present study was undertaken to explore the relationship between written achievement tests developed on course content and those developed

on structural objectives. While the former requires stratified sampling and multiple choice item tests (MCITs), the latter calls for random sampling and a testing method which taps into the students' background knowledge and their ability to comprehend written texts related to Teaching Methodology: Theories. I believe that the best method to accomplish this goal is to develop schema-based cloze MCITs. Although the validity of schema-based cloze MCITs as measures of reading comprehension and English language proficiency has already been confirmed (Khodadady 1997, 1999; Khodadady & Herriman, 2000), this study explores the question whether these tests are valid and reliable measures of achievement at tertiary level as well.

3. METHOD

3.1. Participants

The participants of the present study were 38 senior students (22 female and 16 male) majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language at Kurdistan University. They took the tests as part of their course requirement. The participants' age ranged between 22 and 35.

3.2. Instruments

For measuring achievement on the basis of instructional materials and structural objectives two tests were developed: a traditional multiple choice item test (MCIT) and a schema-based cloze MCIT.

3.2.1. Traditional Multiple Choice Item Tests

Khodadady (1997) referred to multiple choice item tests (MCITs) constructed by language teachers as traditional because these tests lack a sound theory. Since traditional MCITs suffer from not having a theoretical rationale (Haladyna, 1994), they are notoriously difficult to construct (Hughes, 1989). For this reason, they are largely written by testing "experts" for large-scale and standardized measurements (Nunnally, 1964, p. 167).

Since there was no expertly designed achievement test on the course under investigation, a traditional multiple choice item test consisting of 60 items was developed by the present researcher. The items were based on the textbook *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching A Description and Analysis* (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). (The test is reproduced in Appendix 1).

Table 1 presents the frequency and percentage of traditional multiple choice items constructed on the 11 chapters of the textbook. As can be seen, the highest percentage of items (15%) were developed on units 1 and 7. These two units proved to be the most difficult chapters and thus had to be explained and discussed in class more than the others.

Table 1.
Frequency and Percentage of Traditional Multiple Choice Items

<i>Unit</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Item Numbers</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
1	9	17, 18, 29, 31, 33, 35, 37, 41, 43	15.0
2	4	32, 34, 38, 39	6.7
3	5	9, 26, 36, 45, 47	8.3
4	8	3, 21, 49, 50, 52, 54	13.3
5	6	13, 23, 25, 27, 51, 53	10.0
6	4	1, 19, 22, 60	6.7
7	9	2, 5, 7, 11, 14, 16, 20, 28, 48	15.0
8	2	30, 40	3.3
9	1	42	1.7
10	8	4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 24, 44, 46	13.3
11	4	15, 55, 58, 59	6.7
Total	60		100

For example, the traditional multiple choice item below was used in the test constructed in the present study. No theory was used to select its distracters. The item writer did, however, base the selection of distracters a, c and d on his intuition and chose them from among the names mentioned in various chapters of the textbook *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching A Description and Analysis* (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

Who divided the developmental process in language learning into five stages?

a. Asher

c. Lozanov

b. Curran *

d. Gattegno

Note: * the keyed response

3.2.2. Schema-Based Cloze Multiple Choice Item Tests

Schema theory was employed to remove the theoretical shortcoming of MCITs. According to Khodadady (1997, 1999, 2001) and Khodadady and Herriman (2000), each and all semantic words, i.e., adjectives, adverbs, nouns and verbs, and syntactic words such as prepositions and pronouns used in an authentic and unmodified text are viewed as schemata. A schema, the singular form of schema, is an abstract concept such as lexis (Taylor, Harris, & Pearson, 1988). It evokes an idiosyncratic image in the mind of a given test taker when he encounters it in a spoken and written text.

The evocation of an image by a schema depends directly on the semantic and syntactic relations it has with all similar schemata in general and the schemata used in the text in which it appears in particular. Khodadady (1997) used the schema *leak* in the following sentence as an example.

But when the results of the tests were *leaked* last week, Amgen, the Californian biotechnology company which owns the exclusive rights to develop products based on the protein, saw an overnight jump in its share prices.

Leak in the sentence above is a schema because it had a definite meaning for the author when he wrote the article *Miracle' jab makes fat mice thin* (*New Scientist*, 5 August 1995, No 1989). It must evoke the same meaning in the mind of its readers if they are to understand the article as the author intended them to do. If this sentence is used to develop a cloze multiple choice item to assess objective-based achievement, what choices should item writers select and what sources can they employ to select their choices from?

Schema theory proposes employing the choices which have meanings similar to *leak*. Peter Mark Roget (1779-1869) was the first recorded scholar who followed the proposal to compose his thesaurus. He divided all English lexes into fifteen categories. Table 2 presents these categories which appear in *Roget's International Thesaurus* (Chapman, 1992).

Table 2.

Classification of Schemata in Roget's International Thesaurus (Chapman, 1992)

No	Schemata	No	Schemata
1	The body and the senses	9	Human society and institutions
2	Feelings	10	Values and ideals
3	Place and change of place	11	Arts
4	Measure and shape	12	Occupations and crafts
5	Living things	13	Sports and amusements
6	Natural phenomena	14	The mind and ideas
7	Behaviour and the will	15	Science and technology
8	Language		

As can be seen, the schema *leak* belongs to the seventh category, i.e., behaviour and will, and thus paves the way for a multiple choice item writer to exclude the other 14 categories from being included in the choices. The schema *behaviour* consists of a number of semantically related schemata such as *manifestation*, *disclosure* and *publication* in a hierarchical order. The schema *leak*, according to the index of *Roget's International Thesaurus* (Chapman, 1992, p. 1073) falls within the class of *disclosure*. Khodadady and Herriman (2000) developed the cloze multiple choice item below on this schema.

But when the results of the tests were ... last week, Amgen, the Californian biotechnology company which owns the exclusive rights to develop products based on the protein, saw an overnight jump in its share prices.

- a. leaked*
- b. displayed
- c. advertised
- d. stated

Note: * the deleted word

Since the choices *displayed*, *advertised*, and *stated* have both semantic and syntactic relations with the deleted schema, Khodadady (1997) called them *competitive* to differentiate them from distracters as their traditional counterparts. The selection of competitiveness can be based on semantic feature analysis. Figure 1 presents the semantic features of the deleted schema *leak* and its competitiveness (Khodadady & Herriman, 2000). As can be seen, *leak* shares the two semantic features of *make known publicly* with its competitiveness. The distinctive semantic feature of *without authorization*, however, makes it the only appropriate schema chosen by the author of the text. The test takers have to reach this choice, if they pay attention to the part of the text reading: *In April, Amgen, which is based in Thousand Oaks, California, paid the institute \$20 million for exclusive rights to develop products based on the discovery. Amgen will carry out safety tests on the protein in animals next year, and hopes to begin clinical trials on people within a year.* Since Amgen owns the exclusive right, it only can *display*, *advertise* or *state* the results. It did not, however, do this because of not having *safety tests* and *clinical trials*, indicating that the results were made public *without authorization*.

Schemata	Semantic features		
	Make known publicly	Publicize advantages	Publicize without authorization
a. leak*	+	-	+
b. display	+	+	-
c. advertise	+	+	-
d. state	+	-	-

Figure 1. Semantic features of the deleted schema *leak* and its competitiveness.

Following the procedures described above, a schema-based cloze MCIT was developed by the present researcher. For developing the test two texts were randomly chosen from the textbook *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (Brown, 1987). The first text dealt with human learning reproduced from pages 70 to 71 and the second involved cognitive variations in language learning reproduced from page 91. No modifications were made in the texts. (The schema-based cloze MCIT is given in Appendix 2).

The schema-based cloze MCIT was developed on 40 schemata. Four items were developed on the syntactic schemata *across, how, themselves* and *what* and the rest were constructed on six adjectives (*affective, classic, congruent, genuine, inherent, valuable*), one adverb (*primarily*), 14 nouns (*action, attempt, contrast, contribution, defensiveness, degree, implications, knowledge, perspective, point, presentation, prizing, sense, variables*), and 15 verbs (*appreciate, communicate, contradict, devote, differentiate, distinguish, enhance, establish, include, live, make, prescribe, relate, set, vary*).

3.2. Procedure

The traditional multiple choice item test (MCIT) and schema-based cloze MCIT were administered as the final examinations in two running sessions under standard conditions, respectively. The students were told that their course performance will be estimated by adding up their scores on both tests. Since the traditional MCIT and schema-based cloze MCIT consisted of 60 and 40 items, respectively, the maximum score on both tests would be 100. This was then multiplied by 2 and divided by 10 to get 20 as the highest standard of performance on achievement tests in Iran. Whoever scored 10 and/or higher could pass the course and those test takers who scored below had to repeat the course.

3.3. Data Analysis

The functioning of items comprising the traditional MCIT and schema-based cloze MCIT was studied by estimating item difficulty and item discrimination. Item difficulty and item discrimination were estimated by employing p-values and point biserial coefficients (rpbi). P-value was calculated as the proportion of correct responses given to an item. Although Reynolds, Perkins, and Brutten (1994) declared that p-values less than 0.30 or greater than 0.70 are unacceptable or misfitting, the present research adopted Baker's (1989) suggestion and viewed the values falling within the range of 0.25 to 0.75 as acceptable because of the small number of participants. The rpbi coefficients were estimated by correlating each individual item with the total test score. While Baker suggested item discrimination indices lower than 0.30 be discarded, Madsen (1983, p. 183) believed that an index of 0.25 or higher should be accepted. Due to the susceptibility of item analysis to the number of test takers, it was also decided that rpbi coefficients of 0.25 or higher be accepted.

For estimating the internal consistency reliability of the two methods Cronbach's alpha was employed. The internal validity of the tests was assessed by using the percentage of well functioning items, i.e., items having acceptable p-values and rpbi coefficients. In addition to the internal validity, the external validity of the schema-based cloze MCIT was also explored. It

was determined by correlating the schema-based cloze MCIT with the traditional MCIT as the criterion measure. All statistical analyses were performed by using SPSS Release 10.0 for Windows, standard version. These analyses were carried out to test the following three hypotheses:

1. The schema-based cloze MCIT will be less reliable than the traditional MCIT.
2. The internal validity of the schema-based cloze MCIT will be lower than the traditional MCIT.
3. The schema-based cloze MCIT will be empirically valid.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Reliability

Table 3 presents the basic descriptive statistics for the schema-based cloze MCIT and traditional MCIT. As can be seen, the schema-based cloze MCIT is a reliable test ($\alpha = 0.61$) though its reliability coefficient is lower than the traditional MCIT ($\alpha = 0.84$). These results *support* the first hypothesis that *the schema-based cloze MCIT will be less reliable than the traditional MCIT*. This finding agrees with the results obtained by Khodadady (2000). He administered a traditional cloze MCIT developed by Hale, Stansfield, Rock, Hicks, Butler and Oller (1988) and a schema-based cloze MCIT as two measures of language proficiency to 34 senior undergraduate university students. The reliability coefficients for the two tests were 0.78 and 0.71, respectively.

Table 3.

Basic Descriptive Statistics for Achievement Tests

Tests	No. of items	Mean	SD	Kurtosis	alpha
Traditional MCIT	60	34.00	8.73	-.03	.84
Schema-based cloze MCIT	40	19.54	4.48	-.006	.61

According to Guilford (1950) the heterogeneity of a test, i.e., it measures various abilities, will result in its “low inter-consistency reliability” (p. 522). The test itself will, however, have a high practical validity. Maximal reliability requires high intercorrelations among items whereas maximal validity requires low intercorrelations. In other words, “while maximal reliability requires items of equal difficulty, maximal validity requires items differing in difficulty” (Khodadady, 2000, p. 47).

Traditionally, the validity of item functioning is determined by using two indices: item difficulty index (p -value), the proportion of correct responses given to individual items, and item discrimination index (r_{pbi}), the correlation coefficient between an individual item with the total test score. An item difficulty and discrimination index of 1.00 indicates that a given item is too

easy because all test takers have gotten it right. As the index decreases in value, the difficulty of the item increases.

Table 4 presents the p -values and r_{pbi} indexes of items comprising the achievement tests used in the study. As can be seen, the mean p -value for the schema-based cloze MCIT (0.48) is lower than that of the traditional MCIT (0.58). The most frequently occurring class interval of p -values for the schema-based cloze MCIT is 0.21 to 0.30 whereas for traditional MCIT it is 0.61 to 0.70. It is generally accepted in the field that a lower mean p -value is an indicator of test difficulty (e.g., Klein-Braley, 1997). This very difficulty of the schema-based cloze MCIT indicates that it is a more heterogeneous test than the traditional MCIT

Table 4.

P-values and r_{pbi} Indexes of Items Comprising the Two Achievement Tests

Interval	f of p -values		f of r_{pbi}	
	Schema-based cloze MCIT	Traditional MCIT	Schema-based cloze MCIT	Traditional MCIT
-.11 to -.20				1
-.01 to -.10			3	
.01 to .10		1	7	4
.11 to .20	4		5	8
.21 to .30	8	2	9	11
.31 to .40	5	7	7	12
.41 to .50	6	11	7	18
.51 to .60	3	10	2	5
.61 to .70	5	14		1
.71 to .80	4	9		
.81 to .90	4	4		
.91 to 1.00	1	2		
Mean	.48	.58	.25	.33

4.2. Internal Validity

The psychometrics of traditional multiple choice items showed that out of 60 items, 31 items (1, 2, 4, 10, 11, 15, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28, 31, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 40, 42, 44, 45, 46, 51, 53, 56, 57, 79 and 60) have acceptable psychometrics, i.e., their p -values fall between 0.25 and 0.75 and their r_{pbi} is 0.25 or greater. These results indicate that 52 percent of items comprising the traditional MCIT have functioned psychometrically well.

The psychometrics of schema-based cloze multiple choice items indicated that out of 40 items, only 12 items (9, 10, 12, 13, 17, 21, 23, 25, 29, 32, 35, and 40) have acceptable psychometrics, i.e., their p -values fall between 0.25 and 0.75 and their r_{pbi} is 0.25 or greater. These results indicate that 30 percent of

items comprising the schema-based cloze MCIT have functioned psychometrically well.

A comparison of the psychometrics of schema-based cloze multiple choice items with the traditional ones indicates that the percentage of well-functioning traditional multiple choice items is much higher (52%) than the schema-based cloze multiple choice items (30%). This comparison supports the second hypothesis that *the internal validity of the schema-based cloze MCIT will be lower than the traditional MCIT*. The low internal validity of the schema-based cloze MCITs was expected because they differ from the traditional MCITs on two constructs: content and construct.

4.3. Content Validity

The traditional multiple choice item test was developed on the content of the text covered during the term, i.e., *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (Richards & Rodgers, 1986) whereas the schema-based cloze MCIT was objective-based and thus was developed on a textbook suggested for outside reading, i.e., *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (Brown, 1987). Since the texts used in the schema-based cloze MCIT was chosen randomly, there was a strong possibility that the test takers had not read them before taking the test. This very difference in the nature of the schema-based cloze MCIT has resulted in its being difficult and thus lowered its internal validity. In other words, instead of having content validity, the schema-based cloze MCITs enjoy objective validity. The schema-based cloze MCITs developed on unseen texts are based on this assumption that the test takers have acquired the ability to read and understand whatever texts related to the specific content measured through traditional MCITs.

4.4. Construct Validity

The seen nature of texts used in the traditional MCIT has affected all the components of its items, i.e., stem and alternatives. Each item was developed on a single topic presented in the textbook and thus was discrete in and of itself, i.e., did not depend on two skills or other items. In other words, answering the traditional multiple choice items depended on the test takers' ability to remember separate pieces of information given by the textbook with respect to the points raised in the stem of the items. In contrast, the schema-based cloze MCIT depends on the test takers' ability to follow the reasoning of the author and reach his conclusions on the basis of the context in which they are developed. Two of the most difficult items, i.e., having the lowest *p*-value are used to illustrate the argument.

The traditional multiple choice item 58, as the first example, was developed on Richards and Rodger's (1986) opinion that "*chance ... often determine program adoption and adaptation*" (p. 159). Table 5 presents the

psychometrics of the item. As can be seen, the majority of test takers (39%) have chosen the inappropriate alternative *d*, i.e., evaluation. Apparently, they have disagreed with the author of the text and thus preferred their own opinion! It implies that *content based multiple choice items are idiosyncratic in that they depend heavily on the text writer's ideas and the test writer's preferences and do not leave room for test takers' processing of the content.*

Table 5.

*Psychometrics of Content Dependent Traditional Multiple Choice Item 58**

Alternatives	f	Upper group (n=19)	Lower group (n=19)	Item statistics
a. authorities	8	2	6	<i>p</i> -value: .05
b. chance**	2	1	1	<i>r</i> _{pbi} : .36
c. teachers	13	5	8	
d. evaluation	15	11	4	

*Item Stem: According to Richards and Rodgers, the adoption and adaptation of language teaching methods is often determined by

Note: ** the keyed response

Furthermore, there is no way to find out how the traditional multiple choice item writers select their alternatives (Khodadady, 1999). The present researcher, however, employed his own intuition to develop item 58. This very factor of intuition renders traditional MCITs highly subjective by nature and thus require the highly cumbersome and at the same time money, energy and time consuming process of pretesting.

In contrast to traditional multiple choice items requiring remembering whatever learned, schema-based cloze multiple choice items require reading and understanding the text in order to choose the deleted schema from among its competitors, i.e., semantically and syntactically related distracters.

Table 6

Psychometrics of Schema-based Cloze Multiple Choice Item 8

Alternatives	f	Upper group (n=19)	Lower group (n=19)	Item statistics
a. approved	17	8	9	<i>p</i> -value: .16
b. appropriated	8	2	6	<i>r</i> _{pbi} : .34
c. appointed	7	4	3	
d. appreciated*	6	5	1	

Note: * author's schema

Table 6 presents the psychometrics of the most difficult schema-based cloze multiple choice item constructed on the text: *Rogers' humanistic psychology has more of an affective focus than a cognitive one, and so the impact of his*

thought may be more fully ... (8) in the context of discussion on personality and sociocultural variables.

As can be seen in Table 6, the competitiveness of the schema-based cloze multiple choice item 8 all share the prefix *ap*, which indicates that they have the process of *making or admitting an action* in common. For instance, competitive *a* shows that *the impact of his [Rogers'] thought may be more fully approved*. While the selection of competitive *a* renders the clause meaningful, it becomes inappropriate as soon as the test takers focus on the schema context used in the prepositional modifier *in the context of discussion on personality and sociocultural variables*. Similarly, *approving* an action requires some conditions which are lacking in the context whereas *appreciating* the impact does occur in the context of discussion.

4.5. Empirical Validity

The schema-based cloze MCIT constructed on the two unseen texts correlates significantly with the traditional MCIT ($r_{pbi} = 0.70$, $p < .01$) developed on the materials covered during the term. This result indicates that the schema-based cloze MCITs are empirically valid measures of achievement. Although the correlation shows a fairly strong relationship between the two tests, they do not basically measure the same construct. In order for two or more tests to measure the same construct, their correlation coefficients should be in the "high 0.80s or 0.90s" (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991, p. 441).

5. Conclusion

This study was developed to explore the empirical validity and reliability of objective based achievement tests constructed on the basis of schema theory. The results indicate that schema-based cloze multiple choice item tests (MCITs) developed on educational objectives at tertiary level correlate significantly with traditional content-based MCITs and do, therefore, have empirical validity. The findings, however, demonstrate that the schema-based cloze MCITs measuring objectives are less reliable than their traditional content-based counterparts. The lower reliability of the schema-based cloze MCIT might be attributed to several variables.

The first and most important variable affecting the reliability of schema-based cloze MCITs measuring objective-based achievement relates to their being heterogeneous in nature. Since these tests tap into the test takers' background knowledge by establishing semantic relationships with the deleted schemata, they bring about the test takers' individual differences in terms of their familiarity with the deleted schema and the contextual schemata, i.e., other schemata which comprise the text, especially the ones that precede and follow the deleted schema. To the extent to which the test takers differ from each other with regard to their background knowledge

required for choosing the deleted schemata, to that extent the items vary in their difficulty. This variation in difficulty results in low reliability.

The second variable affecting the reliability of schema-based cloze MCIT measuring objective-based achievement rests on the nature of passages, i.e., seen or unseen. The schema-based cloze MCIT used in the present research was developed on unseen passages, whereas the traditional MCIT was constructed on seen ones, i.e., material covered during the term. It is, therefore, suggested that a replication study be conducted on schema-based cloze MCIT developed on seen passages. The replication will control this variable and thus shed light on the heterogeneity of schema-based cloze multiple choice items in terms of test takers' background knowledge.

And finally, both the traditional MCIT and schema-based cloze MCIT measuring achievement were developed by the same researcher. The major difference between the traditional multiple choice items and schema-based cloze multiple choice items lies in the way in which their alternatives are chosen. While the former items are constructed intuitively, the latter items require selecting alternatives on the basis of semantic features they share with the keyed response. The adherence of the researcher to latter approach might have affected the quality of the traditional MCIT. It is, therefore, suggested that a similar study be conducted in which two different specialists develop the tests separately.

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Appendix 1

Traditional multiple choice item test

Course: Language Teaching

Instructor: Dr. E. Khodadady

Items: 60 items

Time allotted: 50 minutes

Directions: The following **60** traditional multiple choice items are based on the whole textbook, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (Richards & Rodgers, 1986) covered during the term. Choose the **one best** answer on the basis of the text and mark the corresponding box in the answer sheet.

1. Detailed lesson plans are recommended in the...
 - a) Grammar-Translation Method
 - b) Silent Way
 - c) Communicative Language Teaching
 - d) Total Physical Response*

2. Lighthearted stories with emotional content are used in the...
 - a) Natural Approach
 - b) Suggestopedia
 - c) Community Language Learning
 - d) Silent Way*

3. The long-range objective of the Audio-lingual Method is
 - a) recognizing speech sounds
 - b) using language as a native speaker does*
 - c) mastery of mechanical aspects of language
 - d) mastery of phonological and grammatical structures

4. ... is a kind of static, sleep like, altered state of mind.
 - a) hypnosis*
 - b) de-suggestion
 - c) suggestion
 - d) reserve

5. Cuisenaire rods were **originally** used in teaching
 - a) modern languages
 - b) mathematics*
 - c) philosophy
 - d) education

6. A ritual placebo system does **not** include ...
 - a) scientific-sounding language
 - b) highly positive experimental data
 - c) emotionally neutral observer*
 - d) true-believer teachers
7. The student is not a bench-bound listener in the ... mode of teaching.
 - a) passive
 - b) expository
 - c) descriptive
 - d) hypothetical*
8. The teacher's role in the ... is like that of a parent to child.
 - a) Natural Approach
 - b) Suggestopedia*
 - c) Community Language Learning
 - d) Silent Way
9. The choice of vocabulary in the Situational Language Teaching depends on ...
 - a) its appropriacy
 - b) its meaning
 - c) sentence pattern*
 - d) teacher's attitude
10. Varying the tone and rhythm of presented material helps to ...
 - a) bring about boredom
 - b) give meaning to language*
 - c) remove emotions
 - d) do without dramatization
11. Who views language "as a substitute for experience, so experience is what gives meaning to language?"
 - a) Bruner
 - b) Gattegno*
 - c) Krashen
 - d) Asher
12. The plants getting ... music shriveled and died.
 - a) Baroque
 - b) Wagner
 - c) Indian
 - d) Rock*

13. Information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction are examples of
- a) communicative process*
 - b) communicative product
 - c) learning process
 - d) learning condition
14. An “Ogden” is required to link permanently two ... elements, such as a shape and a sound.
- a) phonological
 - b) mental*
 - c) structural
 - d) emotional
15. Capturing the moment-to-moment behaviors of teachers and learners in the classroom constitutes ... data.
- a) effectiveness
 - b) descriptive
 - c) comparative
 - d) observational*
16. Language items are selected in the ... according to the ease with which they can be presented visually.
- a) Natural Approach
 - b) Suggestopedia
 - c) Community Language Learning
 - d) Silent Way*
17. ... is the set of various forms that a noun, pronoun or adjective can have according to whether it is the subject or object of a sentence.
- a) polemic
 - b) declension*
 - c) conjugation
 - d) realia
18. The study of Latin grammar became an end in itself because it...
- a) was a practical form of language
 - b) had a long-established theory
 - c) developed intellectual abilities*
 - d) was a vehicle for communication

19. The Total Physical Response was developed by...
- a) C. Gattegno
 - b) C. A. Curran
 - c) J. Asher*
 - d) T. Terrell
20. The teacher's task in the ... is (a) to teach, (b) to test, and (c) to get out of the way.
- a) Silent Way*
 - b) Total Physical Response
 - c) Community Language Learning
 - d) Natural Approach
21. Who believes ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation and formation of new sentences?
- a) N. Brooks
 - b) N. Chomsky*
 - c) J. B. Carroll
 - d) B. F. Skinner
22. Developmental psychology, humanistic psychology and trace theory of learning in psychology are employed in ...
- a) Situational Language Teaching
 - b) Community Language Learning
 - c) Communicative Language Teaching
 - d) Total Physical Response*
23. Notional categories do **not** include ...
- a) sequence
 - b) locations
 - c) requests*
 - d) quantity
24. Students are given a new name and personal history within the target language culture in the ...
- a) Natural Approach
 - b) Suggestopedia*
 - c) Community Language Learning
 - d) Silent Way

25. The strong version of the Communicative Language Teaching could be described as ...
- a) using English to learn it*
 - b) learning to use English
 - c) learning how to communicate
 - d) reacting to learners' intention
26. Incorrect habits are to be avoided at all costs in the ...
- a) Situational Language Teaching*
 - b) Communicative Language Teaching
 - c) Community Language Learning
 - d) Total Physical Response
27. When language is used to learn and discover, it serves the ... function of language.
- a) instrumental
 - b) regulatory
 - c) heuristic*
 - d) representational
28. The innovations in the ... derive primarily from the manner in which classroom activities are organized and the indirect role the teacher is required to assume in directing and monitoring learner performance.
- a) Silent Way*
 - b) Total Physical Response
 - c) Community Language Learning
 - d) Natural Approach
29. Grammar Translation was the offspring of ... scholarship.
- a) English
 - b) French
 - c) German*
 - d) Latin
30. The relationship between the teacher and learner is symmetrical in the ...
- a) Audio-lingual
 - b) Natural Approach
 - c) Grammar Translation
 - d) Community Language Learning*

31. The ... makes few demands on the teacher.
- a) Suggestopedia
 - b) Total Physical Response
 - c) Grammar Translation*
 - d) Community Language Learning
32. Who divided the developmental process in language learning into five stages?
- a) Asher
 - b) Curran*
 - c) Lozanov
 - d) Gattegno
33. The International Phonetic Association was founded in ...
- a) 1750
 - b) 1886*
 - c) 1918
 - d) 1940
34. The instructional system is teacher-proof if the teacher ...
- a) is limited*
 - b) takes initiatives
 - c) provides the knowledge
 - d) is interactive
35. Who argued that training in phonetic would enable teachers to pronounce the language accurately?
- a) Paul Passy
 - b) Henry Sweet
 - c) T. Prendergast
 - d) Wilhem Viëtor*
36. According to the Situational Language Teaching, writing ...
- a) is an independent skill
 - b) is related to reading
 - c) derives from speech*
 - d) depends on listening
37. The major drawback of the Direct Method was ...
- a) its dependence on the teacher's skill*
 - b) applying whatever technique available
 - c) using the native tongue in the class
 - d) employing mime and demonstration

38. Decisions about the syllabus relate ...
- a) to subject matter only
 - b) to linguistic matter only
 - c) both to subject and linguistic matter*
 - d) neither to subject nor linguistic matter
39. Any teaching language approach must address the theoretical principles of ...
- a) recalling
 - b) perceiving
 - c) memorizing
 - d) learning*
40. The ... has no syllabus in advance.
- a) Audio-lingual
 - b) Community Language Learning*
 - c) Total Physical Response
 - d) Suggestopedia
41. Who established a successful commercial language school based on the Direct Method?
- a) Gouin
 - b) Viëtor
 - c) Sauveur*
 - d) Sweet
42. The ... specifies both the process and conditions of learning.
- a) Grammar Translation
 - b) Audio-lingual
 - c) Situational Language Teaching
 - d) Natural Approach *
43. It is **not** a principle of the Direct Method.
- a) Never use the book
 - b) Never be patient*
 - c) Never imitate mistakes
 - d) Never jump around
44. Written tests are given throughout the course in the ...
- a) Audio-lingual
 - b) Community Language Learning
 - c) Total Physical Response
 - d) Suggestopedia*

45. The rational and scientific basis for choosing the vocabulary control of a language course was done by ...
- a) using charts
 - b) general service
 - c) frequency counts*
 - d) using dictionary
46. The way the teacher should dress is important in the ...
- a) Suggestopedia*
 - b) Total Physical Response
 - c) Silent Way
 - d) Community Language Learning
47. The *Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* was developed by ...
- a) H. Palmer
 - b) M. West
 - c) S. Hornby*
 - d) W. Frisby
48. The teacher's role in the ... is one of neutral observer, neither elated by correct performance nor discouraged by error.
- a) Natural Approach
 - b) Suggestopedia
 - c) Community Language Learning
 - d) Silent Way*
49. Behaviorist habit-learning theory addresses ... of learning
- a) processes*
 - b) conditions
 - c) both processes and conditions
 - d) neither processes nor conditions
50. The extrinsic approval and praise of the teacher acts as the ...
- a) stimulus
 - b) reinforcement*
 - c) response
 - d) hypothesis
51. The syllabus of the Communicative Language Teaching specifies ...
- a) communicative processes
 - b) communicative products*
 - c) learning processes
 - d) learning conditions

52. The objective of the ASTP was for students to attain ... proficiency in a variety of foreign languages.
- a) reading
 - b) listening
 - c) conversational*
 - d) competitive
53. Initiating, terminating, maintaining, repairing and redirecting communication requires ... competence.
- a) linguistic
 - b) sociolinguistic
 - c) discourse
 - d) strategic*
54. The influential book *Verbal behaviour* was written by ...
- a) N. Brooks
 - b) C. C. Fries
 - c) B. F. Skinner*
 - d) N. Chomsky
55. The Silent Way, Counseling-learning, Natural Approach, and Total Physical Response all start with a ...
- a) role of teacher
 - b) theory of learning*
 - c) theory of language
 - d) role of learner
56. What the learner's present level of proficiency is and on what the learner will be required to use the language for on completion of the program relates to ...
- a) needs analysis*
 - b) development of goals
 - c) selection of learning activities
 - d) evaluation of the educational outcomes
57. The following factors led to the Audio-lingual Method **EXCEPT**
- a) aural-oral procedures
 - b) contrastive analysis
 - c) structural linguistic theory
 - d) cognitive psychology*

58. According to Richards and Rodgers, the adoption and adaptation of language teaching methods is **often** determined by
- a) authorities
 - b) chance*
 - c) teachers
 - d) evaluation
59. In the ... learning is viewed as a problem-solving, creative, discovering activity, in which the learner is a principle actor rather than a bench-bound listener.
- a) Total Physical Response
 - b) Communicative Language Teaching
 - c) Natural Approach
 - d) Silent Way*
60. The teachers' voice, actions, and gestures may be a sufficient basis for classroom activities for absolute beginners in the....
- a) Communicative Language Teaching
 - b) Silent Way
 - c) Total Physical Response*
 - d) Suggestopedia

Appendix 2

Schema-based cloze multiple choice item test

Directions: This test consists of 40 items. It is based on some paragraphs reproduced from the textbook *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (Brown, 1987). Choose the most appropriate answer that best fits the blank. Mark your answer **a**, **b**, **c** or **d** on the answer sheet. Do **not** select more than **one** choice for each question.

We now turn to the third of our principle categories, the level at which activity ... (1) considerably within individuals as well as ... (2) individuals. Styles are general characteristics that ... (3) one individual from another; strategies are those specific “attacks” that we ... (4) on a given problem. The field of second language acquisition has ... (5) between two types of strategy: learning strategies and communicative strategies. The former ... (6) to “input”- to processing, storage, and retrieval. The latter has more to do with “output”- or how we express meaning in the language, how we act upon what we already know or presume to know.

- | | | | |
|---------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|
| 1 a. varies* | b. deviates | c. modifies | d. departs |
| 2 a. on | b. across* | c. with | d. over |
| 3 a. isolate | b. contrast | c. distinguish | d. differentiate* |
| 4 a. produce | b. create | c. make* | d. compel |
| 5 a. isolated | b. distinguished* | c. contrasted | d. differentiated |
| 6 a. relates* | b. narrates | c. associates | d. concerns |

Rogers’ humanistic psychology has more of a(n) ... (7) focus than a cognitive one, and so the impact of his thought may be more fully ... (8) in the context of discussion on personality and sociocultural ... (9). For the present, however, we take a brief look here at the ... (10) of Rogers’ viewpoint to our understanding of learning, for his ... (11) gives us a fuller picture of the depth of human learning.

- | | | | | |
|----|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| 7 | a. effective | b. affective* | c. infective | d. reflective |
| 8 | a. approved | b. appropriated | c. appointed | d. appreciated* |
| 9 | a. changeables | b. differentials | c. variables* | d. disputes |
| 10 | a. retribution | b. attribution | c. distribution | d. contribution* |
| 11 | a. perspective* | b. respective | c. inspective | d. suspective |

Rogers has ... (12) most of his professional life to clinical work in a(n) ... (13) to be of therapeutic help to individuals. In his ... (14) work Client-Centered Therapy (1951), Rogers carefully analyzed human behaviour in general, ... (15) the learning process, by means of the ... (16) of 19 principles of human behaviour. All 19 principles are concerned with learning to some ... (17), from a "phenomenological" perspective, a perspective that is in sharp ... (18) to that of Skinner. Rogers studies the "whole person" as a physical and cognitive, but ... (19) emotional, being. His formal principles focused on the development of an individual's self-concept and of his or her personal ... (20) of reality, those internal forces which cause a person to act. Rogers felt that ... (21) in principles of behaviour is the ability of human beings to adapt and to grow in the direction that ... (22) their existence. Given a nonthreatening environment, a person will form a picture of reality that is indeed ... (23) with reality, and will grow and learn.

- | | | | | |
|----|-----------------|------------------|-------------------|----------------|
| 12 | a. employed | b. spent | c. devoted* | d. bestowed |
| 13 | a. attack | b. attempt * | c. assault | d. trial |
| 14 | a. classic * | b. ancient | c. antique | d. archaic |
| 15 | a. composing | b. considering | c. implying | d. including* |
| 16 | a. occupation | b. attendance | c. presentation * | d. residence |
| 17 | a. rank | b. degree* | c. order | d. status |
| 18 | a. opposition | b. contrast* | c. disparity | d. contrary |
| 19 | a. indigenously | b. aboriginally | c. primitively | d. primarily* |
| 20 | a. sense* | b. sight | c. intellect | d. reason |
| 21 | a. adherent | b. inherent* | c. coherent | d. hesitant |
| 22 | a. exaggerates | b. elevates | c. enhances* | d. intensifies |
| 23 | a. unanimous | b. proportionate | c. equivalent | d. congruent* |

The “fully functioning person,” according to Rogers, ... (24) at peace with all of his feelings and reactions; he is able to be ... (25) he potentially is; he exists as a process of being and becoming himself. This fully functioning person, in his self-... (26), is fully open to his experience, is without ... (27), and creates himself anew at each moment in every ... (28) taken and in every decision made.

24	a. endures	b. exists	c. inhabits	d. lives*
25	a. how	b. what*	c. when	d. where
26	a. information	b. scholarship	c. knowledge*	d. proficiency
27	a. defensiveness*	b. protection	c. guard	d. preservation
28	a. act	b. active	c. action*	d. actively

Rogers’ position has important ... (29) for education. Learning ... (30) to learn is more important than being “taught” something from the “superior” vantage ... (31) of a teacher who unilaterally decides what shall be taught. Our present system of education, in ... (32) curricular goals and dictating what shall be learned, ... (33) persons both freedom and dignity. What is needed, according to Rogers, is real facilitators of learning, and one can only facilitate by ... (34) an interpersonal relationship with the learner. Teachers, to be facilitators, must first of all be real and ... (35), discarding masks of superiority and omniscience. Second, teachers need to have trust, acceptance, and a ... (36) of the other person—the student—as a worthy, ... (37) individual. And third, teachers need to ... (38) openly and empathetically with their students and vice versa. Teachers with these characteristics will not only understand ... (39) better but will also be effective teachers, who, having ... (40) the optimal stage and context for learning, will succeed in the goals of education.”

- | | | | | |
|----|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| 29 | a. connections | b. involvements | c. implications* | d. associations |
| 30 | a. what | b. how* | c. when | d. where |
| 31 | a. object | b. aim | c. mark | d. point* |
| 32 | a. prescribing* | b. inscribing | c. describing | d. proscribing |
| 33 | a. rejects | b. denies* | c. refuses | d. contradicts |
| 34 | a. settling | b. organizing | c. establishing* | d. installing |
| 35 | a. faithful | b. genuine* | c. straight | d. loyal |
| 36 | a. demanding | b. charging | c. prizing* | d. costing |
| 37 | a. validated | b. valid | c. valued | d. valuable* |
| 38 | a. communicate* | b. transfer | c. inform | d. convey |
| 39 | a. they | b. their | c. them | d. themselves* |
| 40 | a. placed | b. set* | c. seated | d. posed |

Towards an integrative approach of values in language learning

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The interest for values and education is by no means a new concept. It is easy to see the concept being discussed throughout the Western world, but also in Asia and Latin America. Various terms are being used, each with its own tradition and theoretical position, for instance, in English literature: 'values education', 'character education', 'moral education', 'personal and social education', 'citizenship education', 'civic education', 'religious education', 'moralogy', and 'democratic education'. In scientific publications, the term 'moral education' is often employed. This study aims at exploring how the literary texts are used to enhance the moral perspective of the junior university students in language learning classes.

Keywords: Moral education; Language learning; Empathy; Critical reflection; Critical reading skills.

1. Introduction

There are two kinds of moral motivation to moral education: the social utility view and the group values view (Wringe, 1989, pp.38-40). A social utility view of moral education is taken when people become more interested in the topic because of concern with such things as the incidence of mostly rather pretty delinquency among the young, violence, burglary, theft, vandalism, political corruption, drug abuse, alcohol abuse, and so on. The group values view is taken when certain kinds of conduct, commitment and belief are promoted because they form part of a valued way of life with a particular system.

On the social utility view, moral education is undertaken because of the inconvenience, disturbance, injury or expense caused by irresponsible behavior. On the other hand, on the group values view, the undesirability of the intoxication, pilfering or lying stems from not so much from the inconvenience or harm inflicted upon the others but from the state of the offender's character or soul. Hence, one aims at ameliorating the society and the other the individual himself.

In a pluralistic society many people would argue that social utility is more important than group education, for the latter requires not only conformity but conviction which it may only be possible to maintain in a fairly stable,

monocultural context where the values of family, school and society are in accord.

The downside of a moral regime is that it concentrates on overt behavior and does not presume to interfere with the internal belief system and values orientation of the individual. It may reduce the incidence of mugging, theft and drug addiction and produce the sort of person who stays out of jail, does not give himself airs and is prepared to live and let live.

2. Background

Moral education undertaken in the communities especially in the classrooms can make a contribution to values education programmes by

- exploring issues of personal concern such as love, friendship, death, bullying and fairness, and more general philosophical issues such as personal identity, change, truth and time.
- developing their own views, exploring and challenging the views of the others
- being clear in thinking, making thoughtful judgments based on reasons
- listening to and respecting each other
- experiencing quiet moments of thinking and reflections.

Many sociologists (Dewey, Peirce, Tonnies and Lipman in Hickman and Alexander, 1998) emphasise a community of enquiry which can be said to have been achieved when any group of people act cooperatively in the search for an understanding. This sense of community has a dual aspect: a rational structure for effective thinking and shared ideas and a moral structure of mutual respect and shared democratic values.

The philosopher Habermas (1990) argues that moral judgment is best developed through a kind of idealized conversation. He says "the only norms that can claim to be valid are those that meet with the approval of all affected in their capacity as participants in a practical discourse" (1996, p.66). The key principles in holding discussions are summarized in the following way (Fisher, 2000, p.58):

- community setting: everybody sits in such a way to see the others
- agreed rules: everybody listens to the others
- shared reading: each has something to read
- time to think
- time to question: a forum is provided for raising questions
- time to discuss: each has a right and opportunity to Express their own opinions
- listening to others

- communicating
- extending thinking

One of the most important effects of the moral education is to be able to be in tune with another person, in particular understanding what their situation is like for them. We show who we are through our sense of self and through our relationships with others, how we connect with the others.

The kinds of questions which exemplify empathy are:

How would you feel?

How would I feel if it happened to me?

What would it be like if you were the other person?

How do I show others I respect and value them?

Empathy is viewed as both a cognitive and affective process and is defined in a number of ways. Empathy (Deutsch & Madle, 1975) is sometimes referred to as a cognitive process, which involves cognitive role taking or perspective taking as critical attributes of the definition. Feshback (1975, p.145) refers to empathy as an affective process in which a person is able to "share an emotional response with another as well as the ability to discriminate the other's perspective and role". Hoffman (1984) defines empathy as "an affective response more appropriate to someone else's situation than to one's own." Eisenberg and Strayer (1990, p.5) identify empathy as "an emotional response that stems from another's emotional state or condition and is congruent with the other's emotional state or situation". For the purpose of the present paper, empathy is viewed as both a cognitive and affective process. Hoffman (1984) describes four developmental levels of empathy children progress through. Infants are not able to separate self from others, but as a precursor to empathy they might cry when they hear the cry of other infants. The second level develops as the child is able to physically differentiate self from others. At two to three-years of age the third level begins to develop. Children become aware that others might have feelings which are different from their own based on the other person's needs. As children develop a sense of self and others the ability to empathize becomes stronger. As language develops children begin to empathize with a wide range of emotions. In the primary education years children develop the ability to empathize with a person who is not present. At this point perspective-taking is a part of the process. The fourth, more advanced level, develops in late childhood. At this point children become able to empathize not only with what happens in the present and in a person's absence, but also with chronic problems of a person, a group of people, or society as a whole.

After self and empathy, the other element is the ability to decentre from the self, to look at a situation as it were from above, "transcendence" (Fisher,

2000, p.63). This refers to the ability to transcend individual or group interest to think what would be right for anyone in a given situation. Transcendence relates to the awareness of the concept of justice and to principles of fairness.

Such questions to enhance transcendence are:

- what would be the consequences of acting this way?
- what are the implications of behaving that way?
- what is the right thing to do?
- would it be right in every circumstances?
- what principle is involved?

The teacher's job here is that of coach and participant. They lead discussion-based learning and narrative learning. The first and arguably most fundamental approach, regards conversation as being useful for a pedagogy appropriate to moral education. It seeks to build, therefore, on the ideal speech situations of structured conversation, open discussion and disciplined dialogue. It can consider a range of relevant issues, conceptions of purpose, human nature, actual and ideal communities, perceptions of value and attitudinal contexts. Staff supervised peer-led communal enquiry helps students work together synergistically and follow some kind of intersubjective and checking methodology which hinges around four questions : what is this about?, what do we need to know and understand?, how far can we answer these questions? what questions are left with? This technique can be structured in such a way as to provide a safe environment within which self revelation can take place.

On the other hand, narrative learning is about the way to convey a world stocked with good or bad, that is, through stories. People cast and recast themselves as they follow narratives in the process making themselves like those who have good in them because this is where the moral sympathies reside and retain their primitive power and influence. The value of the narrative method is that it can facilitate the sort of inquiry that searches for the meaning of pivotal moral words and metaphors and of the implications of moral type actions of characters in narrative contexts. Because characters must choose, every choice implies an underlying value. (Totterdell, 2000, pp.138-139).

The most important thing after establishing the values is to select the books according to a good criteria.

- providing a good match between the moral values being taught and the stories

- for explicit moral values instruction, avoiding books dominated by violence
- choosing books with simple, clear story lines so that moral values are easily understood
- selecting brief stories that are and easy to comprehend and will not consume excessive amounts of class time
- selecting literature that is culturally diverse, representing cultures from different ethnic groups
- addressing gender issues but being cautious of the stereotypical sexist gender representations
- for less skilled readers, trying to select books with minimal texts.

The components of moral education values are four (Rest, Narváez, Bebeau, and

Thoma, 1999, pp. 100-103). Each component of the moral life represents a process that must be undergone if moral development is to occur.

1. Moral sensitivity (being aware that there is a moral problem when it exists)
2. Moral judgment (judging which action would be most justifiable in a moral sense)
3. Moral motivation (the degree of commitment to taking the moral course of action)
4. Moral character (persisting in a moral task)

Many educationalists and politicians draw up lists of values that are, according to them, relevant to education. They make a moral agenda for teachers. Sometimes these lists are long, but they often mention only a handful of central values. According to Berkowitz (1996), we do not need a pile of values to develop moral judgements and the actions that stem from them, but merely some central values like justice and human well-being. Berkowitz gives as an example the SCCS project in Scotland, in which a few central values are being used: respect and care for yourself, respect and care for others, a feeling of belonging and social responsibility. In the 'Just Community Schools' approach, the central values are care, trust, collective responsibility, and participation. In the Dutch debate on which values can be educational goals, the former chair of the Dutch Educational Council (Leune, 1997) mentions the basic human rights and values that are being justified by the importance of (national) health and the natural environment. Lists of values for education can include moral values like justice and solidarity, and more regulative values like order and structure in work and behaviour, the development of self-discipline and autonomy, empathy, and learning to deal with criticism. Berkowitz (1997) calls these regulative values 'meta-moral'

characteristics: they are the characteristics of the individual that support its moral functioning but that are not moral in themselves. Lists of values often differ in the dimensions: 'person oriented—social oriented'; 'conformation— independence'; 'accepting values—critical reflection on values'. The sets of values that are embedded in the curriculum and in the pedagogical mission of the schools are prescriptions for teachers who have to include them in their pedagogical practice.

In this study, the aim is to see how the bibliotherapy affects the freshmen at the large western state university in Turkey. This technique to enhance self-awareness and reinforce positive attitudes is sometimes called bibliotherapy and more specifically, educational/humanistic bibliotherapy or developmental bibliotherapy (Hynes & Hynes-Berry, 1986) when the facilitator is not a therapist and the participants are students.

3. METHOD

3.1. Participants

The study is conducted in a western state university, Izmir, Turkey . Two reading classes are selected for this study. The same researcher has designed the lesson plans and taught the classes. The students' ages are between 19 and 21; 44 of the students are girls and 6 are boys. For this study, one of the groups is randomly selected to be the experimental group while the other becomes the control group. Both groups studied the same plays for 4 weeks: "A Case of the Crushed Petunias" by T. S. Williams; "Trifles" by S. Glaspell, "A Day of Absence" by Douglas Turner Ward and "Only Drunks and Children Tell the Truth" by Drew Hayden Taylor.

3.2. Study Design

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of a literature-based approach on the extent to which students develop values, specific values, caring for others and empathy, are selected as the dependent variables and an experimental project is designed. The hypothesis is that reading and guided discussion of books which stress the theme of caring will have an effect on the extent to which students support these values. The experimental group discusses the characters and the themes to identify themselves with the characters and their motives, dilemmas and resolutions. To accomplish this, the questions such as "how would you feel?", "how would I feel if it happened to me?", "what would it be like if you were the other person?", "what would you do if you were in the same situation?", which attributes would you display?", "how do I show others I respect and value these characters?", "would it be different if the events took place in your cultural setting", "what would be the

consequences of acting this way?", "what are the implications of behaving that way?", "what is the right thing to do?", "would it be right in every circumstances?", and "how would you solve this dilemma?" are posed. For the control group, yes/no and wh- questions are asked to make students aware of the plot structure and the theme. At the end of the fourth week, students are asked to write their opinions or make up a story without worrying about what they are "supposed to say." The researcher identifies student essays by code number.

The four essay questions that are used to measure caring attitude:

1. There are a lot of women exposed to the domestic violence in the hands of their husbands. What could be done to help them? How could they feel in such situations? Does having children help them or not?
2. Have you ever witnessed the racial discrimination? You read that a white young man is selected to work as a waiter rather than a gypsy? Describe how you feel about this behavior.
3. You read that the twins are separated from the birth and they are adopted by different families living in different cultures. Years later, they meet. How would they feel?
4. Some people have no families. Do you think that friends can be like families? In what ways? In what ways are they different from families? Write about your opinions.

Inter-coder reliability was 95% for the first essay. At the pretest, 63% of the sample (57% of the experimental group and 68% of the control group) were classified as most supportive. Inter-coder reliability was 95% for the second essay. At the pretest, 63% of the sample (57% of the experimental group and 68% of the control group) were classified as most supportive. Inter-coder reliability was 95% for the third essay; 75% of the sample (78% of the experimental group and 71% of the control group) were classified as most supportive of caring at the pretest. Inter-coder reliability was 95% for this essay; 80% of the sample (78% of the experimental group and 80% of the control group) thought that that friends can provide the same kinds of emotional and social supports as do families.

4. Results

In analyzing the values of the students at the beginning of the study, some differences are found between the girls' and boys' essays, but they were not statistically significant. The girls' responses to all of the essay questions are more supportive. 81% of the girls and 62% of the boys give the most supportive response to the first essay ($X^2 = 2.92$, $df = 2$, $p = .23$); 75% of the girls and 70% of the boys gave the most caring response to the second essay

($X^2 = 1.3$, $df = 2$, $p = .52$). On the third essay on twins, 71% of the girls and 55% of the boys said that twins could be twins under every circumstances ($X^2 = 1.8$, $df = 2$, $p = .34$). On the fourth essay about friends, 82% of the girls and 61% of the boys said that friends could be as supportive as families ($X^2 = 1.5$, $df = 2$, $p = .47$).

To determine the effect of the reading project, the experimental and control group results are analyzed in the crosstabulation presented in Table 1. The majority of all students in both groups are consistent in their values, and the intervention group shows some change in support for the value of caring and they also demonstrate some support for the hypothesis that a literature-based curriculum can have an impact on caring values.

Table I
Comparison of Groups in terms of Empathy

Essays	Pretest		Post test	
	CG* (25)	EG** (25)	CG (25)	EG (25)
Domestic violence	18	19	19	24
Racial discrimination	17	17	19	23
Twins	17	16	18	23
Family versus Friends	17	17	19	24

*CG = Control Group

**EG = Experimental Group

The chi square distribution results of these groups are for the first essay $x^2 = 9.7$, $d.f. = 2$, $P = .013$, for the second essay $x^2 = 4.8$, $d.f. = 2$, $p = .09$, for the third essay $x^2 = 2.99$, $d.f. = 2$, $p = .12$, and for the fourth essay $x^2 = 3.79$, $d.f. = 2$, $p = .18$ which shows that the post test results are significant.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Martha Nussbaum (1997, p.293), drawing from Seneca, argues that historically there have been two conceptions of a liberal education. Both revolve around the word *liberalis*, or "fitted for freedom," as Nussbaum translates it. Fitted for freedom can refer to the initiation of an elite into the traditions of their society, or, as Seneca intended, it can mean the production of free men and women, free "because they can call their minds their own". Again relying on Seneca, Nussbaum sees cultivating humanity as opting for the second meaning while honoring the traditions revered by proponents of the first meaning by critically appropriating those traditions. Such cultivation requires transcending the perspectives and allegiances of one's group and addressing a plurality of visions and traditions both within and outside of one's own cultural location (Nussbaum, 1997). Ultimately, for "cathedral builders," it requires some sense of the transcendent worth of work and

action that of necessity will span generations (Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, and Stephens, 2003). For the “cathedral builders”, literary texts in language learning classes help individuals promote their own sense of empathy.

The researcher has observed that the general behavior of students has improved. Their readiness to listen to and engage with other children’s thoughts increased. They seem more willing to take risks with their thinking and to share their thoughts. They have more sophisticated thoughts which they express more clearly. Several quiet and shy students have offered valuable contributions. They seemed to become more in tune with each other as persons.

The strongest support for the hypothesis that a reading project can influence values is the finding that the experimental group became significantly more committed to the view that friends can fulfill many of the same emotional and social support functions as can families and that abused women should find a way to get rid of their husbands and support groups should be established for such women.

Several issues need to be considered when interpreting the results of this research. The indicators of the value of caring might be questioned. The fact that a large percentage of the essays for students in both groups are supportive of caring values is a particular source of concern. First, a question of validity can be raised. In a school setting, students might write the essays they think their teachers want to read rather than revealing their own beliefs. Second is the issue of time, with only a relatively small amount of time, four weeks, and interpretation of the results is difficult.

One interpretation of the results is that even with their methodological weaknesses, the findings are real, and there was some change in caring values as a result of reading and discussing selected literature. The changes were small, a reminder that values are not quickly or easily changed. Knowing that these students watch TV, spend time on many out-of-school activities, and have other curricula materials, with both implicit and explicit values presented, it may not be surprising that the four-week reading project in this study had only a modest effect. Teaching values and developing character is a complex and time-consuming task. If the value system presented in much of the popular culture designed for young adolescents does not include a great deal of support for positive values and prosocial behavior, and if a school curriculum must cover many other topics, it may not be possible to do substantial character or moral education with small, discrete projects. Schools may need an entire curriculum, beginning in the early grades, where values such as caring for others are introduced early and reinforced in later grades. Such reinforcement could include the reading and discussion of books with specific values as well as other techniques, such as community service

projects, the development of rules within the school, and the inclusion of families in curriculum development. Small reading projects may be able to affect values to some extent, but only when part of a larger framework will they be able to provide the kind of socialization the proponents of moral and character education advocate.

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Emotional and verbal intelligences in language learning

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The major aim of this study was to determine the impacts of emotional and verbal intelligences on English language learning success in Iran. To this end, three classes were selected—emotional, verbal, and control groups. To fully understand the nature of the learning, both the product and the process data were calculated and analyzed. The results of the product-based phase demonstrated that the emotional intelligence is effective in learning different skills, specifically productive ones. In the process-based phase, the analyses of oral and written modes of language exhibited the effects of emotional and verbal intelligences on turn-taking, amount of communication, the number of errors, and writing ability. Finally, the results were discussed in the context of the importance of the emotional intelligence in second language learning, and some implications were proposed for teachers and materials developers.

Key Words: Emotional intelligence; Foreign language learning; Product and process phases; Verbal intelligence

1. Introduction

Due to the nature of emotional intelligence (EQ), it seems that there is a relationship between EQ and foreign language learning. Few studies (Fahim and Pishghadam, 2007; Pishghadam and Ghonsooly, 2008) to date, have taken the influence of emotional intelligence in language learning into account. According to these studies, emotional intelligence is influential in second language learning and sometimes academic achievement. They have used correlational studies to find the relationship, but they have not run any experimental studies to come up with cause and effect relationship. Another type of intelligence which is evidently effective in language learning is verbal intelligence, and as Gardner (1983) stated it is the knowledge of words, synonyms, and antonyms which is the cornerstone of language acquisition undoubtedly. In second language learning environment, teachers go out of their ways to enhance it. But one important question remains to be answered: Does focusing on verbal intelligence in class warrant success in second language learning? or should it be accompanied by emotional intelligence to be more effective? Therefore, this study is seeking to find the answers to the following questions:

1. Does emotional intelligence have any effects on second language learning success?
2. Does verbal intelligence have any effects on second language learning success?

2. Background

Traditionally, it was believed that the most important point regarding innate abilities or here better to say intelligence was that IQ as it was defined generally was something fixed (Goleman, 1995), believing that from birth up to the end of life that was unchangeable, and one couldn't increase his IQ, meaning that, instruction had no impact on its improvement. Therefore, if somebody possesses a low IQ and if we believe that IQ accounts for success in second language acquisition, in that case the person seems to have little chance for success in second language acquisition; it goes without saying that the idea will lead to determinism, if your IQ is low, you will never learn a second language easily and fast (Carroll, 1993).

The idea of determinism of intelligence which had been strengthened by the works of Galton (1962) and Binet (1905) were found to be wrong by the works of Vygotsky (1978), Feuerstein (1979), and Ericsson, Krampe, and Tesch-Romer (1993).

Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development as it is defined by himself is:

The distance between the actual development 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 (1978, p.86).

The idea implies that intelligence is not something fixed; it can be increased through the collaboration of novices with experts. Central to Feuerstein's theory (1979) is the firm belief that anyone can become a fully effective learner. Another main component of his theory is the notion of "structural cognitive modifiability", which is the belief that people's cognitive structures are infinitely modifiable, i.e. no one ever achieves the full extent of their learning potential, but people can continue to develop their cognitive capacity throughout their lives.

Ericsson, Krampe, and Tesch-Romer (1993) believed in the role of Deliberate Practice, claiming that one can obtain what he wants through deliberate practice. Since this practice is generally done from childhood, people mistakenly think that extraordinary capabilities of individuals are innate and fixed.

Therefore, the pessimistic idea that intelligence is fixed and unchangeable has been replaced with optimistic idea of flexibility and modifiability of intelligence. One can increase his intelligence and it might be affected by instruction and practice. Since 1990, when for the first time emotional intelligence was introduced, its concept has been defined and redefined so many times, but it is possible to classify the definitions into two categories: emotional intelligence as a synonym for personality (Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 1997), and emotional intelligence as a mental ability (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Daniel Goleman (1995) the prominent spokesperson for emotional intelligence argued that roughly 80 percent of the variance among people in various forms of success that is unaccounted for by IQ tests and similar tests can be explained by other characteristics that constitute emotional intelligence. He has defined emotional intelligence as including “abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustration, to control impulses and delay gratification; to regulate one`s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think ; to emphasize and to hope”(1995, p.34). Later, Goleman redefined his first definition on emotional intelligence and broke down emotional intelligence into twenty-five different emotional competencies, among them political awareness, service orientation, self confidence, consciousness, and achievement drive (Goleman, 1998).

Goleman (2001) has recently made a distinction between emotional intelligence and emotional competencies. According to this view, emotional intelligence provides the bedrock for the development of a large number of competencies that help people perform more effectively. For instance, managers who possess a high level of what Salovey and Mayer (1990) think of as EI will not necessarily be more effective than other managers in dealing with conflict among their employees. However, they will be able to learn and to use conflict management skills more readily than will individuals who bring less EI to the job.

Another definition, by Bar-on (1997, p.14) characterizes emotional intelligence as “an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one`s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures.” His mode of emotional intelligence includes five broad areas of skills or competencies: intrapersonal Emotional Quotient (EQ), interpersonal EQ, adaptability EQ, stress management EQ, and general mood EQ (Bar-On, 1997, pp.43-45).

Similarly, Cooper`s (1996) EQ map begins with emotional self-awareness, emotional awareness of others, interpersonal connections, and intuition, among other areas. Salovey, Mayer and their colleagues (Mayer and Salovey, 1993, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990) have gradually shifted from a more all-encompassing model of emotional intelligence to a more restrictive model. Initial theorizing by Salovey and Mayer (1990) related emotional intelligence

to personality factors such as warmth and outgoingness. But in the time since, they have argued that emotional intelligence should be distinguished from personality variables and defined more strictly as an ability, specifically the ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and to use that knowledge to reason and solve problems. These investigators have proposed a framework of emotional intelligence to organize the various abilities involved in the adaptive processing of emotionally relevant information. These abilities pertain to (1) accurate appraisal and expression of emotions in oneself and in others, (2) assimilation of emotional experience into cognition, (3) recognition, understanding, and reasoning about emotions, and (4) adaptive regulation of emotions in oneself and in others (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso., 2000; Salovey and Mayer, 1994).

3. METHOD

3.1. Participants

The total population participating in this study included 48 subjects (38 females and 10 males). Since three participants quit the experiment during the term, the number of subjects taken into account in the data analysis decreased totally to 45 subjects. This study was carried out in College of Ferdowsi University in Mashhad, Iran. The ages of participants averaged to be 23.5 (SD=4.4) for male subjects and 22.7 (SD=3.5) for female subjects. The study comprised students at the upper-intermediate level whose TOEFL scores in all classes ranged from 401 up to 475 in pretesting. The subjects in this study consisted of B.A. and M.A. students in different majors including: social sciences, humanities, engineering, and medicine.

3.2. Instruments

TOEFL was administered to measure the proficiency level of the experimental sample and to determine the effects of emotional and verbal intelligences on second language learning. The TOEFL used in this study was an official sample test published in 2005 by Educational Testing Service (ETS). The test consisted of three sections: (a) Listening Comprehension (50 items), (b) Structure and Written Expression (40 items), (c) Reading Comprehension (50 items), and Writing section (1 essay) was taken from the Internet-Based TOEFL (2005). To check the speaking ability, some interviews were conducted based on the IELTS guidelines. It took approximately three hours long to administer the test. The test used both for pretesting and also post testing in this study. The reliability coefficients of listening (KR-20: .91), structure (KR-20: .90), reading (KR-20: .89), and the whole test (KR-20: .92) were high, and the inter-rater reliability coefficients of writing and speaking

abilities were also calculated (using Pearson correlation) to be high (writing: $r: .87$ and speaking: $r: .84$).

3.3. Data Collection

Experimental data were collected over 3 months, in 27 sessions from June 2006 up to September 2006. Three classes (2 experimental groups and one control group) were selected to investigate the effects of emotional and verbal intelligences on second language learning. Students met the classes two sessions in a week for one hour and half. Administering the required treatments, both the process and product of learning were examined.

At the very beginning of the term, to ensure the homogeneity of the groups, the TOEFL was administered and since the TOEFL lacks any speaking section, to check the speaking ability, two raters were asked to score students. The results show that there were no significant differences among all three groups in total scores.

The book which was taught in all three classes as the requirement of the institute was the first 6 units of *Passages* by Richards and Sandy (1998). This book has been designed for communicative purposes, including grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, speaking, and writing; and it is suggested for upper-intermediate level by the authors. Followed the guidelines proposed by Segal (1997), and Maurer and Brackett (2004), some techniques were used to increase emotional intelligence in the classroom; these techniques included: discussion, listening to music, watching some clips, self-disclosure and reading. During the first half of each session students were asked to talk about their feelings (empathy, sympathy, patience, anxiety, fear, self-confidence...), then they were asked to relate them to their real life situation and find a way to their problems if they had; for example, they discussed in group works how to cope with stress, how to lower their anxiety or how to boost self-confidence. Some texts were selected from *Chicken soup for the soul: 101 stories to open the heart and rekindle the spirit* by Canfield and Hansen (1993) for students to self discover their own abilities and know themselves more. This book contains real life stories for those who like to polish up their souls and rekindle their spirits. Students were asked to read and discuss them with their friends. To lower stress and make them relaxed in the class, some pieces of light music were played at the background of the classroom, and sometimes some emotional clips which were films on mountains and jungles were shown.

To increase the verbal intelligence of the learners, the first half of each session was devoted to working on 504 Absolutely essential words by Bromberg, Leiebb, and Traiger (2005) and some reading texts from the TOEFL practice tests. Students were forced to learn and memorize lots of

words, synonyms and antonyms and sometimes they were asked to know the etymology of the words. The major aim of this class was to increase the vocabulary knowledge of students as much as possible.

4. Data Analysis

4.1. Product-based data

To ensure the homogeneity of the groups, the TOEFL was administered at the very beginning of the term, and ANOVA was utilized to investigate the homogeneity of the groups. The same TOEFL was administered at the end of the term to specify whether independent variables (emotional and verbal intelligences) have had any effects on reading, listening, and writing; and since the TOEFL lacked any speaking section, interviews, designed based on the guidelines by the IELTS, were conducted to measure the effects of the independent variables on speaking ability too. Interviews were conducted by 2 raters which were trained and both had MA degrees in TEFL. The writing section of the TOEFL was also scored by these two raters.

Collecting the data, at the end of the term, one-way ANOVA was used to determine whether there were any specific differences among these groups. Then to locate the areas of differences, Scheffe post-hoc tests were utilized.

4.2. Process-based data

Based on the guidelines by Mackey and Gass (2005), the classroom interaction and writing ability of the learners were analyzed. Since in this analysis the quality of the learning process was of great concern, the oral language, (turn-taking, T-units, and the number of errors) and written language (grammar, mechanics, vocabulary, fluency and relevance) were analyzed. Finally, the impressions of the learners at the end of the term in experimental groups towards the treatments were examined.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1. Product-based data

At the end of the term, after collecting the data one-way ANOVA was utilized for the total scores, reading, listening, speaking, and writing skills to find out whether emotional and verbal intelligences had any effects on second language learning, and to locate the areas of differences among the three groups Scheffe post hoc tests were run for the total scores, reading, listening, speaking, and writing abilities.

Table 1.
ANOVA Results of Posttest for Variation in the TOEFL Scores in All Three Groups

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
total	Between Groups	2	1383.661	6.019	.007
	Within Groups	42	229.872		
reading	Between Groups	2	287.728	5.126	.013
	Within Groups	42	56.130		
listening	Between Groups	2	60.711	1.322	.283
	Within Groups	42	45.928		
speaking	Between Groups	2	36.367	6.377	.005
	Within Groups	42	5.702		
writing	Between Groups	2	55.711	6.774	.004
	Within Groups	42	8.224		

Table 1 shows that there were significant differences among the three groups with respect to the total scores ($F=6.01$, $p<.05$), and the results of the Scheffe test demonstrated that groups of verbal (mean=84.5) and emotional (mean=81.9) intelligences outperformed the control group (mean=63.1) respectively (table 2).

Table 2.
Scheffe Post-hoc Test for Total Scores

groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
control	15	63.18	
emotional	16		81.91
verbal	14		84.50
Sig.		1.000	.931

According to table 1 above the three groups were statistically different ($F=5.12$, $p<.05$) in reading ability, meaning that the verbal intelligence group (mean=31.6) has done better than the emotional (mean=21.9) and control (mean=21.5) groups in reading skill (table 3).

Table 1 above shows that there were no significant differences ($F=1.32$, $p>.05$) among the three groups in listening ability, meaning that neither emotional intelligence nor verbal intelligence had any effect on this skill.

Table 3.
Scheffe Post-hoc Test for Reading Ability

groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
control	15	21.55	
emotional	16	21.91	
verbal	14		31.63
Sig.		.994	1.000

According to table 1 above, the differences among the three groups were statistically significant ($F=6.37$, $p<.05$) in speaking ability, meaning that emotional intelligence group (mean=17.7) achieved higher scores than the control group (mean=14.09) with respect to the speaking skill, and there was no significant difference between the verbal intelligence (mean=15.8) and control groups, and no significant differences between the groups of emotional and verbal intelligences were observed (table 4).

Table 4.
Scheffe Post-hoc Test for Speaking Ability

groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
control	15	14.09	
verbal	14	15.88	15.88
emotional	16		17.73
Sig.		.273	.248

Table 5.
Scheffe Post-hoc Test for Writing Ability

groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
control	15	13.36	
emotional	16		17.00
verbal	14		17.75
Sig.		1.000	.847

As table 1 above shows, there were significant differences among the three groups in writing ability ($F=6.77$, $p<.05$), meaning that both verbal (mean=17.7) and emotional (mean=17) intelligences groups outperformed the control group (mean=13.3) with respect to the writing ability (table 5 above).

3.2. Process-based data

To better understand the nature of the treatments and their effects on second language learning, the oral and written languages were analyzed. To do so, the researcher tape-recorded all sessions and analyzed the process of learning English meticulously. Since the focus was on the process and the quality of learning, the researcher didn't use any rigid statistics in this section.

3.2.1. Oral language

Followed the guidelines outlined by Mackey and Gass (2005), the interaction in the classroom was analyzed. The criteria to check the speaking ability included turn-taking -the times students got permission to speak-, amount of communication-the number of T-units students used, and number of errors made by the students. These points were investigated during the beginning, middle, and the end of the term.

3.2.1.1. Turn-taking

Table 6 demonstrates the results of the turn-taking during the beginning, middle, and end of the term in each group (the number of students in each group was 14). The results showed that the administration of the treatments could increase the turn-taking in the experimental groups: emotional intelligence group from 46 to 73, verbal intelligence group from 43 to 62, and control group from 48 to 54. This means that the students in the emotional intelligence group felt free to take more turns speaking in the classroom.

Table 6.

The Frequency of Turn-taking in Each Group During the Beginning, Middle, and End of the Term

Group	STT		
	in 2nd and 3 rd	in 12 th and 13 th	in 21st and 22nd
Emotional intelligence	46	69	73
Verbal intelligence	43	60	62
Control	48	53	54

3.2.1.2. Amount of communication

To determine how much students talked in each class T-units -one main clause with all subordinate clauses attached to it- were calculated. In fact, to

specify the amount of the communication in each class the T-units, which were used by all members of each class during the beginning, middle, and end of the term were calculated.

As table 7 shows there has been an increase in the number of the T-units used in each group, but the emotional intelligence group led the list (332 - 425 - 483), then verbal intelligence group (301 - 330 - 352) and finally the control group (319 - 338 - 348), meaning that the learners in the emotional intelligence group used more T-units in the classroom or better to say, they talked more than the other two classes.

Table 7.

The Number of T-units in Each Group During the Beginning, Middle, and End of the Term

Group	T-units		
	in 2nd and 3 rd	in 12 th and 13 th	in 21st and 22nd
Emotional intelligence	332	425	483
Verbal intelligence	301	330	352
Control	319	338	348

3.2.1.3. Number of errors

Based on the guidelines developed by Nystrom (1983), the errors made by the students during sessions 4, 11, and 20 were counted. These errors were categorized in terms of:

- Phonology: Errors referring to mispronunciation of words;
- Syntax: Grammatical errors made at the level of a sentence;
- Discourse: Errors referring to misapplication of cohesive devices;
- Content: Semantic errors emanating from lack of word knowledge.

No distinction was made between errors and mistakes, all deviations from the normal language were considered to be errors. This study took only teacher-to-learner interaction into account and disregarded the learner-to-learner interaction. Whenever the students made any mistakes, the teacher, in all groups, corrected their mistakes in the same way by telling students what to say. Tables 8, 9, and 10 illustrate the number of errors made by the learners in all groups. According to these tables, the verbal intelligence group (N=86) made fewer mistakes than the emotional intelligence group (N=96.3) and the control group (N=100). It is evident that the number of the errors in all groups has decreased in the course of time which seems to be natural: Emotional intelligence group (102 - 96 - 91), the verbal intelligence group (101 - 86 - 71), and the control group (102 - 102 - 96). On closer scrutiny, It becomes clear that the verbal intelligence has lowered the number of the

Phonological (45 – 38 – 29) and Content (19 – 13 - 10) errors more than any other error types.

Table 8.

The Number of Errors Made by the Learners in the Emotional Intelligence Group

Errors	Session 4	Session 11	Session 20	Total
Phonology	46	44	43	44.3
Syntax	29	28	26	27.6
Discourse	8	7	7	7.3
Content	19	17	15	17
Total	102	96	91	96.3

Table 9.

The Number of Errors Made by the Learners in the Verbal Intelligence Group

Errors	Session 4	Session 11	Session 20	Total
Phonology	45	38	29	37.3
Syntax	29	28	25	27.3
Discourse	8	7	7	7.3
Content	19	13	10	14
Total	101	86	71	86

Table 10.

The Number of Errors Made by the Learners in the Control Group

Errors	Session 4	Session 11	Session 20	Total
Phonology	49	48	45	47.3
Syntax	27	28	26	27
Discourse	9	8	9	8.6
Content	17	18	16	17
Total	102	102	96	100

3.2.2. Written language

Criteria mentioned in Heaton (1990) for scoring the writing ability were utilized to see whether the independent variables had any effect on writing ability. Two scorers were asked, following the guidelines provided by Heaton (1990) for the analytic method of scoring the writing ability, to correct participants' writings during sessions 2, 12, and 19. These writings, which were chosen from the TOEFL practice tests, had been assigned as homework

and students were supposed to write them at home and deliver them next session.

Table 11.

Marking Scheme Suggested by Heaton (1990) for Scoring Writing Ability

Scoring	5	4	3	2	1
Grammar					
Mechanics					
Vocabulary					
Fluency					
Relevance					

According to Heaton (1990) Mechanics refers to punctuation and spelling; Fluency to style and ease of communication; and Relevance to the content in relation to the task demanded of the student. A 5-point scale has been used.

Table 12.

Results of Scoring for All of the Groups in Session 2

Scoring	Control	Emotional	Verbal
Grammar	2.8	2.7	2.1
Mechanics	3	3.1	3
Vocabulary	2.2	2.3	2.8
Fluency	1.4	1.7	2.5
Relevance	2.8	2.1	1.7
Total	12.2	11.9	12.1

Table 13.

Results of Scoring for All of the Groups in Session 12

Scoring	Control	Emotional	Verbal
Grammar	3	3.2	3.5
Mechanics	3.1	2.9	3.2
Vocabulary	2.8	3.3	4.1
Fluency	1.9	4.1	3.1
Relevance	2.1	3.4	2.8
Total	12.9	14.7	16.7

As tables 12, 13, and 14 illustrate at the very beginning of the term all of the classes were at the same level of writing ability, but in session 12th the verbal intelligence group (M=16.7) and the emotional intelligence group (M=14.7) performed better than the control group (M=12.9). To be more exact, it seems that the verbal intelligence group (2.8, 4.1, 4.3) outscored the other two

groups (the emotional intelligence group: 2.3, 3.3, 3.3 and the control group: 2.2, 2.8, 2.9) in the vocabulary part; and the emotional intelligence group (fluency: 1.7, 4.1, 4.3 and relevance: 2.1, 3.4, 3.5) outperformed the verbal intelligence group (fluency: 2.5, 3.1, 3.4 and relevance: 1.7, 2.8, 2.9) and the control group (fluency: 1.4, 1.9, 2.8 and relevance: 2.8, 2.1, 2.5) in fluency and relevance, meaning that verbal intelligence gives the verbal knowledge a boost, and emotional intelligence has more effect on the fluency and relevance of writing.

Table 14.

Results of Scoring for All of the Groups in Session 19

Scoring	Control	Emotional	Verbal
Grammar	3	3.4	3.4
Mechanics	3.3	2.6	3.8
Vocabulary	2.9	3.1	4.2
Fluency	2.8	4.3	3.4
Relevance	2.5	3.5	2.9
Total	14.5	16.5	17.7

3.3. General remarks

It seems that students in the verbal intelligence group were not much interested in the method of teaching in the classroom and 3 out of 17 students in the verbal intelligence group quit the class in the middle of the term. Being curious why they had left the class, the researcher put the question to them, the following remarks were made by them:

“It seemed that the course was about to be more difficult. In fact, I don’t like to learn English that way.”

“The class somehow was boring, monotonous and somehow emotionless, the teacher all the time focused on synonyms, and antonyms. I hate that way.”

“Oh, truly it was so difficult. I hate memorization.”

To know more about the reactions of the participants about the treatments, in the last session of the term, the researcher asked both the emotional intelligence group and the verbal intelligence group to write down their feelings about the classes they had experienced.

The remarks made by the learners show that students in the emotional intelligence group considered the class as a psychology class in which students got familiar with their emotions and feelings deeply, and learned how to overcome their stress and anxiety in class and express themselves

freely. However, to students in the verbal intelligence group the class was a bore, though fruitful.

In sum, although students in the verbal intelligence group learned much, they were not much satisfied with the way they learned English, some of them quit the class before the end of the term just because of the dull nature of the class; however, in the emotional intelligence class, the students were more relaxed and stress-free, willing to learn more. In fact, the former decried the class as boring and somniferous and the latter extolled the class as fascinating and interesting.

6. Conclusion

As the results of the product-based and process-based studies demonstrated, emotional intelligence is of great importance in interactive and communicative tasks. It seems that emotional competencies contribute more than verbal intelligence to the speaking ability. Furthermore, emotional intelligence can improve the writing ability of the learners more than verbal intelligence especially in relevancy and fluency. In a nutshell, emotional intelligence is more effective than verbal intelligence in developing productive abilities. Working on emotional factors is not something novel.

A number of methodologies have existed which specifically address emotional/psychological issues in second language learning (ex: Suggestopedia), some of which were motivated by Krashen`s (1981) claims in the Monitor Model, specifically the part about the affective filter. The problem with all of the theories in second language learning dealing with emotional issues is that they do not provide us with a general framework by which one can analyze exactly the emotional factors in an EFL class. However, the emotional picture which was displayed by Bar-On (1997) is a reliable source of reference by which one can examine the emotional factors in a second language class.

English is considered to be a foreign language in Iran, because it is spoken only in class. Prior to getting into university students study English for 8 years at school and then pursue their English studies at university. Since people in Iran put more premium on learning English and some jobs require a high command of English, it is prestigious to learn English in Iran and to acquire a native-like accent. Owing to the above-mentioned conditions, English language teachers in Iran are perfectionists, demanding correct use of language, putting lots of pressure on students to apply English accurately and appropriately. English classes generally are threatening milieus in Iran, students` feelings are not taken into account, and their second language errors are corrected immediately in a direct way. Students generally suffer from error phobia, meaning that they don't write or speak until they think

they are perfect to do them. Nevertheless, since the system of education in Iran is centralized, all decisions are made by authorities in charge, classes are teacher-centered, and students are not allowed to voice their views freely in class; therefore, it seems to be natural that emotional factors, especially, intrapersonal competencies and stress management abilities can be of great importance in this context of learning.

The findings of this study suggest several implications for English language profession. If we believe that emotional intelligence can be increased, trained and schooled (Elias et al., 1997), and if we assume that it may be possible to educate those who are low in emotional competencies to improve their abilities to better recognize their feelings, express them, and regulate them (Mayer and Geher, 1996), language policy makers are expected to include programs to raise emotional competencies of their learners. Curricula should seek to educate learners about the value of emotional competencies. They also seek to foster the development of specific skills in these areas (e.g., recognition of emotions in self and others, empathy, conflict resolution).

Furthermore, English teachers are expected to be familiar with the concept, striving hard first to raise their own emotional competencies and then try to enhance the emotional intelligence of their learners. Materials developers are required to include techniques which pay more attention to emotional factors, leading the learners to more self -and- other-discovery. Some helpful techniques which can be used to increase emotional intelligence in the classroom include: discussion, listening to light music, watching emotional clips, self-disclosure, designing questionnaires and reading literature and psychological texts. For example employing questionnaires or holding discussion groups on emotional competencies can highly contribute to emotional literacy. Well-organized questionnaires can make the learners be more aware of their own emotional competencies. Discussion groups in which the learners are asked to express their feelings freely and share it with others in an explicit way can make the learners know themselves deeply, foster a good relation with others, and reduce stress and anxiety dramatically.

Considering the findings of this study, the following suggestions are made to investigate other aspects of emotional intelligence in TESOL.

1. In the present research sex, age, and ethnic bias were not taken into account. A more detailed study is needed to demonstrate the relationship between emotional intelligence and these variables in second language learning.
2. In the present study, the effect of emotional and verbal intelligences was on second language learning. Another study is needed to

investigate the effect of emotional and verbal intelligences on second language teaching.

3. Another study is required to examine the role of emotional intelligence in language testing, specifically the relationship between emotional intelligence and different test forms.
4. This study was conducted in an EFL situation, another research with the same format and design can be done in an ESL situation to compare the results and to see whether these intelligences have different effects in different contexts.
5. This study can be replicated in other settings like other universities, schools, or institutes to see what kind of data can be obtained in other contexts.
6. In this study, the correlation was made between emotional and verbal intelligences and scores in different skills at university, another research is required to correlate emotional and verbal intelligences with scores on TOEFL or IELTS.
7. Since in this study the accent was on the teacher-to-learner interaction, another study is required to take into account the learner-to-learner interaction.

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Variation of Test anxiety over Listening and Speaking Test Performance

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Among factors affecting test performance, test anxiety has been the focus of attentions for decades. However, the skills have always been considered in isolation. This study intends to investigate the effect of test anxiety in relation with two major skills—listening and speaking—associated with test anxiety, as well as the amount of anxiety before and after the listening test. Three intact groups (74 freshmen students of English) participated in the study: Group 1 took the Anxiety scale (Fujii, 1993) before their final exam which was conducted in the form of oral interview; Group 2 took the questionnaire before the final exam which was in the form of a listening comprehension (LC) test; and the third group did so after the LC test was over. The results indicated that anxiety is a more serious factor in taking oral tests than in the LC type tests. However, no significant difference was found between test anxiety before and after the LC test. Results are discussed in relation to the previous literature, and general implications are given in relation with teaching and testing the relevant skills.

Key Words: Test anxiety; Oral interview; Listening Comprehension Test; Fujii; Test Influence Inventory

1. Introduction

Learning a foreign language has always been associated with some level of uneasiness or tension especially when taking a test, although a small amount of anxiety is normally expected as a natural warning symptom. Such anxiety soothes away after the menacing situation is over. Motivating us, it may work in our favor, but in larger scales, they can interfere or even impair our capacity to think, plan and perform on tests. Test anxiety can be considered natural as long as it helps learners to get ready for the exam but if it becomes counter-productive and keeps the learners from achieving their optimum performance, it would no longer be normal (Shomoossi et al. 2008).

Anxiety has been rigorously defined and asserted as ‘the emotion that one feels generally in certain related types of situations (trait anxiety) or in a specific situation (state anxiety)’ (Spielberger, 1966). Being stable over time and present in a variety of situations, trait anxiety is considered as part of a

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person's personality, which represents the likelihood of being anxious in specific types of situations. Most people experience anxiety that is present only during a particular situation or incident, which can be considered passing, and ideally will diminish over time.

One may believe that if an individual has a personality with general anxiety in many situations, he or she would certainly experience anxiety in the process of learning a new language. However, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, 1991a) found that general anxiety is not necessarily a predictor of language anxiety. A beginning foreign or second language student encounters many tasks and experiences that may be difficult including listening comprehension, oral performance, grammar, writing, etc. If these experiences result in the student becoming concerned about making mistakes or an understanding that he or she is not doing well, then state anxiety can occur. However, at this point, he or she may not connect the anxiety specifically with language learning. Over time, the student may begin to associate the anxiety with language learning and expect to feel anxiety in the language class and experiences in which the new language is used. At this point, it is believed that the student is experiencing language anxiety. Also, MacIntyre and Gardner's (1991b) review of the research methods and measures concluded that it is the state anxiety which causes situation-specific language anxiety. Unfortunately, those students who experience anxiety specifically in language classes, but not in other learning situations, are not always relieved of this anxiety over time. If students experience anxiety in the same or similar contexts related to language, the anxiety becomes a trait (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Anxiety as a trait can become much more of a problem in the long term for the language learner.

Interestingly, much of the research done on anxiety in the classroom has been correlational in nature and the results were normally negative correlations between anxiety and the achievement measures. For instance, MacIntyre & Gardner (1989) used Tobias' (1986) model of cognitive consequences of anxiety arousal to explain the negative association between performance and anxiety levels. MacIntyre & Gardner (1989) and Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1991) suggest that anxiety causes deficits in learning and poor language performance. In addition, Gardner & MacIntyre (1993) believe the strongest negative correlate with language learning success is anxiety. Also, anxiety has been positively correlated to low self-confidence in language learning (Gardner & MacIntyre 1993; MacIntyre & Gardner 1991a), low performance in speaking and writing tasks in the target language (Young, 1991), low grades in language classes (Aida, 1994), and poor language proficiency test performance (Ganschow et al., 1994). It can also be correlated with low cognitive functioning and low language achievement.

In general, language anxiety has been shown to result in negative academic effects for the learner. Anxious students have also shown to feel that they are left behind by too hurried a pace in classroom lessons (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a). Overstudying as a compensatory effort for language anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1991; Price, 1991) can lead to lower performance results than could be expected given the time invested. The opposite can also occur, where the over-anxious student avoids studying, and even attending the foreign language class, to alleviate their apprehension (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1991).

2. Background

Many reasons and outcomes can be conceived for test anxiety but for the purposes of this research, we will focus on the variation of test anxiety over LC and oral test performances. The increasing interest in outcome-based approaches to assessment and reporting in language testing has heightened the need for more research on fair assessment by which more valid inferences can be drawn. Although assessment can be done without tests (e.g., by portfolios, by self- and peer-assessments, etc.), assessment based on tests is of particular interest and complexity. The present research focuses on one variable related to test-takers' characteristics, namely test anxiety, and investigates to what extent test anxiety varies before and after listening test performance, and to what extent it varies over oral production tasks.

According to Bachman & Palmer (1996), test performance is attributed to test-taker and test task characteristics. The test-taker characteristics consist of five categories: topical knowledge, language knowledge, personal characteristics, strategic competence, and affective schemata. Of these characteristics, the first three interact with the last two. The test-taker characteristics and test task characteristics have effects on each other; consequently, test performance results from these interactions. Since our decisions or inferences based on test performance depend on these characteristics, it is very important to know how these components affect test performance. Although these variables all merit investigation, a central issue seems to be how personal characteristics influence test performance.

There are many types of personal characteristics related to test performance (e.g., age, sex, nationality) (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 65), but one characteristic of great significance is test anxiety. Test anxiety refers to a 'special case of general anxiety consisting of phenomenological, physiological, and behavioral responses' related to a fear of failure (Sieber, 1980, p. 17) and to the 'experience of evaluation or testing' (Sieber, 1980, p. 18). It may occur due to test-takers' lack of learning or study skills (Shomoossi et al., 2008; Culler & Holahan, 1980; Hodapp & Henneberger, 1983; Wittmaier, 1972). One

comprehensive research conducted in this regard is a meta-analysis study by Hembree (1988) that uses correlation coefficients between a wide range of measures of performance and test anxiety based on 562 North American studies published from 1952 through 1986. Results indicate that test anxiety scores are negatively and very weakly related to grades in reading, English and foreign language.

In contrast, in the context of second language studies, anxiety is considered in attitudes and motivation studies (Gardner, 1985), and especially foreign language anxiety (Bailey et al., 1999; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Horwitz, 2001; Phillips, 1992) has often been examined. Foreign language anxiety is negatively and moderately correlated with oral exam grades and with written exam averages; and more specifically, it is negatively correlated with oral exam performance criteria even when controlled for ability in the case of university, intermediate French-course students (Phillips, 1992, pp. 17-18). For example, foreign language anxiety has a negative and moderate relationship with the number of target structures used when controlled for written exam averages. This suggests that regardless of ability level, foreign language anxiety affects oral test performance. Foreign language anxiety is also negatively and moderately correlated with general grades, listening grades, years in school, and years spent studying Arabic in the case of first- and second-year university students of Arabic as a foreign language (Elkhafaifi, 2005, p. 212). In sum, past studies show a negative and overall moderate relationship between foreign language anxiety and language achievement (Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 1998, p. 41).

Although research into foreign language anxiety is abundant, few investigations have directly focused on test anxiety, which is one component of foreign language anxiety (Bailey et al., 1999; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Horwitz, 2001; Phillips, 1992). The few studies conducted so far have shown that there is no clear-cut relationship between test anxiety and performance. Test anxiety is negatively and moderately correlated with course grades; whereas, it is positively and very weakly correlated at beginner levels, and it is positively and weakly correlated in beginner-level, regular German and Spanish classes (Chastain, 1975, p. 156).

In another study, test anxiety has a negative and very weak relationship with final grades (Horwitz, 1986, p. 561). Furthermore, it is combined into the same components as communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation when participants are students in beginner to intermediate English classes (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). Moreover, it does not load on any of the factors of foreign language anxiety (Aida, 1994), and it can be reduced to the same component as the general anxiety factor when a variety of anxiety scales are analyzed together, based on responses offered by students in

introductory language classes (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). The results from Aida (1994), and MacIntyre & Gardner (1989) approve of the idea that test anxiety is a general anxiety problem, not specific to the foreign language learning context (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, p. 268).

Despite these attempts to investigate the effects of test anxiety on test performance, the previous studies in second language context have been discovered to suffer from five major limitations (See In'nami, 2006). In'nami (2006) provides a solution to these five problems by using structural equation modeling (SEM), exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis and by examining the relationship between each constituent of test anxiety and performance measures. She examines a certain number of questionnaire items to examine how, if at all, test anxiety affects listening test performance. The two major questionnaires in her study are: Test Influence Inventory (Fujii, 1993) and Test Anxiety Scale (Sarason, 1975), which are also given in the present study. Although she conducted a comprehensive study, one of the limitations of her study, she admits at the end of her 2006 article, is the possible effect of before-after administration of the questionnaires. The purpose of the current research is, therefore, to measure the variation of test anxiety across three homogeneous groups: (1) before listening test performance, (2) after listening test performance and (3) before speaking test performance.

3. METHOD

The purpose of the current research is, therefore, to measure the variation of test anxiety across listening test performance, and oral interviews or speaking test performance. Therefore, the study intends to answer the following questions:

1. Does test anxiety vary before and after listening test performance?
2. Does test anxiety vary before listening and speaking tests performance?
3. Does test anxiety vary with age?
4. Does test anxiety vary with sex?
5. Does test anxiety vary with general proficiency?

Three intact groups of first-year students (n=74) took part in this study. They had signed up for the Language Laboratory 1, as an obligatory course at BA level, at the University of Isfahan, a leading university in Iran. The course syllabus was the same for all three groups but instructors were not the same. In order to determine the homogeneity of the groups, the Oxford Placement Test or OPT (Dave, 1992) was given to all three group members. Then, a

questionnaire on anxiety (Fujii, 1993) examined and validated by In'nami (2006) was used to measure and compare the variation of test anxiety before and after listening test performance as well as its variation before speaking test performance across three homogenous groups. The scores on this scale can range from zero (no anxiety) to 80 (maximum anxiety). Since the effect and variation of test anxiety could not be measured in one single group both before and after a test, it was decided to give the questionnaires to two different groups, whose homogeneity was determined through OPT. For the purposes of comparing the variation of test anxiety in speaking test performance (oral interview), Group 1 took the test anxiety questionnaire before they start the oral exam. The other two groups both took the anxiety test before (Group 2) and after (Group 3) the listening test. Groups 1 and 2 were given the same final exam, jointly designed by the instructors as the syllabus and the contents of the course were the same. However, the instructor of Group 1 had decided to give them an oral performance task as part of their final exam.

4. Results

Three intact groups of first-year students (n=74) took part in this study. Group 1 took the test anxiety questionnaire before the oral exam, Group 2 before the listening test and Group 3 after the listening test. Table 1 presents the descriptive data obtained from the three groups.

Table 1.
Descriptive Data

Group	N	Sex		Age Mean	Group Range	
		M	F		Min	Max
1	32	6	25	18.9063±0.96250	18	21
2	18	4	14	19.4444±1.33823	18	22
3	24	13	11	19.4583±1.97768	18	27
Total Age Mean	19.2162±1.4549					
Total Age Range	Min	18				
	Max	27				

Based on the OPT scores (Table 2), the three groups were found to be homogeneous as for their overall language proficiency. In other words, the variation was found not to be significant and the comparison across these groups seemed to be logical. In order to answer the first research question, i.e. variation of anxiety before and after the listening comprehension (LC) test, t-test was run and the analysis revealed that the anxiety levels of the two groups taking the LC test (Groups 2 and 3) were 26.06±7.87 and 20.71±11.76

respectively. But the difference was not statistically significant across the two groups. Therefore, the response to the first question was negative.

Table 2.
OPT Scores of the Three Groups

OPT Group	Mean \pm SD	Std Error	95% CI for mean		Min	Max
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1	70.6875 \pm 8.49074	1.50097	67.6263	73.7487	47.00	83.00
2	71.5556 \pm 5.71090	1.34607	68.7156	74.3955	59.00	83.00
3	69.3750 \pm 9.28211	1.89470	65.4555	73.2945	46.00	86.00

Also in response to the second question 'Does test anxiety vary before listening and speaking tests performance?', it was found that anxiety levels before the oral interview (Group 1) and before the LC test (Group 2) were 31.5 \pm 13.07 and 26.06 \pm 7.87 respectively, and the difference was statistically significant ($p=0.038$). In other words, students experienced more anxiety before taking the oral exams than the LC test. The third question dealt with the correlation between test anxiety and age. Mean age across the three groups was 19.22 \pm 1.45 years (Table 1) and mean anxiety (Table 3) was 26.68 \pm 12.35. Pearson correlation analysis showed that the two variables correlated negatively ($r= - 0.152$) but the correlation was not strong ($p=0.197$). Therefore, no correlation can be conceived to exist between test anxiety and age across the groups.

Table 3.
Anxiety Levels of the Three Groups

Anxiety Group	Mean \pm SD	Std Error	95% CI for mean		Min	Max
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1	31.5000 \pm 13.07300	2.31100	26.7867	36.2133	9.00	62.00
2	26.0556 \pm 7.87006	1.85499	22.1419	29.9692	12.00	41.00
3	20.7083 \pm 11.75651	2.39979	15.7440	25.6727	3.00	59.00

The fourth question 'Does test anxiety vary with sex?' was analyzed and the results indicated that mean anxiety across male and female students were 23.71 \pm 12.68 and 27.85 \pm 12.14 respectively. However, the difference was not statistically significant.

'Does test anxiety vary with general proficiency?' was the last question to answer. In order to find the correlation between test anxiety and OPT (as a measure of general proficiency), correlations were found to be weak ($r=$

0.087). Therefore, the results indicated that there was no correlation between test anxiety and the general proficiency of students in this study.

5. Discussion

Having reviewed the literature in this regard, the researchers found that no study has so far focused on the comparison of test anxiety levels before and after the LC tests, on the one hand, and the comparison between anxiety levels of speaking and listening tests. In general, the literature in this area is not rich. Therefore, this study intended to examine the variation of test anxiety before and after the LC tests, and to compare oral-interview anxiety with before-LC test anxiety.

The findings revealed, first of all, that the anxiety levels of the subjects in Group 2 (before the LC) and Group 3 (after the LC) were not statistically different. However, the rate of anxiety in Group 2 was much higher than that of the Group 3. This indicates that before taking the test, the unpredictability of the test format and content, time limit, test types, its level of difficulty and cognitive demand may accelerate the students' anxiety. While it can be argued, that the anxiety should alleviate to a great extent after the exam is over, the exact opposite may also happen. In other words, some students may start getting more worried about the result, i.e. scores, and due to such unattended factors as lack of confidence or lower self-esteem, anxiety may not totally disappear. Also, anxiety has been positively correlated to low self-confidence in language learning (Gardner & MacIntyre 1993; MacIntyre & Gardner 1991a), low performance in speaking and writing tasks in the target language (Young, 1991), low grades in language classes (Aida, 1994), and poor language proficiency test performance (Ganschow et al., 1994). This type of trait anxiety (Spielberger, 1966) may be researched in more carefully controlled studies in future. Also, the participants in this study were all freshmen and were experiencing their finals for the first time at the university. State anxiety in Spielberger's (1966) terms, might have affected their anxiety to a great extent. Although MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, 1991a) found that general (or trait) anxiety is not necessarily a predictor of language anxiety, this might develop in the long run and turn to a trait in learners. However, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) believe the strongest negative correlate with language learning success is anxiety. It can also be correlated with low cognitive functioning and low language achievement. What could be distinguished here is the difference between the anxiety before taking the LC test and the anxiety after the LC test is over. Under normal conditions, the former should be concerned with test performance, and possible errors- i.e. the state anxiety. The latter, on the contrary, might be concerned with the student's personal concern for the outcome, i.e. the trait anxiety.

The second aspect of the results concerned with the significant difference between the anxiety levels before taking the oral interview (Group 1) and the LC test (Group 2). This may signify the nature of the two skills and their assessment. While the interviews are face-to-face and require more challenge with the interviewer, there is the possibility of self-corrections, hedges, etc. Therefore, the interviewer's gender, age and attitude may also contribute to the reduction or enhancement of test anxiety. Topical knowledge, language knowledge, personal characteristics, strategic competence, and affective schemata, all apply and play a role in the success or failure – and accordingly the rate of test anxiety – of the interview (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). On the other hand, the LC tests could be considered as passive tests and less challenging interpersonally, the disadvantage might be that it requires higher memory loads and concentration and that the testee might miss parts of the test content and feel helpless in answering some items. All five aspects in Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model may apply in the LC test while the topical knowledge and strategic competence may be conceived to play major roles. Specifically, the topical knowledge can be a source of test anxiety when the testee does not feel at ease with the test content and topic. What is certain is that both skills are associated with test anxiety.

The third set of data suggested that age and test anxiety negatively, but very weakly, correlated. Shomoossi et al. (2008) found that it could occur due to test-takers' lack of learning or imperfect study skills. This may seem probable under normal circumstances – which are far from happening – as the older a person is, the more world experiences s/he might have had. Older students might have experienced more test situations over their life, and may take advantage of their prior experiences to cope with part of their test anxiety. However, lack of significance in the relationship between age and anxiety can be due to the small variation of the age range in the subjects of the study. Since the mean age of the three groups were not of a significant difference, the difference in anxiety levels of younger and older subjects cannot be examined on a solid basis in this study. Further studies can examine this relationship with a wider age range of students.

The fourth set of data was concerned with the general proficiency and sex of the learners in the study. Contrary to Shomoossi et al. (2008), the students' OPT score very weakly correlated with reduced anxiety levels. This might be attributed to the little variation of OPT across the three groups and the learners in general because the three groups were homogeneous in this regard and this measure cannot be considered as a criteria for correlation. Also in Shomoossi et al. (2008) the subjects have been ESP learners taking the final ESP exam, and hence different from the learners and the skills tested. The second aspect is related to the gender, female participants being more anxious than the male subjects. While the difference was not significant, the

difference seems to be marked and this can be attributed to their gender-related characteristics in taking tests (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 65), their physiological and behavioral responses in relation to a fear of failure (Sieber, 1980, p. 17).

6. Conclusion

Test anxiety is an important area in foreign language testing, and listening comprehension and speaking are two major skills associated with test anxiety. The results of the current study indicated that anxiety can be a more serious problem in interviews. However, no significant differences were found to exist between anxiety levels before or after the LC tests. Remedial attempts are required to instruct learners on how to cope with such anxiety and to inform teachers and test designers on how to develop and administer anxiety-free tests.

In general, while this study intended to address 5 major questions in this regard, it suffered a number of limitations too. It can be considered as a pilot or a mini-scale study, and a more comprehensive study might be advised to take the following limitations into consideration. For instance, the lack of control for the participants' language background, different instructors for the same course, not considering personality traits and personal strategies should be taken care of in large-scale studies. Another possible limitation is the use of questionnaires to estimate test anxiety since there is no accurate device, so to speak, for measuring test anxiety. The obtained data could have been more expressive if a think-aloud protocol could have been obtained from the participants, at least from the most anxious and the least anxious students to delve into their feelings before the oral interview, or before and after the LC tests. Also, during the administration of the anxiety questionnaires, it was observed that some students had difficulty understanding the questionnaire items due to low English proficiency; therefore, it might be better to give low proficient groups a translated version of the questionnaire, which demands an accurate and reliable translation. Also the age variation was so low that the analysis of the negative correlation in regard with the anxiety was not possible.

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Appendix A: Test Influence Inventory (Fujii, 1993)

Instructions: Please mark the choice that best describes your test-taking habits.

1 = Never; 2 = Almost never; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Almost always; 5 = Always

	1	2	3	4	5
01 I get nervous during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
02 I feel like going to the bathroom during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
03 I feel my heart beating very fast during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
04 I feel uneasy during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
05 My hands feel numb during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
06 I feel thirsty during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
07 I think of other students too much during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
08 I yawn during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
09 My hands perspire during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10 I cannot think straight during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11 I feel sleepy during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12 My eyes feel tired during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13 I feel less confident during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14 I do not know what I am doing during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15 I perspire during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16 I have memory lapses during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17 My eyes feel tired during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18 I get irritated during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19 My shoulders feel stiff during tests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20 I cannot concentrate during tests	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Language Learning Motivation among Iranian Undergraduate Students

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The aim of this study was to describe and examine Iranian's undergraduate students' integrative and instrumental motivation toward learning English as a foreign language. In the study, 79 non-English major students from Islamic Republic of Iran (IRI) were selected to complete a questionnaire reflecting their motivation for learning English. In order to determine the students' tendency towards the two kinds of motivation a modified 25-item survey adapted from Gardner's (1985) and Clement et al.'s (1994) was administered to undergraduate students in Birjand University of Iran. The results have shown that Iranian students had very high motivation and positive attitudes towards learning English and that they were more instrumentally motivated. Finally, based on the findings, some suggestions and recommendations for teachers have been highlighted.

Key Words: Attitude; Integrative Motivation; Instrumental Motivation; Iranian undergraduate students

1. Introduction

For the past three decades, motivation has been a central area for empirical research and theoretical work within the context of learning a language other than one's mother tongue, in other words in the context of second language learning (L2). Motivation represents one of the most appealing, complex variables used to explain individual differences in language learning (MacIntyre, et al., 2001).

Upon review of the literature available in the area of students' motivation for learning foreign languages, many studies attempted to explore the learners' integrative and instrumental motivation and most of them took Gardner's (1985) theory of motivation and its role in L2 learners' attained level of proficiency as a basis for research in the 60s, 70s and 80s. According to this theory, there are two types of motivation: integrative and instrumental. An integratively motivated L2 learner shows interest in learning about the culture and the people of the target language, whereas an instrumentally motivated learner has more pragmatic considerations in his/her mind regarding L2 learning, such as obtaining a job or earning more money. "The integratively motivated student," wrote Masgoret and Gardner (2003) "is one who is motivated to learn the second language, has openness to identification

with the other language community, and has favorable attitude toward the language situation.”

In 2001, Gardner wrote that persons who acquire languages through instrumental motivation are seeking “...a goal that doesn’t seem to involve any identification or feeling of closeness with the other language group, but instead focus on a more practical purpose that learning the language would serve for the individual.”

According to Ellis (1994) the learner factors that can influence the course of development are potentially infinite and very difficult to classify in a reliable manner. Second language acquisition (SLA) research has examined five general factors that contribute to individual learner differences in some depth. These are age, aptitude, cognitive style, motivation, and personality. Many SLA researchers examined nonlinguistic influences on SLA such as age, anxiety, and motivation (Ellis, 1997; Gass & Selinker, 2001; & Pica, 2003). Recent studies suggest that motivation is not static; rather, it evolves dynamically during the learning process, varying from day to day and task to task (Dornyei, 2002; Dornyei & Kormos, 2000). Motivation seems to be essential considering the nature of the learning task. For example, learning to master a second or foreign language, especially in a formal educational context, can be a slow and long process due to limitations in this context such as lack of linguistic input and authentic situations to practice, which are critical to language learning.

In Iran, a few similar studies have also been conducted with different groups of students. Most of them, however, were college students. Shaikholeslami & Khayyer, (2006); Rastegar, (2003); and Tohidi, (1984) have done some research among Iranian students to investigate their motivation. Sadighi & Maghsudi, (2000) investigated the effect of the two types of motivation (integrative and instrumental) on the English proficiency of the EFL senior students at Islamic Azad University of Kerman city. The results of their study showed a significant difference between the means of the English proficiency scores of the integratively motivated students and the instrumentally motivated ones and there were significant correlations between the integrative and instrumental motivation with the students' English proficiency scores. It was also found out that the personal, social, and educational factors had significant relationships with the EFL students' motivation.

As far as we know the learning and teaching of English has long been a difficult task for both EFL students and teachers in Iran due to reasons such as lack of resources and little contact with the target language (Sadeghi, 2005). Iranian students are often highly motivated to study English. Therefore, it will be interesting and worthwhile to investigate and Iranian

students' motivation to learn English, especially non-English majors' learning motivation, because they constitute the main portion of the EFL population in this country. The present study intends to highlight the extent of Iranian undergraduate students' motivation in learning English as a foreign language and the differences in instrumental and integrative motivation. From this study, we hope to better understand their needs and help them develop appropriate strategies that may enhance their language learning. Furthermore, the findings of study may promise some improvements and changes regarding teaching and learning L2 in Iran.

This study aims to investigate the following research questions:

1. What are the Iranian college students' goals for learning English?
2. To what extent the university students of Iran are instrumentally or integratively oriented towards English language learning?
3. Have students' motivation for learning English changed after entering university or not?

2. Background

2.1. Integrative Versus Instrumental Motivation

Despite the fact that both kinds of motivation are essential elements of success in learning L2, much debate and controversy among researchers and educators have been taking place about which, kind of motivation is more important L2 learners. For a long time, integrative motivation was regarded as superior to instrumental motivation for predicting the success of second language learning (Gass & Selinker, 2001). Because if students respected the target culture, they may read literature or practice the language, and thereby be able to improve their language skills (Cook, 2001). However, from another perspective, instrumental motivation is meaningful for the learner who has had limited access to the L2 culture, or foreign language settings (Oxford, 1996). For example, Dornyei's (1990) study of the Canadian bilingual situation revealed that students tried to develop their language ability for the sake of their future careers. Therefore, both types of motivation can be regarded as being of equal importance, since both have the effect of encouraging learners to study the target language.

While both integrative and instrumental motivations are essential elements of success, it is integrative motivation which has been found to sustain long term success when learning a second language (Ellis 1997; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). In some of the early research conducted by Gardner and Lambert integrative motivation was viewed as being of more importance in a formal learning environment than instrumental motivation (Ellis, 1997). In later studies, integrative motivation has continued to be emphasized, although now the importance of instrumental motivation is also stressed. It

has been found that generally students select instrumental reasons more frequently than integrative reasons for the study of language. Those who do support an integrative approach to language study are usually more highly motivated and overall more successful in language learning. Dornyei, (1996) opposed Gardner by claiming that instrumental motivation and the learner's need for achievement are more important than the integrative motivation.

Upon review of the literature available in the area of students' motivation for learning foreign languages, many studies attempted to explore the learners' integrative and instrumental motivation. Oller (1997) studied educated Chinese speaking ESL students and he found that those who consider Americans as helpful, sincere and friendly did better in a cloze test of English as a second language. Man Fat, (2004) agrees with Oller when he explored the high motivation of English language learners in Hong Kong and his study reported the significant correlation between integrative motivation and language proficiency. Fu & Lee, (1980) found that Chinese students in Hong Kong were instrumental motivated.

One area where instrumental motivation can prove to be successful is in the situation where the learner is provided with no opportunity to use the target language and therefore, no chance to interact with members of the target group. The social situation helps to determine what kind of orientation learners have and what kind is most important for language learning.

2.2. English Language Teaching (ELT) in Iran

Considering the growth of international relations of Iran with other nations and the extended interest towards today's growing technology and science throughout the world, learning English language as an international language has found a greater importance compared to previous years. Increase in the numbers of language institutes and their students, also increasing interest of parents for their children to learn English can be a good evidence for the recent value of English language in Iran. In this country English is taught at guidance schools, high schools, and universities. English is so crucial a factor in determining the choice of the parents that the quality of the English program and the qualifications of the teachers working in each school may affect the families' choice of school for their children. Due to limitations in state schools, private language institutes have simply attracted an increasing number of interested learners including young children and adults. Many parents send their children from the age of six to learn English in these teaching centers. In universities Non-English Majors study English in a maximum of 6 credits: 3 credits of general English instruction and 3 credits of ESP in which they focus on their field related English texts and learn the related terminology. In Iran English is the dominant language of the foreign trade, international conferences, air traffic in international airports and sea

navigation. International book fairs and the trade exhibitions held annually in the country demonstrate the country's readiness and its dependable capacity to maintain its world relationship in English. Iran's cooperation with the UN, Islamic Conference Organization, OPEC and other regional and world organizations makes English quite practical for the involved nationals. According to Maleki & Zangani (2007) and Sadeghi (2005) one of the most serious problems that Iranian EFL students face in their field of study is their inability to communicate and handle English after graduating from university. This is due to their weaknesses in general English, which influence their academic success. General English should be given special attention at university level not only for EFL students, but also for students majoring in other fields. (Maleki & Zangani, 2007) Many high school and college students have limited occasion to use functional language and are not motivated to learn it. However, other learners of English would benefit from functional language instruction. These include translators, translation students, professors and the clergy; in fact, the clergy and the revolutionary young generation comprise the main group of Iranian English learners. (Hashemi, 1992) Having passed some courses and having graduated, Iranian EFL students in general seem not to be as proficient and qualified in language use and components as might be expected (Farhady, et al., 1994).

3. METHOD

3.1. Participants

In this study 79 first and second year non-English majors (41 females & 38 males) were selected from the total population of Birjand university students. 68.4% were from the Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering and 31.6% were the Humanities and Social Sciences majors. Although all subjects in this study came from the same university, they graduated from different secondary schools and brought along different attitudes and opinions toward learning English. The fact that they pursue knowledge in different departments at university also provided a variety of opinions about their L2 learning. All of the participants with the mean age of 19 had been learning English for approximately 7-8 years before starting their university education. The reason for selecting the undergraduate students at the university is that, they are expected to have a better understanding of their future careers, therefore, their attitude would influence their learning process.

3.2. Procedure

The Integrative and Instrumental motivation scale of the original 7-point Likert Scale format of Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Gardner, 1985) and Clement et al.'s (1994) were adapted to a 5-point scale,

ranging from 'Strongly Disagree' to 'Strongly Agree' and they were coded as (Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree=2, Neutral=3, Agree=4, Strongly Agree=5). Survey research is the standard, 'default' method (Dornyei, 2003). The most famous motivation questionnaire is Robert Gardner's (1985), Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, which is made up of over 130 items, and its reliability and validity have been supported (Gardner, 1985, 2005; Gardner & Macintyre, 1991; Gardner & Macintyre, 1993). Also, adaptations of the AMTB have been used in many studies of L2 motivation (e.g., Baker & Macintyre, 2000; Gardner, et al., 1992; Gardner & Macintyre 1993; Gardner, et al., 1997; Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001). The purpose and different terms of the questionnaire were explained before the distribution by teachers. During the completion process of the questionnaire, the teachers helped the respondents to understand all parts. Students were informed that the information they gave would be kept confidential and be used for research purposes only.

3.3. Instruments

Integrativeness (INT): On this scale, there are 12 items (items 1-12, see Appendix A) that would show their Integrativeness towards the target language.

Instrumentality (INS): This scale includes 13 items (items 13-25, Appendix A) and the respondents are asked to measure their utilitarian reason for learning English.

An open-ended question: As a measure to language self efficacy or students' perception of themselves as learners, an item for respondents to rate their own English proficiency level was also included in the survey questionnaire on a scale rating from very bad to very good to indicate how proficient they are at English. Also an open-ended question was constructed to elicit qualitative information to check whether there is any change in their motivation after entering the university and why?

4. Data Analysis

The data was fed into the computer and then was analyzed by using SPSS. Descriptive statistics (mean, frequency & standard deviation) were carried out for all items involved in this study. The paired samples T-test was used to find out the difference between integrative and instrumental motivation of students.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1.1 Integrativeness

Comparison between the mean scores of the questions in integrative part illustrated that students were strongly motivated in questions 1, 2, and 5. The

other questions (3, 4, 6, 8, 9, and 10) showed the students' moderate motivation among these 12 questions (table1). In comparison to other questions, Q7 (the more I get to know native English speakers, the more I like them) and Q11 (the British are kind and friendly) with mean score of above 2.5 showed low level of motivation and Q12 (the Americans are kind and cheerful, M= 2.67) had the lowest mean in integrative part. With an overall mean score of 3.47, respondents have quite high integrative motivation and in general agree that studying English can allow them to interact with other English speakers and to meet various cultures and peoples. However, they are neutral in viewing British and Americans as kind and friendly people. It might be due to their lack of contact with native speakers and political issues happening in the world, as well. Many of them never had a chance to know the native English speaker or even to have a clear idea about their culture. Their knowledge about the target language community is very much limited to books, novels or English movies. So, an integrative orientation may be harder to foster as an important driving force for learning English.

Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics of the 12 Items on Integrative Motivation (n=79)

Items: I study English	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD	V
Q1: to be more at ease with other people who speak English	1	0	2	37	39	4.43	.673	.453
Q2: to meet and converse with more and varied people	0	3	21	30	25	3.97	.862	.743
Q3: to better understand and appreciate English art and literature	5	8	26	29	11	3.42	1.057	1.118
Q4: to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups	3	4	33	23	16	3.57	.996	.992
Q5: to know the life of the English-speaking nations	1	4	17	34	23	3.94	.911	.829
Q6: to understand English pop music	10	11	22	20	16	3.27	1.288	1.659
Q7: The more I get to know native English speakers, the more I like them	8	20	32	10	9	2.90	1.116	1.246
Q8: to know various cultures and peoples	5	4	14	38	18	3.76	1.065	1.134
Q9: to keep in touch with foreign friends and acquaintances.	6	5	21	31	16	3.58	1.116	1.246
Q10: to know more about native English speakers	5	6	26	28	14	3.51	1.073	1.151
Q11: The British are kind and friendly	12	17	40	4	6	2.68	1.044	1.091
Q12: The Americans are kind and cheerful	9	22	40	2	6	2.67	.983	.967
Overall mean score						3.47		

5.1.2 Instrumentality

A close examination of the frequency distribution and mean scores of the instrumental items, indicates that questions 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 21, 22, 23 with the mean scores above 4 and questions number 19 & 24 with the mean scores approximately 4 show the students very high motivation (see table 7 below). With the overall mean score of 3.94 we can conclude that most of the university students have high instrumental motivation toward learning English.

Table 2.

Descriptive Statistics of the 13 Items on Instrumental Motivation (n=79)

I study English because....	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD	V	
Q13: I'll need it for my future career.	1	3	4	14	57	4.56	.859	.737	
Q14: it will make me a more knowledgeable person.	2	3	13	23	38	4.16	1.006	1.011	
Q15: it will someday be useful in getting a good job.	0	2	13	23	41	4.30	.837	.701	
Q16: other people will respect me more if I know English.	11	17	20	17	14	3.08	1.308	1.712	
Q17: I will be able to search for information and materials in English on the Internet.	1	2	3	25	48	4.48	.798	.637	
Q18: I will learn more about what's happening in the world.	3	1	8	35	32	4.16	.940	.883	
Q19: language learning often gives me a feeling of success.	3	3	21	32	20	3.80	.992	.984	
Q20: language learning often makes me happy.	6	8	23	26	16	3.48	1.153	1.330	
Q21: an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.	0	5	9	41	24	4.06	.822	.675	
Q22: I can understand English-speaking films, videos, TV or radio.	1	0	15	33	30	4.15	.818	.669	
Q23: I can read English books.	0	0	6	26	47	4.52	.638	.407	
Q24: to know new people from different parts of the world.	1	4	21	30	23	3.89	.934	.871	
Q25: without it one cannot be successful in any field.	17	22	17	17	6	2.66	1.249	1.561	
Overall mean score						3.94			

But questions number 16 (Studying English can be important for me because other people will respect me more if I know English, $M = 3.08$) and 25 (Studying English is important to me because without it one cannot be successful in any field), have the lowest mean ($M = 2.66$) in this category. Only 30% of the students agreed with it. The question which has the highest mean score (Q13) concerns future career. And Q17 with the mean score of 4.48

shows the students' need for searching the information and materials in English on the Internet.

5.1.3 Integrativeness versus Instrumentality

Comparing the overall mean scores of the items in instrumental motivation ($M=3.94$) to the integrative one ($M=3.47$), it can be concluded that the students are to a certain extent instrumentally motivated but they still have a higher degree of integrative motivation toward foreign language learning (see figure 1).

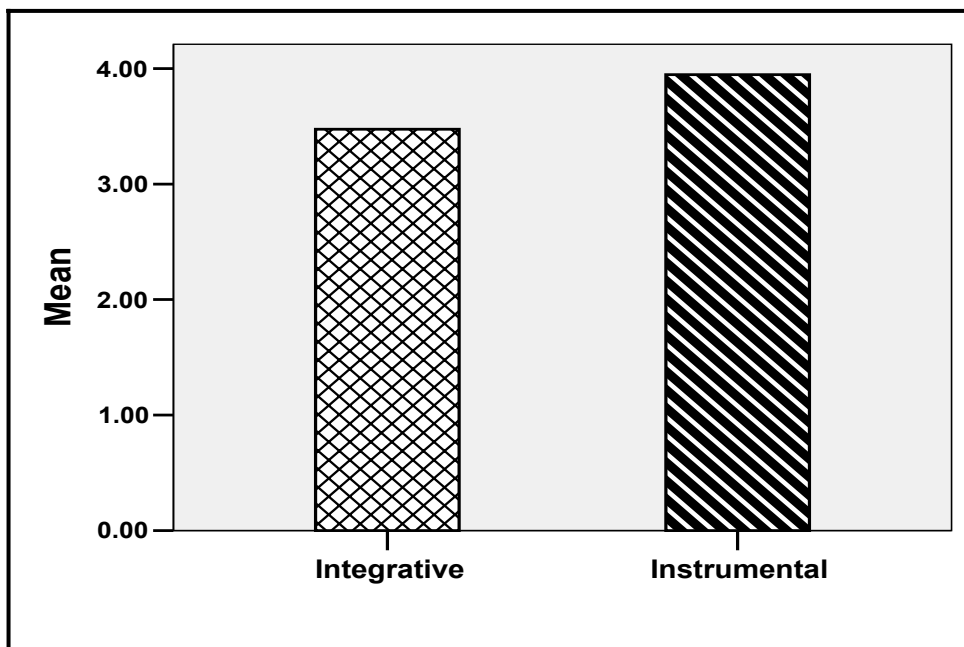


Figure 1. The overall means of students' integrativeness & instrumentality.

5.2 Results of Paired Samples T-Test

A paired samples T-test was applied to indicate whether there is a statistically significant difference between the total scores of the integrative motivation items (INT: $M=3.47$; $SD=.60$) and the instrumental motivation items (INS: $M=3.94$; $SD=.55$) or not (table 3).

Table 3.

Paired Samples T-test for Iranian Students INT vs. INS ($\alpha= .05$)

Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
-.4717	.4520	.05085	-9.277	78	.000

By applying the T- test it was found that there is a significant difference between the two scores ($t = -9.277, p < 0.001$).

5.3 Results of Perceived English Proficiency (Q26)

Question number 26 asked students to rate their English proficiency on a scale from very bad to very good (table 4). The data analysis shows that more than half of the respondents perceived their English proficiency to be average (57%) and only 11.4% rated themselves as good in English language.

Table 4.

Respondents' Perceived Levels of English Proficiency (n=79)

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Very Bad	7	8.9
Bad	16	20.3
Average	45	57.0
Good	9	11.4
Very Good	2	2.5

5.4 Analysis of Open -Ended Question (Q27)

With the high motivation found in the present study, the majority of the students (67.1%) reported that they had actually become more motivated to learn English according to their responses to the open-ended Q27 (Are you more or less motivated to learn English than when you were a secondary school student? Why). Most of them believe that after entering university they have realized the importance of English for becoming more successful in their education, especially for using internet and finding scientific sources concerning their majors and studying reference books and journals. Especially those who were Computer majors needed English for making use of up-to-date computer and engineering technologies to be prepared for their future job. Most of them mentioned the importance of studying English as it is the most dominant international language and enables them to use the computer programs more effectively. One of them wrote, " We should be good in English language, in order to work with computer programs and use internet."

Some believed that in secondary school, the contact hours were only time they studied the English subject; but in university, although the class met for two hours a week, additional time and self-reading was needed when preparing for an assignment, usually in the form of a written report papers or sometimes an oral presentation, all of which required research, reading, writing, and translating from English to Persian. A few of them have a clear plan for going abroad for further education and their career. Some of them need English for higher education in Iran because the post graduate students

have to pass the English Proficiency Test of the Ministry of science Research & Technology (MCHE) or the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Therefore, success in learning English will determine one's future progress. And the others like English because they can make more friends and talk to net friends from different parts of the world. Only 13.9% of the students' attitudes and motivation toward English didn't change much before or after they have entered the university. And the rest of them (19%) reported that they had become less motivated to learn English mainly because of the heavy burden of their major study, time limitation (table 5).

Table 5.
Frequency Distribution

Rating	Frequency	Percent
More	53	67.1
Less	15	19.0
The same	11	13.9
Total	79	100.0

6. Discussion

As mentioned before, this study provided information on Iranian motivation toward learning L2 in two relevant areas: integrative and instrumental. Studies have not consistently shown either form of motivation to be more effective than the other, and the role of each is probably conditioned by various personality and cultural factors.

The result of the study showed that Iranian students participated in the study had very high motivation towards learning English. And the students had a higher degree of instrumental motivation than the integrative one. Iranian L2 learners might preserve their identity by unconsciously selecting to be motivated instrumentally. Aspiration related to integrative motivation might affect their identity and fear of identifying with English (western) culture and values may be related to their socio-cultural and religious affiliation. Also the latest American colony and campaign against some countries in the area might affect their motivation. On the other hand, instrumental motivation was found more prominent in some situations particularly where there appears to be little desire to integrate.

Iran has visibly been opening up to the world. Fortunately, many international conferences on different cultural, social and economic issues are being held here and moreover, Iran is the pioneer of the idea of dialogue among civilizations. In spite of all these, the significant role of the English language as the lingua franca of today's world in establishing foreign relations

is simply neglected in Iran. As far as I know, very few native English speakers permitted to teach within Iran, therefore, Iranian students don't have the opportunity to benefit from native speakers' teaching language. We can see only few English speaking foreigners in the country who are tourists or belong to business sector. Moreover, the places you may find the tourists are limited to tourist sites, hotels, or business companies. Therefore, students have no contact with foreigners except for few cases. Studying a second language is unlike studying most other subjects in that it involves taking on elements of another culture (i.e., vocabulary, pronunciations, language structure, etc.), while most other school subjects involve elements common to one's own culture.

By saying that this should be considered when focusing on the concept of motivation, we mean that the individual is a member of a particular culture and many features of the individual are influenced by that culture. In the individual, this cultural context is expressed in terms of ones attitudes, beliefs, personality characteristics, ideals, expectations, etc. With respect to language learning, therefore, the individual will have various attitudes that might apply to language learning, beliefs about its value, meaningfulness, and implications, expectations about what can and cannot be achieved, and the importance of various personality characteristics in the learning process. All of these characteristics originate and develop in the overall cultural context as well as the immediate family.

According to responses collected in the questionnaire, one of the demotivating factors of Iranian students as they mentioned in their answer to question 27, was the fact that as the burden of their major study became heavier, many of the students had fewer chances to access English and made little effort to continue to learn the language. As a result, their English motivation would have probably decreased. Therefore, to maintain or enhance the students' positive attitudes toward and motivation to learn English and ultimately improve their English proficiency, it might be beneficial for the Universities to offer ESP courses throughout the university years so that non-English majors could have constant contact with the target language. In the subject of English for non-English majors because in the limited hours of instruction they normally could not have the chance of learning English especially the most favored skills of listening and speaking as the program is not designed to do so. However, when the students graduate, on the one hand, they feel the necessity of communicating in English and on the other hand find that their previous schooling did not help them to do so. Therefore, they resort to other means of learning to communicate the language such as registering at language institutes or hiring a tutor.

Another problem concerning these students is that, while their secondary school teachers are not competent at spoken language skills, the university instructors are, but the problem is that students are not at the level of proficiency to make the professors communicate with them in English. The other pressing limitation the students mentioned in open ended item is the short hours which do not let university professors, work on four skills adequately. Overcrowded classrooms in universities, is another problem. It is not surprising to see 50 or 60 or even 70 students in a class at universities. This large number in the classroom results in instructor's limitation in applying effective communicative methods with almost no student talking time in the class.

The system of the English language teaching in Iran is totally defective. It has not been revised for almost 25 years. So with such problems can we expect knowledgeable graduates? If we have a better realization of English language as an international language and understand its different variations and the effect of the native languages on them, considering the changing nature of them and also considering them as the accepted forms of English language, then we can have a better plan for future consideration of the language and setting the standards for it. For this purpose, literary scholars must join the language teachers in a common concern for setting the goal. To overcome some of these problems mentioned, the language skills of the teachers must be developed and teachers must be acquainted with modern techniques of foreign-language teaching. The greatest motivation to developing English-language programs comes from the wealth of scientific and technological knowledge that now exists in English. Interest in learning English has increased to such an extent that English is now considered by many researchers to be an international language (McKay, 2002).

As confirmed by the findings of the present study, Iranian learners have a very strong motivation for learning English. Teachers should be sensitive to learners' motives, to recognize their instrumentality, and at the same time raise their integrative motivation, as both kinds of motivation are required to induce people to learn. Teachers should encourage a balanced development of both types of motivation for learners. Recognizing learners' instrumental motives can be easily achieved by preparing learners for examinations and focusing more on practical skills such as how to communicate with other people when traveling abroad. On the other hand, raising their interests towards the culture of the target language (i.e., English) can be done by activities such as giving information on the lifestyle, geography, literature of the English-speaking countries through visual, written and audio forms, or even organizing group-sharing for learners who have been to English speaking countries.

According to Gardner (1996), attitudes are related to motivation and can be changed. Teachers can raise learners' integrative motivation by enhancing their positive attitudes and correcting their negative stereotypes towards English speaking countries and people as well as the English language itself. They can improve the contents, teaching methods, classroom activities to raise students' interests and motivation in language learning.

Both Keller and McNamara (cited in Ellis, 1997) suggest that increasing learners' participation is a good way to raise their interests in learning which in turn increase motivation. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) point out that "motivation is the feeling nurtured primarily by the classroom teacher." Therefore, teachers should be the agent to create a friendly and enthusiastic environment. As attitude change is influenced by a number of factors, including the credibility and attractiveness of the presenter, consequences of communication, environment, involvement of learners, form and content of message (Morgan, 1993), teachers should improve these aspects to facilitate better learner motivation.

Teacher feedback can also affect student motivation. The feedback should be encouraging and informational rather than controlling; otherwise, students may lose their motivation. There are some research findings concerning rewards teachers give their students (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1995). Extrinsic rewards (those from outside, e.g., good grades) can enhance students' performance; however, it might not help continuing motivation in learning since students get satisfied only in the desire of obtaining the reward rather than in learning itself. Brown (1990) pointed out that teacher-centered traditional schools tend to enhance extrinsic motivation and "fail to bring the learner into a collaborative process of competence building." That is, students tend to lose their natural interest in learning with extrinsic activities, while intrinsic motivation enhances student's internal motivation (e.g., happiness or satisfaction of doing activities or of learning, itself). Teachers should encourage students (e.g., by emphasizing mastery of specific goals whether their grades are good or not) to develop their own intrinsic rewards.

Moreover, teachers can help students recognize links between effort and outcome and attribute past failures to controllable factors (e.g., problems of time management, the use of inappropriate strategies, etc.), because those who attribute their failure to their own inability in learning tend to lose their motivation (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Generally, teachers should develop students' confidence with praise and encouragement in their feedback during or after class.

As the causal relationship between integrative motivation and classroom behaviors is unclear, encouraging positive classroom behaviors may be another option for teachers to enhance learners' positive attitudes which in

turn raise motivation (Cook, 2001). In order to make the language learning process a more motivating experience instructors need to put a great deal of thought into developing programs which maintain student interest and have obtainable short term goals. At university level this may include, any number of foreign exchange programs with other universities, overseas "home-stay" programs, or any other activities which may help to motivate students to improve their target language proficiency. Encouraging students to become more active participants in a lesson can sometimes assist them to see a purpose for improving their communication skills in the target language. Successful communication using the target language should result in students feeling some sense of accomplishment. Research in the area suggests L2 achievement strongly affects learner motivation (Strong 1983, cited in Ellis 1997).

The use of an interesting text can also help to increase the motivation level of students in the classroom. Many Iranian texts often contain material which fails to capture the interest of students due to the heavy emphasis on vocabulary and grammar. From an integrative point of view, it is important for the instructor to help students to realize that, even though they may see no need to become proficient in a second language, the study of another language and culture can only enhance their perception and understanding of other cultures.

Dornyei (1990) showed that instrumental motives significantly contribute to motivation in EFL contexts, and can involve a number of extrinsic motives, resulting in a fairly homogeneous subsystem. Instrumental motives most efficiently promote learning up to the intermediate level, but to go beyond this level, the learner must be integratively motivated (Krashen 1985; Gardner 1985). Dornyei (1998) stressed the importance of the teacher in developing motivation "teacher skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness."

Therefore, he gives ten suggestions for motivating language learners:

1. Set a personal example with your own behaviour. Role models in general have been found to be very influential on student motivation and the most prominent model in the classroom is the teacher: student attitudes and orientations towards learning are, to a large extent, modeled after their teachers both in terms of effort expenditure and orientations of interest in the subject.
2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom. This commandment requires little justification: in Gardner's (1985) model, 'attitudes toward the learning situation' is a key determinant of the motivation complex, and any practicing teacher is aware of the fact that

student anxiety created by a tense classroom climate is one of the most potent factors that undermine L2 motivation.

3. Present the task properly. The way teachers present a task is a powerful tool in raising students' interest in the activity as well as in increasing the expectancy of task fulfillment by setting realistic goals and offering effective strategies in reaching those. Task presentation, therefore, is a major constituent of the direct socialization of student motivation.
4. Develop a good relationship with the learners. This is a well known principle among teachers: a great deal of the students' learning effort is energized by the affiliative motive to please the teacher, and a good rapport between the teacher and the students is a basic requirement in any modern, student-centered approach to education.
5. Increase the learner's linguistic self-confidence. This commandment reflects the recognition in the last 20 years that one's perceptions of one's own competence as well as judgments of one's abilities to achieve a goal greatly determine the person's aspiration to initiate and perform goal-directed action. It must be stressed that self-confidence is not directly related to one's actual ability or competence but rather to subjective ability/competence; it is not necessarily what someone knows or can do which will determine their L2 use but rather what they think they know or can do. For example, some people feel quite confident about talking with only 100 words, whereas others with an extensive L2 knowledge shy away from putting that knowledge into action.
6. Make the language classes interesting. The basis of this commandment is the general observation that the quality of the learners' subjective experience is an important contributor to motivation to learn (Deci and Ryan, 1995). Accordingly, the concept of 'interest' has been given its due importance in Gardner's (1985) original model and also in more recent approaches to L2 motivation (e.g. Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1994; Schmidt et al., 1999; Tremblay and Gardner, 1995).
7. Promote learner autonomy. Promote learner autonomy. The emphasis on learner autonomy in L2 motivation research is relatively new; however, Ushioda's (1996) reviews and discussions provide evidence that L2 motivation and learner autonomy go hand in hand, that is, "enhanced motivation is conditional on learners taking responsibility for their own learning . . . and perceiving that their learning successes and failures are to be attributed to their own efforts and strategies rather than to factors outside their control. These self-regulatory conditions are characteristics of learner autonomy, and thus, as Ushioda explicitly states, "Autonomous language learners are by definition motivated learners".

8. Personalise the learning process. This commandment concerns the need that the L2 course should be personally relevant to the students. In the earlier set of commandments there was a similar item, Make the course relevant by doing a need analysis and adjusting the syllabus accordingly. The current version of the commandment is broader in that it extends relevance to the personal content of tasks as well (e.g. sharing personal information, interpersonal awareness-raising). This has also been seen as a key factor in promoting peer relations and group development in the classroom.
9. Increase the learners' goal-orientedness. As Oxford and Shearin have concluded 'goal-setting can have exceptional importance in stimulating L2 learning motivation, and it is therefore shocking that so little time and energy are spent in the L2 classroom on goal-setting' (1994). In the L2 field, goals have been traditionally referred to as orientations, which, have almost exclusively been looked upon either as integrative or instrumental in nature (Clement and Kruidenier, 1983).
10. Familiarise learners with the target language culture. In spite of recent efforts in L2 motivation research to emphasize other than cultural aspects of motivation, Gardner's claim (1985), that language learning success is dependent on the learners' affective predisposition towards the target linguistic-cultural group, is still valid: the words, sounds, grammatical principles and the like that the language teacher tries to present are more than aspects of some linguistic code; they are integral parts of another culture. As a result, students' attitudes toward the specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language. This suggests that practice of teaching languages through their cultures does have certain scientific basis and, therefore, there is a need to make the L2 real by introducing learners its cultural background, using authentic materials, and promoting contact with native speakers of the L2.

Oxford & Shearin (1994) also offer practical suggestions for teachers:

1. Teachers can identify why students are studying the new language.
Teachers can find out actual motivations (motivation survey).
Information on motivation can be passed on to the next class in a portfolio.
Teachers can determine which parts of L2 learning are especially valuable for the students.
2. Teachers can help shape students' beliefs about success and failure in L2 learning.
Students can learn to have realistic but challenging goals.

Teachers can learn to accept diversity in the way students establish and meet their goals, based on differences in learning styles.

3. Teachers can help students improve motivation by showing that L2 learning can be an exciting mental challenge, a career enhancer, a vehicle to cultural awareness and friendship and a key to world peace.
4. Teachers can make the L2 classroom a welcoming, positive place where psychological needs are met and where language anxiety is kept to a minimum.
5. Teachers can urge students to develop their own intrinsic rewards through positive self-talk, guided self-evaluation, and mastery of specific goals, rather than comparison with other students. Teachers can thus promote a sense of greater self-efficacy, increasing motivation to continue learning the L2.

7. Conclusion

This study was conducted to examine the Iranian university students' motivation towards learning English. The findings present a picture which establishes that Iranian students were instrumentally motivated and their integrativeness was high, too. This study also provides a sufficient answer to the research questions addressed, and confirms the opinion of some researchers who believe that in a foreign language situation students are instrumentally oriented. Taken together, findings from both qualitative and quantitative data of the present study give a consistent picture, that instrumental and integrative goals, especially future career development, meeting more varied people and learning English in order to use the internet properly are very important for Iranian students.

In conclusion, both integrative and instrumental motivations contribute to the learning of a second/foreign language. It is clear that the teacher, the class atmosphere, the course content, materials and facilities, as well as personal characteristics of the student will have an influence on the individual's classroom learning motivation (Gardner, 2006).

"... there is much that we have yet to learn about the role of motivational factors in learning ... the processes involved are vastly more complex than our research to date has been able to illuminate" (Van Lier, 1996). No matter what the underlying motivation to study a second language, what cannot be disputed is the fact that motivation is an important variable when examining successful second language acquisition. Some research has shown that motivation correlates strongly with proficiency, indicating both that successful learners are motivated and that success improves motivation. Thus

motivation is not fixed, but is strongly affected by feedback from the environment.

As we know motivation is an important factor in L2 achievement, therefore it is important to identify both the type and combination of motivation that assists in the successful acquisition of a second language. At the same time it is necessary to view motivation as one of a number of variables in an intricate model of interrelated individual and situational factors which are unique to each language learner. Thus understanding the students' goal and motivation for learning L2 helps the teachers, educational policy makers, and curriculum planners to improve the students' proficiency. Many studies (Kruidenier & Clement, 1986; Dornyei, 1994) have demonstrated that measures of proficiency in the L2 are related to motivational characteristics of students.

And finally, the motivation that students have in their real life is not only integrative and instrumental, but also many other kinds; furthermore, all students get motivated by different reasons; that is, some do by classroom atmosphere, course content or teacher's attitude in the daily classroom. Theory should not walk alone without practical application. Although it is not easy to draw absolute conclusions, since types of motivation may be the result of a group affect among cognition, attitude, motivation, and personality, there is clearly a need for much further research on L2 motivation as well as other areas (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). There is much work to be done before researchers, teachers and language learners will fully understand motivation and all its aspects. In the words of Dornyei (2003) "L2 motivation as a situated construct, will undoubtedly be one of the main targets of future motivation research".

The results of the present study though showed that Iranian university students are highly motivated to learn English, but the limitation of participants to one university of only one city in Iran do not allow one to conclude that in general all students of Iran are purely instrumentally motivated. More research in this area needs to be conducted. Replication of the study with language learners at similar proficiency levels with varying backgrounds in different learning contexts is necessary to understand how well the results may be generalized to other EFL students in Iran. Students in different majors may demonstrate a different trend of orientation to learn English. The results may also be different if there are more female or male participants. Moreover, other research methods such as interviews can be employed to supplement the survey so that the changes or differences in attitude and motivation among students can be explained.

Current L2 motivation research would need to improve in three areas: (Dornyei, 1994).

- First, there is a need for more empirical research for many L2 motivational components
- Second, the research should not be restricted to a particular group (e.g., French Canadian).
- Third, a clearer difference between ESL and EFL should be explored.

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Appendix**Survey Questionnaire (English-learning Motivation Scale)**

Below are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. We would like you to indicate your opinion about each statement by ticking the boxes below which best indicates the extent to which you disagree or agree with that statement. We would urge you to be as accurate as possible since the success of this investigation depends upon it.

Gender:**Age:****Department:**

1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with other people who speak English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Studying English can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate English art and literature.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Studying English can be important for me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	It is important for me to know English in order to know the life of the English-speaking nations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Studying English is important to me so that I can understand English pop music.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	The more I get to know native English speakers, the more I like them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to get to know various cultures and peoples.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Studying English is important to me so that I can keep in touch with foreign friends and acquaintances.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	I would like to know more about native English speakers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	The British are kind and friendly.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	The Americans are kind and cheerful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	Studying English can be important for me because I'll need it for my future career.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	Studying English can be important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	Studying English can be important for me because it will someday be useful in getting a good job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	Studying English can be important for me because other people will respect me more if I know English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

-
- 17 Studying English can be important for me because I will be able to search for information and materials in English on the Internet.
- 18 Studying English can be important for me because I will learn more about what's happening in the world.
- 19 Studying English can be important for me because language learning often gives me a feeling of success.
- 20 Studying English can be important for me because language learning often makes me happy.
- 21 Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.
- 22 Studying English is important to me so that I can understand English-speaking films, videos, TV or radio.
- 23 Studying English is important to me so that I can read English books.
- 24 Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to get to know new people from different parts of the world.
- 25 Studying English is important to me because without it one cannot be successful in any field.
-

26. How do you rate your English proficiency?

- 1 2 3 4 5
 Very Bad Bad Average Good Very Good

Open-ended question:

27. Are you more or less motivated to learn English than when you were a secondary school student? Why?

On the Relationship between Dimensions of Reflectivity/Impulsivity as Cognitive Styles, Language Proficiency and GPAs among the Iranian EFL University Learners

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The purpose of the present correlational research is investigating the relationship between dimensions of Reflectivity/Impulsivity as cognitive styles and language proficiency in the Iranian learners who are studying English as a foreign language. The participants of the study consisted of 120 undergraduate students studying EFL at Islamic Azad University of Bandar Abbas who were randomly selected. Two instruments were used to gather the needed data: 1) A 12-item Matching Familiar Figures Test (MFFT) developed by Kagan in 1964 for the purpose of distinguishing the bipolar trait of Reflectivity/Impulsivity; and 2) Farhady's Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) for the purpose of measuring the degree of the participants' language proficiency. The data collected were analyzed through a combination of descriptive and inferential statistics. The results indicated that although there is no significant relationship between the dimensions of reflectivity and language proficiency, a slight negative correlation is found between the dimensions of impulsivity and language proficiency but it is not sound significant. In addition, the findings show no meaningful and significant relationship between dimensions of Reflectivity/Impulsivity and student's general achievements as measured by Grade Point Averages (GPAs). But the results show that the relationship between language proficiency and general achievements is meaningful and significant.

Key Words: Reflectivity, Impulsivity, Language Proficiency, MFFT, TOEFL, EFL learners, Correlation, GPA

1. Introduction

It is claimed that one's success in learning a second language in educational settings is primarily reliant on theories of second language acquisition. To that end, the researchers had to first understand what it is that is acquired, how it is acquired, and why it is acquired, and thus a plethora of theories were spawned by second language acquisition researchers such as discourse theory, accommodation theory, neuro-functional theory, the monitor model,

etc. The reason for this superfluity of theorizing is, perhaps, the complexity of the process of second language acquisition. Ellis (2003) believes, "second language acquisition is a complex process, involving many interrelated factors" (p. 4).

Therefore, in order to deal with this complexity, language researchers offered theories that were generalized in nature and hence often not very productive. As Brown (2000) stresses, "these theories ruled out individual differences and sought only to explain globally how people learn, and what common characteristics there are in language learning" (p. 274). Even though these theories have contributed much to our overall understanding of second language acquisition, the fact still remains that some individuals are more successful at acquiring an L2 than are others (Jamieson, 1992; Gass, 1995; Brown, 2000). The researchers working in this area have come to examine learner variables and other individual characteristics as a means of explaining differences in one's ability to acquire an L2. While many studies have attempted to relate learning differences to variables such as gender, age, brain plasticity, and lateral cerebral dominance (Krashen, 1975; Walsh & Diller, 1981; Selinker, 1982), others have focused on variables such as integrative and instrumental motivation, attitude, anxiety, aptitude, ambiguity tolerance, field dependence/independence, and reflectivity/impulsivity (Stanfield & Hansen, 1983; Chapelle & Roberts, 1986; Carter, 1988; Oxford, 1989).

Impulsivity (I) and Reflectivity (R) are two characteristics of human beings in cognitive domain. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2006) defines impulsive people or their behavior as "marked by sudden action that is undertaken without careful thought" and gives the synonym of "thoughtful" for reflective (pp. 653-1067). Kagan, Rosman, Day, Albert, & Philips (1964), as cited in Duckworth (1974, p. 59), define the notion of conceptual tempo as "a behavioral dimension which may be described as the degree to which an individual reflects upon the differential validity of alternative solutions in problem situations where several possible responses exist simultaneously". Kagan (1965a), as stated in Duckworth *et al.* (1974), classifies reflective person as "the individual who takes relatively longer respond and make fewer errors" (p. 59). Kagan *et al.* (1964), as quoted by Kagan *et al.* (1966, p. 359), believe that "impulsive attitude begins its growth during the preschool years and may be a deeply entrenched habit". Block *et al.* (1974) believe that reflectives are "slow deciders in uncertain situations" while impulsives are "quick deciders in uncertain circumstances" (p. 611). They ascribe such a classification to Kagan. Kagan (1965b) and Kagan, Pearson, and Welch (1966a), as mentioned in Selinker *et al.* (1972), believe that "in general, reflective children have been found to perform better on visual discrimination tasks, serial recall, inductive reasoning, and reading in the

primary grades, than do those identified as impulsive" (p. 322). Kagan, as cited in Jamieson (1992), stated that "the 'impulsives' reach decision and report them very quickly with little concern for accuracy" (p. 492). On the contrary, some students are slow and accurate learners. Unlike impulsive learners, these students take longer to respond and consequently make fewer errors. Such learners are referred to as reflectives. They weigh all the possibilities in answering a question. Then after reflection, they give a response to a question, a solution to a problem, or make a decision in a situation. Messer (1976), as mentioned in Jamieson and Chapelle (1987), believes that "Reflectivity/Impulsivity is the extent to which a person reflects on a solution to a problem for which several alternatives are possible" (p. 532). Kagan, Rosman, Day, Albert, and Philips, as cited in Jamieson (1992) added to this definition "the high uncertainty over which is correct" (p. 492). Following the issues discussed above, the main objective of the present study has been specified to investigate the degree to which R/I can be influential in English proficiency and success of Iranian university students. More precisely, it attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between the dimensions of Reflectivity/Impulsivity and language proficiency in Iranian EFL learners?
2. Do the students' general achievements, as measured by their university GPAs, correlate with the R/I construct?
3. Is there any significant relationship between EFL proficiency and learners' general achievement as measured by their university GPAs?

2. Background

As Gass and Selinker (1995) have argued, since second language acquisitions is a complex and multi-faceted process, any comprehensive model of it should, of necessity, have a component to deal with individual learner factors; Otherwise, it will not be acceptable. As such, those theories of SLA which have assumed a central place in the literature have also, in one way or another, dealt with individual learner differences. Table 1 below adopted from Ellis (2003) summarizes the main premises of a few well-known theories of second language acquisition concerning individual differences in language learning.

Many studies have been done on SLA and learner variables (R/I). Goodman (1970) found that impulsive persons are usually faster readers, and eventually master the "psycholinguistic guessing game" of reading. In another study, inductive reasoning was discovered to be more effective with reflective persons (Kagan, Pearson, & Welch, 1971), suggesting that generally reflective persons could benefit more from inductive learning situations. Messer's study (1976) revealed that R/I was typically not a predictor of performance in

preschoolers. In the study of adult ESL students, Abraham (1981) as cited in Brown (2000, p. 121) concluded that reflection was weakly related to performance on a proof-reading task. Jamieson (1992) discovered that the efficiency component of R/I is moderately related with language proficiency of adult second language learners. Jamieson (1992) reported on yet another study of adult ESL learners. She found that "fast-accurate" learners, or good guessers, were better language learners as measured by the Test of English as Foreign Language (TOEFL).

Table 1.

Individual Differences in SLA Theories based on Ellis (2003)

Theory of SLA	Account of Learner Differences
Acculturation & Nativization Theory	Differences are treated in terms of socio-psychological variables affecting social and psychological distance
Accommodation Theory	Differences are treated in terms of socio-psychological variables affecting learner's perception of his ethnic in-group and L2 out-group
Discourse Theory	Learners differ in terms of conversational strategies they employ and a major factor is age
Monitor Model	Learners differ in terms of 1) socio-affective variables that determine strength of filter 2) level of monitoring
Variable Competence Model	Learners differ in their preference for planned and unplanned discourse
Interlanguage Models	Interlanguage is seen as a separate linguistic system and as analyzable into a set of styles that are dependent on the context of use
Integrated Conceptual Model	Integrated view of SLA encompassing facts of Monitor Model, Discourse Model, Competition Model, Interlanguage Model, and UG Hypothesis

The identification and classification of different individual factors have proved to be problematic. The main difficulty is that it is not possible to observe directly qualities such as aptitude, motivation, or anxiety. Ellis (2003) believes that "each factor is not a unitary construct but a complex of features which are manifest in a range of overlapping behaviors" (p. 73). It is, therefore, not surprising to find that a host of terms have been employed to describe a phenomenon. While Hawkey (1982) and Brown (2006) list individual factors as affective, cognitive, and social, Stern (1983) classifies them as age and gender, affective and personality factors, and aptitude and cognitive styles. Other scholars such as Tucker (1976) and Chastain (1977) classified them differently. Chastain, for instance, categorized learner factors as biological and social factors. Birjandi *et al.* (2006) partitioned learner factors as psychological, cognitive, socio-cultural, and biological factors.

In an attempt to impose some order on plethora of terms, Ellis (2003) proposed to make an initial distinction between personal and general factors. Personal factors, as Ellis puts it, are highly idiosyncratic features of each

individual's approach to learning a L2. The general factors are variables that are characteristics of all learners. They differ not in whether they are present in a particular individual's learning, but in the extent to which they are present or the manner in which they are realized. General factors can be further divided into those that are modifiable (i.e. are likely to change during the course of SLA) such as motivation, and those that are un-modifiable, such as aptitude. According to Ellis (2003), general and personal factors have social, cognitive, and affective aspects. Social aspects are external to the learner and concern the relationship between the learner and native speakers of the L2 and also between the learner and other speakers of his own language. Cognitive and affective aspects are internal to the learner. Cognitive factors concern the nature of the problem-solving strategies used by the learner, while affective factors concern the emotional responses aroused by the attempts to learn a L2. Different personal and general factors, according to Ellis (2003), involve all three aspects in different degrees. Aptitude, for instance, is thought of as primarily cognitive in nature, but also involves affective and social aspects. Personality is primarily affective, but also has social and cognitive sides. Age is a factor that may involve all three aspects fairly equally. It is because the personal and general factors are composed of social, cognitive, and affective features that they are so complex, and hence often rather vaguely defined.

Concerning the studies carried out on R/I cognitive styles and other individual characteristics, Selinker *et al.* (1972) examined eye movement of impulsive and reflective one-year old children, performing three tasks, namely, Matching Familiar Figures Test (MFFT), Differentiating Familiar Figures (DFF), and finally a set of Matching Familiar Figures Tests. They found no difference in search strategies of (I/R) subjects when looking time was equated. Shipe (1979) found that reflectives show more locus of control, that is, they see themselves and not others as responsible for their successes or failures. In another study, Katz (1980) found that reflectives are more attentive and have better short-term auditory and visual memory in different tasks. It was also discovered that reflectives are significantly more field independent but do not differ from impulsives in terms of risk taking (Douglas, 1972; Neimark, 1975; Miller, 1979; Massari, 1981). Meichenbun (1981) reported that reflectives, in their use of speech, are more mature than impulsives and that impulsives verbalize less than reflectives, though they display twice as much egocentric speech.

Almost recently Nietfeld and Bosma (2002) studied on the cognitive style of impulsivity/reflectivity concentrating on the extent to which adults adopt a consistent response style across different cognitive tasks and how they self-regulate those styles under varied instructional manipulations. They found no relationship between subjects' self-report impulsivity as measured by

Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) and response style on the cognitive tasks. Reflectivity, both on the cognitive tasks and self-report, was found to be significantly related to Agreeableness. Rozenchwajc (2005) determined the relationships between the R/I style and the cognitive factors. He found out that there were four groups of individuals regarding the R/I cognitive styles, reflective individuals, impulsive individuals, fast-accurate individuals, and slow-inaccurate individuals. Finally Bernfeld (2007) investigated the relationship between the cognitive styles of Reflectivity/Impulsivity and social reasoning. He found out that the reflective individuals evidenced a more direct approach than the impulsive individuals on the social-reasoning task. He finally resulted that his findings extend the potential relevance of the reflection-impulsivity dimension to social reasoning.

Table 2.

Studies Done on Cognitive Styles in Iran

No	Study	Topic	Findings
1	Maghsudi (1997)	Motivation & English Proficiency	There was a significant difference between proficiency scores of integratively motivated students and the instrumentally motivated ones
2	Rastegar (2001)	Mental Processing & Listening Comprehension	No significant relationship was found between mental processing and learner's listening comprehension
3	Zandi (2001)	Introvert/Extrovert & Gender and EFL Proficiency	There was no relationship between extrovert/introvert and gender of Iranian EFL learners on achievement test
4	Yaali (2002)	Reading Comprehension Strategies & Reading Performance	It was found that high proficient learners use more reading comprehension strategies
5	Hosseini (2003)	Anxiety & motivation, Gender, and Level of Education	The relationship between anxiety and motivation, anxiety and attitude, & anxiety and level of education and gender were rejected
6	Hemmati (2003)	Anxiety & Choice of Language Learning Strategies	Language anxiety was strongly related to compensation, affective, and social strategies
7	Imanpoor (2005)	FD/I & Vocabulary Learning Strategies	There was no significant difference between FD/FI groups in the choice of specific vocabulary learning strategies
8	Ghorbani (2005)	FD/I & Performance on Cloze Test	There was a significant difference between means of two groups of FD and FI
9	Rassaei (2005)	Language Processing & Language Proficiency	The learners of higher proficiency performed more consistency in different processing situations
10	Shamsodini (2005)	Ambiguity Tolerance/Intolerance & Performance on Cloze Test	There was a significant difference between the performance of two groups concluding that ambiguity tolerants had a better performance

Many studies have been done on cognitive styles in Iran. The following table summarizes these studies chronologically (Table 2). As has been found in all of abovementioned studies done in the past, the R/I construct can bring about variation in the performance of individuals. However, the studies focusing on the role of R/I in SLA have not yet revealed much. Most of the results are contradictory and leave us in a state of quandary. Since R/I is a culture bound construct (Yasai, 1987, p. 296), it is necessary to investigate its role in the performance of individuals in the Iranian context. Learners' language proficiency and achievement were selected as two parameters based on which important educational decisions are made in Iran.

3. METHOD

3.1. Participants

The hypothetical population of this study was 120 senior university student randomly selected from among students completing their studies for a B.A. degree in TEFL regardless of their personality characteristics and gender in order for the researcher to be able to carry the test-retest design to secure the reliabilities for the correlational analysis for the Matching Familiar Figures Test (MFFT) over a two-week period of interval between the two sessions. Senior students were particularly selected, since their GPAs at university are more meaningful than those of juniors.

3.2. Instruments

Two instruments were employed in this study consisting of the test for partitioning the participants based on their personality characteristics and the test for measuring the participants' English proficiency. First, Yando and Kagan's (1965) adult/adolescent version of Matching Familiar Figures Test (MFFT) was designed to measure conceptual tempo of the participants. The test has been brought from the International Society for Research on Impulsivity (ISRI) by the Harvard University Staff. This test has been designed so that every participant sees a standard figure such as a picture of a house, shark, ship, car, or an animal and eight variants of it simultaneously, only one of which is exactly the same as the standard. The participant's task is to match standard figure with one of the variants that is exactly the same as the standard. The test includes twelve items. The time it takes for every subject to make her/his first response and the total number of tries will be recorded (Jamieson 1992). The tendency toward fast or slow decision times and number of errors are used to identify the degree of conceptual Impulsivity/Reflectivity. Salkind and Wright's (1977) method of scoring is used to calculate two continuous variables- impulsivity and efficiency (I/E), both having positive and negative values, as illustrated in Figure 1. The four

cells are slow-accurate (reflective), fast-inaccurate (impulsive), slow-inaccurate (inefficient) and fast-accurate (efficient).

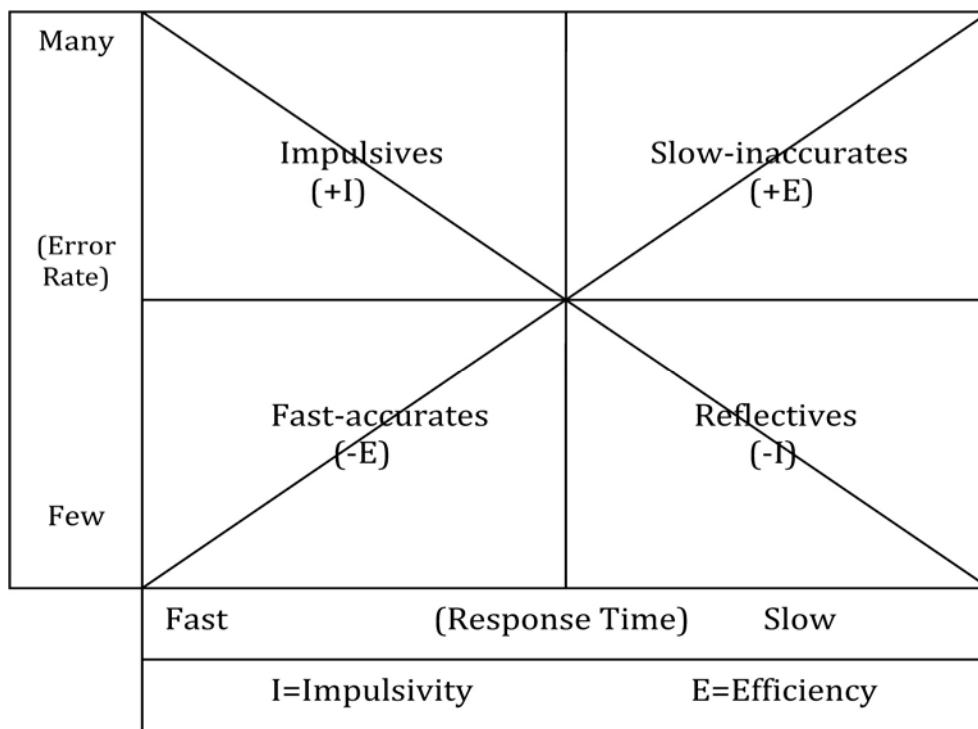


Figure 1. Salkind and Wright's integrated model of MFFT scoring (1977).

Second, the Test of English as a Foreign Language (Farhady TOEFL, 2006) was designed to measure the participants' English proficiency. The TOEFL Proficiency Test which has been used in this study is a valid test developed and validated by Farhady (2006) who is a professor of applied linguistics at the Iran University of Science and Technology (IUST) in Tehran. A brief explanation of the components of the 60-item proficiency test is provided below:

- Section 1, Structure (20 items): This section consists of test items in which the test taker is presented with a stem, which is not necessarily a question. Along with four alternatives only one of them is correct and can be selected by participants.
- Section 2, Vocabulary (20 items): This section consists of test items in which the test taker is again presented with a stem which is a full sentence with one underlined word. Beneath each sentence you will see four words or phrases, marked (A), (B), (C), and (D). The

participants have to choose the one word or phrase that would keep the meaning of the original sentence if it were to substitute for the underlined word or phrase.

- Section 3, Reading Comprehension (20 items): In this section the participants read two passages. Each one is followed by ten items about it. The participants are to choose the one best answer, (A), (B), (C), or (D), for each question.

3.3. Procedures

Thirty university students in Bandar Abbas Azad University took part in test-retest reliability for the Matching Familiar Figures Test (MFFT) because of the lack of norms for the MFFT performance available in the country. These participants didn't participate in the main investigation. The administration of the personality test lasted approximately 20 minutes for each participant resulted in net 600 minutes time for each session. Applying correlational coefficient between the two scores of response latency in time one and time two gave the test-retest reliability of 76 % for mean response time and 54 % for number of errors which are almost in line with the results of Messer's (1976) study, as cited in Jamieson (2001), who reported the result of 0.89 and 0.52 for time latency an error rate and Jamieson (2001) whose study's result showed 0.93 and 0.51 for response time and number of errors, respectively.

Following this, the main study was carried out with the same procedure. At this time 120 senior EFL students took part in the investigation. Having administered the adult/adolescent version of Kagan's (1965) version of Matching Familiar Figures Test (MFFT), the participants were partitioned into two groups of Impulsivity and Reflectivity personalities based on their response latency and response accuracy. The examiner recorded the number of errors the subject made on each item and the amount of time for the first response, whether correct or not. This process took 2500 minutes grossly.

Finally, Farhady TOEFL proficiency test was applied. Absent students were later tested. This process took 300 minutes including four sessions (240 minutes) for the administration of the main test and one session (60 minutes) for the administration of the test for the students who were absent in the main session.

The data collected in this study were the answers to the two tests of personality dimension (MFFT) and language proficiency Test. In order to analyze the data and find the amount of relationship between the independent variable (L/R dimension) and the dependant variable (Language proficiency) of the study, correlation and multiple regressions were run. Moreover, correlation coefficient and multiple regressions between language proficiency and GPA scores were also computed.

The items on the MFFT test were scored according to the time of the responding those items in seconds and the number of incorrect answers per item. The participants were neither penalized for their delay in answering questions and items of personality test nor for the number of incorrect answers. On the contrary, they were allowed to choose as much variants as they got to the correct answer. Two scores were kept as the participants worked, that is, the elapsed time between stimulus presentation and the subjects' first selection and the number of errors per item was observed and recorded. Time for all items was kept to the half second. These times were totaled and divided by twelve (the number of items) to yield the variable "mean response time". The total number of errors was the second variable.

To classify cognitive style, a double median split procedure was employed. This application gave us the classification of the learners as fast, slow, accurate, and inaccurate, the result of which was four subgroups: 1. Slow accurate 2. Slow inaccurate 3. Fast accurate; and 4. Fast inaccurate. However, as the main variable of this study is impulsivity or fast inaccurate and reflectivity or slow accurate, the two other subgroups, meaning, slow inaccurate and fast accurate were put aside.

As suggested by Kagan *et al.* (1965), subjects whose mean response latency was above the median and whose total number of errors was below the median were classified as reflective, that is, taking much time in answering an item. They made fewer errors in their performance while subjects whose mean response latency was below the median and whose total number of errors was above the median were classified as impulsive, that is, making many errors they respond quickly. Using this procedure, a total of 42 participants were classified as reflective and 44 participants were impulsive and 34 participants were put aside because they were reported as fast accurate, 10 subjects, and slow inaccurate, 24 subjects, which were out of the focus of the study.

Table 3.

MFFT Classification Based on Kagan et al. (1965)

Classification	Time Latency	No of Errors	Count
Impulsives (Fast-inaccurate)	$X \leq 29$	$X \geq 383$	44
Reflectives (Slow-accurate)	$X > 29$	$X < 383$	42
Non Efficient (Slow-inaccurate)	$X > 29$	$X > 383$	24
Efficient (Fast-accurate)	$X < 29$	$X < 383$	10

For the proficiency test, each correct item was given one point and each incorrect answer got a zero point; thus, the total score for each participant's Proficiency Test was the number of questions answered correctly by the testees. There were not any negative points for the questions answered

wrongly or for the questions with no answers. Thus total score was computed out of 60. The participants' answer sheets have been scored based on the prepared answer key. By selecting Impulsives and Reflectives and derailing those who were out of focus of the study, Fast-accurates and Slow-inaccurates, the TOEFL Proficiency Test has been conducted on the rest 86 participants of the study.

4. Results and Discussion

In order to investigate the relationship between Impulsivity/Reflectivity and language proficiency test scores for the whole sample, Impulsivity/Reflectivity tendencies was defined as independent variable and Language Proficiency Test score was defined as dependent variable of the study. Two scores were kept as the participants worked on the items of the MFFT, that is, the amount of time and the number of errors. After computing double median split half based on the median of time and error, the participants were classified as reflective or impulsive.

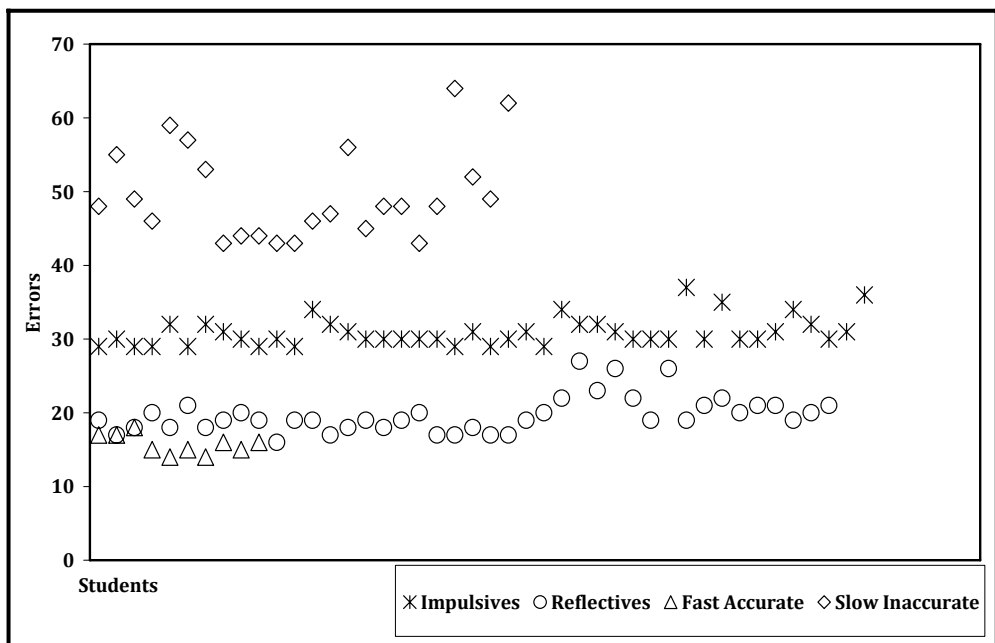


Figure 2. Error rate in 4 groups.

As the Figure 2 shows, regarding the median score of participants' number of errors which was 29, impulsives' numbers of errors were above the median. The reflectives have the error rate of lower than the median. Those who were fast-accurate have the error rate of lower than the median and finally the slow-accurates' number of errors were much higher than the median. Slow-

inaccurates have the maximum number of errors and those who were fast-accurates have the minimum number of errors in MFFT (Figure 2).

As figure 3 shows, regarding the median score of 383 in participants' time latency, those whose mean time latency was below the median score of 383 were labeled as Impulsives. Reflectives have the mean time latency of more than 383; and the mean time latency for the fast-accurates group goes above the calculated median score. Accordingly, the slow-inaccurates groups have the highest mean time latency and those who were fast-accurates have the lowest mean time latency among the other groups in MFFT.

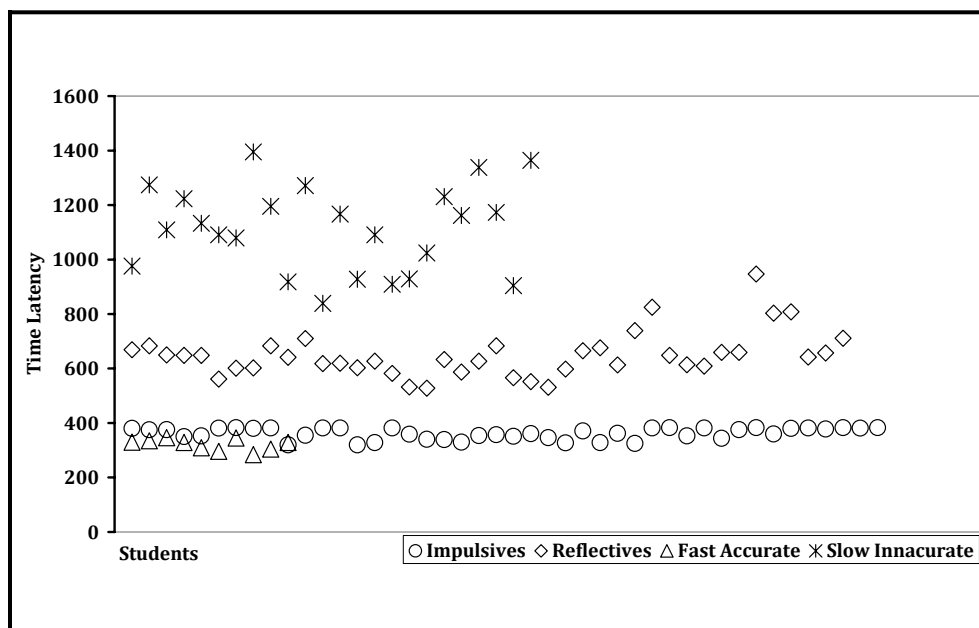


Figure 3. Time latency in 4 groups.

Table 4.

Basic Descriptive Statistics for the Participants' Language Proficiency

Factor	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Proficiency	86	10	49	29.30	10.31

Out of 120 primary participants of the study, 86 of them remained in the focus of the study (impulsives and reflectives) and 34 of the participants have been derailed from the focus of the study (fast-accurates and slow-inaccurates) using the results of the MFFT test. The Reflectives (42 participants) and Impulsives (44 participants) have gone through the language proficiency test administration then resulting the mean score of

29.30 and standard deviation of 10.31. The mean score in language proficiency test is close to its median score which is 29.50. The scores were ranged from the minimum score of 10 and the maximum score of 49 (Table 4.). As Figure 4 shows, the most frequent scores in the test are within the range of 29-31 and this interval includes the mean and median scores in itself. The figure also shows the pseudo-normal distribution of the scores in the test.

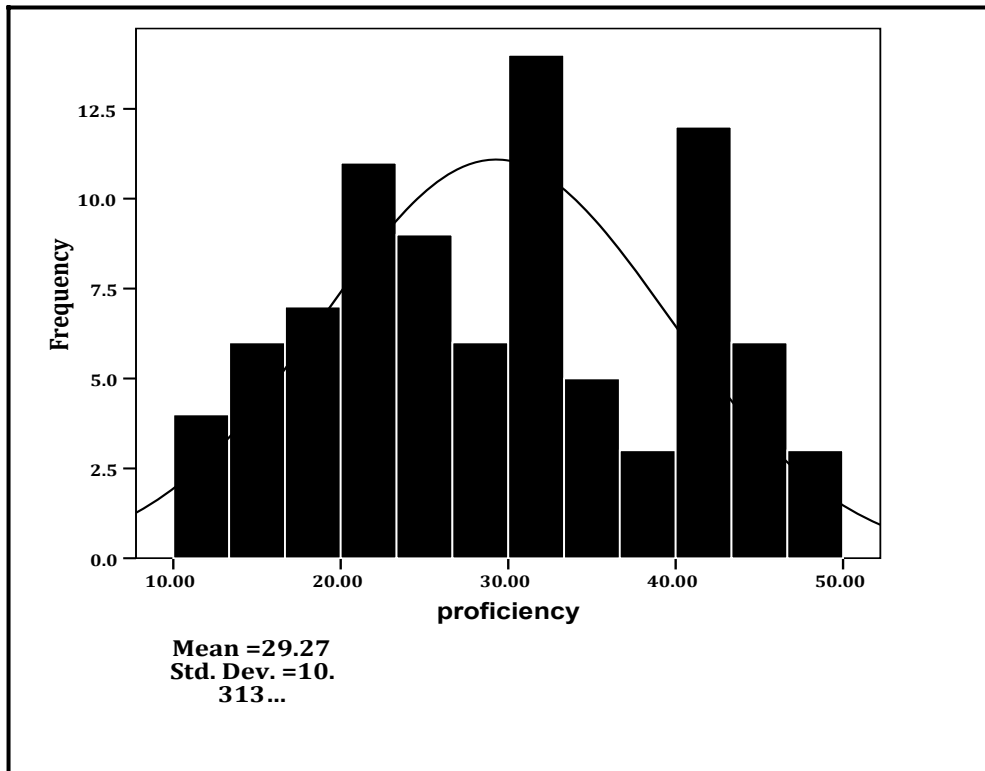


Figure 4. Display of Language Proficiency Scores.

Table 5.

Independent Sample t-test for Impulsivity/Reflectivity & Proficiency

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig.
Impulsivity	44	28.43	10.43	-.767	.000*
Reflectivity	42	30.14	10.23		

*Significant at .05 alpha

As displayed in Table 5, the significance computed is 0.000 which is much smaller than 0.05 (the significance level). So, there is a statistically significant and meaningful difference between the two groups (reflectives and impulsives) regarding their language proficiency.

Table 6.

Correlation between Impulsivity and Language Proficiency

Variables	Impulsives Latency	Impulsives Errors	Proficiency
Impulsives Latency	1	.247	-.335*
Impulsives Errors	.247	1	-.051
Proficiency	-.335*	-.051	1

*Significant at .05 alpha

As Table 6 shows, regarding the first hypothesis which was looking for a probable relationship between dimensions of Reflectivity/Impulsivity and Language Proficiency, the correlations between dimensions of Impulsivity and language proficiency indicates a slight negative linear relationship (-0.335) which exists between Impulsives' dimension of Time Latency and Proficiency; but the relationship is not meaningful. Hence Impulsives' dimension of Time latency shares about 11.22% of its variability with proficiency negatively. For finding the relationship between dimensions of Reflectivity and Proficiency, Pearson Product Moment Correlation was run, too. The correlation presented in Table 7 shows no statistically significant and meaningful relationship between reflectivity and impulsivity dimensions and language proficiency.

Table 7.

Correlation between Reflectivity and Language Proficiency

Variables	Reflectives Latency	Reflectives Errors	Proficiency
Reflectives Latency	1	.396	.099
Reflectives Errors	.396	1	.054
Proficiency	.099	.054	1

Table 8 presents the fact that there is a significant and meaningful relationship between language proficiency and GPAs. This relationship is significant at both .05 and .01 levels.

Table 8.

Correlation between GPAs and Language Proficiency

Variables	GPAs	Proficiency
GPAs	1	.868*
Proficiency	.868*	1

*Significant at both .05 & .01 alpha levels

Table 9 shows that there is no significant relationship between reflective and impulsive participants concerning their GPAs.

Table 9.

Independent Sample t-test for Impulsivity/Reflectivity & GPAs

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig.
Impulsivity	44	16.02	1.67	-.137	.989
Reflectivity	42	16.51	1.60		

To find out whether the variables of reflectivity, impulsivity and GPAs have any effects on the participants' language proficiency, multiple regressions was run. The results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10.

Multiple Regressions for Impulsivity/Reflectivity & GPAs

Variables	Beta	t	Sig.
Reflectivity/ Impulsivity Errors	-.116	-1.331	.187
Reflectivity/ Impulsivity Latency	-.173	-1.967	.053
GPAs	.887	16.252	.000*

Dependent Variable: Language Proficiency

*Significant at .05

As indicated in Table 10, among the target variables, only the variable of GPAs is found to predict the participants' language proficiency. This idea is approved by Stepwise Multiple Regressions based on which only GPAs remained in the model and the other two variables were excluded (Table 11).

Table 11.

Stepwise Multiple Regressions for Predicting Language Proficiency

Step	Predicting Variable(s)	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of Estimate
First	GPAs	.868	.753	.750	5.154

Predictors: GPAs

Excluded Variables: Reflectivity/Impulsivity Errors & Reflectivity/Impulsivity Latency

Dependant Variable: Language Proficiency

Results pertaining to the three research questions are discussed below. With regard to the first research question, the hypothesis of the study claimed that there would be a positive relationship between the Impulsivity/Reflectivity (I/R) tendencies of senior EFL Learners of English and their performance on the Language Proficiency Test. Referring to the collected data, the findings were not statistically significant, though the negative correlation between impulsives' dimension of Time Latency and Proficiency was moderately significant. These findings were in accordance with the findings of Lynee Hansen-Strain's (1987) and Jamieson's (1992) studies. Hansen-Strain (1987) concluded that the cognitive tempo of ESL learners was related to their culture but not to their sexes. However, she found no apparent relationship

between cognitive tempo and language proficiency. Moreover, Jamieson (1992) believed that Impulsives/Reflectives have more association with learning activities than language proficiency production. She claimed that fast-accurate learners were better language learners than (I/Rs) who lack accuracy and speed, respectively. With regard to the second research question, the second hypothesis of the study claimed that dimensions of Reflectivity/Impulsivity correlates with the students' general achievements as measured by GPA. Referring to the results presented in Table 7, the findings were not statistically significant. Regarding the third research question, it was claimed that there is a significant positive relationship between language proficiency and students' general achievements as measured by GPA. Referring to the data collected in Table 8, findings were statistically significant.

5. Conclusion

The first question was to find if there was a relationship between the personality tendencies of Impulsivity/Reflectivity of Iranian learners of English on the one hand, and their performance on a TOEFL proficiency test, on the other hand. The findings of this research revealed that there exists no significant relationship between Impulsivity/Reflectivity dimension and participants' performance on the TOEFL Proficiency Test, despite the fact that Time Latency had a moderately significant and negative relationship with language proficiency. Furthermore, this study was after finding another hypothesis which was mentioned in the form of the second question: Do the students' general achievements, as measured by university and high school GPAs, correlate with the R/I construct? The calculated data helped the researchers to come to this conclusion that there appears to be no statistically significant interaction between the students' general achievement, as measured by university GPAs and Impulsivity/Reflectivity dimensions. Finally, the last question was to find if there was a probable relationship between the EFL language proficiency of Iranian learners of English on the one hand, and their general achievements as measured by GPAs, on the other hand. The findings of this research revealed that there exists a significant positive linear relationship between language proficiency and participants' general achievements. The present investigation made it clear that Impulsivity/Reflectivity tendencies do not play a basic role in learning English as a foreign language among the Iranian EFL learners. That is to say, the findings of the present study indicate that personality tendency does not facilitate learning English as a foreign language.

Therefore, the researchers can provide the explanation for lack of significant relationship between dependent and independent variables of the study which is in complete agreement with Jamieson's (2001) conclusion. The

researchers believe that in proficiency test which is a timed test, reflectives answer fewer questions but answer them more correctly than impulsives who answer more questions with more errors. That is to say, few numbers of questions answered by reflectives will cancel the errors done by impulsives out. Nevertheless, the researchers believe that if the scoring of the timed test includes negative points for the number of wrong answers, that is, the errors made by the test-takes, the result may be changed. Still another explanation may be the fact that correlational research has limitations for the investigation of such a complex phenomenon as language test since so many factors, including culture, social backgrounds, and learning strategies interact to affect language learning. In this case, to obtain a better and useful understanding of test performance, factorial research design would facilitate the sorting out of interaction effects. It is worth mentioning that the findings of the present study are in line with what Jamieson (2001) and Lynee Hansen-Strain (1987) have obtained.

The first and foremost implication of this study is theoretical. In this study, the construct (R/I) was found to have no or very little effect on the language proficiency and achievement of the Iranian university students. This finding questions the strong version of the theories that predict all individual factors play crucial roles in EFL success. Therefore, based on the results of this study, it can be claimed that at least some individual characteristics such as reflectivity/impulsivity may have little or no bearings on adult EFL success.

The pedagogical implications of the study is that in terms of teaching and classroom activities, what is apparently acceptable and understandable is that teachers can observe these traits in their classrooms and make learners conscious of their behavior and provide the participations with a means of diagnose and teach fast-inaccurate or impulsive learners to postpone their guesses until they become sure of the correctness of their answers. This can be related to the fact that on the one hand, scoring of some tests includes negative points for errors as a result of which the learners' negative points would cancel the correct answer out. On the other hand, such a situation is handicap in classroom because not all teachers are so patient to the learners' inaccurate responses and "peer group is prone to jeer at the child who impulsively blurts out obviously incorrect answers" (Kagan, Pearson, and Welch, 1996, p. 359). Contrary to Impulsives, Reflectives should be taught to increase their speed since most tests are time limited.

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Are Iranian School Students' Language Needs Taken into Consideration?

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Development of English language teaching materials for the school students' requirements has been the concern of the Ministry of Education in Iran for many years. The current English language teaching materials have undergone a lot of revision since their inception in 1985. They still need to be revised in the light of the present-day concerns, needs of language learners and the language learning society. This being followed, a needs analysis was carried out and the results were analyzed and discussed. Furthermore, a brief subjective analysis was provided in order to compensate for the areas that were not sheltered by the data. The results of this study suggest that learner syllabus, as a network of knowledge that develops in learner's brain, must be of crucial consideration in materials design for Iranian school students.

Key words: EFL; Materials Development; Needs Analysis; Motivation

1. Introduction

Language learning is a process which can be negatively or positively affected by its (un)accountability for the needs learners carry with themselves. A language program can be successful if it takes learners' proper language needs into consideration. On the contrary, it fails to succeed if those needs are not paid off. The relevance of a language program is then established by taking into account the needs both inside and outside the language classroom. Thus, the program should not be limited to teaching/ learning formal properties of language but "to prepare students for their future academic experiences while, at the same time, recognizing the importance of affective, personal and social expectations of learning" (Hyland, 2006, p. 73).

Needs analysis, by definition, refers to procedures adapted to collect and assess information that can help relevant stakeholders in

designing an appropriate language program. It is sometimes even perceived as an educational technology with which the goals of a language program could be measured precisely (Berwick, 1989).

It is also important to note that certain needs are not confined in time, but they grow, change, are replaced by other needs, or even cease to exist. This realization of the ever-changing nature of needs, then calls for intermittent verification of time needs of a language program.

As teachers, we have the responsibility of evaluating textbooks; however, many of us have not been confident about what to base our judgments on, how to qualify our decision, and how to report the results our assessments. The question here is where we can turn to for reliable advice on how to select materials in preparing a suitable textbook. The overall purpose of this article is to describe and subsequently scrutinize the existing English series of textbooks taught at the junior high school and high school levels in Iran. It attempts to bring insights into the nature of the present materials practiced at the school level by looking through the learners' eyes. One point needs clearing at the outset is that the paper does not mean to undervalue the work made by the authors of the textbooks for the development of teaching materials for national use. On the contrary, the purpose is quite constructive since the aim is to troubleshoot the textbooks carefully in order to find the parts that are malfunctioning, so that future materials would be richer and more responsive. It should be pointed out that no evaluation is supposed to yield productive outcomes unless the evaluators have a thorough knowledge of what happened before the present materials came into existence. Since the writers of this article have honestly not had a perfect knowledge of the internal agents, the amount of time and budget available to the materials designers –whether underestimated or inadequately planned- one might find the judgments and the conclusions of this article far removed from being comprehensive. However, the primary purpose is to evaluate the materials analytically and empirically by incorporating the established facts in the field of materials design as well as the obtained data gathered by the present authors.

1.1. Brief Historical Overview

The publication of the first state-mandated English textbooks for Iranian school students dates back to 1937. The outbreak of World War II brought the development of these materials to a halt. For

about two decades, such textbooks as *Essential English* (Eckersley, 1953), *Oxford Series* (Hornby, 1954), *Speak English* (Dorry, 1959), and *Modern English* (Dorry, 1961) were in vogue until a new series of textbooks sponsored by the Ministry of Education, Called *Graded English*, were published in 1972. The texts were well structured within the bounds of teaching exercises. They were replaced, however, by a set of books called the *Right Path to English* in 1985. Further modifications continued in the following years. In 1992, the system of education underwent a radical change from subject-yearly to a credit-semester basis which affected English as well, i.e. two textbooks for the second and third graders of high school, three textbooks for high school and one for college preparatory centers. In the year 2000, another change was observed and that was a shift from credit-semester basis to the so-called yearly-credit one. Despite all such changes in the curriculum, further change is felt to be required in order to bring language teaching materials into closer conformity to the learners' needs and to keep up with the development and advancement made in daily life.

2. Aims & Organization of Materials

The term "*aim*" used here refers to the general purpose for which a language program is being established. These general purposes "will develop a rationale for the course or program" (Nunan, 1991). As a part of the general curriculum, the overall objective established for English language program in Iran is to help learners develop their reading comprehension ability. The rationale for this, as thought out by the government, has been laid out on such grounds as the requirements of the society, keeping abreast of knowledge and access technology to count but a few. To achieve this purpose, dialogue practice and conversational principles are assigned greater intensity at the junior high school level since knowledge of conversation routines is considered as a pre-requisite for proficient reading. This is followed by intensive reading practice at the high school level, wherein each lesson begins with presentation of vocabulary in sentential contexts followed by a reading comprehension passage. The priority allocated to reading and the manner that the sub-components of reading are treated, i.e. vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation, justifies the claim about the prominence of reading comprehension. In order to vitiate the effect of dialogue learning, the section of the book which caters for this language component, i.e. language functions, is postponed to the end of each lesson. For vocabulary presentation, first of all, words are introduced within sentential contexts, and then each context is preceded by one or two

comprehension questions to guarantee comprehension. As for grammar, grammatical patterns are first presented and subsequently followed by a series of pattern repetition, substitution practice, and finally meaningful exercises. Looking into the blueprint of the texts gives the impression of language being interpreted in terms of discrete components, each of which is treated disjunct from the others. Since reading is thought to be the most important skill which comprises sub-components of its own, for comprehension facilitation, one required comprehension of sub-components. This provides them with a rationale to have itemized arrangements of materials. Furthermore, the saliency of content words and their contribution to the overall comprehension provide a rationale for giving precedence to presentation of new words in the high school textbooks. This conception of language learning in terms of bit by bit presentation of materials is prevalent throughout the course-books.

Owing to the importance of language learning as well as responding to the requirements of classroom language learners, a number of researchers have administered tests to assess the quality of the current English textbooks, and they have all called for revisions and modifications of materials along a number of dimensions. Such investigations have been made to evaluate the discursal and textual features of reading sections and particularly dialogue sections. However, no nationwide needs analysis has been carried out, to our present state of knowledge, to probe into the language learners' needs. It is the sole and only purpose of this article to offset the balance by describing the results of a need analysis which will be discussed in the next section.

3. METHOD

3.1. The Corpus

The corpus selected for this study included about 2000 students which had been randomly chosen from different parts of the country. Care was taken to include learners of all levels and grades in addition to university freshmen. The rationale for the latter group came from the fact that these university students have already passed school textbooks; therefore, they would be in a better position to look back and see to their needs.

3.2. Instrumentation

For the purpose of the study, a questionnaire was devised including thirty nine questions, on the likert scale each including three to five

choices. Great care was taken to include questions of all types that embody various aspects of the textbooks as well as taking care of the needs of the learners.

The questionnaire was prepared to take into account both the learners present situation and target situation needs. After final revision and validation, the questionnaire was administered to the subjects. In order to vouchsafe the test administration, each group taking the test was attended to by at least one of the researchers. Once the sample had been obtained, the data were analyzed statistically for subsequent interpretation and decision-making.

3.3. Data Analysis

The present study, unlike its predecessors, which scrutinize materials from the viewpoint of the expertise in the field attempts to amalgamate the authorities' views with the views of the language learners obtained by the analysis of the data, gathered through the questionnaire described in the previous section.

In order to facilitate the analysis, it was decided to bunch the questions around a few themes so that correlation could be made between the questions. Therefore, the questions were analyzed in terms of language skills and sub-skills, organization of content, cultural beliefs and motivation respectively.

3.3.1. Language Skills & Subskills

As was pointed out earlier, the predominant skill worked on in the present materials is reading comprehension which has been determined on the basis of the perceived needs of language learners. However, the data in this study showed learners' least enthusiasm for reading skill! This is manifested in Question # 12 of the study wherein 77.4% of learners have stated their preference for listening and speaking and only 12% have made reference to reading skill, as shown in Tables 1 and 2 below:

Table 1.
Learners' View on Inclusion of Listening-Speaking in the Textbook

	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Positive response	1510	77/4
Negative response	440	77/6
Total	1950	100
No response	70	

Table 2.

Learners' View on Inclusion of Reading-Writing in the Textbook

	<i>f</i>	%
Positive response	740	12/3
Negative response	1710	87/7
Total	1950	100
No response	70	

Along the same line, 88% have demonstrated a need for language in the form of conversational exchange and more than 75% have opted for structure practice, as shown in Table 3:

Table 3:

Learners' view on Inclusion of Grammar in Form of Conversational Exchanges in the Textbook

	<i>f</i>	%
Very much	1030	52.6
Much	690	35.2
Little	180	09.2
Very little	50	02.6
Not at all	10	00.5
Total	1960	100
No response	10	

Table 4.

Learners' View on the Types of Class Activities

	<i>f</i>	%
Individual	140	7/2
Groupwork	950	49
Student-student	360	18/6
Teacher-student	490	75/3
Total	1940	100
No response	30	

It is likely that if structure is to be emphasized, it should be presented in natural and dialogic forms. The implication is that language learners prefer their class time to be spent on listening to and talking in English, and if any explanation is required, English description is preferred by language learners. Contrary to the manner in which vocabulary and structure are presented, the data in the study indicated that majority of language learners prefer leaning structure

and vocabulary though exposure to natural language, films, and dialogue learning rather than being taught through explanation or repetition. It seems likely that utilization of teaching aids and dialogue learning diminishes the language teacher's role, and this is what language learners ask for since 67% prefer group and student-student learning which results in weakening teacher's active role in classroom, as manifested in Table 4:

3.3.2. Organization of Contents

One of the characteristics of the present textbooks is that they maintain the same format by making use of similar hard and fast rules. Therefore, little change can be observed across the presentation of lessons: vocabulary presentation, reading comprehension, structure practice, dialogue memorization, and pronunciation practice. The data analysis revealed that language learners show their tendency for materials which reflect different dimensions of language learning such as language games, letters, short stories, puzzles, jokes, ads, phone calls, face-to-face interactions, buying from a shop, at the airport/ bus station/ train station, at the restaurant/ hotel/ hospital/ doctor's office/ theater/ cinema/ sports club/ bank, in the post office, getting a taxi, going to amusement areas, talking to foreigners in the streets, buying/ selling/ renting houses, marriage, ceremonies, computer, and the Internet. Therefore, if language is supposed to be practiced, language learners expect to receive practice using miscellaneous exercise, which cater for content variety in language learning as well as use of teaching aids besides the textbooks. With computers affecting rather all individuals and all aspects of life, a spanking brand new generation of language learning materials that incorporate brand new technology, at least partially, is required. This is reflected in Questions # 7 and 21 in Tables 5 and 6:

Table 5.
Learners' View on Use of Technology in Language Teaching

	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Very much	80	4/1
Much	240	12/2
A little	470	23/9
Little	770	39/1
Not at all	410	20/8
Total	1970	100
No response	0	

Table 6.

Learners' View on Use of Materials Related to Computer and the Internet

	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Very much	100	51/8
Much	580	79/7
A little	290	14/9
Little	60	3/1
Not at all	10	0/5
Total	1950	100
No response	20	

3.3.3. Cultural Beliefs

It is true that materials which are written by designers reflect their attitudes about the world in general and language and language learning in particular. There are self-imposed limitations by the designer. It's not censorship, but it is judgment s/he passes. However, the designer's attitudes are to some extent affected and constrained by political and religious considerations as well; otherwise, no matter how scientifically-based a textbook is, it is not going to be usable! Language teaching materials which include only pictures and descriptions of boys or describe girls as being pusillanimous are apparently sexist, or those which introduce first world countries as socially advanced and third world countries as underdeveloped in all aspects definitely follow certain political goals. The data in the present study reveal certain fine points concerning learners' world view in language learning. They are inclined to see not only characters of both sexes, but also of different names not just Iranian ones. A significant number of learners have also demonstrated their tendency for characters of different ages not simply belonging to the same age. Questions # 17, 18, 19, and 20 reflect this point in Tables 7, 8, and 9:

Table 7.

Learners' View on Gender Characters

	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Only female	120	6/1
Only male	0	0
Both genders	1180	60/2
No difference	660	33/7
Total	1960	100
No response	10	

Table 8.
Learners' View on Characters's Age

	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Adults	20	1
Adolescents	160	8/2
Youngsters	360	18/5
A combination of all	1410	77/3
Total	1950	100
No response	20	

Table 9.
Learners' View on Characters' Names

	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Iranian	150	7/7
English	780	40
combination of names from many languages	1020	52/3
Total	1950	100
No reponse	20	

Another worth-mentioning point regarding language learners' world knowledge deals with the role of culture in relation to language. The data makes it very clear that a great inclination exists between learners for learning the culture of the language. Of course, the data does not elucidate why they appeal to learn the culture of the language they are learning. Questions # 8, 35, and 36 deal with this point. The test of it is that if any "space" is allotted to learners' views regarding what they need to learn, materials designers should construct language learning materials which incorporate aspects of the culture, too.

Table 9.
Learners' Desire to Learn about the L2 Culture

	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Very much	1150	58/4
Much	610	31
A little	140	7/1
Little	50	7/5
Not at all	20	1
Total	1970	100
No response	0	

Table 10.

Need for EFL Materials Content to Include English Culture

	<i>f</i>	%
Very much	680	34/9
Much	760	39
A little	450	23/1
Little	60	3/1
Not at all	0	0
Total	1950	100
No response	20	

Table 11.

Need for EFL Materials Content to Include Persian Culture

	<i>f</i>	%
Very much	290	15
Much	370	19/2
A little	600	31/1
Little	510	76/4
Not at all	160	8/3
Total	1930	100
No response	40	

Thinking of language as module of a broader area, one may conclude that language without culture cannot be taught. For one thing, not all cultural facets necessarily contradict learners' own culture. It is quite plausible to spot features shared between the two cultures, or to detect aspects of culture which are valuable and constructive. Additionally, the movement of the world towards globalization and unification, by means of the Internet and dish antenna, demands a culture which is an amalgamation of all productive cultures. This does not imply that annihilation of one culture but probably it is a step to bringing people to an understanding of the similarities and differences between people and cultures.

3.3.4. Motivation

One critical factor in language learning which predicts the amount of time a learner would apply to the task of language learning is motivation (Spolsky, 2000). That is to say, the more motivation a learner has, the more time s/he spends learning different aspects of the second/foreign language. Motivation is partly influenced by stimulating materials. Materials are built on the two variables of

language objectives and opportunities to use the language. These variables affect the learners' attitudes and determine their level of motivation. Analysis of Question # 9 of the study indicated that learners have a high degree of motivation to learn a second/foreign language; nonetheless, 70% of the learners have acknowledged that material organization in their textbooks is not appealing to them since it does not depict real language use which is likely to be the great concern of language learners.

Table 12.
Learners' Motivations to Learn English

	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Very much	1370	69/5
Much	450	22/8
A little	120	6/1
Little	30	1/5
Not at all	0	0
Total	1970	100
No response	0	

Table 13.
Content and Topic Attraction of EFL Material

	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Very much	280	14/3
Much	370	18/9
A little	840	42/9
Little	310	7615/8
Not at all	160	8/7
Total	1960	100
No response	10	

5. Subjective Analysis

A well-grounded analysis of language teaching materials, according to Stern (1984), can best be envisaged at three levels: namely, *the basic level*, *the policy level*, and *the behavioral level* or *surface level*. An attempt is made to describe these three levels with reference to the materials under study by incorporating views of the authority.

5.1. The Basic Level

Probably the most crucial point to learn about a language teaching course is to probe into the assumptions held by the materials designers. These fundamental assertions, implicitly or explicitly built

into the lesson, reflect the syllabus designers' attitudes towards language, society, learning, and teaching. We shall describe them briefly in tandem.

The underlying assumption concerning language is that language consists of elements of grammar, vocabulary, and sounds, which are arranged in a linear fashion. Each of these components includes a set of rules which can be combined in myriad ways to account for meaning. The authors also seem to want to bore the idea that teachers can present materials in an atomic, itemized, and bit by bit manner rather than integrating them in a functional scheme. In other words, one can teach vocabulary or grammar in isolation from a realistic context. Learning takes place in an additive fashion from simple to difficult, so these learning materials become increasingly more sophisticated. The principal purpose of language teaching is to help learners to "crack the code" (Nunan, 1990). The authors also depict the idea that language and culture are two separate entities with no interactive power. In other words, they comply with the belief that knowledge of culture is not necessary for language learning. Hence, to show their loyalty to the above premises, a lot of attempt has been made to introduce a refined type of language which by no means requires culture. Therefore, this language sterility is observed in the content of reading passages, conversation exercises, pictures, graphs, and even names of characters.

5.2. The Policy Level

At this level, one expects the authors to have elucidated their concern about four broad categories of *content*, *objectives*, *procedures*, and *evaluation*. Regarding content, it has been implicitly stated that language can be taught detached from culture, and culture is not considered as a component of the language program. It is only the concepts which matter since concepts are claimed to be universal. However, if this is so, then one can always find a one-to-one correspondence between words in two languages. Thus, we have to prove that words like "bread," "you," "privacy," and "party" have precisely the same meaning as their equivalents in Persian. Moreover, to master a language, learners are required to perform traditional drill-typed activities rather than communicative activities which engage learners into productive learning. As a matter of fact, the syllabus is absolutely unidirectional demanding no contribution from other equally important fields which are interwoven with language.

One outstanding factor within objectives is the proficiency level which seems to have been interpreted in terms of linguistic competence, i.e., accumulation of rules of language. It is implied in such course-books that once learners have attained the linguistic rules –rules of phonology, morphology, and syntax- they will be expected to have acquired proficiency in the language. To what extent this view can truly depict the realist of language is a real issue of conundrum for experts.

Knowledge factor in the materials under scrutiny is restricted to the world knowledge that is expressed in the target language but not necessarily specific to the target community. Since the syllabus has been planned for general English purposes, subject specific knowledge is not included in the course-books. In addition to the world knowledge, language knowledge has also, to a minor extent, been taken into account. Passages which envisage the importance of language learning or describe the history of words are of this type. Transfer, as another objective in the present materials, represents the belief that learners use language not for the sake of language but to carry out certain functions. The idea behind materials under investigation is to lean language so that learners can access knowledge and technology in the second/foreign language once they enter the university. So, language is an auxiliary to help learners achieve the ends in education. In line with the same belief, the designers have only included reading texts of paragraph-type rather than texts which conform to natural use such as signs, ads, and anecdotal stories.

Turning now to the procedures and treatment variables, we have to find out what strategies have been suggested by the materials. Two general strategies are enumerated here: teaching and interpersonal. The general teaching strategies can be derived from the way materials are organized. Particular strategies, however, which are specific to language teachers and cannot virtually be controlled, cannot be extracted since they belong to the individual teachers. The presentation of, say, the new words through exemplification followed by open-ended questions suggests that teachers handle new words mostly by exemplifying them. Or, the presentation of structure through examples proceeded by a set of mechanical and meaningful drills suggest that structure has to be presented in a traditional way. Moreover, including lists of words representing a particular pattern of stress implies the teaching of stress through repetition and comparison, hence little room for contextualization.

With regard to the interpersonal relations between the practitioner and the students, it should be pointed out that in spite of the felt need for change and conformity to the new trends in language teaching emphasizing learner-directed approaches, still the dominant approach vastly employed is the old-fashioned teacher-directed one, with the teacher playing the key role, being the know-all, organizer, controller, and the one ruling the roost! Instead, the learner is the one who does the opposite, takes orders, is organized, is given the knowledge, and plays the second best.

5.3. The Behavioral Level

This level is, in fact, the materialization of the preceding level. Having the underlying ideas about language and language learning in the school curriculum in mind, it should be pointed out that materials are organized in such a way that they lend themselves to the classroom decisions being taken by the language teacher. It is the language teacher who decides how to answer and what approaches to employ to introduce the new materials. These approaches are usually arrived at on the basis of their own intuition and experience rather than being based on an evaluation of the situation and learners. By the same token, decisions on how to carry out exercises and activities are partly determined by the teacher and partly emerge from the materials designers' beliefs about teaching and learning.

To learn from a specific set of materials, it is possible to learn "experientially" (i.e., through what learners are required to do) or "referentially" (i.e., through content of the material itself) (Littlejohn & Windeatt, 1989). Contemporary views on education favor experiential language learning as a more effective and engaging process in which the language learner gets involved in learning. Courses which lay finger on introducing new information by moving from known to unknown and by providing opportunities to work with language and content through drilling exercise lean towards the referentiality end of the continuum. Teaching in this sense will be training as "transmission" (the term was borrowed from Breed et al. 1989, though used in a different sense) whereby teachers act as omniscient sources of knowledge. In this teaching process, the relationship is unidirectional with the teacher sending information and the learners receiving the information. On the other hand, courses which cater for the role-relationships within the classroom and provide opportunities for the development of cognitive abilities and problem-solving stand on the experiential end of the spectrum.

The data of the present study and the subjective description of the school textbooks bring up the materials under study on the referential side.

6. Conclusion

Since their inception in 1985, the existing English language teaching materials, developed by the Ministry of Education for national use, have been taken to task by a number of local researchers. The materials have been investigated from a discorsal and sociolinguistic point of view and their short-comings have been elaborated (Karimi, 1995; Tavakoli, 1995). New trends in language teaching lay a lot of emphasis on learners and their needs. Therefore, in order to demonstrate whether the existing materials answer the call of Iranian language learners, a questionnaire was designed and after careful validation, it was administered to a random sample of school students. The analysis of the data is suggestive of the fact that the existing materials do not much conform to the learners' present-day demands. Data analysis also reveals that students' expectations of the language skills and sub-skills are not on a par with the content and objectives of the textbooks. Therefore, if, at least, part of the concern is learner satisfaction by meeting their needs, there seems to be a pressing need for the revision and updating of the English language materials.

It is to be noted, however, that the findings of a needs assessment should be dealt with carefully. First, the learners' language needs should not be confused with their learning needs. So any attempt for the inclusion or exclusion of language skills and components should be geared to the learners' present language knowledge. Second, the modification of a language program based on the needs analysis per se may sometimes impair the program by changing it from a language education to language training, which may lead to the development of a restricted repertoire of the language rather than language knowledge. Moreover, some of the information obtained through the needs analysis may not be much reliable simply because the learners are not necessarily aware of their language needs in future.

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