

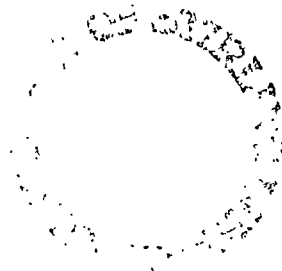
Thesis

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THE ROLE
OF ATTITUDES AND MOTIVATION
IN TEACHING AND LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES:
A THEORETICAL
AND EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION INTO THE TEACHING
AND LEARNING OF ENGLISH IN IRAQI PREPARATORY
SCHOOLS

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FOR THE MEMORY OF MY BROTHER UMAR

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ABSTRACT

Attitude and motivation, two central concepts in the domain of educational psychology, have not been attended to as required in the literature on English language teaching and learning in Iraq. Consequently, the current study aims at launching a theoretical and empirical investigation into the role of both concepts in bringing about the current discouraging situation of teaching and learning English as a foreign language in Iraq.

The theoretical part of the work subsumes the first four chapters. Chapter One is the introduction where the problem to be investigated, the hypotheses, the aims of the research, and the reasons behind the choice of this topic for research have been stated.

Chapter Two describes the educational system and the current situation of English language teaching and learning in Iraq. Worth mentioning in this respect are the different pre- and in-service training establishments, English textbooks and tests, and the supervision of teachers of English.

Chapter Three is on attitude. The concept has been initially considered from a purely psychological viewpoint with focus on the historical review of attitude development, definition, basic components, main characteristics, formation, and change. Attitude in education forms a second point of departure with emphasis being laid on the role of the concept in teaching and learning foreign

languages. Chapter Three ends with attitude measurement.

Motivation, the topic of study of Chapter Four, is tackled in terms of its historical development, definition, and different theories. Reference is also made to the role of motivation in education in general, and in foreign language teaching and learning in particular. Accordingly, types of motivation, factors affecting pupils' and teachers' motivation, and teachers' role in motivating pupils form main subjects of discussion. Chapter Four ends with two sections; the first of which tackles the facets of difference between attitude and motivation, while the second deals with the differences between interest on the one hand, and attitude and motivation on the other.

Chapter Five is on the method of research adopted to gather the data for the current study. It also contains the analysis of the Pupils' and Teachers' Attitudes and Motivation Questionnaires. Finally, some general remarks about the empirical part of the work are also made.

Chapter Six presents the statistical analysis and survey results. It also contains some hypotheses on pupils' and teachers' attitudes and motivation. There is further analysis of some responses made by pupils and teachers which could not be hypothesized. This chapter ends with the analysis of headteachers' and supervisors' perceptions of English language teaching and learning in Iraq.

The final chapter titled 'conclusion' contains the general conclusions arrived at by the researcher, followed by some implications for future work.

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Attitudes and motivation have been widely accounted for as crucial determinative factors of the efforts exerted in the carrying out of daily tasks. In the domain of education, where a number of factors, namely educational authorities, teachers, pupils, teaching materials, and circumstances inside and outside the school setting interact and work closely, the role of attitudes and motivation cannot be underestimated. This is so because the personalities, interests, needs, and social and educational backgrounds, of teachers and the taught, can noticeably influence the achievement of the varied educational objectives.

In the field of foreign language teaching and learning, the issue of maintaining learners' positive attitudes and motivation, and likewise their teachers', is a demanding and laborious task. It is shortly after real contact with the new language that many aspects assume importance and duly need constant following up. For instance, pupils come very soon to realize that the process of learning the new language is largely influenced by many psychological, educational, and social variables. Added to that, teachers, in the light of what the profession would confer and their pupils' level of achievement in the new language, start to experience states of either success and progress or failure and disappointment. Thus, the study of the role of attitudes and motivation is expected to shed light on certain aspects of the problem. That is what the following pages of the current research aim to do.

1.1 The Problem to be Investigated:

Teaching English as a foreign language in Iraqi schools has been a matter of much controversy for a long time. This is so because of the common underachievement by marked numbers of pupils, concomitant with the increasing figures of dropouts due to failure in the subject. The matter is of more importance at the preparatory level as pupils prepare to proceed to the next educational level; that is university level. At this level, the knowledge of English of most pupils is not up to the standard that would facilitate their better comprehension of the subjects taught in English and acquisition of the knowledge pertinent to their fields of specialization. It is publicly said that the current situation is due to the fact that Iraqi pupils and teachers of English at the preparatory level do not have positive attitudes or high motivation to learn and teach English as a foreign language. In the following chapters, attempts will be made to investigate the role of pupils' and teachers' attitudes and motivation in order to see whether such a claim is true or not.

1.2 The Hypotheses:

To investigate the problem thoroughly, 14 hypotheses, 9 on pupils' attitudes and motivation, and 5 on Teachers', have been set. They, i.e. the hypotheses, relate to attitudes in terms of attitude-objects, namely English language teaching and learning in Iraq, and also relate to

motivation in terms of teachers' goals behind choosing the profession of teaching English, and pupils' goals to benefit from learning English in the long run. The factors that might affect either attitudes or motivation have also been accounted for and hypothesized. For a full account of the hypotheses of the present work, see Chapter Six (on Statistical Analysis and Survey Results) where the hypotheses have been individually stated and statistically analysed.

1.3 The Aims of this Research:

The main purpose behind the current research is to cast light on certain points the present writer was bearing in mind before the start of this work as well as other important points that have been deduced from the previous literature on the role of attitudes and motivation in teaching and learning foreign languages. Thus, a main purpose of this study is to carry out as scientific and objective an inquiry as possible into the attitudes and motivation of Iraqi pupils and their teachers of English at the preparatory level towards learning and teaching English as a foreign language. It is hoped that such an inquiry would be more understandable and comprehensive as both samples have been considered in terms of certain independent variables. These variables are mainly represented by the location of the school, sex, and branch of studying, for pupils; and sex, place of graduation, and years of experience in teaching English as

far as teachers of the subject are concerned.

Since pupils' attitudes and motivation have been accounted for in the light of various variables that are primarily related to the context of English language learning in Iraq, investigating underachievement in English as a result of any one of the variables in question forms another aim of the current work. This would also shed light on the way each variable can positively contribute to the achievement of the hoped-for results, and to specify the appropriate approaches and techniques so as to make the subject of English more appealing to pupils. It is also an objective of the present research to find out the significant differences between pupils' achievement in English according to the location of the school, pupils' sex and branch of studying.

Added to that, pupils' commitment to fulfil the objectives behind learning English set by the Ministry of Education forms another aim towards which a part of the statistical analysis is geared.

This work also intends to investigate the relationship, whether positive or negative, between pupils' achievement in English and their attitudes and motivation to learn the language.

As for teachers, this work aims at finding out the direction of their attitudes and the intensity of their motivation to teach English. In the light of their responses to the attitudinal and motivational variables, it is hoped that factors that can enhance their positive

attitudes and high motivation would be specified and investigated. Analyses of the differences between teachers' attitudes or motivation in terms of sex, place of graduation, and years of experience in teaching English can serve as guidelines for the choice of certain calibres of teachers of English at the preparatory level.

It will be noticed throughout the Pupils' and Teachers' Attitudes Questionnaires that much emphasis has been placed upon the attitudes of both parties towards textbooks. By so doing, it is intended to find out which one of the three main factors in any educational process, i.e. teachers, pupils, and the teaching material, is responsible for the current deterioration in pupils' standards in English. When specified, certain remedial procedures will be suggested.

Furthermore, it is hoped that this work will be of interest to a large body of teachers who are concerned about their pupils. It would enable them to know the factors that affect pupils' attitudes and motivation to learn English. There would be in due course a chance for the adoption of certain instructional techniques that might make the process of English language learning easier and more interesting; and for the reformulation of certain aspects of the relationship between teachers and pupils' parents in order to enhance, as much as possible, the positive effect of the factors that work from outside the school.

At higher levels, the inclusion of certain variables,

namely textbooks, tests, training courses, and supervision in the pupils' and teachers' attitudes questionnaires can enlighten the senior authorities with more knowledge of what feelings teachers and the taught have towards the process of English language teaching and learning. Textbook designers, administrative and teaching staff of the training courses, committees for setting the Ministerial Public Examinations of English, and supervisory units can benefit from the conclusions made in the light of pupils' and teachers' expressed feelings and reactions.

1.4 Why the Choice of this Topic?

There has been during the last two decades much complaining, expressed in the Iraqi public opinion, about pupils' low levels of achievement in English. Concomitant with this have also been reciprocal accusations among all the parties involved in the process of English language teaching and learning. As the final outcomes have always been at the expense of pupils, the frequent overt victims of a process wherein an array of factors are working together, most of the blame has been directed to them.

Teachers, for their part, have only recently started to share a part of the responsibility for the final outcomes after the adoption, by educational authorities, of certain procedures to make the responsibility collective rather than individual. In the same manner, pupils' and teachers' lack of positive attitudes and high

motivation has been a common excuse or justification for any inquiry into the matter. Accordingly, in spite of the fact that the topic, "The Role of Attitudes and Motivation in Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages: A Theoretical and Empirical Investigation into the Teaching and Learning of English in Iraqi Preparatory Schools" includes a wide range of research to be probed, and because of the rarity of research works by Iraqi scholars in this respect, it is intended to put forward something of benefit to the citizens of Iraq; something that would contribute, even to a minimum, to improvement in the process of teaching and learning English as a foreign language in Iraq.

Finally, the choice of topic is but an attempt to clarify, in collaboration with other researchers in the field, some crucial points that might enlighten Iraqi pupils, teachers of English at the preparatory level, and others to whom the matter is of concern. It is the type of enlightenment that would hopefully result in the change of negative attitudes and low motivation into more positive ones.

CHAPTER TWO

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN IRAQ

2.1 Historical Review of Education in Iraq:

IRAQ, historically named Mesopotamia, had witnessed the birth and prosperity of several civilizations on its land. The constant excavations at the widespread archeological sites throughout the country have brought about much information relevant to those civilizations. Amongst the findings, the clay tablets inscribed with cuneiform characters have been a clear-cut and unquestionable testimony of the use of language as a means of communication in those ancient times.

During the Islamic Period, while lecturing, entirely religious, was taking place in mosques "to learn texts of Holy Koran and other religious subjects"(Al-Amin, 1984, p. 106), much emphasis was placed upon the education of the individual.

This stress on education culminated in the Islamic Abbasid Caliphate when "in A.H. 457 (A.D. 1065) the building was begun of the famous college, known after the vizier as the 'Madrasat Al-Nizamiyah', or Nizamiyah College. It was one of three great schools . . . and became the most famous of them all"(Levy, 1977, p.192). Likewise, attention was paid in great measure to the introduction of the foreign knowledge and culture. A large scale movement of translation of foreign literature into Arabic had been commenced. It is said that the Abbasid Caliph, Al-Ma'mun, who founded Dar Al-Hikma, "House of Wisdom", which acquired every possible foreign publication, was awarding each translator a weight of gold equalling that of the

translated publication. In this respect, Levy (1977, p.87) adds:

He [Al-Ma'mun] gathered together at Baghdad the best known poets, scholars and historians of the day and sent them to the old Byzantine provinces in search of the works of the classical philosophers and physicians. Many had already been rendered into Syriac, from which tongue Ma'mun had them translated into Arabic, thus introducing to the scientific world the works of Hippocrates, Euclid and Galen that had been all but forgotten in Europe.

Yet, the Mongol invasion and destruction of Baghdad, the capital of the Abbasid Caliphate, in A.D. 1258, had formed the starting point of a long period of educational deterioration. The invaders plundered the libraries, and most of the books were either burned or thrown into the River Tigris. In the aftermath of the Mongol invasion, Iraq was conquered again and came under the ruling of "two Turkoman dynasties . . . [when] very little was heard of any kind of general education"(Al-Amin, 1984, p.106).

During the Ottoman Period (A.D. 1288-1917), only few schools are said to have been opened in some of the Iraqi main cities. Added to that, Turkish replaced Arabic as the language of instruction in the newly opened schools. People in rural areas viewed schools and education as far-fetched goals limited to the wealthy citizens who were close to the Turkish "Walies", i.e. governors of the main cities:

The chief features of the Turkish regime were really restrictive in character. [Turkish] was a language foreign to all but to the official

class. This requirement made it quite impossible for the elementary schools to progress very far.

(A Committee of Officials, 1946, p.75)

Following the First World War (1914-1918) and the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, Iraq entered a new phase of its modern history as the country came under British Mandate in 1917. The British Mandate covered the era between 1917 to 1932. This period was characterized by noticeable influence on the part of the local British authorities on the educational system of the country. In spite of the Arabic replacement of Turkish as the language of instruction and the increase in the number of schools opened and pupils enrolled, the educational system of the country was lacking in major developments. Redha (1984, p.1) states:

In September 1918, the Directorate of Education was first formed. The system and policy were coordinated under the supervision of a British Director. He gave general advice to the Minister and was consulted on matters influencing educational policy.

After Iraq had been granted independence in 1932, the local authorities realized the importance of some inevitable steps. In 1940, for instance, the foundation of a general law to cope with the new developments in the educational system became very demanding. Hence, the newly formed Ministry of Education was supposed to practise its responsibilities. Al-Amin (1984, pp.107) comments on this point by stating:

By this time the administration of education had been highly systemized and centralized and remained firmly in the hands of the Ministry of Education in the capital, Baghdad.

Yet throughout the period (1940-1968), the educational system in Iraq had been very unpromising. In spite of the steady increase in the numbers of pupils enrolled, the dearth of schools and teachers at all levels remained real threatening problems.

As all aspects of life in Iraq have witnessed betterment since the July Revolution 1968, the sector of education has been no exception. Attention has been paid to this sector in an attempt to push it forward towards more beneficial service to the citizens of the country. Senior authorities have been well aware of the fact that a country with no educated citizens cannot cope with other civilized nations. Consequently, the current situation of education in Iraq is gradually improving. The direct and ceaseless following up undertaken by senior authorities to bridge the gaps that might impede the hoped-for progress has contributed much to the ambition to have a more developed educational system within the next few years.

2.2 The Educational System in Iraq:

In Iraq, the current pattern of formal school system starts with two years in kindergarten followed by the other three basic levels, namely primary, intermediate, and preparatory. Apart from the kindergarten level, this system is still the same introduced during the British

Mandatory Period.

The primary level, where six-year old children are first enrolled, lasts six years. It is a compulsory level since compulsory education was first introduced in 1976 and enforced in 1978-1979. Education at this level is free. It "aims at enabling pupils to read and write and acquire knowledge of science and health education as well as in social sciences"(Ministry of Education, 1980).

The intermediate level is a three-year non-compulsory level. On its completion, graduates are awarded the intermediate level certificate. In terms of its aims,

great attention is paid during the intermediate level to the abilities and tendencies of pupils and to their guidance, besides a continuous care for the bases of knowledge, skills, tendencies and attitude with the aim of perfecting them and following up their applications as an introduction to the next educational level or to pupils productive life.

(Ministry of Education, 1980)

The preparatory level forms the third educational level in Iraq. It is also a three-year non-compulsory level. Pupils' enrolment at this level is determined in the light of the streaming plan that takes into account pupils' level of achievement in the Ministerial Baccalaureate Examination on the completion of the intermediate level. In other words, streaming determines a pupils' undertaking of either academic or vocational studies. This level is also characterized by an age limit not less than 15 years nor above 20 years at the date of candidature.

The preparatory school-level is divided into two

sections: academic and vocational. The first year of the academic section is a general studying year. During the next two years, a pupil is specialized in either the scientific or the literary branch. A pupil's level of success in the Ministerial Baccalaureate Examination set at the end of this level qualifies him or her to proceed to a higher education institution, yet mostly in the light of the branch of specialization.

Higher education includes the universities located in about half of the eighteen Iraqi centres of Governorates, and the institutes that are widely-spread in almost all the centres of Governorates and other main cities.

TABLE (2.1): THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN IRAQ: PUPILS' AGE ON ENROLMENT, DURATION IN YEARS, AND THE QUALIFICATIONS AWARDED.

LEVEL	AGE	DURATION IN YEARS	QUALIFICATION AWARDED
Kindergarten	4	2	Certificate
Primary	6	6	Certificate
Intermediate	12	3	Certificate
Preparatory	15	3	Certificate
Higher Education	18	2 to 6	Certificate

Source: Adapted from Development of Education in Iraq during 1978-1979, 1979-1980. Ministry of Education, 1980, p.15.

Except for Higher Education, the academic year is divided into two semesters. The first semester covers the period from October to January. It is followed by the mid-year examination and one-week mid-year vacation. The second semester starts in February and ends in May. This

is also followed by the final-year examination and three- to four-month summer vacation.

It is worthy of note that education is centralized in terms of the purely pedagogic activities including the teaching materials. Directorates in charge of the different educational levels are established within the capital city, Baghdad. In an attempt to reduce work pressure and save time, a General Directorate of Education has been established in each centre of Governorate. The latter takes over the responsibility of carrying out the varied administrative and financial tasks that a school's everyday life demands.

Finally, the same educational system is applied all over the country with Arabic as the only language of instruction. The Kurdish region is the only exception in this respect where Kurdish is used as the language of instruction in a marked number of schools due to the self-autonomy rule that the region has been granted since 1974.

2.3 English Language Teaching in Iraq:

In the literature on language teaching and learning, the terms "second language" and "foreign language" are often used in an interchangeable manner. In Iraq, however, English is labelled as a "foreign language". This is due to the absence of the communicative functions of the language within the Iraqi context and its lack of official recognition in running the tasks of the

governmental establishments.

2.3.1 Historical Review:

The western missionaries played a key role in founding the bases for English language teaching in Iraq. Hakim (1977) points out that American missionaries had been very active in the southern region of the country. They were reported, early in this century, to open their first school in the city of Basrah. Shortly after, more American schools were opened, mainly in the capital Baghdad, and English was introduced as a compulsory subject within the curriculum.

British mandatory authorities, as Hakim (1977) comments, had their own schools opened in the year 1929 with English as the medium of instruction. As for other public schools throughout the country, English was firstly introduced into the urban schools only. The policy behind such a limitation of the teaching of English was to serve the objectives of the British local authorities. The following few years witnessed the introduction of English as an obligatory subject within the curriculum of all Iraqi schools.

Younis (1956) points out that the decision was to teach English during the last two years of the primary level, followed by three years at intermediate level, and finally at the preparatory level which was then of a two-year studying period. Furthermore, there was much stress on the teaching of English at higher education level.

The decision to teach English at all school levels had put a new burden on the shoulders of the Ministry of Education. The provision of qualified personnel to teach the subject became very demanding. Al-Asady (1982) mentions three sources of the provision of teachers of English. Firstly, some local citizens of oral knowledge of English who were known by their close relations with the British local authorities were asked to teach the subject. They were mostly lacking in good reading and writing skills. Secondly, some teachers of English were brought from India and other countries. Thirdly and finally, some Iraqi students abroad cut short their studies on orders from the Iraqi authorities and came back to teach the subject.

It is worth mentioning that English language teaching, in spite of all the aforementioned attempts, remained a failure. No serious attempts were made to bring about the desired changes. Added to that, learners' poor performance had instilled in them and in their teachers of English deep feelings of frustration and resentment towards the subject (Ali, 1983).

For the time being, English is taught as a compulsory subject at all school levels in Iraq. This period covers the last two years of the primary level, followed by three years of each of the intermediate and the preparatory levels. Different numbers of hours of English per week are allotted to the grades within the three levels. Furthermore, sincere efforts are being made to promote the

teaching of English in Iraqi schools. For instance, teachers are having intensive training courses. This has been concomitant with the attempts by the authorities to provide all schools with the required essential teaching aids that would facilitate learners' better assimilation of the subject.

2.3.2 The Objectives behind English Language Teaching in Iraq:

Societal goals, individual needs, and economic interests form the main reasons behind introducing a foreign language into the educational system of a country. Accordingly, the prior outlining of the various purposes behind learning a foreign language should not, under any circumstances, be underestimated.

Since English is looked upon as an important language of profitable linguistic and cultural consequences, learners worldwide try to learn and use the language. They value the knowledge of English as a means of being well-acquainted with the ways of life and cultures of the English-speaking peoples side by side with other utilitarian objectives in the future. Finocchiaro (1969, p.221) writes:

In many formerly colonized countries, the colonized language has been retained after independence for certain purposes. A foreign language is one which has no internal function in the learner's country and which is learnt in order to communicate with native speakers or internal users of the foreign language.

The predominant feature of English in Iraq is not a new phenomenon. It has roots in the view of the language as an indispensable element for educated citizens. Furthermore, English has retained its reputation within the country as a language of worldwide prestige. This is also due to the role of the language in enabling learners to acquire knowledge through interaction with either the native speakers of English or other users of the language within the country and abroad.

Accordingly, the Ministry of Education, in the light of its viewpoint of English as a worldwide language that would guarantee better profitable careers in the future, has taken into regard some general guidelines to facilitate the outlining of the main objectives behind English language teaching in Iraqi schools. In its latest publication in 1987, the Ministry refers to the ideology of the Arab Ba'ath Socialist Party, the humanitarian and cultural role played and being played by Iraq and the Arab Nation, Arab cultural heritage and civilization, the local social needs for English language in terms of the national development plan, the necessity to prepare pupils for university education, the widespread use of English for academic and non-academic purposes, and the role of the language as a window on the world to learn about other peoples' cultures as basic principles according to which the following objectives behind English language teaching in Iraq have been set:

- Helping the learners in the primary and sec-

ondary schools to effectively manipulate the basic language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing in such a way as to enable them to develop these skills as to satisfy the needs arising after the general educational stages and in accordance with their age, individual differences, personal and psychological motives. This, it is hoped, will enable them to use English in all walks of life and contribute effectively to the overall resurgence being witnessed by the country at all levels. . . .

- Helping pupils to use English for scientific, academic and technological purposes with a view of preparing them to university and academic studies beyond the secondary stage so as to be able to cope with the scientific and technological progress in the fields of science research and translation.
- Helping pupils to use English for professional purposes. Use English in the various day to day situations and when travelling abroad.

(Ministry of Education, 1987)

2.3.3 Factors Affecting English Language Teaching and Learning in Iraq:

The process of English language teaching and learning in Iraq has witnessed a marked lack of success right from the beginning; a phenomenon that has made almost all the objectives set by the Ministry of Education very far-fetched (Ali, 1983; Redha, 1984). This discouraging situation can be attributed to many factors that have been negatively affecting the whole process. These factors do not vary basically from those that might affect the teaching and learning of foreign languages elsewhere.

At the inception, teachers of English, especially at the primary level, have played a prime role in bringing about the current discouraging situation. The inadequacy of

the pre-service training courses has made many teachers fail to grasp the knowledge and skills to teach efficiently. Such a failure can also be ascribed to the insufficient number of competent instructors at the pre-service training colleges and institutes. Al-Hamash (1980) further suggests the shortage and inefficient use of modern audio-visual aids, the unproductive in-service training courses, and the availability of some non-specialized supervisors of English as additional obstacles that hinder the achievement of the stated objectives. Commenting on the same point, the following statement by Kharma (1977, p.107) can be applied, even to a limited extent, to the current situation of English language teaching in Iraq:

The majority of teachers have a reasonably good command of reading and writing in English but most of them are not very fluent in spoken English, a skill that is in great demand, especially in the early stages.

Being in the teaching profession, some teachers regret such a choice. They show feelings of resentment and dislike especially when the unjust evaluation of supervisors and the obligatory aspects of their work are brought into focus. Moreover, teachers' lack of effective teaching methods and psychological techniques to motivate pupils has noticeably contributed to the complexity of the matter at pupils' own expense. Inefficient and personally innovated teaching techniques have made the domain of teaching English crowded with incompatible and unproductive ideas and viewpoints. Such techniques, besides emphasis on the

structural method and the marked use of Arabic, have made teachers squeeze pupils within very narrow areas of knowledge (Redha, 1984).

As for pupils, the marked percentage of failures in English at all levels, especially in the Ministerial Public Examinations, has made this factor a focal point that merits studying and investigation. Pupils' perception of English as a subject that is difficult to learn is usually coupled with feelings of disappointment and frustration. Furthermore, the unfavourable attitudes of headteachers and teachers of subjects, other than English, can have a negative bearing on a pupil's attempt to learn the language.

English textbooks with their frequent changes form another crucial factor in this respect. Their bias towards the local culture does not serve the achievement of the set objectives. Wilkins (1978, p.49) states:

Language learning will also be much influenced by attitudes towards cultural aspects of language. In one sense, language cannot be properly learned without familiarity with features of the culture, since language and culture are inextricably connected.

In the same manner, current English textbooks put forward a language devoid of its cultural content (Rheda, 1984). Such a procedure is a drawback in itself. Pupils find themselves in situations with a variety of inappropriate means at their disposal to tackle the new teaching material. The first of these means is pupils' prior knowledge of a certain topic due to their past experience

with it in their mother tongue. This would undoubtedly narrow pupils' chances to think in the foreign language and would, in turn, bring the development of the foreign language skills to a standstill. Luckily, the committee in charge of preparing a new series of English textbooks is aware of this point. It has claimed in its recent publication, "Syllabus of English Language Curriculum in the Primary, Intermediate, and Preparatory Stages in Iraq", that a compromise is being sought. During early stages, pupils will be exposed to culture-free English. Later on, there will be gradually more culture-abound material on the topics presented.

Teachers of English encountered during the field studies of the current research work commented that English textbooks are of lengths incommensurable with the time allotted to each book to be covered. These textbooks contain, in the view of many teachers, unnecessary repetitions, at a time when changes of and in English textbooks are viewed as solely a new set to replace an old one and to fulfil a part of the programme of continuous change. It is worthy of note that such changes would require of teachers that they should go a step backwards so as to establish the policy and techniques to deal with the new content.

There is also apparent aimlessness and frustration among teachers and the taught due to the pressure of the difficult examinations, the only means of evaluation of English language learning in Iraqi schools (Al-Hamash,

1980).

Succinctly speaking, the drawbacks of teaching and learning English as a foreign language in Iraq, thus far stated, can be ascribed to many diverse factors. These factors are mainly represented by inefficient teachers, helpless pupils, less than productive teaching methods, inappropriate teaching materials, and difficult tests.

2.3.4 Teachers of English in Iraqi Schools:

Since its foundation, the Ministry of Education has placed high on the list of its priorities the matter of manning schools at all levels with qualified teachers of English. This has mainly stemmed from the fact that teachers play a key role in the teaching and learning situation. Teachers can instil in learners constant interest that would lead, in turn, to better assimilation of the materials taught. Yet, the Ministry's endeavour in this respect has been characterized by inability to recruit sufficient numbers of well-trained teachers of English. In due course, much complaining has been evidenced in the public opinion about the low standards of noticeable numbers of teachers of English and the lack of efficiency by a noteworthy proportion of them in teaching the language.

A. The Primary Level:

At the primary level, teachers of English are not specialized in teaching the subject. They are graduates of

Primary Teachers' Training Institutes, Central Primary Teachers' Institutes, and Educational Courses. Al-Hamash (1973, p.8) states:

The pre-training programmes for primary school teacher provide no specialization in English. In the majority of cases, primary school teachers are not qualified to teach English. They lack one of the basic requirements of a qualified teacher of the subject, namely, adequate mastery of English. The situation demands serious consideration since the harm done by inefficient teachers in the primary stage is two-fold, (sic) in the first place, young learners pick up language very easily, including all the mistakes of their teachers. In the second place, these faulty language habits are extremely difficult to eradicate in later years when they are out of the receptive stage.

In the following sections, reference will be made to the places of graduation for teachers of English in Iraqi primary schools.

1. Primary Teachers' Training Institutes:

Pupils enrolled at these institutes are graduates of Iraqi intermediate schools. Being formerly of a three-year studying period, these institutes have recently undergone an extension in the period of studying to become five years instead of three. This recent change aims at enabling pupils to be specialized in the teaching of one of the subjects taught at the primary level. English is reported to be one of those subjects. The general aim of these institutes is to provide Iraqi primary schools with efficient and well-trained teachers of different specializations.

At these institutes, much stress is placed in the early stages upon the teaching of English phonetics and general English. Later on, methods of teaching English become the focal subject of studying. Students also spend a six-week teaching-practice period at primary schools in the hope of being acquainted with the effective methods and techniques of teaching.

2. Central Primary Teachers' Institutes:

The only four of these institutes in Iraq are located in the Governorates of Baghdad, Ninevah, Erbil, and Mesan. Students enrolled are graduates of the preparatory schools, both scientific and literary branches. They are supposed to spend a two-year period to be trained for their future career as teachers of general specializations at primary schools.

The curriculum of these institutes has much in common with the way the primary schools curriculum is designed and the appropriate techniques for the teaching of such a curriculum. Furthermore, the six-week teaching practice during the second semester of the second academic year, and students' frequent visits to the nearby primary schools during the same year, form additional means to enhance students' preparation for their forthcoming teaching career.

At these institutes, there is a three-hour instruction of English per week during the first year when English phonetics and general English structures pertinent

to primary schools English curriculum are the main topics to be studied. During the second year, emphasis is placed on teaching-practice and methods of teaching English in primary schools with an average of four hours of English per week.

During the academic year 1985-1986, the Central Primary Teachers' Institutes witnessed the foundation of new English departments. Students' enrolment at these departments is determined in the light of their achievement in English in the Ministerial Public Examination set at the end of the preparatory level. As students study other subjects side by side with the English subjects, the main objective of these departments is to man Iraqi primary schools with qualified teachers of general specializations, yet this time with more bias towards the teaching of English.

The first two batches of the graduates of these departments are reported to experience disappointment. The majority of them are not doing the task they have been trained for; i.e. the teaching of English. This is due to their studying of other obligatory subjects side by side with English subjects during their stay at these institutes.

TABLE(2.2): DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS PER WEEK FOR ENGLISH SUBJECTS TAUGHT AT DEPARTMENTS OF ENGLISH, CENTRAL PRIMARY TEACHERS' INSTITUTES, IRAQ, DURING THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1988-1989.

Subject	First Year	Second Year
1. Testing	2	2
2. Textbook Analysis	2	2
3. Methodology	3	3
4. English Phonetics	3	2
5. General English	4	5
6. English Grammar	3	3
7. English Literature	2	-
Total	19 hours out of (32)	17 hours out of (32)

3. Educational Courses:

These are intensive six-month courses run by the General Directorates of Education in the Iraqi Governorates. Students enrolled at these courses are graduates of either preparatory schools, both scientific and literary branches, or the scientific and humanities colleges who prefer teaching to their original professions, if any. The curriculum taught at these courses is the same as that of the Central Primary Teachers' Institutes. A course usually ends with a final examination.

B. The Intermediate and Preparatory Levels:

At the intermediate and preparatory levels, teachers of English are graduates of either Colleges of Education or Colleges of Arts. Their four-year study enables them to be more prepared and qualified in teaching English than their counterparts at the primary level. Al-Hamash (1973, p.8) writes:

In general, there is a marked boundary that separates secondary school teaching from primary school teaching. Transfer is rare, [unless those in primary schools get admission to Colleges of Education and get a B.Ed. degree]. This stigmatizes primary school teachers as "below the standard" when compared to secondary school teachers.

1. Colleges of Education:

They are run by the Iraqi Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. Students enrol at these colleges on the completion of their studies at the preparatory level, scientific and literary branches. Some primary school teachers get admission to these colleges to be specialized in the teaching of one subject after graduation. Their former experience in teaching enables them to be usually the most qualified graduates of Colleges of Education in Iraq.

Students spend a four-year studying period at the Colleges of Education. The major objective is to be equipped with the required specialized knowledge of new ideas and methods of teaching in the fields of science, humanities and social sciences. Students' frequent visits during the final year to the intermediate and preparatory schools to observe experienced teachers of English, and the six-week teaching-practice period during the second semester of the same year offer them the opportunity to acquire more practical knowledge in the fields of their specialization. On completion of their studies, graduates are awarded the Bachelor degree.

TABLE(2.3): DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS PER WEEK FOR SUBJECTS TAUGHT AT DEPARTMENTS OF ENGLISH, COLLEGES OF EDUCATION, IRAQ, DURING THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1988-1989.

First Year		Second Year	
Subject	Hours per Week	Subject	Hours per Week
1. Applied Grammar.	4	1. Structural Grammar.	3
2. Guided Composition.	2	2. Comprehension and Composition.	3
3. Phonetics.	3	3. English Phonetic System.	3
4. Conversation.	2	4. Conversation.	2
5. Introduction to Poetry and 19th Century Poetry.	2	5. 18th Century Poetry.	2
6. Comprehension.	3	6. Short Story.	3
7. Introduction to English Prose.	2	7. A One-Act Play.	2
8. General Psychology.	2	8. Educational Psychology.	2
9. Programming.	2	9. Fundamentals of Education.	2
10. Social and National Education.	2	10. Social and National Education.	2
11. Physical Education.	2		
Total	26		24

(Continued....)

Third Year		Fourth Year	
Subject	Hours per Week	Subject	Hours per Week
1.Modern English Prose.	3	1.Transformational Grammar.	2
2.Advanced Conversation.	2	2.General Linguistics.	2
3.Translation.	2	3.Translation.	2
4.Syllabus and Methods of Teaching.	2	4.Methodology and Application.	2
5.19th Century Novel.	3	5.20th Century Novel.	3
6.The Shakespearean Play	3	6.Modern Drama.	3
7.20th Century Poetry.	2	7.Modern Poetry.	2
8.Research Writing.	2	8.Textbook Analysis.	2
9.Developmental Psychology.	2	9.Measurement and Evaluation.	2
10.Social and National Education.	2	10.Social and National Education.	2
11.Educational Thinking of his Excellency the President.	3	11.History of English Literature.	2
Total	26		24

2. Colleges of Arts:

These colleges also work under the auspices of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. They are of a four-year studying period and students enrolled are graduates of Iraqi preparatory schools, literary rather than scientific branch.

Al-Amin (1984) outlines the prime aim of Colleges of Arts as being to prepare researchers and specialists who have a good command of the linguistic skills of the languages taught. Accordingly, no courses on methods of teaching or educational psychology are taught at these colleges. Furthermore, because students do not have the teaching-practice period and the observation visits, as their counterparts in Colleges of Education do, the pre-service training of teachers of English does not form a main objective of the Colleges of Arts. Yet, the shortage of teachers of English has given the graduates of these colleges the chance of taking over the task of teaching the language.

Although the previous years witnessed the introduction of a one-year course in an attempt to make the graduates of Colleges of Arts more prepared to teach English, it is surprising that for the time being and due to the urgent and increasing demand for teachers of English, most graduates start teaching English at intermediate and preparatory schools immediately on the completion of their studies.

TABLE (2.4): DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS PER WEEK FOR SUBJECTS TAUGHT AT DEPARTMENTS OF ENGLISH, COLLEGES OF ARTS, IRAQ, DURING THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1988-1989.

First Year		Second Year	
Subject	Hours per Week	Subject	Hours per Week
1. Applied Grammar.	3	1. Grammar.	3
2. Composition and Library Research.	3	2. Comprehension and Composition.	4
3. Comprehension.	3	3. Conversation.	2
4. Phonetics.	3	4. Phonetic System.	2
5. Introduction to Literature.	4	5. Renaissance Poetry.	3
6. Second Foreign Language.	2	6. Second Foreign Language.	2
7. Social and National Education.	2	7. Renaissance Drama.	3
8. Computing.	2	8. 19th Century Novel.	
9. Arabic Language.	2	9. Arabic Language.	2
10. Physical Education.	2		
Total	26		24

(Continued.....)

Third Year		Fourth Year	
Subject	Hours per Week	Subject	Hours per Week
1. General English Grammar.	3	1. General English Grammar.	2
2. Advanced Fiction and Comprehension.	3	2. Introduction to Linguistics.	3
3. General Translation	3	3. Literary and Technical Translation.	2
4. Poetry (1660-1830).	3	4. Victorian and Modern Poetry.	3
5. 19th Century Novel	3	5. 20th Century Novel.	3
6. Drama in 17th and 18th Centuries.	3	6. Drama in 20th Century.	3
7. Second Foreign Language.	2	7. Second Foreign Language.	2
8. Social and National Education.	2	8. Social and National Education.	2
9. Arabic Literature.	2	9. Literary Criticism (Theoretical and Applied).	2
		10. Research Project and Methods of Research.	2
Total	24		24

2.3.5 The Training of English Language Teachers in Iraq:

Training, in its broad sense, forms a decisive part of any task that requires experience and skill to be carried out effectively. In the domain of education in general, and that of foreign language teaching and learning in particular, effective training plays a key role in preparing teachers for the task of teaching. It makes them equipped with the required techniques and skills and less vulnerable to commit mistakes that are usually misleading and time and effort consuming. As for its benefits for the taught, training is a major determinant of the success of their educational experience since it helps teachers acquire the strategies important for the development of learners' abilities to achieve a better command of the language. Marklund (1968, p.433) states:

The obvious starting point for better teacher-training is that such training must be in the service of the society and the school, and its objectives shall be the goals of the new school - the optimum development of the individual pupil.

In terms of its occurrence either prior to or during the actual period of teaching, training of teachers of English in Iraq is labelled as pre-service or in-service training.

Firstly, pre-service training is the type of training that takes place at one of the educational institutions mentioned in the previous sections. It aims at providing trainees with satisfactory knowledge and command of English and English language teaching.

Theoretical lecturing, the predominant aspect of pre-service training, is usually coupled with additional practical procedures to enhance the final results. The practical procedures take the form of frequent visits by the trainees to schools which are either attached to trainees' colleges and institutes, or located in the nearby environs. English language teachers at these schools are mostly known as qualified and experienced to give fruitful advice to the trainees attending their lessons. An additional and more beneficial procedure in this respect is represented by the six-week teaching-practice period that trainees have to spend at the schools within or without the district. This gives trainees the opportunity to practise teaching English within real teaching situations as they will do later in their working life. A trainee's efficiency in handling this first experience with success and self-confidence is mainly determined by his or her commitment to the notes taken from the observation lessons during the first week of the teaching-practice. It might also be derived from the instructions given by the competent teachers of English at the schools in question, or by the instructor who supervises the trainee throughout the teaching-practice period.

Pre-service training of teachers of English in Iraq, as Al-Hamash (1980) views, is labelled as inadequate and less than beneficial. Trainees are usually assumed to be short of the required linguistic skills on the completion

of the courses. This is, in the main, due to the vulnerability of this type of training to the effective influence of several factors. The first of these factors is the low efficiency of some instructors in terms of their command of English and English language teaching. Secondly, the majority of the training institutions are suffering from shortage of time as there is much to be imparted during these courses. Thirdly, pre-service training courses have mostly failed in accounting for trainees' linguistic competence, as the majority of them enter training courses with the minimum standard of language knowledge and teaching techniques. Accordingly, trainees' low linguistic competence hampers their endeavour to achieve what they aspire to. Fourthly and finally, while Chedzoy (1980) points out that student-teachers need to be instructed on pedagogic and linguistic matters since such knowledge is unattainable incidentally by analogy with their own education as students, the discouraging behaviour of some headteachers and teachers of English at the schools where a trainee's teaching-practice is taking place is negatively influential. Their refusal to co-operate with the trainee who is at the very start of his or her teaching experience makes the development of negative attitudes towards teaching in general and teaching English in particular very possible.

Secondly, in-service training is the type of training a teacher undergoes while in the teaching service. Quoting

B. Cane (1969, p.10), Amin (1983, p.28) gives the following definition:

[In-service training] is taken to include all those courses and activities in which a serving teacher may participate for the purpose of extending his professional knowledge, interest or skill. Preparation for a degree, diploma or other qualification subsequent to initial training is included within this definition.

Unlike pre-service training, in-service training is usually shorter and narrower in scope. It mainly aims at reinforcing teachers' pre-service acquired knowledge and skills. A second aim of these courses is to compensate for the proficiency and adequate teaching techniques that teachers fail to grasp during their pre-service training courses. Coping with the changes in curriculum and the new developments in teaching methods forms another objective of in-service training courses. Wilkins (1978, p.55) comments on this point by stating:

It is probably true to say that modern methods require more careful preparation and a greater display of pedagogic skills than more conventional methods. The majority of teachers have never been trained in these methods. It is not realistic nor ultimately desirable to expect that they will happily and efficiently change their approach to language teaching overnight.

Added to that, in-service training courses fulfil the wishes and interests of ambitious teachers who endeavour to improve their academic and professional qualifications. They form an opportunity for teachers of varied standards of proficiency and command of English language teaching to

get together and exchange many thoughts relevant to their field of specialization. Finally, in-service training courses, as Finocchiaro (1969) points out, enable teachers to acquire an extent of proficiency to meet a wide range of variations in pupils' backgrounds.

In the light of the aforementioned objectives, in-service training for teachers of English in Iraq has undergone constant fluctuations. For instance, while the matter of training English language teachers was well considered in the 1940s (Hakim, 1977), the 1950s and 1960s witnessed a marked retreat in this respect:

The in-service training of teachers was seriously undertaken in the early forties on summer courses through lectures and printed Notes and pamphlets circulated at the request of the ELC, [English Language Committee], and later the Inspectorate for the teaching of English. A large number of Demonstration lessons held all over the provincial towns and Teaching Aids Exhibitions had their impact on the development of teaching the subject.

(Hakim, 1977, p.270)

Yet, in spite of the realization that the success of an individual teacher is determined, in great measure, by the extent of professional training he or she has, in-service training for teachers of English in Iraq was characterized by haphazard planning and bad organization. It is reported that the Ministry of Education adopted certain reforming procedures in the hope that some developments would be brought about. In 1966, for instance, two committees were founded to supervise the

programmes of in-service training of teachers of English (Hakim, 1977). Unfortunately, only a limited degree of success could be achieved. Such an unpromising situation could be ascribed, as Al-Hamash (1973) clarifies, to a number of reasons, the most effective of which are: short periods of in-service training courses, shortage of regular teaching staff, absence of long-term planning, unspecified subject matter, vaguely stated objectives, random nomination of participants, and finally absence of incentives, evaluation and following up.

The designation of such problems and the concern about them on the part of senior authorities had given impetus to a serious consideration of the establishment of a central planning and organizing body to conduct the activities of teaching English as a foreign language in Iraq. Such an establishment, in the case of its foundation, was expected to take over the responsibility of publishing journals, producing teaching materials and organizing different training courses in co-operation with other educational institutions.

These ambitious attempts have ultimately culminated in the opening of the Institute for the Development of English Language Teaching in Iraq, (henceforth IDELTI), in the capital Baghdad in 1972. Although the IDELTI has recently been named "English Department" at the "Institute of Training and Educational Development", it remains the most well-known Iraqi institute that has been playing a central role in carrying out successful in-service

training courses for teachers of English. It has also pushed forward the process of English language teaching through the provision of qualified teacher-trainers and teachers of English. Al-Hamash, who worked for many years as a competent Dean of the IDELTI, (1980, p.4) states:

The inauguration of IDELTI . . . marks a new phase in the teaching of English in Iraq since the IDELTI has been given the responsibility of (a) producing materials for English language teaching . . . for all educational levels and (b) organizing in-service training programmes for teachers and supervisors of English.

In terms of the latter, the IDELTI has carried out, since its foundation, a large number of in-service training courses for teachers and supervisors of English. Instructional approaches have usually taken the form of conferences, seminars, and lectures delivered by specialized experienced instructors.

To shed more light on the main objectives behind the foundation of the IDELTI, Al-Hamash (1981, p.6) writes:

1. To improve the participants' competence professionally by helping them improve their
 - a. method of teaching;
 - b. understanding and use of the prescribed textbooks and materials;
 - c. approach to the teaching of the mechanics of handwriting and written work in general;
 - d. testing techniques including constructing and administering oral and written tests as well as interpreting examination results.
2. To improve the participants' linguistic competence by improving their
 - a. pronunciation and knowledge of basic ideas and symbols used in English phonetics;
 - b. competence in analysing and manipulating English linguistic (syntactic and morphological) patterns.

Unluckily, such an outlining of objectives has not guaranteed the success of the working plan designed for the IDELTI. Other related aspects had to be closely inspected and taken into regard. Consequently, the next stage has witnessed the search for the possible incentives that would make as many teachers as possible participate in the training courses. Promotion, payment of transportation fees, provision of free materials, offering scholarships to brilliant B. A. holders, and reduction of the teaching load by a third have been main sources of encouragement for wider participation in the in-service training courses. Furthermore, the provision of a corps of specialized and skilful instructors has been another decisive task that the IDELTI has successfully and gradually put into effect. Such provision has, in turn, aroused teachers' interest and made them perceive the training courses as real sources of development not to be missed.

The IDELTI has also benefited from the drawbacks that hindered the in-service training courses set by the Ministry of Education prior to the year 1972. In this respect, IDELTI has carried out its training courses with more reforming procedures in terms of duration, administration and planning, activities to be instructed, nomination of participants, awarding incentives, and finally evaluation of the achieved objectives. Evaluation is done in the form of entry and final examinations for the participants, or through notes and comments in response to

a questionnaire administered on the completion of each course (Al-Hamash, 1980).

In the light of the stated objectives and reforming procedures the IDELTI has successfully launched many short and long courses. The short intensive morning courses during summer vacations with an average of 25 hours per week are set for teachers of English in all Governorates other than the capital Baghdad. Conversely, the long afternoon courses that are usually held during the academic year and last six months with an average of 15 hours per week are arranged for teachers of English working within the capital city of Baghdad.

Table (2.5): DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS PER WEEK FOR SHORT AND LONG TRAINING COURSES HELD AT THE IDELTI FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AT THE INTERMEDIATE AND PREPARATORY LEVELS.

Subject	Number of Hours/Week	
	Morning Short Courses	Evening Long Courses
1. Methodology.	5	2
2. Linguistics.	5	3
3. Phonetics.	3	3
4. Spoken English.	3	3
5. Text Analysis.	5	2
6. Testing.	2	1
7. The Teaching of Writing.	2	1
Total	25	15

Source: IDELTI Prospectus, No.1, 1980, Baghdad.

IDELTI has also succeeded in minimizing the pressure of work due to be done by its cadre in Baghdad. Al-Hamash (1980, p.21) clarifies this point by stating:

The IDELTI has organized an intensive six-month programme for about sixty highly competent secondary school teachers, representing all the governorates in the country. These were called "trainer leaders" and after completing the course they went back to the different provinces. Each group established something similar to a branch of IDELTI in the province. Thus, teacher training became decentralized for the first time.

In line with this, it has been through the persistent efforts by the teaching and administrative staff of the IDELTI that the process of in-service training of teachers of English has been going ahead with some noticeable success. The frankness, self-confidence, and co-operation that have characterized the work of these people have made the IDELTI programmes a subject of constant revision and improvement. For instance, since the foundation of the IDELTI, the orientation has been to take maximum benefit from the periodical meetings of the staff, observations made by technical advisors and consultants, evaluation of and comparison between the outcomes of the successive courses, and the publications relevant to the task of this educational establishment and its eventful courses.

Summing up, in spite of what the IDELTI has successfully achieved in its attempts to push forward the process of English language teaching in Iraq, research by Amin (1983) has drawn the attention of the administrative and teaching personnel to the following problems that have been hindering their task:

1. Lack of statistical information on the varied

activities held by the IDELTI.

2. Insufficient numbers of permanent teaching staff.

3. Lack of practical work, as much emphasis is put on theoretical lecturing.

4. Lack of professional content concomitant with unspecified subject matter.

5. Inadequate examination system.

6. Lack of motivation by teachers as a result of the absence of incentives, proper evaluation, and the required following up.

7. Lack of research.

8. Lack of teachers' continuing education.

9. Siting of IDELTI and the problems of travel distances from other Governorates to the capital city, Baghdad.

10. Lack of audio-visual aids.

11. Lack of library facilities.

12. Nomination of participants; which forms a major problem because participants of quite diverse standards are nominated by the regional educational authorities. This usually influences the selection of the suitable teaching materials and the identification of the objectives behind holding the course.

2.3.6 English Textbooks of Iraq:

A textbook is an organized collection of designed material. In Iraq, it represents an indispensable source of assistance to teachers. Neither teachers nor pupils

at any studying level can find satisfactory substitutes for the textbook in terms of its relevance to the teaching material. Furthermore, textbooks are usually evaluated as either good or bad. Undoubtedly, it is always the well-designed and materially-rich textbook that assists pupils in their search for more analysis and explanation of the subject matter. Callahan (1971, p.191) adds:

The well-organized textbook contains some of the best teaching materials, provides suggestions for specific points worth considering, and suggests a wide range and sequence of units for the course. . . . The textbook is the only one of many devices to help students achieve educational goals.

When English was first introduced into the curriculum of Iraqi schools during the British Mandatory period (1917-1932), the selection of textbooks with high linguistic standards was not much heeded. Hence, the inadequate English textbooks side by side with the shortage of well-trained teachers had made the former, i.e. English textbooks, mere means to meet the shortage of the teaching materials and nothing else. Al-Amin (1984, p.111) adds:

Textbooks have often been selected by inexperienced inspectors from market bookshops and many which were no more than bound vocabulary lists with groups of exercises based on information given in reading passages.

The Nelson Indian Readers was the first series of English textbooks introduced in the early 1930s. Shortly after, it was proved to be a failure due to the remarkable cultural diversity between the teaching material and the

cultural background of Iraq. Consequently, "when the syllabus failed to achieve the expected results, and that was often the case, it was duly changed but not for the better"(Hakim, 1977, p.267).

During the next decade, a new series of English textbooks for all educational levels was introduced. The series Oxford English Course For Iraq was implemented with the objective of teaching basic oral and written language skills at the primary level. Books I and II for this level had the same outline, except that Book II showed more bias towards the silent reading skill. English hours allotted to each one of the fifth and sixth grades at the primary level were reported to be six hours per week. Likewise, three books of the series were taught at the intermediate level. Emphasis was placed on reading skills as a means to better comprehension of the contextual meaning. Language structures became another focal point to help pupils improve their capabilities in writing short compositions. The preparatory level had six hours of instruction of English per week, with an average of two hours of grammar and four hours of reading lessons. The main objective behind teaching the series Oxford English Course for Iraq at the preparatory level was to make pupils assimilate language structures through systematic study. It was also at this level that Readers Books, in the form of stories accompanied by structural notes and exercises, and sentence patterns, were introduced for the first time (Hakim, 1977; Al-Amin, 1984).

The third series English for Iraq was introduced in the late 1950s. It is worth mentioning that no considerable diversity existed between this series and the one before. Its weak point lay in its failure to enhance learners' oral skills.

Al-Chalaby (1975) points out that in this series emphasis was placed on oral work as the sole approach to the learning of the grammatical rules, sentence patterns, and vocabulary lists relevant to the various grammatical structures. The direct method, which became very favourable then, was discarded due to teachers' lack of training and proficiency. Accordingly, the traditional method remained widely applicable by teachers of English.

In the light of what has been so far mentioned, it is evident that all the series of English textbooks selected by the Ministry of Education over long periods of time failed to meet pupils' needs and interests. Such a failure, as Younis (1956) points out, was due to teachers' lack of knowledge of modern teaching techniques, ignorance of pupils' needs, inclusion of unfamiliar contexts irrelevant to learners, and finally teachers' failure to cope with the changes in the textbooks; something that had constantly demanded the learning of new methods and techniques of teaching immediately after.

This discouraging situation of English language teaching concomitant with the frequent changes in English textbooks had urged the Ministry of Education shortly after the July Revolution 1968, with new developments in

the economic, social, and educational domains of the Iraqi society, to adopt a procedure of modernization in English textbooks. Thus, a specialized committee did put into practice a new project aiming at the replacement of the series English for Iraq with a new one called The New English Course for Iraq. The implementation of this new series started during the academic year 1972 with the introduction of the first book, namely Book I, into the fifth grade of the primary level. The policy was to introduce the series gradually with an average of a textbook per year. This procedure culminated in the use of eight English textbooks at all school levels in the year 1980.

TABLE (2.6): DISTRIBUTION OF THE COMPONENTS OF THE SERIES "THE NEW ENGLISH COURSE FOR IRAQ".

Type of Textbook	School Year								T O T A L
	Primary		Intermediate			Preparatory			
	5th.	6th	1st.	2nd.	3rd.	4th.	5th.	6th	
Language Book	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8
Teacher's Guide	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8
Handwriting Manual	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	3
Literary Reader	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	3
Total	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	22

Source: Al-Hamash, Kh. I., "The New English Course For IRAQ: The Basic Tasks of the Future," IDELTI JOURNAL, 1980, p.8.

It is worthy of note that the Ministry of Education

has responsibility for providing Iraqi schools at all levels with English textbooks. Redha (1984) points out that for this purpose, the Ministry has set up a number of Directorates of which the Directorate of Curriculum and Textbooks is assigned the task of developing and preparing curriculum and textbooks. Quoting the Ministry of Education (1980, p.17), Redha (1984, p.9) writes:

The Higher Committee undertakes a comprehensive technical review of the subject curriculum, proposed for the various grades, to ensure breadth and depth within and proper balance between the subjects. The final approval of the curriculum courses of study and textbooks rests with the Education Council which is presided over by the Minister of Education.

In terms of the structure of English textbooks of the series The New English Course for Iraq, Al-Hamash (1980) points out that:

1. Oral work is emphasized in Books I to III. Emphasis on reading and writing starts in Books IV to VII with more emphasis being placed on both skills in Book VIII.

2. All Books manifest intensive linguistic revision and repetition.

3. Emphasis is placed on the following activities:
(a) Dialogues on everyday topics; (b) oral practice; the most dominant activity that leads to the learning of new words and structures within meaningful situations; (c) pronunciation including drills to master the English sound system at primary level, and the identification of the symbols standing for English phonemes at secondary

level (intermediate and preparatory); (d) reading and reading comprehension of contrived texts, with emphasis being placed on reading aloud in the early stages, followed by reading with comprehension later on; (e) writing which aims, in the Manuals I to III, at the learning of the mechanics of cursive handwriting of letters and the writing of numbers, side by side with exercises on punctuation, word spacing and speed of writing; (f) written work that tackles guided composition, oral practice exercises, spelling and punctuation patterns, and pronunciation work in writing; (g) listening comprehension of written materials is found in Books VI and VII only; (h) silent reading is practised through the three Literary Readers, Kipps by H. G. Wells, Oliver Twist by Charles Dickens, and The Merchant of Venice by William Shakespeare, which accompany Books VI, VII, and VIII respectively.

4. Books I to VII manifest bias towards the oral-structural approach, while in Book VIII some aspects of communicative methodology, in particular language functions and notions, are introduced for the first time.

5. The horizontal integration of all books is evident from the frequent occurrence of repetitions and revisions, at a time when activities reinforcement of each other outlines the vertical integration of the Books.

6. "In the early stages, the use of the function words is emphasized. Content words are introduced freely according to the demands of the topic presented. In most

exercises there is a detailed reduction of the vocabulary load especially in the early stages"(Al-Hamash, 1980, p.12).

7. Grammar is taught in Books I to V through oral exercises samples; while Books VI to VIII present structural notes and some technical terms relevant to grammar.

8. The meanings of all new vocabulary found in any unit of the Books are listed in Arabic at the end of that unit. A comprehensive list of almost all the new vocabulary is found at the end of each Book.

9. The language used in all English textbooks for all school levels is the standard British English.

10. To make language forms more understandable, elements of the foreign culture are presented but to a limited degree, at a time when all Books include Arabic and Iraqi names and cultural elements.

Since the field study of the current research is limited to the schools at the preparatory level, more analysis of English textbooks for this level will be presented throughout the following paragraphs.

At the outset, there are some facets of disparity, but to a very limited degree, in terms of designing English textbooks for the three grades of the preparatory level. Book VI for fourth grade subsumes, as its main part, dialogues, oral practice exercises on various structural items, pronunciation practice of different English sound features, and written work exercises on

guided composition. The second part of this book includes twenty-seven passages, twelve of which include reading comprehension exercises, and the other fifteen with listening comprehension exercises. This book is accompanied with the Literary Reader Kipps. Pupils are supposed to read this story at home, and not in the classroom.

Book VII for fifth grade is designed in such a way as to enhance pupils' communicative competence. For instance, the activities are presented in the form of dialogue practice, pronunciation exercises, written work, and oral practice. The oral practice activity tackles some grammatical and structural points on tenses, passive voice, direct and indirect speech, etc. The written exercises aim at reinforcing the grammatical points introduced earlier. In terms of the twenty-seven passages presented, Book VII does not vary remarkably from Book VI in its use of a number of passages for either listening or reading comprehension practice. Finally, Book VII is accompanied by the Literary Reader Oliver Twist.

Book VIII follows the same procedure as Book VII in its first twelve units. Out of the fifteen units that it contains, the last three aim at preparing pupils for the Public Ministerial Examination set at the end of the academic year. The Merchant of Venice is the Literary Reader taught at this grade.

It is worthy of note that there is variation in the number of hours of English per week for the three grades of the preparatory level. While there are five hours of

English at fourth grade as well as fifth and sixth scientific, fifth and sixth literary have six hours per week. This is due to the varied specializations of studying at the preparatory level.

As for the objectives behind teaching English at the preparatory level, Al-Hamash (1978) points out that the syllabus in English at this level aims at reviewing and reinforcing the language skills acquired at the primary and intermediate levels so as to use them later in daily life or when pursuing studies at the university level. Another main aim is to develop pupils' ability to understand English in its spoken and written forms, to hold successful discussions relevant to pupils' own cultural, political and economic matters, and to take benefit from English when travelling or completing their studies abroad.

2.3.7 Teachers' Guides:

A Teacher's Guide is the instructional manual that accompanies the textbook. The value of a "Guide" usually lies in the multifaceted benefits expected from using it. Teachers' Guides contain instructions on how to use the English textbooks as far as the presentation of the units, the preparation of lesson plans, and the finding of source materials are concerned.

Teachers' Guides used by teachers of English in Iraq are known by their considerable amount of information, the abundance of activities discussed, and the techniques for

classroom use. Every teacher is required to go through the introduction of the Guide with deep thinking and concentration since it is the key to the next pages of the listed information on how to deal with the various linguistic skills presented in the textbook. Commenting on this point, Bakir (1981, p.25) states:

He [the teacher] must emphasize the notes on "Unit One" in every "Teacher's Guide". These notes make up the framework upon which the rest of the language teaching process rests. They clearly define and describe the smallest details of the teaching suggested by the textbook writers to the teachers, who are also advised to devise meaningful situations for presenting their lessons, relying on the available teaching materials using as far as possible their discretion because there is no royal road to the teaching and learning (sic) foreign languages.

Consequently, in addition to the 8 Teachers' Guides accompanying the 8 textbooks, there are also 3 "Pronunciation Guides", one for each studying level. The "Pronunciation Guide" puts forward some initial theoretical information on elements of the English sound system, then each item is presented with intonation contours and pronunciation notes. There are also other Guides used for different linguistic purposes, all for the sake of promoting teachers' performance in teaching English.

TABLE (2.7): TYPES OF TEACHERS' GUIDES ACCOMPANYING THE ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS OF IRAQ.

Guides	Grades								TOTAL
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Teacher's Guide	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8
Pronunciation Guide	1			1			1		3
Methodology Textbooks	1					1			2
Survey of Textbooks				1					1
Testing Guide				1					1
Guide to Writing				1					1
TOTAL									16

Source: Al-Hamash, KH. I., "The New English Course for Iraq: The Basic Tasks for the Future", DELTA JOURNAL, 1980, p.17.

2.3.8 The Use of Teaching Aids:

Unlike textbooks, teaching aids represent subsidiary tools that arouse pupils' interest and reinforce their memorization of the materials taught. Their use adds more tangibility to the teaching material and turns classrooms into what looks like real-life learning situations.

In the field of foreign language teaching, the long record of the use of teaching aids has proved their decisive role in adding more contextualization to the teaching process, and in providing lessons with variety, extra

practice and motivation. In other words, "teaching aids can be considered labour saving devices of the teacher if properly used, and a waste of time if improperly used"(Bakir, 1981, p.31). Furthermore, the use of teaching aids in foreign language lessons is not determined by learners' age. They are a motivating factor for learners of various ages when their linguistic activities are stimulated through the presentation of the teaching materials in real life contexts.

In Iraq, the use of teaching aids in English lessons dates back to the years following the introduction of English into the schools' curriculum. Hakim (1977, p.269) states:

Concrete objects, pictures, toys, etc. were collected and used in the class. Drawings of the illustrations in . . . books were made so as to introduce the lessons orally before they were read silently or aloud. These activities were encouraged on National and Local Courses and before long they reached the English classrooms all over the country. It was an established fact that Teaching Aids in the English Classes influenced the teaching of other subjects.

Quoting Letter No.21370, dated 4 August, 1948 of the Ministry of Education, Hakim (1977) points out that a permanent Exhibition of Teaching Aids was held in Baghdad by an Iraqi teacher of English named Behnam Awwad in his school, "Al-Tahira Primary School".

Yet such an enthusiasm did not last long. Shortly after, teachers of English were reported to teach within situations devoid of almost any teaching aids including

Teachers' Guides. It was in the late 1960s and early 1970s when the Ministry of Education seriously considered the matter of providing schools with the required teaching aids. In collaboration with the IDELTI, the Ministry eventually succeeded in issuing the Teachers' Guides, tapes on parts of the contents of the textbooks in the series, and the active preparation and production of various Educational TV programmes on units of the English textbooks for different studying grades.

Al-Hamash (1980, p.33) adds that a part of the plan of the Ministry of Education and the IDELTI has included the

- provision of efficient audio-visual materials to accompany the textbooks. These include:
- a. Letter cards for the teaching of letter reading (print script) and letter production in writing (cursive).
 - b. Flash cards for the teaching of reading and for language structure exercises.
 - c. Wall charts on the major topics needed in communication.
 - d. Overhead projector transparencies providing means of reinforcing as well as supplementing the material of the textbooks.
 - e. Accurate and realistic tape-recording of the major sections of each unit in each book.
 - f. "A picture dictionary for primary and intermediate school pupils and a short English-Arabic and/or Arabic-English dictionary for secondary school pupils."p.32.

Yet in spite of all the efforts made in this respect, the majority of schools, especially in rural areas, are short of overhead projectors, video-tape cassettes and language laboratories. The schools provided with language laboratories are few and located in the urban areas.

Al-Hamash (1973,p.17) writes:

There is little material in English besides the prescribed textbooks. . . . Tapes and records are rarely used and when used they are limited to certain schools in large urban centres.

Finally, the currently available teaching aids are used to a limited degree due to teachers' ignorance of how to use them effectively. Added to that, unlike the detailed observational study by Mitchell et al. (1981) on the use of teaching materials in foreign language lessons in Scotland, there is a marked lacking of research by Iraqi scholars in this respect; a phenomenon that has called attention over the years to the quantity and quality of the available teaching materials rather than their real beneficial use in foreign language lessons.

2.3.9 English Tests:

The pass mark in English, as in almost all other subjects taught at Iraqi schools, is 50 out of 100. Owing to the nature of the linguistic skills and activities presented in English textbooks, pupils have to have oral and written tests. At primary level, much stress is put on oral tests as pupils have not yet mastered the reading of the English print script letters, and the writing of cursive letters. Oral tests at all levels include tests in dialogue, pronunciation, reading and general questions. Written tests, on the other hand, include those in grammar, dictation and spelling, sound discrimination, and

punctuation.

A pupil's final mark in English at any grade is the outcome of the oral and written tests he or she has had during the academic year. It is only at sixth year primary, third year intermediate, and sixth year preparatory that pupils, on the completion of the academic year, have to have a sole written test in English as a part of the Ministerial Public Examination.

It is worthy of note that in spite of the reliability of English tests in Iraq, they are mostly lacking in the required face validity. This is so because of pupils' feeling that a test is set to enable them to proceed to the next studying level, and the scanty emphasis placed on the evaluation of pupils' ability and knowledge to use the language for real communicative interaction. Commenting on the same point, Redha (1984, p.13) states:

The examination system measures too much of the recall of factual data. As a consequence, a student focuses on learning by heart in order to reproduce this knowledge on the examination day.

2.3.10 Supervision of English Language Teachers:

Supervision plays a central role in bringing about the healthy growth of the kind of education a country aspires to achieve. Qualified and experienced supervisors have proved to be the best facilitators to overcome the frequent stages of haphazard and misleading action that an educational system might undergo. Neither the increase in the number of pupils enrolled nor that of teachers

recruited would suffice to meet the various needs and interests unless the process is coupled with well-planned and efficient supervision. It is the latter that works as a source of guidance, encouragement and assistance to teachers through advising them, co-operating with them, and not solely finding their mistakes or feeling of control over them. Hence, supervisors should be selected from among experienced teachers with remarkable teaching records. Finocchiaro (1969, p.16) states:

The teacher who feels secure in the understanding and cooperation of the supervisor, will experiment with new practices, will be free to develop one facet of a topic more thoroughly because of pupils' interest and will prepare special instructional material.

All teachers, the beginners and the more experienced, welcome the evaluation of supervisors whose broader experience and more extensive training may enable them to note the effectiveness of teaching procedures and to make constructive suggestions.

In Iraq, supervision, including that of the teaching of English, has been suffering from threatening drawbacks and misinterpretation. A constant feeling by teachers is that a supervisor's main task is to catch them unprepared, examine the results of their teaching, and find out what part of the curriculum they have covered; an evaluation that would determine their chances of promotion and good salary. In the same vein, the few numbers of supervisors in comparison to the increasing numbers of schools have made the job more tiring. This has, in turn, contributed to the feeling of tense relations between supervisors and teachers.

The Ministry of Education realized the danger inherent in such an unpromising situation of supervision. It has started serious attempts to change the situation through relevant courses and research in the field. The Ministry has also changed the term "inspector" into "supervisor" in the hope that teachers would interpret the latter as more co-operative and helpful.

In terms of the supervision system in Iraq, Al-Hamash (1973, p.10) states:

Two kinds of supervisors (formerly called inspectors) are employed by the Ministry of Education:

1. Specialist supervisors whose responsibilities are limited to supervising secondary school teachers in a given subject, e.g., Geography, History, English, etc.
2. Local supervisors who supervise primary school teachers in all subjects.

These two groups of supervisors work under the guidance of two supervisory units. The first is called the Directorate of the Primary School Supervision. This supervisory unit is taking over the supervision of the primary level in co-operation with the supervisory units within the General Directorates of Education in all Iraqi Governorates. It aims at sound and healthy bases for primary school education through:

1. Nominating qualified supervisors after spending three years in service as teachers and two years as headmasters with preference of those who have attended in-service training courses.
2. Organizing supervisors' visits to the primary

schools to evaluate the administrative, technical, personal and social life of the school, and not only the educational performance of teachers.

A supervisor is supposed to submit a report in the aftermath of his visit to the supervisory unit with which he or she works.

The second supervisory unit is called the Directorate of Specialist Educational Supervision. Although it has supervisory units in all Iraqi Governorates, its activities are centralized as it works under the guidance of the General Directorate of Supervision within the Ministry of Education in Baghdad. The supervisory personnel working for this unit are well known by their long experience in dealing with various educational and administrative matters in the intermediate and preparatory schools they usually visit. They pay two visits to each school in the province per year. The first visit which takes place during the first semester of the academic year is a visit of guidance, giving instructions and advice on what could be done in order for pupils to achieve a better performance. The second visit, during the second semester, is an evaluative visit that aims at discovering teachers' commitment to the instructions they are given during the first visit. This last visit usually ends with a report submitted to the Directorate of Specialist Educational Supervision, a copy of which is received by the provincial Directorate of Education.

Finally, as it has been previously outlined, the in-

formation on supervision I have so far stated can be applied to all subjects within a school curriculum, yet with English the harm seems specifically threatening. At primary level, supervisors of English are non-specialized. Consequently, they are not well qualified to give beneficial advice to teachers of English. In line with this, some supervisors of English at the intermediate and preparatory levels, although specialized, might not, as Al-Hamash (1980) points out, be familiar with the modern techniques of teaching English. This is why misunderstanding frequently takes place when some inefficient supervisors make their visits to some schools that are staffed with well-trained and qualified teachers of English.

2.4 Critical Review:

The effective study and evaluation of any educational process require a full account of the factors of influence. Throughout the previous sections, three main elements, namely teachers of English, English textbooks, and pupils have been attended to. Since these elements form cornerstones of the process of English language teaching and learning in Iraq, as they are elsewhere, the current section aims at presenting a summarized critical review of their relevant drawbacks that appear to be in the present situation.

At the inception, in spite of the full realization by senior authorities that a teacher's efficiency in teaching

is the outcome of his or her pre- and in-service training, it is sadly the case that, within the Iraqi context, the training of teachers of English has been constantly characterized by inadequacy and lack of efficient instructors. Furthermore, the obligatory work conditions, the unsatisfactory way of supervision, the way English tests are designed, the inappropriate teaching materials, and the negative attitudes within and without the school setting towards the teaching of English, form serious threatening problems that can affect teachers' enthusiasm for their profession.

Secondly, while several attempts have been made to improve the quality of English textbooks, a close look into this part of the issue would reveal that right from the beginning English textbooks have been criticized almost entirely for the same set of drawbacks. In other words, the inappropriate length, inadequate way of presenting the teaching materials especially in being devoid, to a large extent, of the foreign cultural context, and frequent changes of English textbooks form some permanent drawbacks that attempts over several decades have failed to arrive at the appropriate remedial procedures.

Thirdly, it is worthy of note that the drawbacks pupils have been thought to be responsible for, namely their perception of the language as being difficult to learn, and their relatively low interest in learning it, are the outcome of what is going on within the teaching

and learning situation. A very low proportion of pupils usually starts learning English with the least of the negative perceptions drawn from the people around. Their interaction with other factors, as they are in the midst of the learning experience, shapes the positive and negative patterns of their behaviour.

Finally, the aforementioned drawbacks have been frequently coupled with an allegedly major drawback; namely teachers' and pupils' negative attitudes and low motivation, without further investigation of the reasons behind the availability of such attitudes and motivation. This is so because textbook designers, people in charge of setting the Ministerial Public Examinations of English, officials in charge of the training courses, supervisors of teachers of English, and even pupils' parents are all rarely seen to be directly and overtly involved in the everyday activities of the process. To know the extent of the responsibility of each one of the preceding parties in bringing about the current discouraging situation of English language teaching and learning in Iraq is a crucial point that Chapter Six of the current research is entirely devoted to clarify.

CHAPTER THREE
ATTITUDE

3.1 Introduction:

It was shortly after the development of social psychological research during the 1950s by American psychologists (Miller, 1976) that the concept of attitude came to stand by itself as a field that was worthy of consideration for studying. Furthermore, the enormity of the relevant literature and the wide proliferation of the sources where research on attitude exists have constituted clear-cut evidence of the centrality of this field of study. Allport (1967, p.3) states:

The concept of attitude is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary American social psychology. No other term appears more frequently in experimental and theoretical literature.

Allport has attributed much significance to the concept of attitude. In spite of the developments that the field of social psychology has undergone, Allport's words are echoed nowadays as they were five decades ago when his salient chapter on "attitudes" was first published in 1935. This is due to the central role played by attitudes on the social level in dealing with the problems of social behaviour and the psychological relationships between individuals and social and cultural groups:

The fact that attitudes are of greater interest to social psychologists than other varieties of social motives is due to their key role in directing and channeling social behavior.

(Lindgren, 1973, p.90)

Lambert and Lambert (1964, p.50) add:

The study of attitudes has become a major concern of social psychologists over the years because it is a complex psychological phenomenon that has tremendous social significance.

Accordingly, researchers from a number of fields of knowledge, namely psychology, sociology, education and political science have found in the concept of attitude a possible means for finding solutions to their diverse problems. They have tackled attitude from various angles, yet with a unanimous aim to cast more light on its multiple aspects. Throughout their studies, emphasis has been placed upon comparisons between the attitudes of different groups towards various social objects or phenomena, attitude definition and development, the nature of attitude, ways of attitude change, and attitude measurement (Edwards, 1957). In the following pages, reference will be made to the aspects of attitude in the domain of psychology in general, and educational psychology in terms of foreign-language teaching and learning in particular.

3.2 Historical Review:

"Attitude" is derived from the Latin word "aptus". Hence, attitude, according to Allport (1967), has the significance of "fitness" or "adaptedness". It also connotes a mental or subjective state of preparation for action. Consequently, two types of attitude were known to be in use during the second half of the nineteenth century. Firstly, "mental attitudes" which might be

represented nowadays by the cognitive component of attitude, implied the set of beliefs and thoughts the individual holds in relation to a social object or phenomenon. Quoting Herbert Spencer's First Principle, (1862, Vol.7, pp.1, i), Allport (1967, p.4) writes:

Arriving at correct judgements on disputed questions, much depends on the attitude of mind we preserve while listening to, or taking part, in the controversy: and for the preservation of a right attitude it is needful that we should learn how true, and yet how untrue, are average human beliefs.

Secondly, there were "motor attitudes" which were first proposed by Baldwin (1895) and represented the basis for an understanding of emotional expression. This type has much in common with the "affective component" of attitude which, as the discussion in the pages ahead will reveal, subsumes the feeling of either favour or disfavour towards a social object or phenomenon.

As the concept of attitude acquired more popularity during the early decades of the twentieth century, the terms "mental" and "motor" attitudes were not reported to be in use any more. Instead, "attitude" has retained its original meanings as a mental aptness and a motor set. In other words, "attitude connotes a neuropsychic state of readiness for mental and physical activity"(Allport, 1967, p.4).

Attitude has been subsequently on the verge of being a neglected term, as E. Muller and A. Pilzecker (1900) demonstrated that attitudes were remarkably unconscious.

Such a demonstration made experimental psychologists decline to pursue further study of the problem. The credit is assigned to psychoanalytic theory which reactivated the concept. (For further discussion of this theory, see Chapter 4; Section 4.4(1)). In this respect, Allport (1967, p.5) adds:

Without the painstaking labor of the experimentalists [experimental psychologists] attitudes would not today be an established concept in the field of psychology, but also without the influence of the psychoanalytic theory they would certainly have remained relatively lifeless, and would not have been of much assistance to social psychology.

In the following decades, different aspects of attitude formed the object of the next experimental studies. Attitude formation and change have been reported to be focal points of extensive theoretical and empirical studies. Greenwald et al. (1968, pp.1-2) state:

The two decades between 1930 and 1950 were marked by . . . a number of influences combined to rapidly advance the understanding of attitudinal process during the 20-year period: the establishment of social psychology laboratories in the United States, the ascendance of interested scholars who were trained in both fundamental psychological theory and empirical techniques, the integrative influence of Allport's 1935 chapter, the solution of measurement problems by Thurstone and others, and the ubiquitous application of attitudes in explaining important social phenomena.

The aforementioned developments have been a solid basis of the great popularity attained by attitude-research to an extent that "it is not surprising . . . [that] the study of attitudes has occupied a central place

in social psychology during the past fifty years"(Shaw and Wright, 1967, p.1). In other words, it is rare to find a publication in the field of social psychology nowadays without reference being made to the concept of attitude in one way or another. Currently, the orientation of most researchers is to investigate "attitudes" empirically rather than theoretically. This is due to the effectiveness and success of the empirical studies in finding solutions to the varied problems within the domain of social psychology.

3.3 Definition of Attitude:

The enormous literature available on attitude has been a source of proposing many definitions of the concept over the years. Yet, no single definition has been specified as the best or the all-embracing one. "This fact is largely a consequence of the broadness of the concept, which permits various definitions reflecting the theoretical point of view of the individual student of attitudes"(Green, 1977, p.111).

Among the most agreed-upon points in the early and, likewise, updated definitions of the concept of "attitude" is the reference made to a "specified topic" or an "object" to denote the direction of behaviour (Allport, 1967; Harpin, 1979; Oppenheim, 1982). This is evident from the following definitions by some scholars whose contribution to the literature available on attitude has remained salient and worth considering:

Thurstone (1967, p.77) gives the following definition:

The concept "attitude" [denotes] the sum total of a man's inclinations and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats and convictions about any specified topic.

Of other definitions are the following:

The "attitude" is primarily a way of being "set" toward or against things.

(Murphy and Murphy, 1931, p.615)

Likert (1934, p.9) states:

An attitude is a disposition to the attitude object.

The most acceptable definition that has worked, since its first appearance in 1935, as a keystone in the edifice of the concept of attitude, is the one proposed by Allport (1935). As it includes almost all the agreed-upon points referred to by the preceding definitions, Allport's definition of attitude remains the most commendable in the field. Allport (1967, p.8) states:

An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related.

Allport's definition of attitude has worked as a basis of almost all the definitions that followed. Harris (1950) points out that psychologists have adopted Allports' definition because it deals with attitudes as a set of emotionally toned ideas. Likewise, Gardner (1979)

attributes the popularity of Allport's definition to its interpretation of attitude as something that affects one's way of behaviour towards an object.

Among other similar definitions of attitude during the 1960s is the following:

Most definitions seem to agree that an attitude is a state of readiness, a tendency to act or react in a certain manner when confronted with certain stimuli. . . . [Attitudes] become expressed in speech or other behavior when the object of the attitude is perceived.

(Oppenheim, 1982, pp.105-6)

A more recent definition of attitude is the one proposed by Harpin (1979, p.38):

Attitudes can be defined as learned predispositions to respond to objects or situations in particular ways. They are resistant to change, but not immutable, and are not amenable to direct observation.

What can be deduced from all the aforementioned definitions is that

it is not difficult to trace the common thread running through these diverse definitions. In one way or another each regards the essential feature of attitude as a preparation or readiness for response.

(Allport, 1967, p.8)

Although defining attitude in a more acceptable and comprehensive manner has been a painstaking labour, scholars have adopted various approaches to achieve a better definition of the concept. Referring to Cardno

(1955), Shaw and Wright (1967, p.2) state:

Despite the variation in the definition of the term, the existing definitions agree upon one common characteristic: attitude entails an existing predisposition to respond to social objects which, in interaction with situational and other predispositional variables, guides and directs the overt behaviour of the individual.

Finally, it is intended to conclude the current section with what can be labelled as an "eclectic" personal definition of attitude. My definition of the concept is drawn from the relevant definitions to which reference has thus far been made:

Being a phenomenon that is distinctly limited to human beings, "attitude" is the set of beliefs and feelings towards objects or phenomena mostly within one's own social environment. It usually leads to varied degrees of positive or negative dispositions towards the objects or phenomena in question.

3.4 Basic Components of Attitude:

In almost all the definitions stated in the previous section, reference has been repeatedly made, though in different ways of expression, to "beliefs", "feelings", and "dispositions" as crucial elements underlying attitude structure. Accordingly, Triandis (1971) points out that to feel about, to think about and to behave towards mean to have attitude. Henceforth, and for the purpose of consistency, the main components of attitude will be labelled as "cognitive", "affective", and "behavioural".

Ausubel and Robinson (1972, p.369) add:

The structure of an attitude is characterized by a complex of ideas together with various affective or feeling components. As a result of these affective states, individuals possessing the attitude will be disposed (motivated) either to seek out or to avoid the object of the attitude.

In the same manner, Lambert and Lambert (1964, p.50) state:

An attitude is an organized and consistent manner of thinking, feeling, and reacting with regard to people, groups, social issues, or more generally, an event in one's environment.

Sherif (1979, p.18) further suggests that

an attitude is a cognitive-affective-motivational structure . . . formed through interactions in the environment.

Firstly, the cognitive component of attitude is characterized by the beliefs an individual has about a social object or phenomenon. These beliefs vary in number from one individual to another (Triandis, 1971). They are mainly based on one's experience with the attitude object. It is worth mentioning that mere beliefs, as Summers (1977) points out, are not particularly serviceable in this respect. Evaluative beliefs are of more help since they play a central role and can pave the way for the subsequent behaviour:

An attitude may be a belief which matters to the individual; it may be a prejudice or bias in favour of certain ideas. Considered as a

belief, an attitude may or may not be relevant to known facts, but the person who holds the attitude is predisposed to think as if his belief were in line with fact.

(Harris, 1950, pp.129-30)

Furthermore, referring to D. Kerch et al. (1962), Summers (1977) stresses the key role of evaluative beliefs within the cognitive component of attitude. She further states that such beliefs usually precede the feeling of "for or against" an object, i.e. the affective component. Thus, the latter has been designated as the second component of attitude. It establishes the extent to which an object is desirable and good or just the opposite. In other words, the affective component subsumes all the "for or against" emotions or feelings attached to the attitude object. In this context, Thurstone (1967) points out that an attitude is the degree of positive or negative affect associated with some psychological object.

Klausmeier (1985, p.376) adds:

The affective component of an attitude refers to the emotions one associates with an object, person, event or idea. That is, something is pleasing or displeasing; it is liked or disliked.

Thirdly and finally, the behavioural component of attitude is characterized by the individual's preparedness for action towards the attitude object. It is mainly named as the "action tendency or predisposition" component (Summers, 1977). It can be displayed, as Harris (1950) clarifies, either explicitly from the individual's

everyday way of behaviour, or implicitly through the verbal and the nonverbal expressions of dissatisfaction and ill-feeling. In the same context, the behavioural component forms the basis of our knowledge of the attitudes held by other members of the social group. It also implies the direction of others' patterns of behaviour since attitudes are said to be inferred from the way an individual behaves. Commenting on this point, Anastasi (1974, p.543) states:

An attitude is . . . a tendency to react favorably or unfavorably toward a designated class of stimuli. It is evident that . . . attitudes cannot be directly observed, but must be inferred from overt behavior both verbal and nonverbal.

It is worth mentioning that these three components of attitude usually interact with each other. Linkage may exist between all or any two of them. Summers (1977, p.3) states:

It is generally accepted that there is a linkage between cognitive components- particular evaluative beliefs- and the readiness to respond to the object. In addition to the linkage between the cognitive and action tendency components there is a linkage between the emotional and action tendency components.

Likewise, there is no harm when a certain component surpasses the other two in the degree of effectiveness and making attitudes explicit. For instance, the evaluative beliefs can suffice in bringing about the individual's readiness to respond to the object. Yet in the case of

more appealing objects, all components tend to have a very deep connection with the object. In this respect, Lindgren (1973, p.90) concludes:

More of one component than another may be present in a given attitude. Some attitudes are heavily loaded with affective component and do not require any action beyond the expression of feelings. Other attitudes are heavily intellectualized to the point where they cannot be used as valid predictors of the course the individual will take in a social situation. Action-oriented attitudes may involve a minimum of feeling and belief and may emerge when a need can be satisfied simply and directly.

3.5 Main Characteristics of Attitude:

There are several characteristics that distinguish attitude from other concepts which refer to the internal states of the individual:

1. First and foremost, attitudes are not directly observable (Lambert and Lambert, 1964; Sherif and Sherif, 1967). They are inferred from an individual's behaviour towards particular objects. We cannot see an attitude overtly because it is a "psychological concept designating something inside the individual. Just as we can never directly observe pain, psychological tension, or an unspoken idea, we cannot see an attitude"(Sherif and Sherif, 1967, p.112).

Lambert and Lambert (1964, p.51) extend this point by stating:

We have used the term "reaction tendency" rather than "reaction" for the third component of attitudes in order to indicate that they are not necessarily expressed in overt behaviour.

2. Attitudes have specific social referents symbolized by either concrete or abstract objects (Allport, 1967; Shaw and Wright, 1967; Oppenheim, 1982). Attitude objects are characterized by enormity and multifacetedness since "anything that the person can distinguish as psychologically separate from himself can be an attitude object"(McDonald, 1965, p.309).

3. There is disparity in the intensity of the attitudes people have (Dowine, 1967; Sharrock, 1970; Oppenheim, 1982). Intensity is the amount of excitement or arousal released by the object. To put it differently, it is the way an individual feels either strongly in favour of or opposed to the attitude object. "[It] indicates the strength of feelings involved in the attitude being expressed" (Lindgren, 1973, p.93). Intensity is determined in great measure by the experience the individual has had with the attitude object. Since intensity, as Shaw and Wright (1967) indicate, is heavily loaded with the affective component of attitude, most of the positive attitudes mean the close interaction between the individual and the attitude object.

4. Attitudes are directional and preferential processes that entail varying degrees of positive and negative evaluations, or pleasantness and unpleasantness associated with the attitude object (McDonald, 1965; Summers, 1977). Similar to attitude intensity, direction

has much to do with the affective component. "An individual is usually for or against some object"(Dowine, 1967, p.400). This is why attitudes are measured by bipolar options such as, agree-disagree, like-dislike, and yes-no to indicate their directional quality (See Section 3.9 of the current chapter for a detailed discussion of attitude measurement).

Preference, as McDonald (1965) points out, reflects the selective character of attitudes in terms of an individual's favour of one attitudinal object rather than another.

5. Attitudes can be either private or public (Dowine, 1967; Lemon, 1973). Private attitudes are the outcome of the personal experiences an individual has had with the attitude object. They also imply various degrees of secrecy. Being aware of our formed private attitudes, there is no harm in disclosing some of them to others, while some others must be kept for ourselves. Lambert and Lambert (1964, p.51) state:

People do not always openly reveal their attitudes. In fact, they learn through experiences with others to keep certain of their attitudes hidden from casual acquaintances, or even from close friends.

Lemon (1973, p.253) adds:

The degree to which individuals are willing to disclose their attitudes to others, [determines the publicity and the privacy of such attitudes]. It is possible that attitudes too differ in the degree to which people are will-

ing to communicate them to others.

Public attitudes are, contrariwise, shared with others. They are the attitudes towards different objects that are appealing to a group of people with a shared interest.

6. Consistency of attitudes usually manifests the extent to which different attitudinal systems are related. Lindgren (1973, p.90) states that

consistency facilitates the development of integrated systems of attitudes . . . which we use in determining what kind of action to take when faced with any of a wide array of possible situations.

It also indicates the extent to which the different attitude components fit together:

Attitude as a latent variable gives rise to consistency among its various manifestations whether they be in the form of verbalization about the object, expressions of feeling about the object, or approach or avoidance of the object.

(Summers, 1977, p.2)

7. In terms of the nature of the attitude object, some attitudes tend to be specific, while others are general. It is worthy of note that such specificity and generality of attitudes are determined by the situation wherein the attitude object occurs (Sherif, 1977). For instance, attitudes can be of a highly general nature, such as "anomie"; "the feelings of social uncertainty or

dissatisfaction"(Lambert, 1963, p.114), or they can be specific as those towards foreign language learning (Gardner, 1979). Consequently, while some attitudes are narrow in scope, others tend to be more comprehensive and provide individuals with more opportunities of experience with the new attitude objects they might encounter.

8. Attitudes are liable to change, i.e. can be adapted to one's needs and external demands (Shaw and Wright, 1967; Greenwald et al., 1968). Oppenheim (1982) points out that attitudes closer to one's philosophy of life are more enduring and resistant to change than superficial attitudes. In the same context, Sherif and Sherif (1967, p.112) argue that

attitudes are not temporary states but are more or less enduring once they are formed. Of course, attitudes do change; but once formed they acquire a regulatory function, such that, within limits, they are not subject to change with the ups and downs of homeostatic functioning of the organism or with every just noticeable variation in stimulus condition.

Attitude formation and change will be fully accounted for within the next two sections of the current chapter.

9. There is disparity in the degree of importance of particular attitudes (Lindgren, 1973). Attitudes that are centrally related to the achievement of the individual's long-term goals are definitely more important than those that are marginally related. Herein lies the reason why some attitudes are developed more quickly towards those

objects that fulfil individuals' basic needs. Klausmeier (1985, p.378) states:

Some attitudes are of higher significance to the individual than others. Attitudes toward other persons are typically of high significance to the individual. Attitudes also vary in their importance to differently organized segments of society.

10. Attitudes have a two-fold transfer. Firstly, they can be carried over from one situation to another. Secondly, they can be transferred by other individuals or groups of similar disposition to the attitude object (Di Vesta and Thompson, 1970). This is mainly characterized by "the whole realm of attitudes toward oneself, family and other persons that can transfer to a variety of related situations"(Di Vesta and Thompson, 1970, p.258).

All in all, there is no limit imposed on what kinds of attitude and of what characteristics an individual can have. The multiplicity of attitude objects makes it possible to have attitudes towards all the objects with which we have one sort of experience or another.

3.6 Attitude Formation:

Since newly born children are cognitively, and to a lesser extent affectively, unaware of what is going on around them, and since attitudes have social referents, i.e. objects to refer to, it becomes evident that "a child is not born with a set of attitudes toward what is around him"(McDonald, 1965, p.310). As a child's mental capacities and ability to sustain attention develop, and

interaction with the outside world increases, it starts to experience the initial stages of attitude formation. In other words, "young children show no particular attitude in early life but acquire an attitude from what they are told and from experiences with their parents"(Russell, 1971, p.17).

Harris (1950, p.141) adds:

The process known as imitation is undoubtedly important in taking over ready-made attitudes. In imitating the behaviors expressing distaste or disdain which adults may show for certain persons, foods, or institutions, the child acquires prejudices concerning such persons, foods or institutions.

Accordingly, the experience an individual has with the attitude object plays a central role in the domain of attitude formation. Such an experience is either direct as individuals are close to the attitude object, or it is indirect through other persons or communication media (Kelman, 1979). Added to that, the experience should be conducive to the processes of generalization and discrimination. In terms of the generalization process, certain attitudes are initially acquired within a general framework (McDonald, 1965). A child, for instance, starts to form general attitudes towards school as he or she is preparing for the first enrolment. This is followed by a discriminative stage when highly differential attitudes exist. It is at this stage when the child, the subject of our previous example, starts to develop specific patterns of attitude towards the school and its varied aspects.

Allport (1967) points out that attitudes can also be acquired through; 1) integration: the accumulation of experiences over a long period of time in a manner that will influence the individual in a given direction. This process culminates in the formation of a certain pattern of attitudes about the object; and 2) "differentiation": the acquisition of some specific attitudes from the development of more general ones. Differentiation has much in common with the "discrimination" process to which reference has already been made. For instance, an individual's attitudes towards the persons associated with a certain institution might well be derived from his or her attitudes towards the institution itself.

Although the discussion has been so far centred upon attitude as a general concept, the role played by each one of the three components of attitude in the domain of attitude formation should also be heeded.

Attitude components have much to do with the principles of transfer, association and need satisfaction that underlie attitude formation. For instance, at the cognitive level, the bulk of our beliefs are acquired through transfer; i.e. the process of being attentive to others' beliefs and adapting them in such a way as to comply with our feelings and predispositions (Lambert and Lambert, 1964). The affective component, in the light of the evaluative beliefs, is based on the principle of "association"; that is approaching or avoiding attitude objects according to their pleasantness and unpleasant-

ness.

Need satisfaction, i.e. the satisfaction of the basic needs of pleasure and comfort, is best achieved through the development of the attitudes of both avoidance and approach. Hence, "by avoiding in the first case and approaching in the second we satisfy basic needs for pleasure or comfort"(Lambert and Lambert, 1964, p.61). Referring to D. Katz and E. Stotland (1958), Green (1977) points out that the major premise of these two psychologists is that attitudes develop in the process of the individual fulfilling some need.

It is worth mentioning that almost all the viewpoints on attitude formation have something in common, namely the consistency between the affective and the behavioural components concomitant with the particular way of thinking about certain attitudinal objects (Alfred Smith, 1971). Greenwald et al. (1968) point out that the cognitive component plays a central role in attitude formation. Deriving attitudes from experiences, rather than considering them as being innate, almost inevitably implies the involvement of beliefs. Accordingly, beliefs which exist within the domain of the cognitive component are usually followed by either good or bad feelings. Such feelings of disavouring unpleasurable objects and favouring the pleasurable ones pave the way to certain ways of behaviour which are represented by either approaching or avoiding the attitude object.

To summarize, attitudes are neither self-generated

concepts nor innate. They are formed over periods of time in relation to identifiable social referents. The majority of attitudes are learned through direct interaction with other people in one's social environment. These people are mainly represented by one's family, friends, and the members of the social group at large.

3.7 Attitude Change:

As attitudes are learned through either direct or indirect experiences with other objects (Kelman, 1979), it is not difficult later in time to modify some of them, replace some with new ones, and discard some others presumably forever. This implies that attitudes are not constant. They are, contrariwise, liable to change (Lambert and Lambert, 1964, Thurstone and Chave, 1964; Evans, 1965; Klausmeier, 1985). In other words, "attitude [is] a dynamic process, rather than as a static entity or stable equilibrium point"(Kelman, 1978, p.118). The current section aims at finding out the causes of attitude change, and how far certain attitudes remain enduring and resistant to the attempts to change them.

At the inception, attitude change is a slow gradual process. This is so because attitudes acquired through constant experience are not always changed as easily and immediately as we might like them to be. This means that not all attitudes are liable to change in the same manner and with the same degree of ease. The more developed an attitude is, the more difficult it becomes to be changed.

This is mainly due to the persistence and the deep-rootedness that some attitudes have in comparison with others. It is usually the strongly held attitude that seems to be more immutable against the attempts to change it (Summers, 1977). Sherif (1979) makes the point that attitude change is determined in great measure by the degree of the individual's involvement with the attitude object. According to her, the fundamental change or the total abandonment of the highly-involved attitudes that form an essential component of one's personality is not an easy matter. The less-involving attitudes are often superfluous and more liable to change within shorter periods of time. In this context, Lambert and Lambert (1964, p.64) add:

Attitudes are not as easily modified or replaced as they are learned. . . . Once attitudes are developed, they become integral aspects of an individual's personality, affecting his whole style of behavior.

As a result, the change of attitudes requires prior planning and a good strategy to work accordingly. It also demands, as Triandis (1971) proposes, a close look into what functions a certain attitude carries out for the individual since the same strategy of change might not be successful with all attitudes. Commenting on the same point, Lambert and Lambert (1964, p.64) state:

Well-planned attempts to modify attitudes often succeed only in altering the thought-belief component without affecting feelings and reaction tendencies so that in time the attitude may revert to its former state.

Attitudes are influenced and duly changed by a variety of factors. Kelman (1979) suggests that an individual's constant experiences with other objects in the environment might lead to the re-assessment of an old -acquired attitude. It is worthy of note that although unfavourable attitudes are frequently replaced with more favourable ones, it is very likely that a favourable attitude is replaced with a more favourable one.

Added to that, individuals' experiences and social interactions tend to change attitude components in varying degrees. Triandis (1971, p.67) states that

direct experience with the attitude object usually changes all the components of attitude; indirect experience typically changes the cognitive and behavioural components, since they are informational and normative.

New attitudes are also developed from old ones, as Kelman (1979) points out, through daily interaction with other people. Thus, the individual's viewpoint is modified and reinforced or tested out in comparison with those of others. In this context, the new information obtained through interaction with the attitude object and other people in the environment forms another factor leading to attitude change. Kelman (1979, p.128) continues:

In principle, attitude should be developing and changing whenever we are exposed to new experiences and information.

Likewise, simple intentional learning leading to an amount of understandable information, as Greenwald et al.

(1968) suggest, forms another source of attitude change. In contrast, incidental information might not be so effective as it is not intentional and works on a very superficial level without being deeply related to one's personality.

Internal processes represented mainly by new ways of thinking and feeling, and external processes some of which are sociological, play a key role in bringing about attitude change. Moreover, any factor that facilitates identification with an individual or a group can enhance attitude change. In the light of such an identification, individuals who tend to change their attitudes to conform to the social group at large come under the influence of the attitudes held by the majority of people in the group in question. In this respect, Morrison and McIntyre (1984, p.77) state:

One explanation of the changes in attitudes with their subsequent reversal may lie in the influence of different social groups. The attitude of individuals tend to change in the direction of those held by the majority in groups of which they are members, and also towards the attitudes held by groups to whose membership they aspire.

Individuals also tend to change certain patterns of their attitudes and adopt new ones to retain a state of equilibrium. Referring to R. Brown (1935), Green (1977, p.119) writes:

In the light of what Brown has called the principles of cognitive consistency, the human mind strives (is motivated) towards consistent relationships and that attitudes will change in an

attempt to restore a state of equilibrium and balance to a disruptive cognitive organization.

The preceding quotation has much in common with the "Theory of Cognitive Dissonance" by L. Festinger (1957), a detailed discussion of the implications of which has been accounted for in the last paragraph of the current section.

Communication forms another alternative for changing attitudes and adopting new ones (McDonald, 1965; Greenwald et al., 1968). The role of communication is enhanced, in this respect, by the prestige and the credibility of the communicator. Triandis (1971, p.145) adds:

In analysing the attitude-change process we must consider the effect of WHO says WHAT, HOW, to WHOM, and with what effect. The Who concerns the source of a message. The What is the message itself. The How is the channel in which the message is delivered, the Whom is the audience to which the message is delivered, and the effect may include changes in attention, comprehension, yielding, intention, or action.

Furthermore, logical argument and role-playing form two other means of changing attitudes. The former is well displayed in the changing of those attitudes which are not well defined; i.e. when the individual "is already somewhat favorably disposed toward the attitude position advocated"(McDonald, 1965, p.381). In the case of role-playing, the new role requirements necessitate the adoption of certain patterns of attitudes as those of the person whose role is being played by the individual. As a consequence of the same and constant role-playing, the

individual might assess his own viewpoints, test them out in comparison to the new ones, and, in due course, change an old attitude.

Evans (1965) further suggests that 1) a suitably stimulating environment, 2) the desire to conform to the standard of the admired group, and 3) a pleasurable enforced activity, can all lead to attitude change.

Finally, "fait accompli", an event that is beyond one's control, can lead to attitude change. In this respect, Triandis (1971, p.142) writes:

Attitudes are also changed by a "fait accompli."
In other words, once an event has taken place, attitudes change to become consistent with the implications of the event.

Yet, in spite of all the aforementioned alternatives which aim at changing attitudes, it frequently happens that individuals resist the change of their attitudes. This is evident in the case of the attitudes "developed in the home or through early experiences"(Lambert and Lambert, 1964, p.64), or when getting older and discovering one's identity. In this respect, Fontana (1977, p.117) states:

As children discover identity in adolescence, so their attitudes tend to be more stable and this process goes on throughout life, so that many people in late adult life prove very resistant to attempts to change their way of thinking.

Lambert and Lambert (1964) point out that individuals tend to "immunize" themselves against attempts to change

their attitudes, especially when the latter are learned early in life, help in the satisfaction of one's needs, and are particularly integrated into one's personality and style of behaviour.

Added to that, individuals tend to resist attitude change especially under compelling circumstances to abandon their own attitudes and take a divergent public stand. Such resistance arises from an inclination to avoid the state of cognitive dissonance which refers to "the simultaneous belief in two or more incompatible ideas" (Guskin and Guskin, 1970, p.54). To reduce such incompatibility and to resolve dissonance, individuals tend to change the original patterns of their beliefs on the issue in question. Commenting on the same point, Cohen (1967, p.333) states:

The greater the number and/or the importance of the cognitions leading to the behavior discrepant from one's private opinion, the less will be the dissonance created and the less will be the consequent amount of attitude change toward the expression or position represented by the behavior. In other words, the more compelling the reasons for taking a public stand that differs from what one really believes, the smaller will be the attitude change toward the expressed opinion.

3.8 Attitudes in Education:

3.8.1 Introduction:

In the domain of education, research has pointed out that "statements and findings relative to attitudes have been quite influential"(Russell, 1971, p.18). Favourable attitudes towards education, as Mukherjee and Umar (1978)

indicate, are positively correlated with better educational attainment. Biehler (1974, p.385) further states:

Not many years ago, when the "whole-child" philosophy was the most popular theory of education, attitudes were considered more important than subject matter. . . . Most educational theorists still acknowledge that attitudes . . . are an important aspect of education.

Accordingly, attitudes can be said to have a noticeable bearing on the learning process at all educational levels. In other words, "in education [attitudes] are considered very important since they affect the learning process"(Hills, 1982, p.81), at a time when fostering attitudes and sustaining their development in learners have been a demanding task of education (Evans, 1965).

Furthermore, the attitudinal aspect forms a crucial part of the aspect of knowledge requirement built into education. This is so because "the knowledge which a man must possess to qualify as being educated must be built into his way of looking at things. It cannot be merely inert"(Peters, 1967, p.7).

In the light of the preceding statements, attitude learning forms an essential hoped-for objective of education. This is due to the reason that attitudes can influence the way learners carry out the learning activities and react to the various learning situations. Bernard (1972, p.125) writes:

One is tempted to say that the learning of tastes, preferences, ideals, and attitudes is the most important outcome of education because they are so likely to inhibit or foster the

continued learning that is essential for growth and development beyond the school years.

As a result, learners have found in their teachers a source of assistance to learn attitudes that facilitate subject matter learning and promote relationships between teachers and pupils in a way conducive to learning. Such facts on teachers' role have led Klausmeier (1985) to propose observing a model, receiving reinforcement, and gaining verbal information as means of learning attitudes. Klausmeier further advises teachers to heed the following principles so as to foster attitude learning in their pupils:

1. Identify the attitudes to be taught.
2. Provide for pleasant emotional experiences.
3. Provide exemplary models.
4. Extend informative experiences.
5. Use small-group instructional techniques.
 - a. Receiving and discussing information in groups.
 - b. Group-decision making.
 - c. Role-playing.
 - d. Cooperative small-group activity to reduce prejudice.
6. Encourage deliberate attitude change.

Being a part of the individual's broader personality system, attitudes are liable to change. Changing pupils' attitudes towards better achievement and interest in the learning process is one of the essential tasks of teachers in co-operation with pupils' parents since "it is important for everyone involved in educational work to know something of how attitudes can be modified"(Evans, 1965, p.8). It is also worthy of note that in the field of education, educational programmes generally attempt to

change attitudes in one or both of the following ways: (1) provide information about the attitude object; (2) expose pupils to one another so that their attitudes toward each other might change (McDonald, 1965). By so doing, attitudes become liable to change under the influence of a combination of factors represented by "a particular teacher, another child, an event, academic learning, and the extracurricular program of the school"(Russell, 1971, p.18). Among other influential factors are the ways teachers encourage pupils to learn, the pedagogical procedures followed by teachers, the provision of intensive favourable information about the attitude object, the extensive exposure to the content to be learned, the organized learning experiences, and pupils' own attitudes before coming to the educational situation. Evans (1965) extends these factors to include the general atmosphere within the school, the nature of the curriculum, the pupil-teacher relations, the social organization and the outlook of the staff, and pupils' and teachers' attitudes.

Since the study of attitudes in the domain of education, as Evans (1965) suggests, has been largely the study of pupils' attitudes, and since it is by no means certain that generalizations can be made from the results obtained with such a select population to the wider and much less select public, reference will be made in the following section to some relevant studies on attitudes towards the various aspects of the educational process.

3.8.2 Relevant Studies:

Over the years, pupils' attitudes, and likewise their teachers', towards the different aspects of the educational process have formed the subject of many studies in the domain of education.

Firstly, pupils' attitudes towards "school" at large have been expressed in the way they react to this educational setting. Glassy (1945) found that noticeable numbers of parents and children emphasized the importance of education. Yet, as Glassy further argues, such findings did not deny the fact that many pupils showed moderate interest in school and dislike of the teaching methods, system and teaching.

Davies (1959) found favourable attitudes by pupils towards school after the first year. Yet, once again, pupils were not happy with the length of lessons, the lack of variety, the amount of work required, and the boring textbooks.

Referring to N. A. Flanders et al. (1968), Klausmeier (1985) points out that these researchers identified significant changes in children's attitudes towards school over a four-month period. Pupils' positive attitudes towards teachers' attractiveness, fairness of rewards and punishment, teachers' competence, and interest in school work were significantly reduced.

The development of negative attitudes by pupils towards school can be attributed to the lack of educational tradition in the home, anti-intellectualism and discontent

with school, and antagonism towards school and teachers (Hills, 1982).

Secondly, pupils display various attitudes towards the subjects taught at school. Ausubel and Robinson (1972) point out that pupils' initial attitudes towards the learning of most of the school subjects are either neutral or positive. Later on, negative attitudes might be developed in the light of pupils' subsequent experiences with the school subjects.

In this context, Neal et al. (1979, p.232) add:

Despite a widely-held belief that favourable attitudes toward school and school subjects contribute to learning, no substantial body of empirical knowledge has been developed to document such a belief. In fact, after a review of research in the area, Philip Jackson 1968, recently concluded that nearly all investigations of the matter have found no statistically significant relationship between attitudes toward school and school achievement.

It is worth mentioning that when the measure of attitude is used towards a certain school subject, there might be results different from those reviewed by Jackson which included an overall measurement of satisfaction with school. Neal et al. (1979, p.232) state:

This difference suggests the possibility that, while overall attitudes toward school may have no relationship to achievement, perhaps attitudes towards specific subjects do.

However, such an assumption of the positive relationship between attitudes towards learning a particular school subject and attainment in it, as

Mukherjee and Umar (1978, p.518) state, does not always seem to be valid:

For example, low and erratic median correlations between attitudes (place of mathematics in society, and mathematics as a process) and mathematics attainment have been reported from different school populations of twelve countries. The apparent contradiction in the above findings can perhaps be better understood if the respective prevailing cultures and values are carefully examined.

Thirdly and finally, teachers form an essential variable of much interaction with pupils within the school environment. It is due to the different ways of behaviour that teachers display within the school at large, and the classroom in particular, and the various procedures they follow in presenting the teaching material that pupils develop different reactions to them. To put it differently, a teacher's traits of personality and the teaching techniques he or she adopts determine the extent of him or her being liked or disliked by pupils (Morrison and McIntyre, 1984). Accordingly, if it holds true that pupils' positive attitudes towards their teachers enhance and sustain their interest in the materials taught, it will become a demanding task of teachers to change such negative attitudes held by some pupils. Evans (1965, p.135) adds:

It is probably true to say that [pupils'] attitude to the teacher affects the attitudes of pupils to their work. With younger children in particular, liking for a subject may often result from liking for a teacher or for the classroom atmosphere associated with a teacher.

Of the relevant past studies carried out in this respect is the one by J. A. Davies (1959) who found negative attitudes by pupils to their teachers who were designated as talkative, non-cooperative and following favouritism.

In the same context, referring to P. H. Taylor (1962), Morrison and McIntyre (1984) point out that Taylor's final findings were characterized by a wide-ranging agreement among pupils to like teachers who were displaying firmness, justice, friendliness, knowledge, participation in class activities, and avoidance of corporal punishment. Taylor's study also showed the stress by junior school pupils on encouragement towards hard work, while secondary school pupils emphasized cheerfulness and better explanation of the work. Referring to C. W. Wright, Thompson (1975, pp.62-3) mentions that

in a study of adolescents' concepts of parents and teachers, Wright (1962) concluded that it was those aspects of the personality of teachers which make them more human which are rated less favourably. He considered that his results indicated a need for the adolescent to meet his teacher in a more individual and human way and come to identify more fully with him as a person outside his primary role.

As the above-stated findings suggest, much is required from teachers to create better educational environments since their personal traits and the pedagogical procedures they follow have a considerable effect on pupils' attitudes. This is why teachers inattentive of the educational norms and instructional

methods can put forward bad models not liked by their pupils. In contrast, since "the student seeks to recapture the pleasant associations"(Bernard, 1977, p.125), he or she usually likes teachers who are co-operative, hard working, serious in teaching, making classroom atmospheres conducive to learning, and successful in relating the teaching material to pupils' real lives.

Similarly, teachers' qualities of kindness, friendliness, cheer, patience, humour, co-operation and assistance, balancing between enjoyment and discipline within the classroom, sympathy, avoidance of punishment, understandable personalities, sincerity, confidence, security, interest in children, less authority, satisfactory explanation of the subject matter, and clear statement and guidance of solving problems can make pupils like their teachers. These would, in turn, sustain pupils' interest in teachers as sources of further assimilation of the subject taught and satisfaction with school (Musgrove and Taylor, 1972; Morrison and McIntyre, 1984). Conversely,

the teacher who is insecure, critical of the system and of people and conditions of work, is often critical, sarcastic and authoritative towards the pupils. This kind of maladjusted teacher will tend to impose a barrier between himself and the children, and neither he nor they will be likely to be happy in the classroom.

(Evans, 1965, p.136)

3.8.3 Attitudes and Foreign Language Learning:

Introduction:

The learning of one's native language forms an influential experience that almost every individual undergoes. An important outcome in this context is the individual's ability to use the language as a tool to express himself in meaningful situations.

As an individual's interaction within the social environment widens, and the fulfilment of certain needs becomes more demanding and requires more mobility, satisfaction with one's native language does not suffice any longer. Herein comes one reason for learning a language or languages other than one's mother tongue. Yet, the process of learning another language does not imply the same ease and chances available in comparison to the acquisition of one's native language. Likewise, the judgement on the usefulness of the new language plays a vital role as a person starts the experience of learning the language in question. Quoting P. H. Doughty (1972, p.9), Harpin (1979, p.38) states that the term "folk linguistic" was first coined by Doughty who defines it as "the bundle of attitudes, beliefs and intuitions relating to language that all language users possess".

With its basic component of attitudes, "folk linguistic" forms the cornerstone of the discussion intended in the current section. Pupils' different reactions to the learning of a foreign language influence the extent of their achievement in the language. Doughty

and Thornton (1973, p.28) state:

When we focus upon language activity within the school, then, we can expect to find a variety of different folk-linguistic attitudes and assumptions occurring side by side.

Faerch et al. (1984, p.208) add:

It is clear that there is a fairly strong link between achievement or success in foreign language learning and the learner's attitude, whether to the school subject, to a particular foreign country, or any other decisive aspect related to the language.

Hence, the study of language attitudes has been focused on the way different people react to the learning of the language. What thoughts and evaluations do learners have towards the learning of the new language? How can their behaviour be shaped in real interaction with the language? An appropriate answer to such questions is that

every teacher-indeed, every person in a relationship with other people in which language plays a part- conveys attitudes to language by his use of it and by the use of language that he asks or expects of others.

(Harpin, 1979, p.38)

Of much concern in this context are learners' attitudes towards the foreign language. It is worthy of note that these people start learning the language with a set of attitudes already at their disposal. These attitudes are the outcome of learners' pre-formal learning interaction with other people in the environment coupled with their personal ways of thinking and feeling towards

the new language. Stern (1984) suggests that new learners start learning the foreign language with either positive or negative attitudes which, in turn, influence their performance in the learning task. These attitudes are derived from the social context wherein learners live.

Later in time, a new set of attitudes is formed as learners start the actual experience with the foreign language. Thus, some of the formerly acquired attitudes are firmly established, others are modified or entirely discarded, and still some new attitudes are formed as more knowledge of the language is brought to learners' attention.

It is worth mentioning that learners' attitudes are not limited to the foreign language as an isolated element. They (learners' attitudes) often include the foreign people who habitually use the language, and their culture. Alfred Smith (1971, p.86) states:

It seems logical to assume that development of positive attitudes towards the culture and native speakers of the languages we teach, will carry over into a positive attitude towards the language itself and the learning of that language.

Stern (1984) makes the point that learners' attitudes towards the foreign people and their culture can be developed through either direct interaction with the foreign people or indirectly through acquiring the attitudes held by the important people within learners' social group. In the paragraphs ahead, attention will be focused on the formation of new attitudes towards learning

a foreign language through direct interaction with the language within formal learning environments. Further reference will also be made to the various factors relevant to learners' familial and societal backgrounds.

At the outset, the formation of attitudes towards foreign language learning does not vary basically from the manner in which attitudes towards other attitudinal objects are developed. A learner may start the experience of learning the foreign language with accumulative beliefs and thoughts of the language and its people. Through direct exposure to the language, such beliefs acquire an evaluative characteristic. In due course, favourable or unfavourable feelings are born just to enhance the already held beliefs (Alfred Smith, 1971). These feelings undergo an evaluative stage as learners start to evaluate the logic behind being in a foreign language classroom and learning its "difficult" activities. Later on, learners' positive or negative attitudes can be inferred from the way they tend to behave towards the task of learning the foreign language. This is evident from the extent of a learner's participation in the various activities, his or her doing of the required assignments, and other ways of behaviour relevant to the context of foreign language teaching and learning.

Consequently, due to the variations in the attitudes of foreign language learners, and the influence of such variations on the ultimate outcomes of the learning process (Gardner and Santos, 1970; Mueller and Miller,

1970), attitudes in foreign language learning have been considered as a factor of prime influence in determining learners' achievement. Alfred Smith (1971) points out that a pupil's positive or negative attitude influences the task of learning the foreign language and turns classrooms into either enjoyable or boring learning settings. Similarly, Gardner and Lambert (1972) propose that attitudes influence and determine the progress a learner strives to make in learning a foreign language.

To sum up, since attitudes play such a pivotal role in the learning of foreign languages, looking after learners as they are in the midst of the learning process does not suffice. Attempts should be made to provide further assistance and guidance before the very start. This includes designing textbooks that are, generally speaking, tailored to learners' linguistic and mental capacities, and encouraging learners to approach language learning through favourable introduction to the benefits expected from the knowledge and the use of the language. Such procedures are likely to build in learners the required self-confidence and positive attitudes to go ahead successfully and to avoid frustration which is the main threatening factor that hinders foreign language learning in great measure.

Previous Literature:

It was not until 1959 that research was really initiated in order to establish the degree of importance

of attitude in foreign language learning. Alfred Smith (1971) points out that with R. C. Gardner and W. E. Lambert's study in the field, the mid-sixties witnessed considerable attention paid to the issue. Specialists realized that a vital component within the field of foreign language instruction had been dispensed with, namely the attitudes of pupils, teachers, administrators, and the community at large.

The main question has been: what effects do attitudes have on foreign language learning? For instance, referring to H. H. Stern (1963), Burstall (1975, p.5) states:

Stern considered that there was a particularly urgent need for research into those factors which might lead to the childhood development of positive or negative attitudes towards foreign peoples and their culture, with potentially beneficial and detrimental effects on the acquisition of the language in question.

Accordingly, the bulk of the available studies have been devoted to the investigation of the relationship between attitudinal variables and level of performance, i.e. the level of learning and managing the various skills in foreign language learning. These variables usually make learners either exert more effort to learn the language or drop studying it. Of the two preceding phenomena, the former is a prime concern of the present research. Dropping the studying of English as a foreign language does not apply to Iraqi pupils at any educational level. They study the language as an obligatory subject within the curriculum and do not have the choice to give it up

under any conditions.

The very few studies, prior to Gardner and Lambert's pioneer work, which were carried out in the United Kingdom, did investigate the attitudinal correlates of foreign language achievement (Gardner, 1982). Yet their weakness lay in the procedure followed in dealing with a small number of correlates and in their focus on the correlates themselves. Among the studies reported are: David Jordan's (1941) which came out with a positive relation between attitudes towards French and achievement in the language, and W. R. Jones' study (1950) which also confirmed a positive relation between attitudes towards Welsh and achievement in the language.

Hermann (1980) points out that in spite of the sporadic studies that have been appearing here and there, Gardner and Lambert's study (1959) is regarded as the hallmark of the investigation into the influence of attitudinal variables on second language learning. Taking into regard the interest learners showed in the study of the foreign language and their perceptions of the people speaking the language, both researchers concluded that neither intellectual capacity nor language aptitude, each by itself or both together, could determine learners' achievement in learning the language. Aptitude stands for the special abilities that are potential for acquiring certain skills or knowledge. It is a narrow field within behaviour (Bernard, 1971; Hill, 1971), and might be reflected in actual interaction with the language. Hence,

in their study of French among Canadian high school students, Gardner and Lambert added to the factors under consideration an "attitudinal-motivational" one. By so doing, favourable attitudes towards French Canadians, interest in French as a means to be more psychologically close to the French Canadians community, and a high level of motivation to learn French had all been considered (Gardner, 1982).

Lambert (1963) states that learners' ethnocentric tendencies, perceptions of the other language group, and attitudes towards the other group were believed to determine their success in learning the foreign language. Lambert also proposes that individuals, throughout the process of learning the foreign language, had begun to identify with the foreign language community and experience feelings of alienation and "anomie".

In 1967, Neidt and Hedlund found significant correlations between attitudes towards German and proficiency in that language.

Diana Bartley (1970) administered the FL Attitude Test of Mary Dufort to several groups of students and found that the attitudes of the drop-out pupils were significantly lower than those of the continuing group.

T. H. Mueller and R. I. Miller (1970) concluded with significant relations between attitudes towards French-speaking people and achievement in French. In the same year, R. C. Gardner and E. H. Santos found out that both attitudes and aptitude were related to achievement in

English as a second language taught in the Philippines.

Whatever the nature of the objectives of the studies thus far carried out has been, and likewise, whatever the results obtained, Gardner and Lambert's study (1972) at McGill University in Canada remains the salient one in this respect. For the first time Gardner and Lambert undertook a fully systematic research investigation into the affective and personality factors in language learning:

[This study has] focused on learners' social attitudes, values and the motivation of learners in relation to other learner factors and the learning outcome. The Gardner and Lambert research has been made in the framework of social psychology; it has largely been derived from post-war studies on prejudice and social attitudes to ethnic, religious, and language groups.

(Stern, 1984, p.375)

Added to that, the generalization that attitudes and aptitude are related to achievement in a second language has been considered by Gardner and Lambert (1972) in their study of elementary and secondary students learning French in the states of Maine, Louisiana and Connecticut. Their overall conclusion in this respect is that attitudes resemble more stable personal characteristics which influence and determine one's progress in mastering a foreign language. Gardner and Lambert have also treated attitude as a factor independent of aptitude and intelligence since attitudes are developed in the home before the learning of the language starts.

M. Jacobson and M. Imhoof (1974) found significant relations between attitudes towards Japanophilia and achievement in Japanese.

Evaluating French language teaching in the primary schools in the United Kingdom, Clare Burstall (1974), through investigations carried out by the National Foundation of Educational Research, found significant differences. Pupils from high socio-economic status showed more positive attitudes towards learning French in comparison to their counterparts from low socio-economic status. Pride (1979, p.xiv) designates the main objective of Burstall's study to be the investigation of (1) the long-term development of pupils' attitudes towards foreign language learning; (2) the correlation between pupils' levels of achievement in French and their attitudes towards foreign language learning; (3) the effect of certain pupil variables (such as age, sex, socio-economic status, perception of parental encouragement, employment expectations, contact with France, etc.) on level of achievement in French and attitude towards foreign language learning; (4) the level of significance of the effect of teachers' attitudes and expectations on the attitudes and achievement of their pupils; and (5) the effect of the early introduction of French on achievement in other areas of the primary school curriculum.

In 1976, Cavanaugh excluded the measures of aptitude in his investigation of the attitudes and motivation of the high school students learning French in California.

The relations of the attitude measures to achievement were comparable to those obtained by Gardner research group.

Of other studies in this respect, Gardner (1982, p.135) mentions that

J. W. Oller, A. Hudson and P. Liu (1977) found a positive correlation between achievement in English for Chinese adults living in USA and factor scores derived from a factor characterizing Americans as helpful, sincere, kind, etc. . . . suggesting that proficiency in a second language is related to attitudes toward the language community.

Hermann (1980) found that pupils whose achievement in English was far below average had displayed highly significant degrees of prejudice against the English and then against the other groups. This had been different from the unfavourable attitudes by pupils who had less information about the English people. Hermann also found that poor achievement in the language taught created negative attitudes towards the language first, which were then gradually transferred to its native speakers. In support of the latter point, Hermann points out that the conclusions drawn by Jordan (1941), Burstall (1974), and Gardner and Smythe (1975) have all reported "that low achievement in a foreign language coincides with prejudice or hostile attitudes regarding the speakers of that language"(Hermann, 1980, p.253).

Finally, the most acceptable conclusion to be drawn is that attitudinal variables do influence foreign language learning. Positive attitudes usually enhance achievement in learning the language while negative

attitudes do not.

3.8.4 Pupils' Attitudes towards Foreign Language Learning:

Pupils form an important factor within any educational system. Their attitudes play a leading role in bringing about the ultimate outcomes of the learning process. Pupils' attitudinal reactions represent an aspect of the foreign language teaching and learning process that is worthy of consideration. The following section aims at illustrating the role played by pupils' attitudes in the domain of foreign language learning.

The Relation between Pupils' Attitudes and Achievement in Foreign Language Learning:

A prime characteristic of attitudes, to which reference has been made in a previous section, is that they can be learned. Being learned implies that attitudes can be taught (Alfred Smith, 1971). Since it is commonly known that no child is born with the attitudes of liking or disliking towards other objects in the environment, Downey and Kelly (1975) indicate that pupils' satisfaction with school, and the way they think and feel about it and about teachers, can form crucial factors that affect their reactions to achieve either positively or negatively. These factors can also contribute to the extent of a pupil's level of performance at school. This is why pupils usually approach learning the language with different attitudes and orientations that range between

being either favourable or unfavourable. Pupils favour learning a foreign language as they come to either direct or indirect experience with the language in question. The direct experience is the most influential in this respect. It attributes a situational characteristic to attitudes. In other words, attitudes towards language and language learning can be strongly influenced by the situation itself. For instance, "language, teacher, class, book and homework are within the frame of reference of learning and within the situation of school" (Alfred Smith, 1971, p.82). Accordingly, it is reasonable to claim that the first direct experience within the learning situation can significantly determine learners' favourable or unfavourable attitudes towards foreign language learning.

As a pupil's experience with the foreign language takes root, the scope is widened to include the foreign people speaking the language and their culture. Herein lies the thus far approved claim that pupils who have favourable attitudes towards the foreign people and culture are expected to achieve better in learning the foreign language (Jacobovitz, 1971; Alfred Smith, 1971; Gardner and Lambert, 1972).

In the light of such a positive correlation between favourable attitudes and better achievement, pupils whose achievement is above the average would find foreign language studying more desirable and appealing. La Fave (1958, pp.176) states:

[For a student with proper attitudes], his

ability to concentrate on the task at hand is almost boundless because it is no task to him, it is something he likes to do. The teacher has no difficulty coaxing students to do things which interest them.

In the same manner, favourable attitudes mean more enhancement in learners' approach to learn the foreign language and more contact with the language community and its culture. The favourable attitudes that are significantly correlated with the behaviour to approach the new language would contribute positively to the extent to which a learner perceives the language to fulfil his or her communicative, instrumental, and integrative needs. Conversely, learners of low achievement would experience feelings of distaste. They would, according to Alfred Smith (1971), react negatively to the entire learning situation, and even to the causes of their feelings of inadequacy. The ultimate outcome would be the resentment and the dislike of the foreign language.

All in all, it is evident that the more positive pupils' attitudes towards learning the foreign language are, more likely their success and better achievement in learning the language will be. A significant correlation between positive attitudes towards learning a foreign language and achievement in that language is quite valid especially when other relevant variables comply with the positive attitudes.

Factors Affecting Pupils' Attitudes towards Foreign Language Learning:

The discrepancy in learners' achievement in the course of their direct experience with a foreign language demands a close look into its causal factors. Added to that, the different sources of each influential factor are also worth considering since they affect pupils' attitudes to learn the language. In the following sections, factors of influence will be tackled in terms of their personal, educational, and social sources.

1. Personal Factors:

These factors are related to the learner as an independent being having his or her own way of thinking, feeling about, and reacting to other objects in the social environment. In the field of foreign language learning, such factors tend to be diverse in nature and in origin. For instance, Burstall argues that

the acquisition of foreign-language skills and the development of attitudes towards foreign-language learning during later years may be powerfully influenced by the learner's initial and formative experience of success or failure in the language learning situation.

(Burstall, 1975, p.17)

Therefore, it is likely to assume that the resentment of a foreign language "may have stemmed from a sense of failure and frustration in using language skills"(Scottish Education Department, 1977, p.11). It might also be due to the assumption that success and failure in the learning of

a foreign language, like other domains of one's life, can affect the stimulating force within the attitudinal system. A pupil's failure in using the language skills can take the form of resentment of more elements of central relevance to the language.

Furthermore, learners view learning a foreign language with different perspectives. Their perceptions of the benefits that the learning of the new language would entail form another influential personal factor. Here, the degree of desirability a learner shows in learning the language can work as a testimony of his or her perception that the new language would fulfil many needs of a forthcoming career. Gardner (1982) makes the point that some individuals may view the acquisition of a second language an enriching experience, others might consider it as a threat to their very identity, at a time when still others might see it as being of no consequence in one way or the other. This is mainly due to the individual's affective reaction to the acquisition of the language. Gardner further points out that all the relevant research is seen to be concerned with only one factor, namely the individual's perception of the motivational properties of language learning process. Commenting on the last point, Alfred Smith argues that

since he [the learner] has little or no intrinsic interest in the study of the language, he may become impatient with the slow process of language acquisition and feel that the meager returns he is getting for all the effort expended are not meeting his expectations. He does not see the connection between what goes

in the foreign language class and the practical demands of his existence now or later.

(Alfred Smith, 1971, p.85)

The feeling of "anomie", a term coined by Lambert (1963), is another factor that plays a key role in bringing about deterioration in learners' attitudes towards foreign language learning. As a learner's experience with the foreign language develops at all relevant aspects, more familiarity with the language is followed. In due course, a feeling of fear and unrest starts on the part of the learner. It is the feeling that characterizes any progress in learning the new language as plain evidence of more approach to the foreign culture, and more departure from the native one concomitant with more threats to one's identity. Any attempt to re-approach the native culture is undoubtedly at the expense of the interest and the positive attitude the learner already has towards the foreign language, people, and culture. Finocchiaro (1969) states that this feeling [of prejudice] is reinforced as pupils are not allowed to hear, speak, or study their native tongue because of the emphasis placed on pupils' use of English. Pupils might view the avoidance of the use of their mother tongue as a sign of its being of a low status. Consequently, "since they [pupils] are not yet comfortable or fluent in [the foreign language], or are ashamed of their native language, they find themselves in a temporary no man's land. This feeling termed "anomie", affects their entire

attitude"(Finocchiaro, 1969, p.13).

Similarly, the feeling of "ethnocentrism" forms an additional factor of considerable influential value. In the case of having such a feeling,

a person unreflectively takes his own culture's values as objective reality and automatically uses them as the context within which he judges less familiar objects and events. As in Piaget's stage of egocentric thought, it does not occur to such a person that there is more than one point of view. At a more complex level is the ethnocentric attitude or outlook that takes account of multiple points of view but regards those of other cultures as incorrect, inferior, or immoral.

(Le Vine and Campbell, 1972, p.1)

In the field of language learning, ethnocentrism can be defined as the set of negative attitudes that learners hold with regard to a foreign language, its native speakers and culture. Such negative feelings can develop and take root as learners come into touch with the language in question. Learners' previous knowledge of and experience with the foreign language and culture are important elements in bringing about the differences in their attitudes.

Finally, the scope of a learner's attempt to identify himself with the members of another ethnic group, whose language he or she is studying, determines attitudes towards the group. As a result, the term "integrative orientation" is used to refer to the type of orientation by those learners who have positive attitudes towards the speakers and the culture of the foreign language (Gardner

and Lambert, 1972; Lukmani, 1972; Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973). This is why learners of such a calibre, i.e. learners who have favourable attitudes towards the speakers of other languages, are usually assumed to achieve better than their counterparts who hold hostile or unfavourable attitudes (O'Doherty, 1969; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Lukmani, 1972; Kharma, 1977; Wilkins, 1978).

2. Educational Factors:

These form part and parcel of the situational factors, i.e. they can be entirely attributed to the influence of the learning situation on learners' attitudes.

First and foremost, the influence of teachers of foreign languages is largely significant in this respect. Since mere teaching of the subject matter is no longer the sole alternative to bring about the set objectives (Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1971), teachers are required to heed learners' reaction to and interest in the learning of the foreign language. This is so because learners' attitudes towards the foreign people and their culture can be influenced by everyday interaction with the language, the way it is taught, and those who are teaching it. In terms of the latter, Bernard (1972) states that a subject happens to be disliked by learners in a class despite its rewarding merits and the way it is presented only because it is taught in a school by a teacher.

A teacher's former experience as a learner of the foreign language and the daily interaction with it as an

instructor form the main source of interest in teaching the language. Lukmani (1972) suggests that it is unlikely for a person who does not possess enough communicative competence in the foreign language himself and has happened to take over its teaching with a lack of interest to enhance learners' interest in studying the language. Alfred Smith (1971, p.87) adds:

The language student is not a robot to be programmed by the teacher merely to spit out language patterns and memorized dialogue lines. Teachers attitude rubs off onto the students and has a tendency to deteriorate also.

Teachers' rich experience and good qualifications can also arouse pupils' interest in the learning of the foreign language. Such an experience enables teachers to efficiently handle the educational and psychological alternatives available to them. Disick (1972) points out that attitudes towards foreign language learning can be improved if teachers seek to promote their pupils' interest and enjoyment. In other words, successful foreign language learning can be achieved through teachers' use of small group activities, method and pace of instruction, attention to students' needs, sensitivity in relating to the members of the class, seriousness in the task, and certain ways of presenting the studying material and giving assignments.

Similarly, the use of purely instructional methods does not suffice since a teacher's traits of personality cannot be dispensed with. The positive characteristics of

such a personality, to which reference will be made in the paragraphs ahead, make pupils view their teachers as sources of assistance to enhance the interest and enthusiasm required for learning the foreign language. Pupils can also find in their teachers' tones of voice, use of facial expressions, and gestures and body movements further means to know what feelings teachers have about the taught:

The teacher [is] more important than any method or material. It is what [the teacher] does with any method or with any piece of material which will determine its effectiveness in helping . . . students learn.

(Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973, pp.239-40)

Teachers' overbearing enthusiasm for teaching the foreign language, respect of pupils, response to pupils' social and psychological needs, and good communicating skills are additional factors which can affect pupils' attitudes in varied degrees, at a time when the manner the interaction between teachers and pupils' parents takes should not be underestimated. The mutual respect and understanding by both parties of one another is often reflected in pupils' positive attitudes towards the school at large, and the learning of the foreign language in particular.

McDonald (1965) emphasizes that teachers' interaction with pupils and their use of a number of verbal and nonverbal techniques to bring about the desired educational ends are of influence on pupils' attitudes. Of

the verbal techniques, the use of strong-worded emotional appeals has been proved successful in sustaining pupils' positive attitudes. Conversely, the arousal of fear makes the introduction of negative attitudes very likely.

Referring to N. A. Flanders et al. (1968), Bernard (1972, p.58) states:

In a study of pupils in the upper grade it was found that positive attitudes toward school grow during the years when pupils believe that success or failure is self-determined and when teachers use praise and encouragement.

Within the school at large, headmasters, teachers of other subjects, and a learner's classmates can affect his or her attitude and, in turn, school progress. These people form fundamental influential factors since their perceptions, feelings, and impressions, either positive or negative, can be easily communicated to the learner through daily interaction.

Finally, a number of other factors do exist and might influence pupils' attitudes. Among these factors, of relevance to the learning situation, is the size of the classroom which is of a vital role in the carrying out of small group procedures and creating atmospheres conducive to learning (Kharma, 1977). Team-teaching and flexible grouping, and role-playing form additional alternatives that affect pupils' attitudes since "the [pupil] may be influenced more by the behavior of his friends than by the beliefs of his parents or teachers"(Biehler, 1974, pp.388-9).

3. Social Factors:

Before initiating any direct experience with the foreign language, learners, through prior interaction with others in the social environment, are supposed to have acquired a portion of the relevant attitudinal system. This holds true since "attitudes are regarded as products of [the social] structure"(Lemon, 1973, p.2). In the same context, Biehler (1974, p.338) argues that

by the time a student reaches high school, his attitudes are well on the way to being formed. His parents, siblings, and playmates, as well as his overall environment have profoundly influenced the traits he inherited.

Yet, the variations between individuals' social environments and the different types of treatment they receive can powerfully influence the types of attitudes they develop. Jones (1967) states that learners who are brought up in different environments frequently have markedly varied attitudes toward teachers, competitive activities, school subjects, and scholastic achievement in general. To some learners each encounter with a new material or situation is threatening, at a time when others show a lively curiosity and an eagerness to investigate.

Thus, it is likely that attitudes are developed at home and within the social group at large. What an individual is informed by others, and what can be inferred from others' expectations with regard to the learning of the foreign language are very early components of a forthcoming set of attitudes. Gardner (1982, p.132) states:

Although 'languages' are viewed by many as just another subject in the school curriculum, there are many reasons to believe that second (or foreign) language acquisition is different in that it implicates a series of social factors which are reflected in language attitudes.

The factors that are related to the home background seem to be the most effective and indispensable. They are important in the formation of pupils' attitudes towards the learning of the new language. They provide pupils with the self-confidence and readiness to interact with others. It is worthy of note that within the family environment, social factors are mostly represented by the attitudes pupils' parents have towards the foreign language and its speakers. Such attitudes can be communicated to the pupil through daily interaction with other members of the family. Bernard (1972) argues that a child's early experiences are influenced by his or her parents whose influence, as a result of being with the child most of the time, has long-term effects.

Added to that, parental encouragement to learn the foreign language is of a noticeable influence on their children's attitudes. The level of encouragement a child receives is mainly determined by his or her parents' level of educational attainment and the favourable or unfavourable experience parents themselves have had with the language. For instance, it is not likely for parents who have unfavourable attitudes towards the foreign language to recommend it highly for their children. Quoting John Carroll (1967, p.138), Spolsky (1969, p.273)

writes:

John Carroll . . . has suggested the importance of the attitude of parents. In his study of foreign language majors, he found 'the greater the parents' use of the foreign language in the home, the higher were the mean scores of the students. Thus, one reason why some students reach high levels of attainment in a foreign language is that they have home environments that are favorable to this, either because the students are better motivated to learn, or because they have better opportunities to learn'.

Owing to the belief that attitudes are products of the social structures, other social variables play a role in influencing pupils' attitudes towards foreign language learning (Lemon, 1973; Mukherjee and Umar, 1978). They, i.e. social factors, are mainly represented by certain attitudes that characterize the society to which the foreign language learner belongs. Gardner and Lambert (1972) mention that societies differ in their favour of introducing foreign languages into their educational systems. In an open society, it is likely that the learning of second or foreign languages would be encouraged because such a society views the introduction of the new language(s) as a means to the development of its learners' linguistic capacities and to the achievement of other goals which the native language fails to fulfil. On the contrary, a closed society may view such steps with hostility and disfavour.

In the same context, the investigation of attitudes towards a foreign language should be extended to include other crucial relevancies to the language. Firstly,

learners' attitudes towards the speakers of the foreign language should not be underestimated because "attitudes towards languages are very often, if not always, impossible to separate completely from attitudes towards speakers of those languages. To try to do it is in part artificially to wrench language away from its use" (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1981, p.201). Secondly, learners' attitudes towards the foreign culture can influence their study of the foreign language. In this respect, Littlewood (1984, p.55) states:

One of the factors influencing how we experience the process [of learning a foreign language] is our attitudes towards the foreign culture itself. If this attitude is negative, there may be strong internal barriers against learning.

Thirdly, the status and the level of dominance of learners' native language in comparison to those of the target language can affect attitudes towards learning the foreign language. It is unlikely for the speakers of a widely used and dominant language, for instance English, to be found exerting much effort or experiencing frustration in their learning of a minority language the use of which does not go far beyond the local environment: Skutnabb-Kangas (1981, pp.203-4) writes:

Majority students learning a minority language as their L2 (for instance English children or adults in Britain learning Gujerati) should be able to tolerate more situations where they feel incompetent in Gujerati, than minority students learning a majority language as their L2 (Gujerati children in Britain learning English), because the whole endeavour is a game

for the former and bitter reality for the latter.

Since other environmental, political, and educational factors can come under the umbrella of social factors, Wilkins (1978) makes the point that the learning of a particular language may be regarded with greater favour or greater hostility due to some historical and political reasons. English is learned favourably in those parts of the world where fruitful collaboration has been prevalent than in those countries where English is resented due to the political power practised by the English-speaking world. In this context, Kharma (1977) states that in several Arab countries a negative attitude towards the 'imperialist powers' has powerfully influenced the learning of foreign languages, especially English and French. But in present-day [countries] where the basic economic activities are commercial and depend to a great extent on English, the impact of that hostility on the learning of English in particular has been far less.

All in all, it is evident from what has been so far demonstrated that critical attitudes never assist in the development of the same degree of language attainment as favourable and encouraging attitudes do. In other words, learners with strong prejudiced attitudes towards foreign peoples and their cultures would feel strong internal barriers. They are unlikely to approach the task of language learning with an integrative outlook.

Teachers' Role in Developing Pupils' Attitudes towards Foreign Language Learning:

As it has already been seen, pupils react either positively or negatively to foreign language learning. Since either type of attitude can strongly influence pupils' linguistic attainment, teachers are supposed to look for the alternatives that can enhance pupils' positive attitudes on the one hand, and modify the unfavourable ones on the other. Yet, as Russell (1971, p.18) states,

very little help has been given the teacher to learn how to develop certain attitudinal characteristics and to modify existing ones. In general, the techniques teachers have used tend to lack the intense impact and prolonged exposure ordinarily required for significant changes to occur.

In the following paragraphs, reference will be made to certain techniques by means of which teachers can develop pupils' positive attitudes towards foreign language learning.

In the first place, it is commonly observed that interest is less likely to be enhanced under authoritarian conditions. To arouse pupils' interest, teachers are supposed to strip their classrooms of any authoritarian aspects as much as possible (Alfred Smith, 1971; Disick, 1972), since the development of interest and enjoyment in foreign language learning requires the creation of classroom atmospheres conducive to learning.

Secondly, Downey and Kelly (1975) point out that teachers' attitudes are very likely to influence those of

their pupils. A teacher's positive way of behaviour towards teaching the language can be reflected in his or her encouragement of those pupils who seem to experience the task of learning out of interest. Enthusiastic and cheerful teachers who enjoy being in the classroom and teaching the language, and are ready to please pupils can undeniably have pupils with more positive attitudes (Morrison and McIntyre, 1984).

Thirdly, teachers are supposed to put forward the teaching material in a well-organized and simplified manner with the objectives of the course clearly stated. Hornsey (1983) points out that pupils who are ignorant of the objectives behind studying a certain subject are likely to develop feelings of distaste and dissatisfaction. He further states that in order to sustain pupils' favourable reactions, "[a teacher] can begin by making goals explicit, comprehensible and realisable in the short, rather than the long, term" (Hornsey, 1983, p.14). In the same vein, Disick (1972, p.420) adds:

Another motivating factor can be the establishment of performance objectives for each unit of study. When students know the purpose of various class activities, what will be tested, how it will be evaluated, and how well they must do to pass, they tend to perform as desired.

Yet, because the scheme of performance objectives is not effectively workable with a wide range of pupils who have different abilities for foreign language learning, schemes based on graded objectives have been recently introduced. According to Page and Hewett (1987, p.3),

graded objectives . . . would not be tied to an ability range: they would not be specifically aimed at low ability learners. They would represent steps in a continuum which could be attempted by all learners, who would need longer or shorter periods to achieve their objectives according to how much time they could devote to their studies or how much ability they might possess.

Fourthly, because a pupil might see in a teacher's constant interruptions to correct mistakes a real disruption of the flow of his or her thoughts, and because such a behaviour on the part of the teacher might create frustration in pupils' attempts to communicate in the foreign language, the use of encouragement becomes very desirable. It is worthy of note that many alternatives are available to teachers to encourage their pupils. According to Disick (1972), the most common form of effective encouragement is the use of sincere and merited praise on proper occasions.

Fifthly, since pupils' negative attitudes can be developed from the failure experienced through interaction with the foreign language, and since "success breeds success" and fosters strong interest and positive attitudes, teachers should instil in their pupils the determination and self-confidence to achieve the set objectives. Alfred Smith (1971, p.86) states:

The poor attitude [is that] engendered by failure. Nothing fosters high motivation and positive attitudes as does success. Students have different reasons for studying foreign languages. They do not learn in the same way, at the same rate or to the same extent.

Finally, since language and culture are inextricably inseparable, the well-planned and gradual exposure of fresh learners to the way of living and culture of the foreign people is important. By so doing, negative attitudes towards the foreign culture and the threats to one's cultural identity can be corrected and elevated (Disick, 1972). This would, in turn, create better chances for pupils to understand the subject, especially "if pupils are to be made to feel that 'different from' does not mean 'better than' or 'worse than'" and if pupils are helped "to retain a pride in their own cultural heritage while helping them to accept and appreciate others values"(Finocchiaro, 1969, p.31).

3.8.5 Teachers' Attitudes:

Introduction:

Since the field of education seems to be overcrowded with many problems of, allegedly, various sources, the study of teachers' attitudes is important in clarifying the role of a vital and indispensable factor within the field.

Like those of pupils, teachers' attitudes play a pivotal role in the way the teaching and learning process can be directed to achieve its desired ends. These attitudes are the outcome of the experience a teacher has before undertaking his profession and while in service coupled with other variables within and without the school environment. Morrison and McIntyre (1984) further suggest

that a better investigation of teachers' attitudes can be achieved if their reaction to the teaching task conditions, interest in teaching, satisfaction of their personal needs, and the importance of education to society are taken into consideration.

Consequently, the close study of teachers' attitudes towards the profession of teaching in general and that of a subject in particular can put forward a vivid picture of what is going on in our schools everyday. It can also designate what repercussions attitudes can have on the teaching and learning of foreign languages.

The Formation of the Attitudes of Foreign Language

Teachers:

Teachers form a crucial sector within the educational community. Their positive or negative attitudes can remarkably influence the teaching and learning processes (Morrison and McIntyre, 1984). Harpin (1979, p.40) states:

Though exploration of [teachers'] attitudes may have its problems, their significance in the process of learning about and practising language teaching makes such exploration essential.

Alfred Smith (1971) further suggests that anyone who is interested in studying attitudes in the domain of foreign languages is supposed to look closely and analytically into the cognitive, affective, and behavioural components that underly the attitudinal system of teachers.

The cognitive component subsumes the perceptions,

beliefs, and thoughts that teachers have of the foreign language as a result of their experience with the language. It is worthy of note that teachers' experience in this respect is the outcome of:

- 1) formal instruction . . . ,
- 2) perhaps travel in the country where that language is spoken,
- 3) professional preparation for the foreign language classroom.

(Alfred Smith, 1971, p.83)

Added to that, the success of such an experience makes teachers have favourable attitudes towards their profession. Yet, it is shortly after interaction with pupils and with other factors within the teaching situation that teachers start to develop different patterns of attitudes towards the profession of foreign language teaching. Accordingly, teachers become either enthusiastic and serious when circumstances help in the bringing about of effective teaching and when pupils show interest in learning the language, or they become frustrated as pupils show disfavour of the language. Teachers' reaction at this stage culminates in an evaluative procedure of the whole process. It is usually the type of evaluation that leads to the feelings of either favour or disfavour, like or dislike, and "forness or againstness". This forms the affective component of attitudes. Finally, a teacher tends to behave either favourably or unfavourably towards the teaching of the foreign language. This is more clarified in the following section on teachers' attitudes towards foreign language teaching.

Teachers' Attitudes towards Foreign Language Teaching:

Teachers' attitudes towards the teaching profession are usually characterized by either favour or disfavour. Such variation is, inevitably, due to many factors of influence either inside or outside the profession. Di Vesta and Thompson (1970) specify personal traits of teachers, social class backgrounds of schools, teachers' view of the school as a source of usefulness in the multiple aspects of one's life, and the occupational values of the profession of teaching as important factors that can bring about the type of attitude a teacher develops towards the profession.

It is worth mentioning that teachers' attitudes towards the profession of teaching cannot be probed satisfactorily unless their behaviour in the classroom is closely looked into. Yet, as it is revealed by the investigation relevant to the current research, there is a noticeable lack of relevant literature on teachers' attitudes towards foreign language teaching. This is so because foreign language teaching differs remarkably from that of other subjects due to some of its particularly demanding aspects. Faerch et al. (1984) point out that what is required from teachers of foreign languages goes beyond that of other subjects. For instance, although all teachers, including those of foreign languages, instruct materials relevant to experiences outside the classroom, only foreign language teachers have to re-teach and re-formulate what the learner already knows. They have to

guide learners, presumably through different routes, to proficiency in a field that the native speakers have assimilated through interaction with their own environment. Furthermore, teachers of foreign languages take over a task that is psychologically demanding. Learners' personalities, social identity, and ability to achieve cognitively demanding operations are all closely related to language learning. Finally, at the time when learners develop insight and knowledge through the learning of other subjects, it is in the learning of the foreign language that the medium represents the message the learner is supposed to learn.

Owing to their central role in bringing about effective learning, more is expected from teachers of foreign languages. The way they react to the teaching process has a remarkable effect on how pupils tend to experience school life in general, and learning the foreign language either favourably or unfavourably in particular. In this context, Good and Brophy (1974, p.72) state:

Teachers with appropriate attitudes will spend extra time working with the students who are having difficulty. Their behaviour when interacting with the students will be supportive, patient and confident. In contrast, teachers with inappropriate attitudes will often spend less time with the students who most need extra help. When they do work with these students, these teachers will tend to do so in a half-hearted way that communicates disappointment and frustration.

Furthermore, emphasis has been placed on the study of

teachers' attitudes in relation to pupils' performance. It is claimed that learners usually achieve better when teachers are interested and open-hearted in their teaching of the language (Disick, 1972; Waller and Gaa, 1974). Coughlan and Cooke (1974) state that work attitudes are important determinants of school performance especially in gauging personal and organizational efficiency and effectiveness, providing a framework for diagnosing organization problems and needs, and designing programmes of organizational improvement and staff development in schools.

Teachers of foreign languages are supposed to be aware of facts like these as well as other relevant crucial points which have repercussions on the teaching/learning process, e.g. the occupational values that the profession of teaching will confer and the extent to which the profession will satisfy teachers' needs. Occupational values are the benefits perceived by teachers as they prepare to undertake the profession of teaching. Mori (1966) makes the point that it is very frequent that in the light of teachers' perceptions of such values that the decision to enter the profession is ultimately taken.

Being in the profession, teachers demonstrate varying degrees of interest. They approach their profession with different attitudes. When teachers' attitudes toward school work are positive, it can be reflected in their pupils' high interest and enthusiasm towards their work (Brophy and Good, 1974). Yet, as Alfred Smith (1971)

claims, this does not deny the fact that even the most optimistic teacher cannot prevent a certain deterioration in attitude that is natural in the course of a school year. It is simply impossible physically, emotionally, and psychologically to maintain the same enthusiasm, vigor, and optimism that one has throughout the studying year.

A main question in this respect is: what are the factors that can help in the development of the varied patterns of the attitudes of foreign language teachers towards their profession? Firstly, as teachers start to interact with pupils within the real teaching environment represented by the classroom, their professional qualifications come to the forefront and are tested out. These qualifications might not be up to the level teachers have expected. In such a case, teachers of foreign languages adopt either of the following orientations. The profession might be perceived as very demanding and painstaking. Consequently, the teacher's interest might flag and unfavourable attitudes would be very likely to develop. Another teacher might find in the discovery of the abilities required for the profession a real challenge. In due course, more persistence and self-confidence are developed to bring about the set objectives. In the latter case, teachers can be seen working very hard and seriously. This progress, on teachers' part, when concomitant with that of their pupils, would increase teachers' interest in the

profession, at a time when teachers' positive attitudes would accordingly be enhanced. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, teachers who have a good mastery of the foreign language and considerable competence in its teaching will be capable of dealing effectively with every language activity. Such teachers demonstrate constant interest in the profession and try to transfer it to their pupils. They view pupils' understanding of the subject as a prime objective to be achieved at any cost. This is why teachers spend more time in explaining the varied language activities in an attempt to provide pupils with more opportunity to grasp the content. Brophy and Good (1974, p.344) state:

Teaching brings many rewards and satisfactions, but it is demanding, exhausting and sometimes frustrating. It is hard to do well unless you enjoy doing it. Teachers who do enjoy their work will show this in their classroom behavior. They come to class prepared and will present lessons with interest and excitement. They will appear eager for contact with students, keep track of students individual needs and progress and take pride and satisfaction in helping them overcome learning difficulties. Difficulties and confusion in students will be perceived as challenges to be met with professional skills not as irritations.

Secondly, decisions to enter professions are mostly taken in the light of the usefulness and the benefits a forthcoming profession would confer. Deciding to be a foreign language teacher forms no exception. For instance, within the Iraqi context where the current study was implemented, in addition to the financial and educational values implied, English language teachers perceive

themselves to have more opportunities to travel to the country where the language is spoken.

As their experience with the foreign language teaching takes root, teachers will soon come to evaluate the usefulness of the profession. If the profession is found beneficial as they have perceived, there will be more development of the favourable and positive attitudes. Conversely, ill-feelings, dissatisfaction, and negative attitudes are very likely to come into existence when the previously perceived occupational values are not up to the level expected (Kaiser, 1981).

Thirdly, there are varied factors inside and outside the school which can powerfully influence the development of the attitudes of foreign language teachers towards their profession. Within the school, the attitudes of headteachers, teachers of other subjects, and pupils in particular, are worthy of consideration. The authority practised by headteachers, and the constant criticism, by teachers of other subjects and by pupils, which undervalues the foreign language and its teaching can create within some teachers a conflicting state of orientation. Some teachers might not be able enough to defend their position and subsequently surrender to the opposing viewpoints. This will culminate in the development of a new set of negative attitudes. In contrast, some other teachers might defy all the prejudiced and unjust evaluations. They become more interested in everything relevant to their profession.

With special reference to pupils as a factor that influences teachers' attitudes towards foreign language teaching, it is worth mentioning that the positive attitudes displayed by pupils while learning the language can influence those of their teachers. Brandet and Hayden (1974) point out that a pupil's performance can be a predominant factor in determining his or her teacher's attitudes. This is why teachers develop more favourable attitudes towards their profession when their constant attempts to modify the negative attitudes of their pupils culminate in success.

Fourthly, teachers of foreign languages who find themselves working under the entire guidance and authority of others and having no chances to innovate might soon develop feelings of dissatisfaction and disfavour towards the profession (Kaiser, 1981). They would interpret the unjust evaluation of some inexperienced supervisors, the way tests are prepared and administered, the design of the teaching materials, and the adoption of a fixed yet sterile method of teaching as negative factors that are not conducive to effective teaching. The latter, i.e. methods of teaching, play a crucial role in this respect. This is so because the way a subject is taught is definitely not less important than what is taught. In the same vein, because teachers of foreign languages are usually of varied social and educational backgrounds, much controversy on the matter of the methods of teaching has been traced in recent years. A modern method of teaching

that is claimed to be more productive can be easily rejected by some teachers. Within the Iraqi context, for instance, "the classroom teacher is advised to follow an oral-structural method, his role being no more than an advisor and supervisor to ensure the proper progress of the teaching/learning"(Al-Amin, 1984, p.122). This is evident from the way English textbooks are designed, at a time when teachers are supposed to work in accordance with fixed patterns and certain administrative procedures. In other words, teachers are mostly familiar with what they are asked to do in the Teachers' Guides or at the training courses. Although some teachers are well acquainted with the communicative approach, either through instruction at the training courses or through personal efforts, and are aware of its productive consequences, the lacking of knowledge of this approach by the majority of them and their limited freedom to innovate make them helpless to put such an approach into effect. The communicative approach is also favoured due to teachers' realization that a prime aim behind learning the language is to enable pupils to communicate more effectively in English, not the meaningless repetition of forms and structures so as to learn them by heart and pass the examination.

Likewise, since a teacher's attitude towards teaching the foreign language can be easily influenced by the way his or her pupils approach learning the language, and since according to the communicative approach, "the learners' ultimate objective is to take part in communic-

ation with others, [and their] motivation to learn is more likely to be sustained if they can see how their classroom learning is related to this objective and helps them to achieve it with increasing success"(Littlewood, 1983, p.17), the application of such an approach is usually expected to give more success to the process of foreign language teaching. Otherwise, many teachers may perceive the teaching of the language to be entirely geared towards the achievement of short-term goals, especially when the development of learners' communicative abilities does not form a major aim of the language course.

Outside the school, the social group practises its influence on teachers' attitudes towards the profession of teaching the foreign language. The positive or negative impression that the social group has of the foreign language, its people and culture, and its teaching is important in determining teachers' attitudes. Social groups that underestimate the teaching of foreign languages and do not provide teachers with the required assistance and encouragement are hindering any hoped-for development. Teachers for their part will see themselves helpless and not interested in carrying out a task that is disfavoured by the social group. Wilkins (1978) makes the point that many factors might assist or hinder a teacher in his or her profession. For instance, when social attitudes are negative, the teacher's achievement will be relatively poor no matter how well he does his job. Contrarily,, learning may proceed even when social

attitudes are positive. In other words, the achievement will be highest where attitudes and teaching together promote effective learning and lowest where attitudes are negative and teaching is weak.

In short, teachers are human beings. Their attitudes, either positive or negative, are mostly derived from the experience they have with the teaching of the foreign language (Alfred Smith, 1971). A lack of the required qualifications, unsatisfactory occupational values, criticism and discouragement by people inside and outside the school, and finally the attitudes displayed by pupils in their learning of the language are all factors that can facilitate the development of teachers' negative attitudes towards their profession.

3.9 Attitude Measurement:

Introduction:

Measurement is practised in various forms in our daily life. Accurate measurement forms the basis for many remarkable scientific discoveries and advances (Noll and Scannell, 1972). Because measurement has always aimed at the qualities and attributes of things and persons in the environment, attitude, the individual's reaction to the surrounding objects or phenomena, has been a subject of wide study and has come, in turn, under measurement. Accordingly, as Evans (1965) points out, various methods have been developed in recent years to measure attitudes. These methods constitute a field of noticeable importance

that is known as attitude measurement. Summers (1977, p.21) states:

Attitude is a very popular intervening variable among social psychologists. Consequently, much attention has been given to the problems of attitude measurement. Indeed, the peculiar features of attitude measurement have been so greatly stressed that it is well to remember that many of the problems of measuring attitudes are common to the measurement of other psychological variables.

Why Are Attitudes Measured?:

Attitudes are measured for a variety of reasons. First and foremost, interest in the meaning of attitudes due to their susceptibility and resistance to change forms a prime reason (Lemon, 1973). The enthusiasm for discovering the components of a given attitude is an additional reason to be considered. In this respect, Child (1986, p.257) argues that

measures attempt to detect one of three kinds; the cognitive attitude which is what we actually know about an object or event, the affective attitude which is what we feel about an object or an event and the behavioural attitude indicating how we behave towards an object or event.

Dowine (1967) specifies the acquisition of desirable attitudes, the importance of the sensitivity to and understanding of social problems, the tolerance and appreciation of the worth of every individual, and the success in various occupations associated with certain attitudes as additional reasons behind attitude measurement.

In the current research work, measurement of attit-

udes aims at outlining the role of attitudes in contributing to the current discouraging situation of teaching and learning English as a foreign language in Iraqi preparatory schools.

Methods of Attitude Measurement:

Since attitudes are not amenable to direct observation (Lambert and Lambert, 1964; Summers, 1977), behaviour has been handled as the basic means to infer them. As a result, various methods have been developed to measure attitudes so as to find out the degree of favour and disfavour that the sample under research expresses towards the attitude object(s).

Lemon (1973) suggests that almost all researchers have adopted a uniform technique based on four progressive stages. Initially, an image of the nature of the attitude to be measured is formed. This is followed by the specification of the relevant dimensions of the attitude to serve as a basis for measurement. Then, the theoretical concepts are translated into practice with search for the indicators that stand for the theoretical concepts guiding the research. Finally, there is a combination of scores from these indicators into indices to represent the underlying attitude.

Sampling forms another issue which is worthy of consideration in the measurement of attitudes due to its role in determining the outcomes of any research work. Faulty sampling can bring a whole research investigation

to nothing. The prior knowledge of the key principles of sampling is essential in drawing upon the proper track and destination of a research work. This is represented by (1) appropriate image of the attitude object, (2) the responsive continuum, i.e. the different ways used in asking questions to obtain the same data and to know how far the data obtained reflect the way of measurement, and (3) different people to be included (Triandis, 1971).

Attitude measurement has undergone a considerable amount of development. Although all the methods used have specified the study of individuals' beliefs, feelings, and behaviours towards different attitudinal objects as a prime aim, researchers have followed different techniques and approaches to achieve such an ultimate objective. Of the various approaches that have been so far known in the field are the following: self reports, multiple indicator approaches, inventories, questionnaires, Yes-No two-point scales, True-False scales, Osgood semantic differential or bipolar scales, Guttman's ranking groups of statements, Thurstone Scales, and Likert Scales (Tuckman, 1975, Summers, 1977, Oppenheim, 1982).

Engelhart (1972) makes the point that the efforts to develop objective measures of attitude go back to 1925. Since then, first Thurstone's, and after a decade, Likert scales have been the most well-known ones:

Both [Thurstone and Likert] scales give fairly high reliabilities for [attitude] measurement. Correlations between scores on comparable scales of the two types are reported to be

quite high.

(Noll and Scannell, 1972, p.438)

As for Thurstone scales, Greenwald et al. (1968) state that Thurstone's solution of the problem of attitude measurement remains his most commendable contribution to the field of attitude study. In terms of their construction, Lindgren (1973) states that the Thurstone method starts with the collection of opinions, ranging from very positive to very negative, about the attitude object. The statements are then presented to a group of individuals to judge the opinions on an eleven-point scale where 1, represents the most favourable, and 11, the least favourable. These people are also asked to try to arrange the statements in such a way that they are distributed over the full range from 1 to 11. The median rating that judges assign any given statement is then taken as an index to the strength and direction of the attitude expressed by the statement.

This stage is followed by the selection by judges of two or three statements, from each group, that represent typically the group and express the same attitude.

Finally, "the selected statements are listed in random order. The examinee responds by checking the statements with which he agrees. His score is the mean, or preferably the median of the scale values of the statements with which he agrees"(Engelhart, 1972, p.178).

Because the field study of the current research depends almost entirely on four questionnaires that follow

Likert scales type of attitude measurement, I intend to enlarge upon this type of scales in the following section.

Likert Scales:

These represent another method to construct and score attitudes. Because they are easy to construct, Nisbet and Entwistle (1974) suggest that Likert scales form the most widely-used method of attitude measurement. The construction of these scales may be summarized as follows:

At the outset, a group of items, which are in this context called statements, is collected. The statements are usually drawn from the relevant literature, and from comments on the attitudinal object made by the sample whose attitudes are to be measured. These raw statements are presented to an initial group of people, either from among those under study or others of similar characteristics. The group responds to each statement by indicating varied degrees of agreement or disagreement. This is usually done by respondents' choice of one of the following five options: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree, with weights usually ranging between 1 and 5. In the light of this pilot administration, the statements which do not have the required score of high intercorrelation with the total score of the scale are discarded. Lindgren (1973, p.95) states that

the purpose of this procedure is to obtain a group of items which measure the same attitude

or complex of attitudes. Such a test thus possesses a high degree of internal consistency and shows significant differences between those who favour the matter in question and those who are negatively inclined.

The refined statements are then administered to the sample selected for the main study to respond to it in the same manner followed in the pilot study. It is worthy of note that statements should be a mixture of positive and negative ones. To put it differently, "the attitude questionnaire [consists] of a set of equal numbers of favourable and unfavourable statements with which each subject [is] directed to indicate the extent of his agreement"(Evans, 1965, pp.23-4).

The logic behind following such a procedure is to diminish the chances of inattentive answers by some respondents in the sample who might view the job as tiresome or unimportant, and consequently give all their responses as either positively or negatively inclined. The responses given to the statements of any questionnaire on attitude measurement represent the degree of agreement or disagreement by the sample under study. They also indicate respondents' favour or disfavour of the attitude object.

The reason behind researchers' favour of Likert scales lies in the elimination by these scales of the stage of sorting statements by a group of judges as it is followed in the construction of the questionnaires of Thurstone scales type. This is added to the fact that Likert scales are less demanding in terms of the time required for their construction than those of Thurstone

(No11 and Scannell, 1972). Referring to L. H. Seiler and R. H. Hough (1977, p.171), Summers (1977, p.125) concludes:

1) "The Likert method of scoring an attitude scale, of any given number of items, consistently produces more reliable results than the Thurstone method of scoring the scale"; and 2) the Likert method of scale construction and scoring requires fewer items to produce the same reliability as the Thurstone Method.

Problems in Attitude Measurement:

In spite of the realization that the methods used in attitude measurement can provide useful information that is not otherwise accessible, attitude measurement is not entirely a set of mathematical operations which usually lead to exact outcomes. Lemon (1973) specifies investigators' theoretical assumptions about: 1) the nature of the attitude to be measured; 2) the nature of its relationship with behaviour, and with the rules used to assign numbers to these behavioural observations as principles upon which the measurement procedure relies, and consequently comes out with findings that can be considered reliable.

The main threatening problem in attitude measurement is the extent of frankness and sincerity in respondents' expression of their real beliefs and feelings since most people tend to hide their attitudes intentionally. In other words, "when asked to express or discuss their attitudes, most people give incomplete, superficial, and often distorted descriptions of them"(Lambert and Lambert, 1964, p.52).

Noll and Scannell (1972) point out that a person who is asked to put down on paper his agreement or disagreement with an attitude object, such a person might not necessarily give the true facet of his or her real beliefs and feelings. This means that, overt behaviour may not constantly provide an accurate index of attitude and may not be consistent with the verbal responses of the persons whose attitudes are measured. Anastasi (1974, p.545) adds:

The measurement of attitude is both difficult and controversial. . . . Does the individual suit his actions to his words- or his attitude scale score?

Even observation of overt behaviour may not always provide an accurate index of attitude.

Added to that, in cases of much affinity to the preceding one, people whose attitudes are to be measured might come under emotional feelings towards the researcher. They might distort their attitudes intentionally in favour of the research so as to please a respected researcher, and to cope with the orientation of a certain research work just to give a good impression. Conversely, the respondents might dislike the researcher and refrain from providing him or her with the information required (Triandis, 1971).

Finally, specification of the attitude variables and limiting measurement to them (Thurstone and Chave, 1964), decision on the appropriateness of a set of rules in a particular instance (Lemon, 1973), construction of clear, simple, and correct attitude statements (Anastasi, 1974),

proper sampling in terms of size and representation, and the researcher's fear to disclose his or her attitude through the research work form serious problems that should be heeded since they can easily hinder or invalidate attitude measurement.

Construction of Attitude Scales:

Anything that can be said about an attitude object is called a statement. A list of statements subsumes those that are either in favour of or against the attitude object. Their selection according to Oppenheim (1982) requires concentrated thinking, exploration and explanation; a process that makes attitude statements be written and re-written until the final refined form becomes acceptable.

A unanimous agreement by all researchers is that good statements are usually not factual, have no reference to the past, and with no multiple interpretation. They are clearly, simply and directly stated, short, relevant, and each statement expresses a single thought. Statements should also be devoid of double negatives and of words like "All", "Always", "Now", and "Never". No double-barrelled statements are used since they might make a subject agree with a part and refuse the second. They should be free from offensive meaning, otherwise the subject will intentionally react and refuse to co-operate (Evans, 1965; Tuckman, 1975).

Comprehensiveness is another point that is worth

considering in the construction of attitude scales. Oppenheim (1982) argues that the more aspects of a particular attitude a researcher can include, the more he or she is likely to get scores that mean something in terms of that underlying attitude rather than in terms of one or two particular aspects of it. He further states that the same attitude may express itself in different ways in different people, at a time when some people might not have such an attitude at all.

To summarize, a final form of attitude scales usually appears as a list of statements that are relevant to a clearly defined topic and express a sample's favour or disfavour in various degrees. When the questionnaire is administered and the required data are obtained, a researcher can find out the degree of agreement and disagreement expressed and also which statements express a respondent's attitude best.

Attitude Measurement in Education:

Measurement in education is not of a noticeable discrepancy from that in other fields of study. Yet "educational measurement is generally indirect rather than direct. . . Educational measurements are relative; they are not in any sense absolute"(Noll and Scannell, 1972, p.12). Furthermore, the difficulties and problems encountered in attitude measurement in the domain of education usually surpass those in other fields of study. This is mainly due to the reason that a sample of

respondents in education is, according to Noll and Scannell (1972), of varied social and educational backgrounds, and of different ages and personalities; aspects that make such a sample liable to constant change and difficult to be interpreted.

In education, attitude measurement has been used to find out the effectiveness of education with special emphasis on matters pertinent to the training, teaching and the learning processes, and on the hindrances that impede such processes. Thus, focus has been on the relationship between learners' attitudes and attainment in school subjects. This is why pupils selected for empirical studies are usually divided into two groups on the final continuum. The first group is represented by the successful pupils, while low achievers usually appear within a second group (Nisbet and Entwistle, 1974).

In line with this, Brown (1975) specifies the wish to grade individual pupils for certification or selection purposes, the prediction of later achievement and its use for curricular or vocational guidance and diagnosis, monitoring progress, and guiding the learning of pupils as additional purposes behind attitude measurement in education.

Finally, attitude measurement in education has been dealing with the attitudes of the different groups, within and without the school setting, who have something to do with the educational processes in one way or another.

CHAPTER FOUR
MOTIVATION

4.1 Introduction:

Prediction of behaviour has formed part and parcel of psychological studies for some considerable time. Questions like: "why is a person motivated?" have made the "why" of behaviour a focal point of study within the psychology of motivation (Teevan and Smyth, 1967). Furthermore,

it is in the discipline of psychology that motivation theory has been treated most systematically and tested empirically.

(Ball, 1977, p.2)

However, this should not be interpreted that psychology is the only branch of science that deals with the study of motivation. Frymier (1971) points out that the wide-ranging motivation and its importance to the individual within the social group have made the field of biology in terms of the biological factors, and likewise the field of sociology in terms of the cultural, social and economic factors, additional means towards a better understanding of the concept. Teevan and Smyth (1967, p.xvi) add:

The study of motivation is not exclusively the domain of the psychologist. It is, in fact, of such widespread concern as to be of importance to any individual who must deal with other people.

Accordingly, motivation has become a crucial determinant of human endeavour to learn and pursue achieving goals. Brown argues that "it is easy to figure that

success in a task is due simply to the fact that someone is "motivated". It is easy in second language learning to claim that a learner will be successful with the proper motivation. Such claims are of course not erroneous, for countless studies and experiments in human learning have shown that motivation is a key to learning"(Brown, 1980, p.112).

In the following sections, answers will be given to questions like the following: What does motivation mean? Why is a person motivated? How can motivation be sustained? In the same manner, reference will be made to motivation as a psychological concept of great importance in determining the success of the various educational processes of which that of foreign language teaching and learning forms a paramount component. The final two sections of the current chapter are devoted to the facets of difference between attitudes, motivation, and interest.

4.2 Historical Review:

Bolles (1967), in the preface to his work Theory of Motivation, states:

The concept of motivation makes sense only when viewed in historical perspective.

In support of Bolles' statement, there has been over the years a vast amount of writing and research dealing with the topic of motivation. Therein, considerable emphasis has been placed on the historical evolution of the concept.

Owing to the comprehensive and analytical procedure adopted by Bolles (1967) and Evans (1975) in tackling the historical review of the concept of motivation, their thoughts will be main sources upon which the current section will rely.

At the inception, Kueth (1968) points out that the term "motivation" goes back in its origin to the Latin word "movere", i.e. to move. A person who is motivated to achieve a goal usually moves towards that goal.

In ancient times, Greek philosophers, as Bolles (1967) states, reckoned a man's faculty of reasoning as the main determinant of his behaviour. According to "[Plato and Socrates]; behaviour was determined by either of two things: passion or knowledge. Passion was shared with animals. Knowledge gained through the use of reason was peculiarly human"(Evans, 1975, p.17). Furthermore, man's ability to gain knowledge was conceived to be distinctively human and implied the achievement of goodness. Commenting on the contributions of Greek philosophers to the domain of motivation, Bolles (1967, p.22) writes:

For Plato, as for most of the Greek philosophers, what we would call the motivational determinants of behavior had little direct bearing on a man's behavior because they could always be overridden by his faculty of reason. . . . Man was viewed as an active and rational agent; he was free to do what he wanted to do. Man's intellect and will were felt to provide a sufficient account of his actions.

Descartes (1649), as Bolles (1967) points out,

thought that animals, because of their lack of rational souls, were merely automata. Animals behaviour was further reckoned to be due to external and internal physical forces acting upon them. The internal forces were represented by agitations within the physical organism. In the case of man, reasoning intervened between input and output, and enabled him to be free in selecting and determining his behaviour according to his knowledge.

Hobbes suggested a psychological form of hedonism; a theory of motivation of much dominance during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. According to him, man's actions were supposed to be motivated by the desire to embark on pleasurable actions and avoid painful ones. Hedonism was regarded then as a main principle of motivation. It was in contrast with ethical hedonism which implied the ethical goodness of a man's tendency to pursue pleasure and avoid pain.

John Locke emphasized the role of uneasiness which was said to be a desire to initiate action. According to Locke and Hume, both of them empiricists, "the intellectual variables dominated other kinds of psychological variables to a high degree"(Madsen, 1968, p.47). Hume further regarded ideas, sensations and desires as conditions for determining man's actions.

Hutcheson (1728) advocated psychological hedonism in the light of which he proposed two types of motives. The egotistical motive, looking for pleasure for one's self; and the altruistic motive, looking for pleasure for

others.

Later on, and according to Madsen (1968, p.47):

Kant was the first to put 'cognition,' 'emotion' and 'will' on the same level in psychological classification, and this 'tripartition' has dominated psychology until the beginning of this century. In this classification, motivational variables were divided into two groups: 'emotion' and 'will'.

The thought that instincts were the most effective motivating force was advocated by Darwin and Spencer, both materialists. They emphasized the instinctive aspect of behaviour and the instinct theory of motivation. In this respect, Bolles (1967, p.44) states:

Most of our motivational concepts have stemmed from the materialistic tradition, the tradition which includes Darwin and Spencer. . . . Darwin had initiated the modern era of instinct theory. Spencer, too, made a crucial contribution when . . . he supplied us with most of the ingredients for a law of reinforcement and a behavioristic account of learning. Spencer had also suggested in his concept of nascent excitation all of the important ingredients for an incentive theory of motivation.

M. Daniel Smith (1971) further suggests that when the evolutionary view of human behaviour is accepted, concentration can be either on the biological-neurological development of the organism as a source of motivation, or on environmental influences, or one can look for motivational forces inherent in ideas themselves.

Evans (1975) adds that the scientific characteristic of psychology during the late nineteenth century facilitated the establishment of causes and determinants.

McDougal (1871-1938) credited human beings with many more instincts, yet he did not approve their rigid existence in human beings as they are in animals. McDougal, according to Evans (1975), suggested the involvement of discrete instincts in providing motivation for a number of diverse human activities.

The following figure puts forward a brief account of the various motivational concepts starting with Greek philosophers to the turn of the nineteenth century:

FIGURE (4.1): THE MOTIVATIONAL CONCEPTS ADVOCATED SINCE ANCIENT TIMES TO THE TURN OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

	Determinants of Behaviour (Motivational Variables)	Orientation of Theories
Greek Philosophers		
Plato Socrates Descartes	Passion or Knowledge (Man's Will and Intellect)	Mentalistic
Hobbes	Desire to Look for Pleasure and Avoid Pain	Psychological Hedonism
Kant	Emotion and Will	Tripartition of Cognition, Emotion, and Will
Empiricists		
Locke	Uneasiness	Mentalistic
Hume	Ideas, Sensations, Desires.	
Hutcheson	Egotistical Motives Altruistic Motives	Psychological Hedonism
Darwin	1. Instincts 2. Biological or Neurological Development. 3. Environmental Influence 4. Motivational Forces Inherent in the Ideas	Scientific Psychology or Materialistic View
Spencer	Instincts Incentives	Law of Reinforcement and Incentive Theory of Motivation
McDougal	Discrete Instincts	

4.3 Definition of Motivation:

The broad use of the term "motivation" has created much difficulty in deducing a clear meaning of the concept. It has also made writers feel sensitive while adopting varied alternatives in the hope of giving a uniform and all-embracing definition of motivation. Yet, "there is no universally recognized definition of the term. It seems to be generally agreed that a list is needed and that there are a number of distinct classes of problems that deserve the label 'motivation'" (Berlyne, 1971, p.186). Furthermore, such sensitivity, on the part of writers, has mainly derived from the fear that their definitions of motivation might re-word the previously known points rather than explaining them. For instance, "One psychologist, George Kelly, believes we could get along very well without the concept of motivation, and Skinner has suggested that we may have created a "linguistic fiction." Bugelski has observed that so-called definitions of motivation are not really definitions but statements about a particular area of discourse and that "'motivation' is not an entity or a 'force' but an expression referring to a wide variety of conditions which alter stimulus-response relationships" (Jones, 1967, p.47, quoted from B. R. Bugelski, 1956). In line with this, Atkinson (1968, p.2) states:

One source of confusion surrounding the meaning of the term "motivation" . . . is the fact that the problem of motivation falls at the cross-roads of so many different subfields within psychology, each of which has invented a tech-

nical language to treat its own problem.

Likewise, the use of various linguistic terms, namely motives, incentives, and goals to label what the field of motivation subsumes, has contributed to the ambiguous feature of the relevancies to motivation (Hilgard and Russell, 1950). It has also created haziness in the various definitions due to the implication of as many terms as possible in an attempt to make things clearer and more plausible. For instance:

A motive, according to [Smith and O'Loughlin, 1946] is, 'that which causes and influences an action' or is 'the reason for doing something.' According to [The Random House Dictionary of the English Language, 1968], it is something that prompts a person to act in a certain way or that determines volition or is 'an incentive' or is 'the goal or object of one's actions'. A third dictionary (Wyld, 1946) adds: "an inner force which causes one to act in a particular way."

(Lee, 1975, pp.67-8)

In an attempt to put forward a set of neutral terms, Hilgard and Russell (1950, pp.38-9) specify the following main terms used within the domain of motivation:

- Motivation: A very general term for describing need-satisfying and goal seeking behavior.
- Motives : A very general term for whatever states or events within the organism (under appropriate circumstances) initiate activity or regulate activity in relation to a goal.
- Incentive : An object or situation in the environment capable of satisfying an aroused motive.
- Goal : The goal . . . is the end-state which gives direction to motivated behavior.

McGeoch and Irion (1952) have defined motivation in a seemingly comprehensive manner. They have brought together the definitions put forward by McDougal, Freud, and others who have maintained that all activity except purely reflective action is motivated. According to them:

A motive or motivating condition is any condition of the individual which initiates and sustains his behavior, orients him toward the practice of a given task, and which defines the adequacy of activities and the completion of the task.(p.124)

However, much incidental overlap can be traced in the definitions of motivation. Such an overlap might be due to the fact that most of the definitions have singled out the role of motivation as an internal force that helps in the arousal and direction of behaviour. Among them the following definitions are quoted:

Motivation is thought of as some kind of internal force which arouses, regulates and sustains all our more important actions.

(Vernon, 1969, p.1)

Motivation has been defined in a variety of ways. Despite variations from writer to writer, it is common that three qualities are included in most definitions: (1) it is a presumed internal force, (2) that energizes for action, and (3) determines the direction of that action.

(Russell, 1971, p.5)

"Motivation" refers to all those phenomena which are involved in the stimulation of action toward particular objectives where previously there was little or no movement toward those goals.

(Bernard, 1972, p.199)

The term motivation is usually defined by psychologists as the processes involved in arousing, directing and sustaining behaviour.

(Ball, 1977, p.2)

Motivation is a state of arousal or excitement that causes people to act.

(Clifford, 1981, p.349)

Motivation consists of internal processes which spur us on to satisfy some need.

(Child, 1985, p.32)

Some psychologists see motivation as a physiological drive pushing a person, or an animal, to behave in a certain way. Others insist that human beings act in ways which also depend on what they want to achieve.

(Entwistle, 1986, p.193)

It is evident that there has been thus far no precise universally-recognized definition of motivation. This is enhanced by the fact that psychologists have adopted various approaches to study the concept.

The conclusion I suggest to what has been so far demonstrated is that a better analysis and a widely recognized definition of motivation should take into account the factors that usually arouse, sustain and determine the direction of behaviour.

4.4 Theories of Motivation:

The section on "Historical Review" within the current chapter has referred in a chronological order to the various thoughts on motivation starting with Greek

philosophers to the turn of the nineteenth century.

During the twentieth century, "several theories of motivation have been formulated to describe and explain the motivational bases of human activity. Because of the richness and infinite variety of human behavior, there are differences in the theorists' explanations"(Klausmeier, 1985, p.211). Of these theories, the psychoanalytic, associative, and humanistic theories have been the most prominent and widespread. The three theories are not related. They represent different approaches to explain and describe motivation. This is evident from the disparity that each theory manifests in comparison to the other two in explaining human behaviour. However, it is worth mentioning that certain aspects of behaviour have become the focal points of discussion by the three theories in spite of the infinite variety of the activities displayed by organisms (Klausmeier, 1985).

In the following pages, I will refer to each one of the aforementioned theories of motivation with special emphasis on its role in arousing, sustaining, and directing human behaviour:

1. Psychoanalytic Theory:

This theory of motivation was founded by Sigmund Freud (Madsen, 1968). It was of a widespread influence during the first half of the twentieth century. Some of its original thoughts are still powerful today because "analytic thought provided one of the earliest, most

systematic and most elaborate conceptions of motivation" (Weiner, 1969, p.882).

The psychoanalytic theory, as Evans (1975) mentions, was influenced by Darwinian revolution in science, at a time when psychology became scientific and dealt with determinants and causes. This is why Freud believed that "nothing- but nothing - occurred without cause. . . . and in his search for the ultimate motivational causes of behavior, Freud wished to ground his theories in the respectable domain of Biology"(Evans, 1975, pp.19-20).

According to the psychoanalytic theory, motivation is thought of as a persistent process of an individual's adjustment to the environment. The main beliefs of the theory, as they were basically maintained by Freud, are represented by the role played by innate motives in determining human behaviour. Weiner (1969, p.882) comments by stating:

The basic tenets of psychoanalytic thought include the assumption that all behavior is determined, a reliance upon concepts of energy and entropy to explain pleasure and pain, and a belief in historical or genetic approach to the understanding of behavior. Instinctual drives provide the foundation of the theory. The wishes persist until the desired object or a derivative is obtained.

Klausmeier (1985) specifies the homeostatic and hedonistic concepts of the Freudian theory. Homeostasis refers to the activation of behaviour and the drive in maintaining a state of equilibrium as a consequence of experiencing a need. Hence, individuals with fulfilled

needs usually experience a complete state of equilibrium. Hedonism implies the favour of or approach to pleasurable goals and the disfavour or avoidance of painful ones. Quoting S. Freud, (1915, Vol.IV, pp.79-80), Atkinson (1968, pp.59-60) writes:

"When the object becomes a source of pleasurable feelings, a motor tendency is set up which strives to bring the object near to and incorporate it into the ego; we then speak of the 'attraction' exercised by the pleasure-giving object, and say that we 'love' that object. Conversely, when the object is the source of painful feelings, there is a tendency which endeavours to increase the distance between object, and ego. . . . We feel a 'repulsion' from the object and hate it; this hate can then be intensified to the point of an aggressive tendency towards the object, with the intention of destroying it."

Finally, there is emphasis on unconscious motivation in Freudian theory. Unconscious motivation refers to the state of the individual's involvement in actions he or she does not understand the 'why' of them. In this respect, Klausmeier (1985, p.213) states:

Another major concept in Freudian theory is unconscious motivation. Individuals often do not understand why they behave as they do. Furthermore, in many instances, individuals are incapable of recognizing the true, underlying motives of their behavior.

2. Associative Theory:

This theory of motivation, like the psychoanalytic theory, was predominant during the first half of this century. Its influence has recently waned as other theories have proved to be more effective and explicable.

Klausmeier (1985) points out that the multiplicity of the terms used by associative theorists makes a beginner feel he is dealing with many theories rather than a sole one. Yet, although associative theorists have adopted various approaches in an attempt to clarify the main tenets of the theory, they seem to conceive motivation as stemming from a stimulus-response relationship. As a result, organisms do not choose or determine their behaviour. The latter is determined by the external world or environment.

Clark Hull, an advocate of the stimulus-response theory, specifies the initiation of learned or habitual patterns of behaviour as motivation. In this respect, Evans (1975, p.64) states:

Clark Hull, psychologist, has had by far the greatest influence on the study of motivation within psychology. He dominates the psychology of learning and motivation throughout the 'thirties' and 'forties' and the system he created for the analysis of behaviour remains very influential even today.

In terms of Hull's analysis of behaviour, Bolles (1967) points out that Hull has actually developed three different but partially overlapping theories of motivation, namely the associative theory, the drive theory and the incentive theory. Commenting on the development of the associative theory by Hull, Atkinson (1968, p.159) writes:

[Hull believes] that stimuli are the causes of responses. . . . Striving for goals depended upon prior learning, that is, upon the elicitation by stimuli of previously acquired S-R

connections (habits).

Accordingly, the stimulus-response theory stresses the prior experiences in one's contemporary life. It "tends to regard man as an intricate machine. Machines operate with induced regularity according to fixed principles. . . . To an S-R psychologist, all motivation arises either directly from one's organic drives or basic emotions or from a tendency to respond that has been established by prior conditioning of the drives and emotions. . . . The drives and emotions are "built into" the organism and it can do nothing to resist them"(Bigge, 1971, p.77).

Furthermore, while the concept of drive reduction has been for many years the basis of the dominant theory of motivation (Weiner, 1968), the relation between a need and a drive, according to Hull, is characterized by the thought that the existence of a need leads to a drive that will energize the action. Klausmeier (1985, p.214) states:

Hull : Another stimulus-response associationist [introduced] need reduction. He also introduced the motivational concept drive. He defined need as a state of the organism that requires some kind of action to reduce, or satisfy, it.

3. Humanistic Theory:

This theory of motivation emphasizes the normal life experience of the individual (Klausmeier, 1985). According to it, human needs form the sources of the subsequent motives, and the importance of any need can be inferred

from the individual's endeavour to achieve the relevant goal and to satisfy the need in question. Because motives, as McDonald (1965) suggests, arise out of needs, a motivated person is seeking the satisfaction of some need. Added to that, "needs are aroused or activated either by internal changes within the individual or by stimulus events in the environment. Once the internal change has taken place, the energy basis for goal seeking-behavior is available"(McDonald, 1965, p.114).

Humanistic theorists further believe that the tendency to fulfil needs stems mainly from individuals' desire to seek adequacy and competence (Biehler, 1974). McDonald (1965) points out that the variation in human behaviour and consequently the various forms that such behaviour takes have made the attempts aiming at the classification of human needs largely ineffective. In spite of McDonald's claim, it is worth mentioning that Maslow's classification of human needs has proved to be the most acceptable. Klausmeier (1985, p.217) states:

Maslow (1970) accepts the idea that some human activity is motivated by the gratification of biological needs, but he firmly rejects the proposition that all human motivation can be explained in terms of deprivation, drive, and reinforcement.

Maslow's suggestion, in terms of human needs, implies an organizational system of a hierarchical order according to the essentiality of the satisfaction of each need. Maslow proposes that needs high on the hierarchical system cannot be fully satisfied unless those of lower order are

initially accounted for.

In the following paragraphs, succinct reference will be made to the needs that Maslow has proposed in his hierarchical system, and are stated by Klausmeier (1985):

1. Physiological needs: These have precedence over all other needs. Their satisfaction is gratified on a daily basis. They are the needs an individual experiences throughout life.

2. Safety needs are represented by the individual's preference of things that are characterized by order and rhythm, and the withdrawal from those situations which are characterized by danger, disorder and unfamiliarity.

3. Love and belonging needs stem mainly from the individual's attempts to be in touch with others. Seeking affectionate relations with others and finding one's place within a group form basic types of these needs. An individual, in the absence of such needs, feels alone, isolated, unwanted by others, and in need of social completeness. Contrariwise, individuals with full love and belonging needs have proved to experience good relationships with the people around.

4. Esteem needs make individuals seek recognition so as to be worthwhile members of the group. Individuals seeking the fulfilment of these needs are those strong, self-confident and useful in the group. "The thwarting of [these needs] produces feelings of inferiority, negativism and incompetence"(Klausmeier, 1985, p.218).

5. Needs to know and understand: These represent

primary needs for all human beings. Curious individuals who want to extend their knowledge usually experience these needs more than others. Added to that, individuals with such strong needs usually want to systematize, to organize, to analyze, and to look for relationships.

6. Aesthetic needs: The least understood needs. They are not experienced by all individuals. Persons with strong desires for beauty usually experience these needs.

7. Self-actualization needs: Such needs when fulfilled make a person be what he is potentially able to be. Individuals with such needs relatively well satisfied are "the healthiest in the society". Older people with fully achieved identity, satisfactory careers and other necessary experiences usually feel the fulfilment of such needs rather than young people who gradually move towards self-actualization.

According to Maslow, if any one of the above -mentioned needs remains unfulfilled, the individual would feel disturbed and idle (Klausmeier, 1985).

To sum up, despite the differences between the aforementioned theories of motivation, Weiner (1969) points out that they seem to agree upon certain points. For instance, all theories manifest the complexity of behaviour and the role of many factors such as instinct, need or association in determining and explaining the diverse patterns of it. Identification and measurement of individuals' differences have been taken into regard by all theories to assist in the study of the psychological

processes of which learning and motivation occupy a prime position. Finally, organisms are characterized by all theories as continually active and striving, at a time when the focus is mainly upon the direction of behaviour rather than on its evocation.

The following figure shows the thoughts advocated by the three theories of motivation:

FIGURE (4.2): THE THOUGHTS ADVOCATED BY THE PSYCHOANALYTIC, ASSOCIATIVE, AND HUMANISTIC THEORIES OF MOTIVATION.

Theory	Thoughts Advocated
1. Psychoanalytic	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Innate Motives. 2. Historical or Genetic Approach to the Study of Behaviour. 3. Homeostasis and Hedonism. 4. Instinctive Drives. 5. Unconscious Motivation.
2. Associative	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Automatic Stimulus-Response. 2. Emphasis on External Environment in Determining Behaviour. 3. Emphasis on the Influence of Previous Experiences on One's Contemporary Life. 4. Organic or Inner Drives. 5. Need Reduction.
3. Humanistic	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Hierarchical Order of Human Needs which are Determined by: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Internal Changes. b. Stimulus Events in the Environment. c. Desire to Seek Adequacy and Competence. 2. Emphasis on the Normal Life Experiences of the Individual.

4.5 Motivation in Education:

Introduction:

Education plays a crucial role in everyone's daily life. It has its effects on the way of living and the development of different societies, at a time when its main tool, the school, usually leaves many learners with either favourable or unfavourable experiences.

Since ancient times, there have been attempts to make formal education, represented by the school, more effective in terms of the benefits it confers. This has constantly demanded a close look into those factors of either positive or negative bearing on the whole educational process. Quoting L. G. Kelly (1969), Lee (1975) points out that the effects of certain attitudes and good relationships between learners and teachers have been acknowledged from time to time. He writes:

Kelly quotes from St. Augustine's 'Confessions' the forthright remark that "it is clear enough that free curiosity has a more positive effect on learning than necessity and fear". He quotes also from Quintilian: "The teacher must take special pains to make sure that the pupil does not come to dislike subjects he will in time come to appreciate. For if once he hates them, this will remain with him into adulthood." Erasmus, in the early sixteenth century, noticed a link between respect and liking for a teacher and success at school work, while the Czech-born scholar Komensky (Comenius), over a hundred years later, underlined the teacher's responsibility for the creation and maintenance of the pupils' desire to learn(p.67).

Therefore, motivation has always been looked upon as the most influential and forceful among other factors that can influence the education of the individual:

Educational psychologists agree that motivation is an integral part of the learning process. As such, it must become for the teacher a "teaching habit." The success or failure of a learning task partly depends on how the learner is motivated toward the task.

(De Roche, 1971, p.252)

In the same manner, the differences in learners' ways of approaching any educational setting in general, and the relevant learning activities in particular, have been ascribed to the various levels of motivation they display. Since such differences can affect the final outcomes of the educational process (De Roche, 1971), motivation, side by side with other factors that lie under its flag, has occupied a central role to the extent that "when a failure occurs in an education system, motivation is often blamed"(Ball, 1977, pp.1-2). This is why much stress has been placed on motivation in the literature on the teaching-learning process in the hope that it would work as a source of information and assistance to teachers.

Furthermore, teachers should realize the necessity of the existence of motivation whether before the occurrence of actual learning or throughout the educational process since "motivation, absent in the beginning, may be created from the teaching process and built upon by successful experience"(Russell, 1971, p.3).

In the following sections, I will deal with the role of motivation in the teaching-learning process. Special reference will be made to the influences that teachers'

and pupils' motivation can have on the teaching and learning of foreign languages.

Theories of Motivation in Education:

Educational psychologists have realized the importance of motivation in education and its role as an essential component of the learning process (De Roche, 1971). This has mainly stemmed from the essentiality that theories of motivation and their relevant investigations hold for the teaching-learning process in general, and the classroom activities in particular.

Russell (1971) points out that although the bulk of research on motivation was carried out formerly on animals, the time came, not very long ago, when many influential psychologists began to direct the orientation of their research towards assisting teachers in their task. Unfortunately, "educational psychology lacks a satisfactory theory of school motivation and research on the subject has been meager"(Russell, 1969, p.263).

In his argument on how far teachers can take benefit from the materials published on motivation, Russell (1971, p.5) writes:

A major problem of communication immediately confronts the teacher who seeks to explore the research and writing concerning motivation. Language used to discuss the topic is faulty. Concise meanings and common agreement are difficult to find. Psychologists who are ever so careful in planning and conducting the experiments, are often content to describe the findings in language so obscure that the meanings are hidden. Terms such as motivation, motive, drive, need, and goal are all used interchange-

ably in one place or another. Only from the context can a term be understood.

A prime question, if properly answered, would work as the main source of the information sought on motivation in education. That is: what does motivation in education mean? It is worth mentioning that motivation in education occurs practically within the general framework of the definition of the concept to which reference has been made in a previous section. The only marked difference is that formal education demands the fulfilment of certain objectives which are limited to the teaching-learning process. As a result, in the domain of education, motivation has been defined as "having a clear and sensible reason to want to succeed"(Carter, 1973, p.2). In other words, pupils are viewed as being of different types. Some pupils are highly motivated by hope and desire to succeed and they are capable of doing so. Others lack self-confidence; they are not motivated. They tend to be careless and fail. Another definition says, "motivation is anything the teacher does to cause a student to have interest and excitement about a particular learning task" (De Roche, 1971, p.252). Interest, according to De Roche, means the amount of attention demonstrated by pupils to the learning task; while excitement refers to the degree of following up a task after being interested in it.

M. Daniel Smith (1971) states that the generality of the concept of motivation has demanded the search for those points that are closely related to the educational

theme and its relevant ideas. Such a step has culminated in the gathering of a vast amount of literature dealing with the educational implications of the concept of "motivation". Yet, "much of [the relevant literature] either has failed to reach teachers in a form which could be applied, or it has left them thoroughly confused" (Russell, 1971, p.vii).

Application of the Theories of Motivation in Education:

The close link between motivation and education has made the implication of the motivational procedures in any educational practice quite important. Yet as Ball (1977) points out in his review of the theories directed towards the understanding of motivation in education, the current state does not suffice and is not satisfactory. Advocates of each theory have added constructs that stand by themselves and offer no more than a partial explanation of motivation in education (Kozeki and Entwistle, 1983).

Firstly, in terms of the Freudian psychoanalytic theory of motivation, it is worthy of note that teachers are no longer using this theory as a means of understanding the behaviour of their pupils, although "some school psychologists and some clinical psychiatrists in mental health clinics to which students are referred rely heavily on Freudian theory"(Klausmeier, 1985, p.213).

Secondly, "how to motivate learners" has formed a serious concern of associative theorists whose theory of motivation has crucial implications for education. Bigge

and Hunt (1962) mention that the associative theory aims at engaging pupils in effective learning of the activities, at a time when the advocates of the theory assume that learning can be automatically achieved through reinforcement. They further suggest that a prime objective of the theory is to stimulate interest in learners since interest implies the desire to learn and the avoidance of motivational problems.

Added to that, pupils' interest, according to the associative theory, can be sustained through the provision of rewards (Downey and Kelly, 1975). However, attention should be paid to pupils' maturation and their different stages of development which require a change in interest and in the type of the reward provided. Biehler (1974, p.410) states:

The behaviorist-associationist view of motivation still places great emphasis on external behavior and on the ways in which responses are reinforced. Students are reinforced for each correct answer by being given praise, prizes, candy (the human equivalent of a food pellet), or sometimes money.

It is evident that whatever the type of the reward a teacher uses, pupils' automatic responses on a routine basis would come to a standstill. This usually takes place as pupils sense that certain techniques frequently used by teachers are no longer effective (Biehler, 1974). Herein, the loss of appeal of reinforcement might arise and more difficulty of the learning task might follow. A very possible repercussion in this respect would be the demand

for greater rewards to carry out greater tasks that require greater effort. Similarly, "as soon as a student realizes that he is in a situation where no one is around to supply a pay-off, he is likely to abruptly drop an activity"(Biehler, 1974, p.420). This has been looked upon as a major drawback of the associative theory in the domain of education. It implies placing much stress on deficit motivation, while more limits are imposed on growth motivation. Deficit motivation refers to the state when a person's motivation to carry out a task is not up to the level required. To compensate for such a deficiency, teachers should make the subject matter more appealing to learners. This would, in turn, enhance learners' interest in accomplishing the task at hand. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, growth motivation means that learners' engagement in the varied learning tasks is to a satisfactory level. Any attempt to enhance motivation means the building up of more of it.

Thirdly, Maslow's humanistic theory of motivation has gained ground and advocacy in the domain of education (Klausmeier, 1985). Teachers rely heavily on it to deduce the means to identify pupils' basic needs which might hinder the gratification of other needs and would consequently cause disciplinary problems, personal problems or both. Fontana (1977, p.71) states that

Maslow criticises the psychoanalysts for missing the essential diversity of man. Of course man is motivated by the needs which they propose but it is wrong to lump all men together and say that everyone has sex, or self dis-

covery or social relationships, or what not, as his overriding need. All men are different and psychological theory must take account of this fact.

Maslow also argues that failure to satisfy learners' basic physiological and safety needs will hinder the development of the higher order needs, and in turn, less educational progress will be achieved. In other words, "a teacher should do everything possible to see that the lower level needs of students are satisfied so that they will be more likely to function at the higher levels"(Biehler, 1974, pp.513-4).

This initial gratification of pupils' lower needs is a basic essentiality within every educational setting. Teachers are mainly responsible for paving the way to such gratification since by so doing pupils would have more opportunity to experience growth motivation:

In schools, the need hierarchy can provide an effective means for examining the reason for students' behavior. . . . Simply familiarizing oneself with the home situation of students may indicate children for whom the satisfaction of physiological needs is a primary motivating factor.

(Waller and Gaa, 1974, pp.157-8)

In the following paragraphs, reference will be made to the basic needs mentioned in Maslow's hierarchical system of needs. Waller and Gaa (1974) will be the main source of information on the manifestations pupils make of these needs in the educational context.

At the inception, "students' orientation toward the

fulfilment of physiological needs can be seen in everyday classroom situations. All one must do is to observe the decrease in attention to academic concerns displayed by elementary students who must go to bathroom or by students when the lunch hour nears"(Waller and Gaa, 1974, pp.153-4).

Pupils' endeavour to fulfil safety needs is usually manifested by their avoidance of dangerous pupils and threatening situations. When these needs remain unsatisfied, they would influence behaviour, and pupils would be likely to divert their attention from the classroom activities to the search for the alternatives conducive to the gratification of such needs. Waller and Gaa (1974, p.154) state:

A student who is physically afraid of another student may be more concerned with avoiding that student and a potentially threatening situation than he is concentrating on classroom activities.

In terms of love and belonging needs, the school setting does not vary basically from one's home or social group at large in providing the experiences relevant to such needs.

The satisfaction of self-esteem needs within the domain of education usually leads to the feelings of self-confidence and to a sense of personal worth and adequacy, while their "thwarting . . . may lead to feelings of inferiority and weakness and in turn to a feeling of basic discouragement"(Waller and Gaa, 1974, p.155). This is

evident from the school situation as many pupils fail to achieve success and eventually disfavour the process of learning.

It is worthy of note that the fulfilment of self-esteem needs cannot lead easily to that of self-actualization ones. This is mainly displayed by those pupils who in spite of achieving success and fulfilling the self-esteem needs perceive their achievement as being below the level that they as individuals are fitted for. Waller and Gaa (1974) point out that the school can offer the best opportunity to provide such a type of motivation when encouragement and facilities for effective learning are provided.

Referring to Maslow (1968), Waller and Gaa (1974) argue that pupils in their endeavour to satisfy curiosity needs and to seek knowledge and understanding within the school environment do not differ from other members of the society. This is mainly due to the fact that

in Maslow's view, psychologically healthy people tend to be attracted to the mysterious, the unknown, the chaotic, as well as to an examination of the unrecognized and unexplained. These behaviors tend to be natural tendencies and not learned; children do not have to be taught to be curious.

(Waller and Gaa, 1974, p.156)

It is evident from what has been so far presented that the fulfilment of pupils' needs is important in sustaining their interest, and in achieving progress in the learning tasks.

Discontent with pupils needs to be fulfilled and consequently a better context of learning to be achieved is manifested by Peters (1981). He outlines the error of basing learning entirely on the needs of the pupil:

I do not want to deny the importance of needs like those of approval and security as motivational aids to learning. But more is meant than this by the progressives; they think that the content of learning should be determined by the children's needs. . . . Now if we are thinking of what children should learn at school which constitute a curriculum, my case is that the appeal to "needs", which is meant to give scientific respectability to the child-centered approach, is not very helpful. For needs which have been shown to be motivating in terms of such theories are largely irrelevant in determining the content of what should be learned.

(Peters, 1981, pp.133-4)

To summarize, in the light of the preceding statements, it is in order to say that each of the many different theoretical views may be useful in explaining certain elements of motivation in human beings. This is due to the changing character of the individual from infancy into childhood, the great and rich variability among human beings, and the difficulty in designating the factors that are really determining the direction of one's behaviours or the behaviours of others. Any deduced alignment among the preceding theories of motivation can provide the basis for the following principles of the concept set by Klausmeier (1985):

1. Establish a learning oriented environment. According to Klausmeier (1985), this includes the focusing of

students' attention on the learning activities, developing the intention to learn, and avoiding the creation of high anxiety.

2. Utilize students' needs and intrinsic motives to satisfy their physiological and growth needs. This requires "wise guidance and direction so that the students learn prosocial means of satisfying their needs. Therefore, the teacher encourages students to gratify their needs through socially accepted means"(Klausmeier, 1985, p.234).

3. Make the subject matter interesting. Referring to S. J. Taffel and K. D. O'Leary (1976), Klausmeier (1985) points out that this principle can be achieved through teachers' use of the many options available to them. For instance, teachers' enthusiasm for teaching the subject matter, the extent of success in relating it to students' real lives represented by their needs and concerns, and arranging for students to do the attractive activities that are relevant to the subject matter upon completing their assigned work, would increase interest in the subject.

4. Help each student set and attain goals. According to this principle, "a setting goal involves an intention to achieve and thereby serves to activate learning from one day to the next. . . Goal setting allows every student the opportunity to experience success, but works only if students make an effort and do not set unattainable goals"(Klausmeier, 1985, p.235).

5. Help students assume increasing responsibility for the learning activities. In this respect, both self-control and self-regulation can call for learners to decide the way an activity can be learned and the effort needed in accomplishing it. Referring to R. de Charms (1976, 1980), Klausmeier (1985, p.237) mentions that

another way of considering self-control of learning activities is its relation to personal causation, that is, originating actions rather than being controlled or manipulated by other persons.

6. Provide informative feedback and external control as necessary. Students, according to Klausmeier (1985), get informative feedback either personally by pursuing information independently or through their teachers. In the latter case, information tends to be in the form of the oral or written comments made by teachers.

Motivation and Learning:

For its most part, learning occurs naturally. Even within the school setting, a part of learning occurs incidentally as no prior preparations are made or efforts are spent to facilitate it. This does not deny the fact that efficient learning supported by motivation, guidance and assistance is usually required for the complex and uneasily performed tasks (McDonald, 1965; Nation, 1975). Atkinson (1968, pp.1-2) adds:

In the history of experimental psychology, the problem of motivation and the problem of learning- that is, how behaviour changes as a result

of training and practice- have been intimately linked.

Such a close link between motivation and learning has enhanced the role of the motivational factors in bringing about efficient and productive learning. In other words, "learning seems to be more complete and more efficient when it is energized and directed by strong motivational factors"(Hilgard and Russell, 1950, p.66).

Hence, motivation has been looked upon as one of the most important determinants of learning. Without motivation, a major portion of learning is not likely to take place.

By the same token, referring to N. E. Miller and J. Dollard (1941), Gardner and Lambert (1972, p.134) state:

In their view, learning requires the interplay of four essential components: motivation (the wanting aspect), perception (the noting aspect), responding (the doing aspect), and reward or reinforcement (the receiving aspect). If any component is neglected, learning will not take place, that is to say, if motivation were set to zero, for example, or if no reward were forthcoming for responses made, learning would be disrupted.

Although motivation is not the only factor that can facilitate learning, it has been proved to be an effective determinant of efficient learning. All "theorists in the field of learning either explicitly or by implication argue that a motivated creature is more likely to learn than one which is not"(Child, 1986, p.92).

Hilgard and Russell (1950) further suggest that motivation for learning is one of the basic essentials for

any set of educational experiences. It is neither innovated by the teacher at the start of a studying course nor applied apart from the learning situation. Motivation is the outcome of a process that usually includes a host of influential factors within the learner and the school environment at large. Teachers, in their attempt to promote learning, must focus on pupils' desires and natural tendencies. There are other effective motivating factors which should be heeded in this context. These are represented by teachers' personal traits and ways of behaviour, classroom environments, pupils' readiness, pupils' differences, teaching facilities, learning techniques, and administrative policies.

In the absence of motivation, as Di Vesta and Thompson (1970) point out, pupils tend to view even the simple tasks as sources of much difficulty and boredom. Their disfavour of the learning situation is characterized by the absence of any state of readiness or disposition towards learning tasks. Furthermore, unmotivated pupils are usually inattentive and unproductive. They are helpless to attack learning problems as motivated pupils do. They do not persist to reach the required solutions and eventually cannot learn.

Contrariwise, motivated pupils usually work purposefully and energetically while dealing with the learning tasks. "They display few if any 'discipline' problems. Consequently, a teacher who can keep his students well-motivated has won more than half the battle"(Bigge, 1971,

p.280).

To help teachers maintain pupils' motivation in the learning tasks, specialists have worked out some general principles that stand as working guidelines in this respect. Among the principles that Callahan (1971) suggests are: 1) Pupils show readiness to engage in learning actions of benefit for the maintenance of their way of life. 2) Pupils' motivation results partly from what they see in particular situations since each pupil sees only what his ability enables him to see. 3) Pupils' motivation is based on the interest they display in the learning task which in turn facilitates the achievement of better learning. 4) Pupils are usually motivated to achieve the interesting and desirable goals that are of more personal importance. They respond with less efforts to the less desired goals. 5) Learning tasks that imply rewards and benefits to learners can work as motivators for further learning. Referring to J. Bruner (1956), Clifford (1981, p.268) states:

The principle of motivation emphasizes that learning depends on the learner's state of readiness or predisposition toward learning. Bruner contends that children have a natural desire to learn. . . . Teachers who take advantage of these natural tendencies and desires are likely to further the child's intellectual growth.

Summing up, it has been evident that motivation is an essential factor in bringing about efficient learning. A further point that is worthy of note in this respect is that the direction of the relationship between motivation

and learning is reciprocal rather than unidirectional (Ausubel, 1968; Howe, 1972). In other words, successful learning can initiate the motivation required to carry out the learning task. This is mostly possible in the case of the new learners. Their early success in managing the first learning experience might guarantee their motivation for more efficient learning.

Types of Motivation in Education:

Relevant research has specified different types of motivation within the domain of education. Extrinsic, intrinsic, academic, and achievement motivation are very essential in pushing learners to undertake learning tasks with much energy and persistence. In the following pages, each one of the aforementioned types of motivation will be considered with emphasis on its role in the achievement of satisfactory learning.

1. Extrinsic Motivation:

As its name suggests, extrinsic motivation is aroused by factors which work from outside the learner and urge him into action (Callahan, 1971; Kozeki and Entwistle, 1983). In other words, extrinsic motivation is the state where the reasons for the learning efforts have nothing to do with the content of the learning material.

Workman and Williams (1980) specify rewards, praise and good grades as the most effective extrinsic motivators available to teachers to arouse learners' interest and, in

turn, their motivation to learn. Entwistle (1987, p.2) adds:

Extrinsic motivation depends on the use of external rewards in the form of gold stars, marks or exam grades, presents for good exam results, or certificates which provide to good employment prospects.

Moreover, punishment, rebuke, reproof, and threat of disapproval can side with rewards, praise and good grades as additional external motivators powerful enough to evoke learners' motivation. Callahan (1971, p.276) states:

Among these external forces are rewards, punishments, physical circumstances, and the desires of others. The teacher's praise, the teacher's rebuke, a fire alarm in the school building, parental ambitions may thus be viewed as extrinsic motivators.

Learners might also be extrinsically motivated when they come under the pressure of others, among whom parents, friends and the people at school are the most important (Whitehead, 1984). Commenting on the same point, Child (1986, p.57) argues that

praise and reproof from a respected teacher are powerful incentives. Children delight in approval in the presence of their peers.

Although extrinsically motivated learners are primarily engaged in learning tasks which seem to eventuate in valuable extrinsic rewards, there are also other additional external consequences that are vital in sustaining such an engagement by learners. Peters (1981) refers to the link between extrinsic motivation and the

achievement of a goal or the satisfaction of a need. According to him, learners might view certain external motivators, educational qualifications for example, as providing better job prospects. Such an assumption makes the occurrence of overlapping between extrinsic motivation on the one hand, and instrumental motivation in foreign language learning on the other quite possible. It is not intended to enlarge upon the topic of 'instrumental motivation' since a full section will be devoted to it later within the current chapter.

It is evident that the content of the learning materials does not necessarily appeal to learners who are extrinsically motivated. Learners tend to forget about this content as soon as the extrinsic purposes they are after are met. To put it differently, "in addition to poor retention of the materials learned, extrinsic motivation usually leads to careless, inaccurate learning. The learning task is hurried through as quickly as possible so that the reward may be obtained"(Bigge, 1971, p.281).

Yet, in spite of the drawbacks inherent in the use of extrinsic motivators, Child (1986) claims that teachers are broadly relying on them as the best incentives to encourage learning and to make teaching materials as well as classroom environments appeal to learners. Moreover, extrinsic motivators can make learners apply themselves to learning with the primary goal of not assimilating the subject content for their own enlightenment but, as Peters (1981) suggests, to pass an examination, to please a

teacher, and to avoid punishment.

2. Intrinsic Motivation:

Unlike extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation is well represented by the forces derived from or inherent in the learning task itself. Such forces "originate within the individual and impel him to seek a given goal" (Callahan, 1971, p.275). In other words, the subject content provides its own reward. It is done for its own sake without any external pay-off, at a time when its relevance to the learner is the main reason behind the learning process (Bigge, 1971; Bates, 1979; Whitehead, 1984). A learner of this type of motivation usually perceives his engagement in the learning task to be the outcome of some internal factors which push him to achieve certain objectives. Referring to N. J. Entwistle et al. (1974), Kozeki and Entwistle (1983, p.187) argue that

intrinsic motivation is derived from the task itself . . . (either directly) - learning for learning sake . . . (or indirectly) where intrinsic motivation is aroused because the activity can be used to satisfy some inner 'need' of the individual, for example to increase self-esteem or to overcome feelings of inferiority.

Klausmeier (1985) states that interest, competence, and curiosity have been widely accepted as best initiators of intrinsic motivation. Interest stands for learners' application to the learning activities that can serve as ends in themselves, and not as means to get at other external objectives. Herein, the fascination of the

content engenders in learners the so-called content interest and motivates them to learn.

Competence is rather selective and persistent. It is an intrinsic need to tackle an activity. Competence leads to the mastery of the tasks and problems and is not influenced by extrinsic motivators.

Finally, curiosity can also be accounted for as an intrinsic force that energizes exploratory activity without external stimulation or reinforcement. Curiosity can be reduced as the individual's doing of a given activity is repeated. Referring to J. M. Hunt (1969), Whitehead (1984, p.26) is quoted as saying:

Individuals are attracted towards a task which arouses their curiosity by its incongruity with their previous experience. The task is worked on until the incongruity is resolved, which usually involves either the modification of cognitive plans, . . . or the development of new ones.

Peters (1981, p.137) states that

Berlyne [1961, 1965] suggested that [curiosity as] a kind of motivation, if skilfully employed by teachers, will increase the retention of new materials as well as improve the understanding of it. It will occasion the active search for information and problem-solving by directed thinking.

It is worth mentioning that interest, competence and curiosity are available in learners in varying degrees. Therefore, Klausmeier (1985) advises teachers to arrange activities according to learners' interests, or to encourage the expression of curiosity through the choice of the experiments to be conducted or books to be read.

Yet a teacher's task is not so easy in such a situation because, as Whitehead (1984) suggests, the amount of research available on the effect of intrinsic motivation on learning in schools is small. This is mainly due to the difficulty inherent in handling intrinsic motivation experimentally, and, as Parkins (1976) states, in finding a sample of learners with real differences in their intrinsic motivation to study the materials proposed for research investigation.

3. Academic Motivation:

This type of motivation is regarded as the outcome of a high level of learners' intrinsic motivation in their handling of the various learning activities. Academic motivation subsumes all the psychological and social factors which prompt learners to exert more effort in the carrying out of the activities in question (Moen and Doyle, 1968).

Entwistle (1968, p.181) defines academic motivation as "a concept which has been introduced to explain some of the differences in the school attainment of children with similar measured abilities."

Accordingly, learners of high academic motivation approach learning tasks with a challenging spirit. They try to change such tasks into more pleasurable and appealing ones in spite of the difficulty and the novelty they imply.

Referring to K. O. Doyle and R. E. Moen (1968), Fry

and Coe (1980) state that academically motivated learners are characterized by the desire for self-improvement, desire for esteem, enjoyment of assertive interactions, resentment of poor teaching, enjoyment of learning, academic success, and desire for career preparation.

Because academic motivation is very closely related to achievement at school and is usually evident in learners of high intelligence, Vernon (1969) states that this type of motivation largely depends on learners' ability. Furthermore, interest as a basic component of intrinsic motivation is very effective in enhancing academic motivation. It is worth mentioning that content interest which stresses learning as an end in itself, i.e. learning for learning sake, pushes learners who are academically motivated to show more readiness to engage in the learning tasks.

For his part, Frymier (1971) perceives academic motivation as a protrusion from the personality structure. It is difficult to think of academic motivation unless the fundamental construct of learners' personalities is accounted for. Frymier further designates perception, values, and curiosity as three crucial elements to be available within academic motivation. The relevance of these three elements to academic motivation has made the latter an essential component of the personality structure. Firstly, perception is the process by which a learner observes himself and others. In other words, "it is the element of self-concept and the concept of others..

That is, the dynamic interplay of perception of self and perception of others seems to be one central factor in academic motivation"(Frymier, 1971, p.243). Values form a second central and essential component of academic motivation. Learners who are academically motivated value learning activities and other relevant goals in a manner different from unmotivated learners. Finally, academically motivated learners are more open to tackle the new, novel and unknown experiences. Their curiosity pushes them to investigate and experience the unknown learning activities.

In terms of its measurement, academic motivation questionnaires usually contain more specific questions that seek information on learners' academic work. For instance, questions like, "Is getting to University an important aim in life? Do you try to please your teacher with your work?" are used in the studying of learners' academic motivation. Kozeki and Entwistle (1983) point out that the 1960s witnessed the first steps towards the measurement of academic achievement motivation in the USA through a scale developed by J. A. Finger and G. E. Schlessler. The success of this scale prompted the development of a similar scale to measure the academic motivation of pupils in British secondary schools.

4. Achievement Motivation:

Achievement motivation starts early in life as children develop the experiences to master "learning to

talk, read, write and so on"(Peters, 1981, p.138), or to master "their environment and to meet rather high standards of excellence"(Guskin and Guskin, 1970, p.103). Atkinson (1968, p.241) mentions that

the disposition called achievement motive might be conceived as a capacity for taking pride in accomplishment when success at one or another activity is achieved.

The most widely known theory of achievement motivation by Atkinson, 1957, 1964; and Atkinson and Raynor, 1977, suggests that achievement behaviour is the outcome of an emotional conflict between the hope for success and fear of failure. Learners who achieve success attribute it to their ability, at a time when failure is attributed to a lack of effort. Contrariwise, failure-prone people ascribe it to the lack of ability, while they ascribe success to external factors such as luck.

Since achievement motivation is of an essential role in determining learners' performance at school, in its absence, learners' achievement does not come up to the standard, and they cannot deal successfully with academic tasks.

Relevant research has pointed out that the experiences and standards of excellence which initiate achievement motivation are firstly set in children's social environment by parents or other significant individuals (Guskin and Guskin, 1970; Peters, 1971). Within the school, learners come under the influence of their teachers and peers. Learners, according to Frymier

(1971, p.244), start to conceive "some optimum motivational level which would result in maximum achievement and maximum performance. . . . Beyond that point, motivation probably gets in the way of learning. When it drops below that level, there is not enough of it to encourage appropriate learning activity. So the relationship between motivation and achievement apparently looks like this: motivation goes up, achievement goes up, to a certain point; then as motivation continues to rise, achievement falls off". In the latter case, a learner's failure can be attributed to the high level of anxiety in tackling the learning task at hand. This is why some highly motivated pupils cannot achieve as expected on the very day of the examination.

It is evident that learners have a need of achievement in the course of developing their learning abilities. Such a need, as Atkinson (1968) clarifies, is different from one learner to another in terms of its strength. The reason lies in the contrasting need to avoid failure. For instance, some learners have a high level of motivation to achieve and prefer moderately difficult and risky tasks which require skill and ability.

Child (1986) suggests three components of the motive to achieve. Firstly, there is the task-oriented component which implies the satisfaction of the need to know and understand. It also implies the idea that the fulfilment of a task involves the reward of discovering new knowledge. Secondly, the self-oriented component implies the

desire to increase one's prestige and status, good scholastic doing and feelings of adequacy and self-esteem. Thirdly, the motive of affiliation implies the use of academic success as a means to recognition by those on whom the learner depends for assurance. Parents usually play an active part in the young child's affiliation need. Within the school setting, the teacher becomes the main source of pupils' affiliation satisfaction. Finally, it is worthy of note that these three components of achievement motivation have varied degrees of strength from one situation to another especially when the individual gets older.

Since achievement motivation centres mainly upon the achievement of goals and the efforts made to attain such goals, its measurement can contribute to the measurement of learners' educational attainment. Russell (1971) mentions that David C. McClelland and others (1949) explored the discovery of the measurement of the achievement motivation. He further states that "since 1950, several aspects of the achievement motive have been explored. . . . High and low levels of motivation have been examined"(Russell, 1971, p.40), due to their relation to learners' performance and achievement.

4.6 Motivation and Language Learning:

Motivation in language learning derives from the practice of language as a human activity of much assistance in making people communicate, learn, express

themselves, and live together. At the outset, the "learning of the mother tongue is interpreted as a process of interaction between the child and other human beings" (Halliday, 1983, pp.5-6). Added to that,

the determining elements in the young child's experience are the successful demands on language that he himself has made, the particular needs that have been satisfied by language for him. He has used language in many ways- for the satisfaction of material and intellectual needs, for the mediation of personal relationships, the expression of feelings and so on. Language in all these uses has come within his own direct experience, and because of this he is subconsciously aware that language has many functions that affect him personally. Language is, for the child, a rich and adaptable instrument for the realization of his intentions; there is hardly any limit to what he can do with it.

(Halliday, 1973, p.10)

By the same token, Gardner and Lambert (1972, p.191) state:

Theoretical attempts to explain how the child learns his first language have emphasized a particular type of motivation. Mowrer's theory suggests that language acquisition is motivated by a desire to be like valued members of the family and, later, of the whole linguistic community.

Yet, to learn a language other than one's first language is a different issue. For instance, "the motivation towards foreign language learning" which I am intending to investigate is that of learners who have no option in learning the language. In other words, it is a language that is taught obligatorily at all educational levels in Iraq, and learners approach learning it with

different levels of motivation and interest.

Within formal educational settings, the motivation of learners and teachers is a crucial determinant of efficient language learning. Yet, in spite of its cruciality, Lee (1975) states that the subject has called researchers' attention only very recently. This is evident from the relatively little systematic investigation of the various aspects of language learning motivation in the past.

In terms of their motivation, learners form an influential factor within the learning situation. They usually approach the process of language learning with different levels of motivation (Girard, 1977). On the one hand, many strongly motivated learners may very much want to take later benefit from learning the language. Consequently, they maintain a strong motivation as they realize the use of language as a means to fulfil some objectives, and to create situations that will facilitate the accomplishment of such objectives. On the other hand, weakly motivated learners are negatively oriented towards learning the foreign language which they may not use very much. Their lack of the required abilities, parental support, and high achievement orientation is usually coupled with low intrinsic interest in learning the language (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). It is this type of learners that should be heeded in the language learning classes. Commenting on the same point, Wilkins (1978, pp.52-3) states:

Weakly motivated learners by definition, have difficulty in recognizing long-term benefits and need to find the learning process itself an interesting one.

As for teachers, their role as facilitators of foreign-language learning should not be underestimated. In addition to their task to fuel learners with the required motivation, teachers themselves are supposed to approach the task of teaching the language with enough motivation. Motivated language teachers tend to turn their classes into enjoyable and pleasurable learning situations (Finocchiaro, 1969; Dry, 1977), since students learn better in supportive nonthreatening environments (Scoval, 1978). Finally, motivated language teachers are always successful in their search for the easy and the most effective ways of motivating pupils, something that can be achieved by teachers' high standards of linguistic competence and the teaching experience they have undergone.

4.6 Motivation and Foreign Language Learning:

Introduction:

A primary motive by the majority of learners of a foreign language is the use of language as a means of communication especially when a clear-cut need for such communication exists (Rivers, 1969). This motive is usually enhanced by learners' interest in the foreign language and its learning. Accordingly, learners' interest, and in turn, their motivation to learn a foreign language have been accounted for by almost every foreign language

specialist since motivation is assumed to form the solid basis of the successful process of foreign language learning.

Added to that, the noticeable differences among learners in their motivation to learn a foreign language has been a second focal point of interest to researchers in the field. They have concluded that motivation is varied from one group of learners to another, and within each group from one individual to another. While some learners can easily manage learning a foreign language, others seem to be unsuccessful in this respect and experience failure (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). In other words,

there is a variety in degree and in nature, from the most highly motivated pupils to those whose motivation seems to be nil or, even worse, who have developed a kind of anti-motivation, if only through realising their inability to learn the language.

(Girard, 1977, p.98)

In the light of what has been demonstrated, motivation seems to be very influential in determining learners' success or failure in learning a foreign language. This is why attention should be called to the "different problems of motivation [that] arise at the three stages of foreign-language study (launching out, getting to grips with the language, and consolidating lasting language habits at an advanced level)"(Rivers, 1969, p.82). (For more information, see the Section on

'Factors Affecting Motivation to Learn Foreign Languages' of the current chapter).

Historical Background:

In spite of the role played by motivation in bringing about the differences in learners' attainment of a foreign language, the subject of motivation in language learning and teaching suffered some neglect until very recently. This is evident, as Lee (1975) demonstrates, from the small amount of past research on the motivational aspect of foreign language learning.

O'Doherty (1969) argues that in the past, examples of social motivation that determined the choice of second language learning were easy to be found. O'Doherty refers in this respect to the use of French in Russia, Poland and Prussia in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

Recent studies have placed emphasis on the role of motivation in foreign language learning. Quoting W. E. Lambert (1963, p.114), Jakobovitz (1971, p.244) writes:

After a series of investigations on the study of French in the Montreal, Main and Louisiana settings, Lambert (1963) reaches the following conclusion: "The results indicate that, similar to the Montreal studies, two independent factors underlie the development of skill in learning a second language: an intellectual capacity and an appropriate attitudinal orientation toward the other language group coupled with a determined motivation to learn the language".

Gardner and Lambert (1972), who have conducted a series of studies on the attitudinal and motivational variables in the study of second or foreign language ,

ascribe such a dearth in literature to the difficulty encountered while conceptualizing and measuring the motivational variables which determine learners' success in second language learning. These motivational variables are primarily represented by learners' instrumental and integrative motivation, level of parental encouragement, need for achievement, fear of failure, and attitudinal differences.

Early in the 1980s and as a result of a test carried out on a sample of 750 German children learning English as a foreign language, Hermann (1980) has found that a learner's satisfaction with his or her achievement in learning the foreign language might influence personal attitudes towards the foreign people. This might, in turn, result in a higher or lower degree of motivation towards learning the language. Commenting on Hermann's study, Strong (1980, p.4) adds:

Recent Research by Hermann (1980) has raised a further fundamental issue concerning the relationship between motivation and language learning. She proposes an equally plausible but hitherto ignored hypothesis, namely, that the act of learning another language may affect cultural attitudes rather than vice versa.

In the following sections, "types of motivation in foreign language learning" will be presented with more emphasis on the past relevant studies.

Types of Motivation in Foreign Language Learning:

Motivation is defined as an internal force that pushes the individual in a given direction and prompts him or her to seek goals (Bernard, 1972). In everyday life, different objects can represent the goals towards which individuals are disposed.

In the domain of foreign language learning, learners' motivation stems mainly from their endeavour to achieve certain desirable objectives. Answers to questions like the following will definitely cast more light on most of the objectives that foreign language learners strive to achieve:

- What purposes does learning a foreign language serve?
- What benefits does learning a foreign language imply?
- What is the role of the foreign community and culture in enabling people to learn the foreign language?
- How far do the personal, educational, social, and cultural factors affect learning a foreign language?

Because learning a foreign language is usually intended for varied instrumental and integrative objectives, and not only communication in the language, it holds true that noticeable differences do exist in learners' approach in this context:

It has been argued, notably by Gardner and

Lambert and their associates, that the successful acquisition of a foreign language depends, in the main, on specific motivational factors.

(Burstall, 1975, p.6)

Furthermore, motivation to learn a foreign language is a term of a wide-ranging use and implies a number of quite distinct motives and purposes. As a result, there have been, from time to time, varied factors that motivate learners to learn foreign languages. Yet, almost all pupils who start studying a foreign language do not perceive the objectives behind such a study at the very beginning. This usually occurs as pupils do not start learning the language on their own initiative. They might come under different sources of pressure of which the obligatory system of the curriculum is very influential. This is why learners of various ages within various settings have always displayed various purposes behind learning the language. It is intended to limit the discussion on these purposes to the Iraqi context. There are, for instance, young learners of English within formal educational settings who find in the learning of the language a means to get into university, round off university studies, communicate with English native speakers, travel or study abroad, and seek a good job or increase the chances of getting it (Ministry of Education, 1987).

There is also a second group of more "mature adult" learners who study English by joining the informal courses held for this purpose. They perceive learning English as

a means to fulfil some immediate and short-term needs. For instance, career ambitions in terms of refining knowledge for personal or professional reasons, large business projects, meaningful contact with a new range of people, and doing something well and truly different from the primary reasons behind their endeavour to learn the language.

What is of merit to the present research is the first group of learners who learn the foreign language within formal educational settings for purely educational purposes and job prospects after rounding off their studies. Rivers (1969, pp.80-1) refers to such a group of learners by stating:

Many students pursue foreign language studies as a requirement or as a basic tool for later purposes (study, professional reading, or travel) and are willing to trust the teacher's judgement as to the best way to achieve these goals efficiently.

1. Instrumental Motivation:

Instrumental motivation emphasizes the "utilitarian aspects" of learning the foreign language (Gardner, 1982). It implies the fulfilment of educational and professional benefits inherent in learning the language so as to satisfy one's personal needs. Quoting Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Wilkins (1974), Lee (1975, p.76) writes:

Gardner and Lambert themselves do not expand on the term 'instrumental motivation': they mention only the desire to "get ahead in one's occupation" and the desire to "gain social recog-

nition or economic advantages. D. A. Wilkins gives five examples which he regards as 'instrumental' reasons for learning a language: "to pass an examination, to use in one's job, to use on holiday in the country, as a change from watching television," and "because the educational system requires it." [Wilkins] adds: "The instrumentally motivated learner requires the language as a means to some other end."

Thus, learning a foreign language for instrumental purposes is perceived to be a useful means to get at other goals of which "good qualification" and "better employment prospects" form the most dominant (Littlewood, 1984).

In terms of their perceptions of foreign people, learners of a foreign language who are instrumentally motivated usually regard the foreign "cultural group and their language as an instrument of personal satisfaction, with few signs of an interest in the other people" (Gardner and Lambert, 1972, p.15). They, i.e. learners, usually add to their low interest in the members of the other cultural group a desire to use them and their language as a tool to achieve more social recognition or economic advantage. This is why instrumentally motivated learners have from time to time proved to have less chances of success in learning the foreign language (Lukmani, 1972). To put it differently, they fail to bring about the required level of linguistic skills due to their emphasis upon the utilitarian value of learning the foreign language with no further efforts to approach the foreign community and its culture. Added to that, since their contact with the foreign language is determined by the

duration that the achievement of their objectives and purposes behind learning the language lasts, and since their very sense of narrow utilitarian purposes may act as a filter on foreign language input, most instrumentally motivated learners are very likely to allow their competence in the language to decline as soon as their utilitarian need for it is satisfied (Johnstone, 1989).

2. Integrative Motivation:

Contrary to instrumental motivation, integrative motivation does not emphasize the utilitarian, including educational and professional, benefits behind learning a foreign language (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Lukmani, 1972; Littlewood, 1984). It usually stresses more identification with the foreign group and its culture, and the adoption of different features of behaviour which characterize that linguistic and cultural group.

Moreover, foreign language learners who are integratively motivated usually seek the development of "personal ties", interaction, and satisfactory communication with members of the foreign group (Gardner et al., 1979). One example of integrative motivation is learning the foreign language in order to learn more about the foreign community and their way of life:

A learner with integrative motivation has a genuine interest in the second language community. He wants to learn their language in order to communicate with them more satisfactorily and to gain closer contact with them and their culture.

The integrative learner would wish for more

social contact and also be happier in adopting speech patterns from the other group.

(Littlewood, 1984, p.57)

It is worthy of note that "integrative motivation" has been generally shown to be the most effective type of motivation due to its key role in bringing about permanent success in foreign language learning. Wilkins (1978) designates two types of foreign language learners. Firstly, there are learners who are interested in the foreign language and culture for its own sake. These learners are integratively motivated to learn the foreign language. Secondly, there are learners who are learning a language for some specific purpose. According to Wilkins, integratively motivated learners are the more successful language learners. Similarly, Lukmani (1972) specifies two types of motivation for language learning, instrumental and integrative. She further states that "the presence of the latter is necessary to successful mastery of the high levels of proficiency, signalled by the development of a native-like accent and the ability to think like a 'native-speaker'"(p.261).

Such willingness by integratively-motivated learners to identify with and share certain characteristics of the foreign linguistic community has made the objectives behind learning the foreign language of both long- and short-term types. For instance, "the integratively oriented learner might be better motivated because the nature of his goals is more likely to sustain the long

term effort needed to master a second language"(Gardner and Lambert, 1972, p.16), or he might actively need contact with the other culture and its speakers so as to 1) fulfil very immediate short-term goals, and 2) obtain a rich variety of relevant input that would enhance his general proficiency in the language.

Yet, it is rarely possible to come across learners with exclusively instrumental or integrative motivation. Both types of motivation can be found simultaneously and in a way that makes it difficult to exclude either type (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Lee, 1975; Brown, 1980; Littlewood, 1984; Ely, 1986). This is mostly evidenced by those learners who are motivated by a mixture of instrumental and integrative reasons. Referring to Siguan and Macky (1987, p.80), Baker (1988, p.157) states that

somebody who learns a language for the main purpose of becoming integrated in the group who speaks it may also believe that integration in the new group will have personal advantages for him and will even help him to rise in society.

Finally, "Need for Achievement" and "Fear of Failure" form additional types of motivation appropriate for the short-term goals in learning a foreign language. Yet, as Gardner and Lambert (1972) point out, such types of motivation are not enough to maintain the perseverance required for the tiring and demanding task of developing a satisfactory competence of the new language.

The following section will outline the findings of some of the past studies on the role of motivation as a

central factor in foreign language learning. More emphasis will be placed on the type or types of motivation that each study has investigated.

Literature Review:

The findings by almost all researchers in the domain of "motivation in foreign language learning" have been overwhelmingly in favour of either instrumental or integrative motivation.

Lambert (1959) carried out a study on a sample of English-speaking students learning French in Montreal, followed by similar studies with other groups of students. He noted that students' proficiency scores were related to integrative motivation (Burstall, 1975).

Spolsky (1969) tested three groups of overseas students attending universities in the USA and found out that integrative motivation accompanied high scores in English.

Referring to the study by Gardner and Santos (1970), Burstall (1975, p.7) writes:

Reporting their study of foreign-language learning in the Philippines, Gardner and Santos (1970) conclude: 'In this cultural context where the second language has unequivocal instrumental value, students who are instrumentally oriented and who receive support from their parents for this orientation are more successful in acquiring the second language than students not evidencing this supported type of orientation'.

Gardner and Lambert's studies which culminated in their salient study in (1972) of pupils studying French in the states of Maine, Louisiana, and Connecticut demonstrated learners' integrative motivation to learn French.

Gardner and his associates have only recently started to give up the viewpoint that integratively motivated learners can always achieve better learning of the foreign language. They suggest that the obvious practical value behind learning a foreign language within a certain cultural context might lead to a superior achievement in learning the language.

Lukmani (1972) carried out a study with Marathi-speaking high-school students to find out their proficiency in English and the nature of their orientation to learn the language. Proficiency in English was found to be significantly related to instrumental rather than integrative orientation.

The National Foundation for Educational Research (1974), under the direction of Clare Burstall, carried out a series of studies on the teaching of French as a foreign language in Britain. There was a significant correlation between pupils' attitudes and achievement in French, yet individual pupil's motivation seemed to be "neither exclusively integrative nor wholly instrumental". Burstall (1975, p.7), demonstrating the findings of her study, states:

On the one hand, the majority of pupils taking part in the experiment, whether they liked learning French or not, tended to share an integrative motivation, evincing a strong desire for contact with French people and agreeing that they were primarily learning French in order to be able to communicate with other speakers of the language. On the other hand, there was also ample evidence of instrumental motivation in the emphasis placed by the experimental pupils on the "pay-off" value of

learning French, in terms of enhanced employment opportunities.

Referring to Braj Kachru (1977), Brown (1980, p.115) states:

Braj Kachru (1977) has noted that Indian English is but one example of a variety of Englishes, which, especially in Third World countries where English has become an international language, and can be acquired very successfully for instrumental reasons alone.

Brown (1980) further suggests that the recent findings in this respect are not necessarily contradictory to the integrative motivation findings by Lambert. Some learners within certain settings can achieve more success in learning the foreign language when they are integratively motivated, while other learners in other different contexts are more successful and take more benefit from "instrumental motivation".

The following figure shows some of the well-known studies that were carried out to specify the instrumental or integrative types of motivation. The studies are listed in terms of the samples, the tested foreign or second language, and the arrived at results:

FIGURE (4.3): DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESULTS OF THE STUDIES ON INSTRUMENTAL AND INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION.

Researcher	Sample ----- Under Test	Language	Findings
1. Lambert (1959)	English-Speaking Students in the USA and Canada	French	High Correlation between Proficiency & Integrative Motivation
2. Spolsky (1969)	Groups of Overseas Students Attending Universities in the USA.	English	Integrative Motivation + High Scores in English
3. Gardner & Santos (1970)	Philippines	English	Instrumental Motivation
4. Gardner & Lambert (1972)	Students Learning French in the States of Maine, Louisiana and Connecticut + Canadian Universities	French	Integrative Motivation
5. Lukmani (1972)	Marathi-Speaking High-School Students	English	Proficiency Significantly Related to Instrumental Motivation
6. N.F.E.R. Burstall (1975)	Schools in the United Kingdom	French	A Mixture of Integrative and Instrumental Motivation
7. Braj Kachru (1977)	Schools in India	Indian English	Instrumental Motivation

A close look into the findings of the aforelisted studies in terms of integrative or instrumental motivation leads to the following concluding points:

1. The three studies carried out in the Far East, one in the Philippines and the other two in India are the only ones from among the whole list where instrumental rather than integrative motivation has been found. Such findings may probably be due to the following reasons:

a. Since English represents the second or the foreign language under study, it is not surprising that the respondents have found in its international reputation as a language used in almost all aspects of everyday life a means to fulfil a host of objectives which their native languages fail to bring about.

b. There is much emphasis in Third World countries on the matter of social recognition and other similar aspects of one's everyday life. For instance, to speak or to communicate with others in a foreign language usually reflects the individual's personality as educated, enlightened, and knowledgeable, and enhances others' respect for him or her. Respondents might have found in English a means to accomplish such objectives.

c. Owing to the conservative nature of the eastern societies where much emphasis is placed upon social relations and traditions, concomitant with high feelings of nationalism, the subjects might have found in the integrative implications of learning English something that violates what they have been originally brought up

to respect, namely sticking to one's own people.

2. Burstall's study on primary schools in the United Kingdom is the only study that has come out with a mixture of integrative and instrumental motivations. The weakness of this study lies in the emphasis by the researcher on just one reason, namely "pay-off value of learning French in terms of enhanced employment opportunities" which is not enough to make half of the results be ascribed to instrumental motivation (Brown, 1980).

3. According to Baker (1988), the studies in the USA and Canada yield results that favour integrative motivation, but do so in different ways. These results are considerably influenced by the status of the particular language under consideration, in relation to the dominant language of the society, i.e. English. In Canada, the middle-class, English-speaking community favours a concept of a multicultural society and hence favours the existence of two main languages within that society, English and French. English-speaking parents accordingly have been keen to send their pupils to "immersion" schools in which much or all of the curriculum will be taught/learned through French. Their wish is probably not so much that their children will integrate into a French-speaking society as into a Canadian society in which a number of cultures, and their languages often exist harmoniously together. The motivation of French-speakers in Quebec, on

the other hand, has a tendency to be protective of the French language and culture of Quebec, rather than integrative. In the USA, the English-speaking community generally does not experience integrative motivation towards the languages of the other communities, for instance Hispanic because the dominant cultural strategy appears to be more assimilationist than multicultural, i.e. pushing everyone to becoming anglophone. However, the motivation of certain sections of the other cultural communities, especially of those within them who wish to prosper according to the values and criteria of the dominant anglophone group, offers to be at least partly integrative, i.e. becoming absorbed into the dominant culture in order to play the game by its rules in order in turn to prosper in life (in itself, a partly instrumental objective).

With special reference to Spolsky's study on a sample of overseas students attending universities in the USA, respondents may have thought that they have achieved some instrumental objectives. Their next step is represented by more identification with the American society. This is why the result of the study has been in favour of integrative motivation.

4. It is interesting that most of the studies carried out with English as the language under investigation have come out with instrumental motivation findings. The latter are contrary to the integrative motivation findings arrived at with French as the language under

investigation. The instrumental motivation of the learners of English emphasizes the role of the language as a tool of much utility in everyday life in comparison to French.

Factors Affecting Motivation to Learn Foreign Languages:

Motivation, as it is outlined earlier in this chapter, forms a powerful prerequisite for effective learning. Likewise, the problem of motivation in foreign language learning has always formed an essential component of a wider range of problems encountered by learners within the domain of education at large. It is the type of problem that finds its origin in the forms of motivation in the surrounding social group, and in the way the school is related to a pupil's social context. Hilgard and Russell (1950, p.66) state:

Motivation must be considered, not as a temporary device to stimulate interest, but as a complex of the needs of the child and the social situation in which he lives. As such, motivational factors are continually shifting as the child develops and as new elements enter the home-school-community pattern.

In the domain of foreign language learning, "the degree and nature of the learner's motivation are vital factors in any component for an ELT programme, and should powerfully influence the teaching strategies involved" (Lott, 1978, p.87). Pupils' reaction to the language and their motivation to learn it come under the influence of a complicated host of factors relevant to pupils' past and present experiences. The ultimate outcome is usually

represented by varied levels of motivation that range between being either high and strong or low and weak.

It is not intended solely to enlarge upon those factors that inhibit motivation or bring it to zero. The factors which may act positively and enhance pupils' motivation to learn the foreign language will also be considered. According to Gardner (1979), these factors are mainly represented by the variables: social milieu, individual differences, and second language acquisition contexts and outcomes. Kharma (1977, p.103) further suggests that these

motivating factors may vary so widely from one community to another that what applies to one situation may not apply at all to another. In discussing motivation, therefore, one has to be very careful to specify the situation one is dealing with and to describe it fully, so that the picture resulting from the discussion is clear but situation-specific.

In an attempt to present the motivational factors in a comprehensive manner, the factors that work from within the pupils, represented by their personal characteristics and individual differences, will first be considered. These will be followed by the social factors related to a pupil's home and society at large. Finally, reference will be made to the educational factors within the school setting, including a detailed account of those within the classroom.

1. Personal Factors:

At the inception, learners' personal characteristics

form decisive factors that can bring about a great deal of variation in their motivation to learn a foreign language. They can determine pupils' approach to or avoidance of learning the language in question. Gardner (1979) points out that four major variables, namely learners' intelligence, language aptitude, motivation, and situational anxiety can influence their approach to the second language acquisition process.

Referring to L. J. Cronbach and R. E. Snow (1977), Klausmeier defines aptitude as "any characteristic of the learner that correlates positively with an outcome of learning. For example, the student's entering achievement level, learning style, intellectual ability, and motivational state are all regarded as aptitudes for learning"(Klausmeier, 1985, p.185). Aptitude differs from proficiency as the latter means "the extent to which the student's mastery of the foreign language is adequate for future needs, and can therefore be characterized as forward-pointing"(Faerch et al., 1984, p.244).

Consequently, pupils of limited intellectual ability, uninterested, and unprepared to be engaged in the task of learning the foreign language have constantly demonstrated frustration and less motivation to learn. Kuethe (1968) states that introversion or shyness are additional and common problems in foreign-language classes. A pupil might have the desire and the enthusiasm for participation, but his avoidance of other pupils' ridicule of the wrong consequences of such participation makes him or her

unmotivated to take part in the language activities. Such a desire might often be coupled with pupils' conflicting motivation of anxiety, agitation, and alternates between approach to and avoidance of the learning situation.

Callahan (1971, p.19) adds:

Motivation for the bright as well as for the dull student is also related to the self-concept of the learner. Having undergone specific experiences, students develop mental pictures of what they can and will do. A confident learner looks forward to success, and the student who can consistently experience success approaches new tasks with confidence. Successful experiences, therefore, are clearly related to motivation.

In the preceding quotation, Callahan refers to 'bright learners' from a positive viewpoint only. It is wiser to say that "brighter pupils will learn more, or will be frustrated by lack of opportunity to learn"(Parkinson et al., 1981, p.21). However, successful performance usually heightens the motivation to learn and provides pupils with intensive and pleasurable practice in carrying out varied language activities. "With all pupils", says Finocchiaro (1969, p.244), "success is the best motivation". Contrariwise, the fear of failure and anxiety in tackling new learning tasks can either enhance motivation or deter it. In the latter case, pupils adopt avoidance behaviour. Their motivation to approach foreign language learning situation might flag due to frustration and constant failure in the foreign language study. This is so because "one is more motivated to study a subject one likes, or alternatively, that one tends to

be motivated in subjects one succeeds in"(Pierson et al., 1980, p.297).

Pupils' perception of the foreign language as a tool that would help in the fulfilment of the different instrumental and integrative objectives can powerfully affect their motivation to learn. This is mainly due to the assumption that "success in learning is very closely related to the extent of one's need to know the language" (Howe, 1972, p.208).

Sex differences is another factor that influences pupils' motivation to learn a foreign language. Referring to Reinhold Freudenstein (1978) and Marianne Lautrop (1980), Faerch et al. (1984, pp.209-10) add:

Another factor which could be of importance for motivation is the fact that sex roles are reinforced by the stereotyping which characterizes teaching materials. All too often the target culture is presented through traditional sex roles, i.e. with women confined to the home or subordinate positions. Although it is true that the English-speaking world is male dominated, teaching materials tend to be unduly unjust to women, which aggravates the sex stereotyping which is already part of the hidden curriculum, both in terms of the roles adopted in the classroom and the selection of reality which learners encounter. As the values of the peer group are extremely influential, one can be sure that stereotyping contributes to learner attitudes.

Finally, a pupil's age can be a factor of influence on his or her motivation to learn a foreign language. This is so because "the kind of motivation or stimulus which will be effective . . . [hinges] strongly on the pupil's age"(Finocchiaro, 1969, p.12). Certain types of activities

are more appropriate and desirable for certain age categories. This is why pupils display more fervour and readiness as the teaching materials and the taught linguistic activities fit their age and level of maturation.

2. Social Factors:

Attitudes towards foreign language learning prevalent at home are of paramount importance in determining pupils' motivation to learn the language. Pidgeon (1971) states that a pupil's level of achievement at school is influenced by the home background. The motivational factors of the home, and the interest parents take in their children's education play a crucial role. Finocchiaro (1969), and Gardner and Lambert (1972) argue that motivation is strongly influenced by the attitudes of the family and the social group at large. Certain family characteristics, namely lack of parental support and interest in school, difficult living conditions, and low educational attainment can be regarded as main causes of the backwardness in pupils' favour of learning a foreign language. Likewise, Gardner (1979) stresses the role of the social context in the process of second language learning. He further states that in spite of the fact that the concept of motivation refers, in this respect, to the specific act of learning the language, it is of a broad social foundation.

Hence, pupils' home background should be accounted

for as an essential factor that determines achievement in foreign language learning. In this respect, parental indifference to their children's education and their ignorance of the benefits that the foreign language would fulfil are the most anti-motivational factors of the home, to which many pupils are exposed. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, parental constant encouragement of their children can have much bearing on the latter's motivation to learn the language. There might be more deterioration in pupils' motivation when

parents may have inappropriate expectations about the rate of progress of their children, minimize their achievement and ultimately withdraw their support and encouragement for FL study.

(Jakobovitz, 1971, p.75)

Because motivation is thought of as a broad concept that demands social contextualization of the theoretical models (Gardner, 1979), the role that the native community plays in enhancing or deterring motivation to learn the foreign language should also be considered. Lambert (1964) specifies "anomie" and "ethnocentrism" as two main social phenomena relevant to the process of foreign language learning. Both terms are frequently used to refer to the attitudes prevalent in the social groups towards another linguistic group and its culture. "Anomie" and "ethnocentrism" encompass the relevant individual and social reactions that might enhance or weaken contact with

the foreign culture, and would, in turn, either sustain or inhibit pupils' progress in learning the language. For instance, a pupil who views his native language as sufficient to fulfil his daily needs, and who is aware of the future needs that his native language will fulfil might underestimate the value of learning a second language. Such negative viewpoints by the single pupil or the social group at large can easily hinder the motivation to learn and would eventually diminish the role played by language as a tool of much support in fulfilling many benefits for the individual learner:

Social psychologists would expect that success in mastering a foreign language would depend not only on intellectual capacity and language aptitude but also on the learner's perceptions of the other ethnolinguistic group involved, his attitudes towards representatives of that group and his willingness to identify enough to adopt distinctive aspects of behaviour, linguistic and nonlinguistic, that characterize that other group.

(Gardner and Lambert, 1972, p.132)

Learners from open-minded social groups view learning a foreign language as something important. They appreciate the process of learning the language, and would find their chances to learn it constantly increasing and their motivation gradually enhanced (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). Oller and Perkins (1977, p.90) state that

positive feelings toward persons who speak the target language are expected to produce a willingness to communicate with such persons in the target language which in its turn is expected to augment learning of the target language.

Conversely, negative feelings about representatives of the target language culture are expected to produce lower achievement.

It is worth mentioning that in addition to the support given by pupils' own group, the foreign language group's support is a crucial element that is worthy of consideration in any study of the social context of foreign language learning. It is very likely that in the absence of such support, motivation would flag as pupils who are endeavouring to learn a language are rejected by its own people:

Individuals with strong integrative motives to learn an SL may be discouraged from doing so by their perceptions that the TL (Target Language) group does not want them to integrate or is unwilling to accept their integration, even if they learn the language completely.

(Genesee et al., 1983, p.212)

A further social factor that affects motivation to learn a foreign language is the prestige of the foreign language both locally and internationally (Kharma, 1977). Pupils and their native community come very often to evaluate the social and international status of the foreign language in comparison to their own. This is why languages of international reputation are always perceived positively as main tools that can facilitate interaction with the outside world; i.e. they can help in the fulfilment of many instrumental and integrative purposes.

Finally, referring to Lambert and Lambert (1964), and Gardner (1979), Stern (1984) states that ethnolinguistic

group relations and economic or political factors are likely to influence motivation to learn a foreign language. When the foreign language group is dominant, integrative and instrumental motivation are likely to be very essential and demanding.

3. Educational factors:

Noticeable attention has been given to the school setting as the formal educational environment wherein the process of foreign language learning and teaching takes place (Russell, 1971; Patterson, 1977). The different variables within the school setting represent focal points that have been widely accounted for in the topic "motivation and foreign language learning".

At the outset, the school, as any other variable of relevance to the educational process, can either support or suppress pupils' motivation to learn a foreign language. A close look into "the nature of the educational system in general, and the place of the foreign language in that system and the objectives of teaching it"(Khurma, 1977, p.103), can provide us with a vivid image of the extent pupils' motivation comes under the influence practised by schools. White (1977, p.147) states:

The school determines through the classroom, teacher, and classmates the kind of motives that will operate in the classroom and helps determine the kind of motives that will influence the child as he learns in schools.

Russell (1971) further suggests that a better

understanding of the problems of motivation within the school requires a careful investigation into the educational conditions that pupils experience. Schools by their nature of the educational procedures, administrative policies and rules, and readiness to accommodate pupils' needs can contribute easily to the total effect of either sharpening pupils' motivation or blunting it. Downey and Kelly (1975, p.72) add:

Motivation is not only an individual process but it is also influenced by social and organizational factors as well. The school organization creates the situation in which social processes operate. . . . Situations can be created within the school or classroom which engender a particular kind of attitude towards the school's aims and thus influence motivation on a gross level.

Consequently, the dislike of school on the part of pupils can be easily developed into a similar dislike of the subjects taught. A very negative repercussion in this respect is likely to be frequent absence by some pupils, a phenomenon that may also be attributed to the lack of motivation in educational tasks including that of foreign language learning.

Added to that, within the school setting, the foreign language learner is exposed to the influence stemming from the perceptions that headteachers, teachers of other subjects, and pupils have of the foreign language. This is so because

there is evidence that in interaction with teachers and pupils within the school itself, and not simply within the home and the commun-

ity, the pupil's willingness and ability to be 'educated' may be formed, maintained, modified and sometimes even transformed.

(Peters, 1981, p.141)

It holds true that the constant underestimation by the above-mentioned people of foreign language learning and its forthcoming benefits can affect a pupil's motivation negatively. This phenomenon is more common in the schools where the foreign language forms an obligatory subject within the curriculum and pupils fail to manage learning the language.

In the same vein, the classroom represents a microcosm of the larger setting, i.e. the school, to which reference has already been made. The effects of the classroom in the domain of foreign language learning are not less than those of the school since it is within the classroom that a pupil comes to real contact and direct interaction with other influential variables, namely teachers, teaching materials, methods of teaching and other pupils.

The first influential factor within the classroom is the social educational atmosphere. Interaction between pupils and teachers, as Burstall (1975) points out, can powerfully affect pupils' motivation to learn, at a time when the effect of the different methods of presenting foreign language material forms a matter quite worthy of consideration. Fry and Coe (1980, p.33) demonstrate that

several recent investigations (e.g., Stern,

1970; Trickett and Moos, 1973, 1974; Randhawa and Michayluk, 1975, Moos, 1978; Moos and Moos, 1978) have emphasised the importance of assessing the impact of the social environment of the classrooms on the social and emotional functioning of students within the classroom. The underlying assumptions of this line of research are that (a) the environment of the classroom is defined by the shared perceptions of the members of the classroom along a number of 'environmental dimensions' (Trickett and Moos, 1974); (b) that environments exercise important psychological influence over their members (Nilsen and Kirk, 1974); and (c) these latter influences mediate the academic outcomes and motivations of the members within the environments (Moos, 1974; Epstein and McPartland, 1976; Maehr, 1976).

In addition to the findings of the preceding studies, Fry and Coe (1980) point out that Moos and Moos (1978) found that classrooms characterized by a social climate of motivation were not only cohesive and satisfying but were intellectually challenging and encouraged academic motivation. Likewise, classrooms of much support by the teacher, reasonable size, good conditions, and successful involvement of all members had proved to be appropriate climates for high motivation for those pupils who were seeking "self-improvement" and "assertive participation" in foreign language learning activities (Burstall, 1975; Kharma, 1977).

Contrariwise, classes of abnormal sizes, poor conditions, restrictive teacher control, a remarkable number of low achieving pupils might lead to passively academic and anti-school attitudes of which foreign language learning forms no exception.

A second influential major factor within the school

setting at large, and the classroom in particular, and of relevance to other factors is "teachers of foreign languages". Teachers form the most immediate influence on pupils' motivation to learn the foreign language. They are considered as the most obvious and effective elements within the context of foreign language learning.

Accordingly, "in the foreign language teaching situation, in particular, it is important to take into account . . . the type and calibre of the teachers, [and] the teachers' attitude to the teaching profession in general and foreign language teaching in particular" (Kharma, 1977, p.103), if the aim is to sustain pupils' motivation to study the language and take benefit from learning it.

In line with this, almost all the behaviour displayed by teachers in terms of their relationship and interaction with pupils, and their attitudes towards the subject taught can affect pupils' motivation. Classroom environments which are charged with intense and inimical teacher-pupil relationships and teachers' dissatisfaction with every element pertinent to the foreign language do not help in enhancing or developing pupils' motivation to achieve the ultimate outcome expected from learning the language. Pidgeon (1970, p.34) stresses the role played by teachers of foreign languages by stating:

Within the school the part played by the attitudes of teachers-- [to the teaching of the foreign language, the foreign culture, the taught, and the way the latter approach the learning process] and the classroom practices

they adopt as a result of those attitudes-- may prove to be far more important than the more material factors such as school buildings, size of class and the textbooks or apparatus provided.

In addition to the fact that teachers who are short of the required teaching experience and adequate linguistic competence and training are very likely to have negative influence on pupils' motivation, in the following paragraphs reference will be made to some techniques which if adopted by teachers of foreign languages would deter pupils' motivation. Further reference will also be made to some other factors within the school setting.

The first procedure that a teacher might adopt and has negative effect on motivation is punishment. Referring to J. A. Cheyne and R. H. Walters (1969), J. C. La Voie (1974), and R. D. Parke (1969), Klausmeier (1985, p.432) states:

If the punishment is accompanied by a rationale, however the effects upon self-control are longer-lasting. To be effective, justifications, or rationales, that accompany punishment must be at a level students can readily understand.

Although punishment is not all bad, it is, as Barrow (1984) views, very inimical since it may tempt some pupils to do undesirable things such as lie and cheat in an attempt to avoid it. It may also passively influence the relationship between the teacher and the learner.

Likewise, frequent and unjustifiable punishment which is carried out angrily with no forethought and which is solely used within settings devoid of other reinforcements

has been proved to influence pupils' motivation very negatively (Clifford, 1981). Jones (1967, p.71) adds:

How effective is punishment as a motivational technique? Is it a desirable procedure? Most parents and teachers, although they may have some misgivings about the ethical aspects of punishing children, have strong suspicions, based on their experiences, that punishment is effective in changing behavior. Most psychologists, however, stress the undesirable emotional effects of punishment and argue that punishment is not really a 'motivational' procedure at all.

Nowadays, many teachers seem to find in punishment a last resort to inflict on pupils unbearable amount of fear and anxiety in the effort to motivate them (Klausmeier, 1985). For instance, assignments, as Bernard (1972) refers to, made on punitive bases are more likely to affect classroom morale negatively than to motivate pupils effectively. Such unplanned decisions that are lacking prior thinking and account of their consequences can easily minimize a pupil's interest in learning the foreign language in a gradual manner until it brings motivation to nil.

Secondly, in spite of the favourable use of rewards to reinforce learners' motivation, they may have negative effects on the process of foreign language learning. In other words, "to make extraneous rewards the main attraction in a learning situation is to draw attention from what is being learnt on to something irrelevant to the content"(Downey and Kelly, 1975, p.69), at a time when it becomes very likely that the reward given might

minimize pupils' motivation especially when it underestimates the teaching materials and is looked upon as a bribe.

Thirdly, it is worthy of note that although the main objective is to make pupils take utmost benefit with regard to the derived knowledge and practical skills, pupils' personal reactions and the emotions they attach to the teaching materials should be heeded. "The printed words of the textbook can be thought of as conditioned stimuli either for positive emotions- or for negative ones. . . . Books that become associated with negative emotions will cause the learner to remove himself from the learning situation as soon as he reasonably can"(Ball, 1977, p.7). Hence, pupils' motivation is readily vulnerable to be influenced by the content of the foreign language textbook. Callahan (1971, p.277) clarifies this point by stating:

What interests a student will motivate him. . . . If a student perceives a subject or a unit as having particular value for him, he will study to achieve its goals: if he finds little relationship between subject-matter goals and his personal desires, he will respond apathetically or negatively.

Similarly, textbooks with difficult and inappropriate content that is not stimulating and is disorganized can work as negatively motivating factors of much bearing on pupils' final achievement in the foreign language. Pupils are likely to give up learning tasks and eventually become de-motivated when they are consistently given difficult

subjects to study and difficult activities to practise and learn. A teacher is supposed to realize such drawbacks in the teaching materials and try his or her best to make even the obligatory teaching materials appeal to learners through well-planned and efficient presentation of them.

Fourthly, in terms of the methods of teaching, educationalists always emphasize that "how to teach" a subject should not be perceived as less important than "what to teach". This is due to the fact that "teaching methods interact with student motives in determining the outcomes of education"(McKechie, 1961, p.139).

In the field of foreign language learning, the preceding point holds true since teaching methods are differently favoured by learners and by others to whom the educational process is a matter of concern. Girard (1977) states that teaching methods have different motivating powers. The motivating power of each method is mainly determined by the extent that the method in question takes learners' interests and needs into consideration.

In the light of the diversity of pupils in the foreign language classes and their diverse orientations in learning the language, teachers are required to follow and implement certain educational and teaching techniques in the hope of sustaining pupils' motivation, and covering a wider range of their varied needs and interests.

Referring to Linnart Levin (1982), Johnstone (1989, p.183) states:

It should not be assumed that, when two com-

peting options are evaluated against each other, one of them will necessarily be best in all circumstances. There is some evidence for example in support of aptitude-treatment interaction, i.e. learners of relatively low aptitude benefiting from one method (here called 'treatment'), e.g. an inductive approach, while learners of higher aptitude benefit more from another 'treatment', e.g. a more deductive approach.

Fifthly, many everyday teachers' ways of behaviour in foreign language classes can affect their pupils' motivation. Teachers who display boredom and dissatisfaction with the teaching materials tend not only to underestimate what is supposed to be assimilated by pupils, but to minimize pupils' interest and motivation in the subject taught. Commenting on the same point, Downey and Kelly (1975, p.68) write:

For a teacher to remark to a class . . . that he's just as bored with the topic as the pupils, but since it is on the syllabus, they must get it over, is not only to devalue what they are supposed to be learning; it is also bound to destroy any interest and kill any motivation the class may have had. It betrays an attitude of non-commitment on the part of the teacher which will never engender enthusiasm in his pupils.

With particular reference to the foreign language learning process, Ralph (1982, p.498) states:

If students perceive that teachers are not themselves supportive of and enthusiastic toward the teaching of the language; . . . then some students may become even more negative toward the learning of the language. Thus, teachers must endeavour to present a positive and professional image before their students. Students readily recognize, and often model the attitudes of their instructors.

Lee (1972) further suggests that the teacher's whole way of behaviour should be accounted for as a decisive factor that affects pupils' learning and motivation. A teacher's use of 1) praise and encouragement; 2) pacing and variety of the teaching material; 3) frequency with which the lesson procedure is changed; 4) an amount of variety and fun; and 5) teaching aids, and a teacher's consideration of pupils' demands and the way individual and group work proceeds can sustain pupils' interest and motivation to learn the foreign language. It is true that such motivation can easily waver when things take a reversed direction.

Sixthly, the objectives behind learning a foreign language should be clearly stated and should be attainable. In the absence of such objectives, or when there is difficulty in attaining them, teachers become confused (Russell, 1971), while learners, as Callahan (1971, p.279) states, become frustrated and start seeking avoidance behaviour:

If a student sees that an established instructional goal lies in the same direction as his personal desires, he will be motivated. . . . Any goal that students view as unattainable hinders motivation.

Pupils might also be frustrated when they are ignorant of the objectives behind learning the foreign language or when they sense that their set objectives have not been fulfilled as they have anticipated or planned for. This is so because

in the foreign language situation a knowledge of the results of learning is important, for the learner needs to know whether he is on the right track or not, otherwise his motivation to modify or improve his performance is weakened.

(Al-Amin, 1984, p.87)

Pupils' interest in the foreign language learning task also flags when they realize that the set objectives are irrelevant to their lives, chosen in a haphazard manner with no account of their abilities, not understandable, and unimportant from their viewpoint (Kuethe, 1968).

Finally, it is worthy of note that within the classroom, a learner of the foreign language is influenced by his or her classmates. "It is sadly the case that, in some circumstances, approval from peers may be conditional upon 'not trying' rather than upon trying"(Allwright, 1977, p.271). Added to that, peers' reaction to the whole process of learning the language, co-operation in carrying out learning tasks, reaction to the learner's personal participation in the learning activities, and constant perception of the foreign language teacher, the materials taught, methods of teaching, and the objectives to be obtained can affect either positively or negatively the motivation with which a learner approaches learning the language. In general reference to the peer group, Klausmeier (1985, pp.427-8) writes:

The family, in many cases, is no longer the student's psychological home. As parents spend less and less time with their children- either out of necessity or choice- their influence is often weakened. As a result, the peer group

[dominates] the behavior of millions of young people attending schools.

It is evident that such multiplicity of variables within the school setting at large, and the classroom in particular, has made them "highly threatening to many students, and this threat inhibits the natural motivation to learn"(Patterson, 1977, p.307).

All in all, if motivation is not managed properly, it would be a threatening and complex problem in foreign language learning. What contributes to such complexity is the negative influence practised by some varied factors within and without the school setting. For instance, uneducated parents from ethnocentric and nationally-fanatic social backgrounds, learning environments manned by inexperienced and inefficient teachers, and the availability of other people with negative attitudes towards the foreign language and its learning can enhance a pupil's disfavour of the foreign language and eventually discourage him or her from learning it.

Teachers' Role in Motivating Pupils in Foreign Language

Lessons:

In the domain of foreign language learning, pupils' motivation forms a real challenge that faces the teachers of the subject at all school levels. To put it differently, "the challenge to find ways of attracting students to our foreign language classes and maintaining their interest once they arrive is a problem that most of our

teachers are now facing"(Allen, 1974, p.1).

Furthermore, the role of teachers as effective motivators of pupils towards better foreign language learning is not limited to a specific studying level. Teachers of foreign languages frequently come across pupils of varied linguistic abilities who show different levels of motivation to learn the language. Since "there is no substitute for the teacher getting to know the individuals in his class"(Fontana, 1977, p.106), teachers are supposed, through co-operation with other influential factors, to bridge any gaps within the learning situation. They are also supposed to use the appropriate alternatives to motivate pupils if they want their foreign language lessons to be more rewarding, interesting, and appealing to pupils.

Thus, motivation, as a positive characteristic of learners, "is not just something which the individual brings with him to social situations. It is, in part, a product of those very situations, of what is expected of him in a given context"(Peters, 1977, pp.77-8). It is something that teachers cannot directly manipulate. Teachers' understanding of the variables of motivation, as Jones (1967) clarifies, might not enable them to arrange the conditions to promote pupils' learning, although such understanding might decisively help in the designation of the effective techniques to trigger pupils' motivation.

Entwistle (1987) points out that teachers' strategies for motivating pupils are of either a general or a

specific type. General strategies subsume 1) emphasizing the value of learning to learners' real lives; 2) showing learners what expectations teachers have of them; and 3) using tests as a means of checking learners' progress. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, specific strategies include: 1) explanation of the reasons behind perceiving a topic or an idea as interesting, 2) arousal of learners' interest; 3) stimulation of curiosity; 4) making abstract things more concrete; 5) presentation of paradoxes for discussion; 6) encouraging pupils to relate topics of their interest; 7) explanation of objectives; 8) provision of feedback on progress; 9) teaching of problem solving by personal examples; 10) provision and discussion of memory aids; and 11) group discussions.

This is why in teachers' preparation and training programmes, "motivation" as a topic should be intensively accounted for. Similarly, the development of teachers' knowledge of how to modify pupils' behaviour should be emphasized. Yet, "there seems to be less research-based information about how teachers can optimize student motivation to learn than there is about how teachers can maximize student learning"(Brophy, 1983, p.292), at a time when teachers, as Russell (1971) suggests, may not benefit as required from the preparation courses in terms of the variety of motivational conditions of their pupils. This is evidenced by those teachers who are trained through some contradictory and confused literature on the theories of motivation of which only a little part is

relevant to the understanding of pupils' motivation. Consequently, such a situation has led to the absence of a solid guiding theory of motivation and in the shortage of knowledge of the main principles of educational psychology. Commenting on the same point, Jones (1967, p.63) states:

Fewer still are satisfied with the recommendations for motivation that they encounter in the professional literature of education. Some of this dissatisfaction arises because of contradictions among the various recommendations. It may also arise from the common failure of both teachers and those who train teachers to distinguish between learning and performance.

However, teachers are supposed to have a good understanding and control over motivational processes. It is their duty to encourage pupils to realize the personal values inherent in the foreign language course objectives. They should also have a solid background in the teaching materials so as to impart it properly to their pupils. Finocchiaro and Bonomo (1973, p.26) point out that

the superior teacher knows how to "exploit" all facets of the learning situation to enhance students' motivation; to ensure that learning will be more effective; and to make his teaching more effective.

Finally, although it is not possible for teachers of foreign languages to have full control over the large number of motivational factors influencing the foreign language lesson, understanding of the motivational techniques must be placed very high on the list of their priorities. By so doing, teachers might warrant pupils'

enthusiasm, motivation, and active participation in the learning task.

Techniques to Motivate Pupils in Foreign Language Lessons:

The disparity in learners' educational experiences and motives has required the use of different and more embracing motivational techniques. In due course, a number of psychologically-based techniques have been designated as effective enough to motivate pupils in foreign language lessons. Yet, the complex interaction between teachers' variables and those of pupils has made no single technique or approach uniquely effective to motivate all pupils in the same way and to the same degree. Similarly, "teachers may not be able to reach all students, but they certainly ought to be able to motivate a far greater percentage"(Waller and Gaa, 1974, p.152).

Effective motivational techniques, as Jones (1967) outlines, should provide learners with opportunities for adequate reinforcement. They should also keep anxiety at moderate levels and direct learners' attention to critical elements in the learning task.

In the following pages, and due to lack of space, the most effective techniques that are validated by educational psychological research and relevant to the classroom experiences will be briefly accounted for. This will be coupled with a cursory reference to the role that each technique can play in arousing pupils' motivation in foreign language learning:

1. Teachers' personalities and their ways of behaviour in the classroom are of a pivotal role since "the motivation of students often depends on the motivation of the teacher. The way the teacher acts is a reflection of his system of values, and he can do a great deal to spark enthusiasm and maintain interest"(Allen, 1974, p.8). Likewise, the interest that teachers display in teaching the language can be communicated to their pupils who are likely to develop a similar interest and eventually become motivated (Callahan, 1971).

Learners of foreign languages usually find in their teachers a best model to imitate. Such a process of modelling can make the role played by the teacher more appealing to his or her pupils. Girard (1977, p.101) states:

We can assume that pupils are motivated if the teacher proves capable of giving them a good model, which he can make his pupils reproduce.

2. Teaching methods form part and parcel of the alternatives available to teachers to motivate their pupils. It is a wide topic that subsumes a combination of other subsidiary alternatives to which reference will be made in the forthcoming paragraphs. Hilgard and Russell (1950, p.67) argue that

because of the large number of factors comprising a motivational pattern, the teacher can never expect a single teaching device or a larger group of procedures to stimulate different children or adolescents in the same way. In general, that teacher is most successful who

can provide a variety of purposes and satisfactions in the learning process.

Rivers (1969) ascribes the variation in the methods employed by teachers of foreign languages to the diversity in pupils' abilities, motivations, emotional reactions and individual learning needs. Yet, according to Stern (1984), such diversity has rarely been accounted for in language teaching methods and textbooks although educational psychologists have for a long time recognized and investigated the concept of individual learner differences. Allen (1974, p.6) states:

A curricular arrangement that shows much promise for motivation seems to be individualized instruction. Under this plan, the highly motivated students forge ahead at a rapid pace, while the less motivated students and those who need more time to complete each task have the opportunity to do so.

In line with this, Klausmeier (1985) argues that for the sake of individualized instruction, attention is to be paid to elective objects, more group instruction, and greater variety of instructional materials. This is also due to "the recognition that students have different needs and different abilities, that they learn at different rates of speed, and that a single method or technique is not equally successful or appropriate for all learners" (Newton, 1979, p.23). By so doing, learning environments can be more conducive to learning for varied groups of learners. Yet it is worthy of note that individualized instruction is not a procedure that should always be

followed, because "some teachers, by virtue of their patience and understanding, motivate pupils constructively. Most of the pupils in such teachers' classes work close to their capacity, even when the lessons are not individually designed"(Bernard, 1972, p.10).

3. Teachers of foreign languages must know something about pupils' cultural environment and personal characteristics. Jakobovitz (1971) points out the importance of instilling positive attitudes towards the foreign people, language and culture as an area where teachers do have influence on pupils' motivation. Howe (1972, p.208) adds:

Teachers frequently attempt to "bring to life" the foreign language, for instance, by talking about the country in which the language is spoken and about the people who speak it, and by introducing students to traditions, songs and other aspects of the culture.

Teachers' knowledge of individual learners' characteristics is of an overriding role in enhancing the motivation to learn the foreign language. Allen (1974, p.2) argues that "it is [teachers'] job to treat [students] as individuals whose ideas, opinions, and personal interests are worthy of respect. . . . In any discussion on motivation the basic concern is always the student as a person reacting to his classmates, teachers, and environment".

In this respect, extravert versus introvert, reflective versus impulsive, and field-independent versus field

-dependent represent various characteristics of learners within the diverse educational settings of which that of foreign language teaching and learning is no exception (Fontana, 1981; Johnstone, 1989). Such characteristics, when available in learners, would require teachers' constant following up and search for the effective techniques to motivate the different calibres of learners in foreign language lessons. For instance, Fontana (1981) states that an introvert learner usually enjoys quiet and structured work, at a time when the extravert is more interested in the socially oriented activities.

As for reflective and impulsive learners, referring to Fontana (1981), Johnstone (1989) states that a reflective learner, due to his or her strong desire to give correct answers first time, seems to tolerate the ambiguity of a long silence in an attempt to make fewer errors. Contrariwise, the impulsive learner, according to Johnstone (1989, p.90), tends to

'adopt a shotgun approach, firing off answers in the hope that one will be right and that in any case errors will provide appropriate feedback from the teacher and help [him or her] to get nearer the solution the next time.'

Finally, field-independent learners look for the required information within a larger, more global and complex pattern. They tend to be independent of the field of human beings around them, and they make sense of things by imposing their own mental patterns unlike their field-dependent counterparts who make their sense of

things through interaction with others in the field (Johnstone, 1989).

4. Learning environments that are supportive, purposeful, happy and relaxed, and co-operative are good to motivate pupils. Furthermore, pupils tend to enjoy learning and exert more efforts to achieve success when the classroom environment is characterized by teacher-pupils positive relationship and co-operation.

It is usually the experienced teacher who best knows how to set up classroom environments that would facilitate the task of learning. Their underlying goal

is to create an environment conducive to learning, that is, an environment that will motivate the child and convert learning itself into a reinforcing experience thereby motivating the child still further.

(White, 1977, p.164)

For his part, Klausmeier (1985) emphasizes the necessity of establishing a learning-oriented environment by focusing pupils' attention on the learning activities, helping them establish an intention to learn, and helping them not to get excited. Buckby (1979, p.77) states:

One point on which both research and the experience of teachers seem to agree is that most learners, and particularly those with learning difficulties are more likely to learn in an atmosphere which is purposeful, happy and relaxed.

5. Interest and curiosity are factors of central

role in motivating pupils towards language study. Teachers of foreign languages are perceived to have won half of the battle if they succeed in instilling in their pupils the interest to learn since "a basic aspect of effective teaching involves identifying individual student interests and using them to achieve a high degree of motivation" (Callahan, 1971, p.252). In the same manner, De Roche (1971, pp.252-3) writes:

A student is motivated by what interests him. The teacher can capitalize existing interests or help the student develop new interests. . . Individual interests serve as a motivational force. Although it is time-consuming for the teacher, individual interests can be most helpful to the learner.

Contrariwise, uninterested pupils may fail to achieve almost all the objectives behind their learning of the foreign language. They seem to be unprepared to take part in the academic activities because of their lack of interest. For this group of pupils, "motives for learning must be . . . based as much as possible upon the arousal of interest in what there is to be learned"(Bruner, 1960, p.80).

Interest in foreign language learning can also be maintained when teachers succeed in promoting the feelings of success and good progress in their pupils. Rivers (1969, p.98) argues that

the teacher should see that the experiences he directs in the foreign-language class give to the study of the language pleasant associations which will carry the student over the dull periods which must come from time to time as

the work becomes harder and more demanding.

Added to that, "curiosity can be very effective in arousing interest"(De Roche, 1971, p.252). Muggleston (1977, p.116) clarifies this point by stating:

The curiosity motive is a primary need, so presumably the apparently 'unmotivated' student has a curiosity motive which can be activated. Because the causal relationship between motivation and learning is reciprocal rather than unidirectional, perhaps the teacher's wisest approach is to concentrate on teaching as effectively as possible. This involves among other things, appealing to the curiosity motive by ensuring an interesting environment, and the maximum pupil activity, both physically and mentally.

6. Motivation is not a temporary device to arouse interest. It is, on the contrary, a complex of the individual's needs. Motivational factors shift continuously as the individual develops and new elements enter his life pattern. This is why "the teacher . . . [should be] alert to the dynamic qualities of motivation and to shifts in patterns affecting behaviour and learning"(Hilgard and Russell, 1950, p.66). Pupils usually show more enthusiasm for learning when their needs behind learning the language are satisfied. Contrariwise, as Bernard (1972) suggests, learners whose basic needs are inadequately satisfied may become difficult to motivate.

According to Fontana (1977, p.77), "the experienced teacher can usually spot the form [pupils' needs] take, and use it sympathetically to increase . . . academic motivation." Here, the knowledge of pupils' needs is one

of the essentials of teaching skills. It enables teachers to turn instructional settings into environments more suitable to the efficient development of pupils' learning capabilities, and to utilize learners' energy towards the fulfilment of the educational objectives. Child (1986, p.56) writes:

Children abound with vitality and an urge to satisfy many kinds of human needs. Armed with this knowledge, teachers are able to make the formal setting of school into an environment in which children can learn and develop efficiently.

7. Goal setting is a key aspect of motivation. It involves an intention to achieve and determines the direction of learners' activities in terms of the set objectives:

Goal setting is a particularly powerful motivational procedure for several reasons: Setting goals involves an interaction to achieve and thereby serves to activate learning from one day to the next. It directs the learner's activity toward the goal. It takes into account differences among students in their ability to learn and also in the amount of effort they wish to make.

(Klausmeier, 1984, p.235)

In the same context, Allen (1974, p.9) argues:

A factor closely related to motivation is target-setting. Students want and need to know where they are going and what is expected of them. If the goals of the course are unrealistic, the low motivated students will find it painful to compete; as a result, they may give up or fail.

Accordingly, a learner with clearly set objectives is more motivated to achieve in the classroom than another learner who feels the absence of the objectives of the learning process.

Pupils' motivation to achieve goals is also enhanced when teachers make them sense that they have the capability of achieving the goals in question. This is more effective when the majority of pupils succeed in achieving the set goals within a reasonable span of time. In this respect, Rivers (1969) argues that when goals and the procedures to achieve them are specified by foreign language teachers, pupils will be more motivated and will show more readiness to learn.

8. Pupils can also be motivated when they are informed of the progress they are making. For instance, "with older pupils the best motivation is their awareness of their improved communication skill"(Finocchiaro, 1969, p.244). Added to that, teachers can keep their pupils motivated by providing them with essential information on their performance. Hamacheck (1970) states that pupils' immediate, meaningful, and specific knowledge of their performance can motivate them towards increased effort.

Jakobovitz (1971) outlines the responsibility of the foreign language teacher to be aware of pupils' progress and what proper steps should be considered to define such a progress in more realistic and relevant terms. What is worthy of note in this respect is the fact that some

pupils, and indeed teachers, tend to measure progress in a foreign language in the light of the attainment of a large amount of vocabulary at the start of the course. Referring to the report of the Assessment of Performance Unit (1987), Johnstone (1989) stresses the role of lexical knowledge as the most important factor on all of the assessment tasks. Accordingly, "pupils who had the highest scores were also those who had the most extensive knowledge of vocabulary. Grammatical knowledge, if it is to be applied effectively, depends also on adequate knowledge of vocabulary"(p.5).

Such measurements run counter to the proposition that a good command of a foreign language usually involves good mastery of its communicative skills. Faerch et al. (1984, p.169) defend the latter point by stating:

The fact that linguistic competence is an essential part of pragmatic competence does not imply that learners first have to master all the rules of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation before they can proceed to pragmatic and discourse knowledge. The belief that it is necessary to learn linguistic competence first in schools, and that pragmatic competence can be left to post-school communication, a stance often associated with traditional foreign language teaching, is indeed questionable.

9. A teacher can sustain his or her pupils' motivation by giving them a sense of success and achievement. This is so because "the experience of success usually provides the highest motivation for gifted, average and dull students alike"(Callahan, 1971, p.19). Likewise, it is the teacher's duty to help pupils achieve high motiv-

ation through maintaining a proper balance between learners' successes and failures. Waller and Gaa (1974, p.178) state:

Every teacher is familiar with the old adage "If at first you don't succeed, try, try again." Yet there are many students who appear to live by the adage "If at first you don't succeed, give up." To develop persistent motivation, a student must experience failure.

Brophy (1983) emphasizes teachers' role in communicating the positive expectations of the learning process to their pupils. Teachers, by so doing, are following the right criterion in motivating their pupils as they plan for the latter's success by choosing activities at the right level of difficulty, providing pupils with ample instructions, and monitoring independent work activities to allow continuous progress through the curriculum. Referring to F. L. Billow (1961, pp.13-4), Lee (1975, p.80) states:

Success in language learning . . . depends on the teacher quickly achieving a limited success. As the pupil feels that he has hit the mark, that he has been able to answer a question correctly, that someone has received and acted on his message, that he has asked a question which has been recognized and replied to, he feels good, he likes this sensation and pushes ahead after more. . . . Success is therefore the only valid incentive for prolonged application to language learning.

10. Pupils usually show more readiness to tackle new tasks introduced in "small doses" with short initial learning sessions and short rest intervals. Two points are

strongly relevant in this respect. Firstly, how interesting and meaningful the teaching material is; secondly, the way such material is presented in terms of the amount taught and the time available to cover it.

At the inception, it is necessary to make the teaching materials interesting and meaningful in order to motivate pupils. This can be done by making pupils sense the enthusiasm that teachers and others respected by pupils show for the language, relating the subject matter to pupils' needs and dominant interests, "[capitalizing] on the pupils' learning curiosity and competence" (Di Vesta and Thompson, 1970, p.145), indicating the value of learning the language, arranging for pupils to do attractive relevant activities, giving pupils freedom of option, relating teaching materials to pupils' real lives, using contextual drills, developing dialogues into real communication, and using the language 'for real' than simply studying it in an academic or analytic way. (Callahan, 1971; Kharma, 1977; Curtin, 1979, Klausmeier, 1985).

It is worth mentioning that the "variety of activity in the foreign language classroom is more likely to develop long-term motivation . . . in the students" (Rivers, 1969, p.88). Added to that, the use of puzzles, real objects, games, songs and many other devices available to foreign language teachers can arouse pupils' interest and, in turn, their motivation to learn the language.

In the same context, Ralph (1982, p.500) states:

The use of a variety of instructional media which incorporate humor, unexpected events, strange situations, unusual anecdotes, surprise endings, or uncommon plots can be successfully employed to make dialogues and presentations attractive to students and hence more motivating.

Secondly, the way of presenting the teaching materials is crucial in turning classrooms into instructional settings devoid of motivational problems with pupils showing more readiness and willingness to learn. This can be brought about when teachers succeed in identifying what all pupils learn in common. Yet, this does not refute the idea that

if the teacher is to be a catalyst, he must first of all become interested in each student as an individual. This means that he must attempt to tailor-make a program that meets the personal needs and interests of each member of his class. In so doing, he will, of necessity, select materials and topics that are meaningful to the lives of the "now" generation. He will provide time and opportunity for each person to progress at his own will and his own pace. The goal of the foreign language class will be real communication for all.

(Allen, 1974, p.10)

11. Because not all learners who are working on their own are so productive, those who are taught in small groups where they practise language activities are more ready to be engaged in learning the new teaching materials. Grouping, i.e. working with one or more classmates, arouses pupils' interest, increases their "involvement in classroom activities and creates a more favourable attitude toward foreign language learning"

(Disick, 1972, p.418). It enables teachers to adapt methods and materials more closely to the level at which a learner is expected to be highly motivated to learn (Hilgard and Russell, 1950). Through group work, many motivational problems can be solved since a learner who would be difficult to motivate in isolation will often perform because of group influence.

Two approaches are available to teachers in this respect. Firstly, the class is looked upon as a group by itself with its own objectives and interests. Secondly, locating pupils within subgroups enables teachers to drive positive individual motivation towards foreign language learning.

12. Rewards, including grades, tokens, and praise are undeniably important for the creation of settings which are conducive to learning. Rewards are frequently used by teachers as reinforcements to maintain pupils' interest and motivation especially during the early stages of contact with the foreign language (Bernard, 1972; Vaughan, 1980). Yet, it should be known that pupils cannot be equally motivated by the same types of rewards because, as Callahan (1971, p.19) states,

students who vary individually with respect to intelligence, physical make-up, and emotional constitution will also vary with respect to potential for motivation. The teacher should learn to use different incentives in a variety of ways and to expect different results.

It is worthy of note that although rewards have their

own drawbacks, they are preferred to punishment:

For a long time, educators have accepted the principle that reward is preferable to punishment as a basis for motivating children to learn at school. . . .The idea behind [any form of rewarding] is to encourage the child to begin and continue to engage in particular activity, or to behave in a particular way. The first problem that needs to be faced is how to be sure that a procedure of offering and giving rewards leads to a rewarding process in the experience of the person who receives them.

(Vaughan, 1980, p.43)

The danger of using rewards is inherent in the fear that their provision may be an artificial procedure which would eventually undermine the inherent human desire to learn for the sake of learning. Likewise, withdrawal of rewards might bring both motivation and subsequent activity to a halt. Accordingly, "rewards for learning should be so engineered that, after serving their introductory roles, they lead pupils to independent learning and to learn activities beyond the classroom"(Bernard, 1972, p.215).

Vaughan (1980) points out that a pupil's engagement in the learning activities is liable to change under the influence of the size of the reward. Large rewards might divert pupils' attention to the person who provides them. Furthermore, timing is important as rewards vary in effect in terms of the extent a pupil is engaged in the learning task, whether at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end. Finally, rewards frequently given to everyone who gets the same recognition or the same mark might lose

their value.

13. Tests have the benefit of making pupils think, relate material, and revise what has already been taught (Downey and Kelly, 1975). Hilgard and Russell (1950) point out that tests can be good motivators when they stem from the relationship between skill, information required, and the motivational systems of pupils. Kuethe (1968, p.122) further suggests that

tests and examinations not only provide an indirect measure of learning, but they also set up conditions which will produce learning because students are motivated to study when they know a test is imminent.

In the same context, De Roche (1971, p.254) writes:

Whether for pragmatic reasons or not, most students are motivated by tests and quizzes. This desire for a "good grade" enables the teacher to use tests and quizzes for motivational, as well as, evaluative purposes.

Since not all pupils are motivated by teachers' supportive and informational comments on the test papers, some tend to disfavour the critical comments which, from their viewpoint, hinder the motivation to learn. Russell (1971, p.92) states:

Teachers are finding that comments written on papers returned to students have a positive effect. . . All-inclusive, judgemental comments tend to stifle motivation to improve. Comments which are selective, supportive and informational tend to increase the probability of improvement.

It is worth mentioning that two types of tests, namely norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests have been specified as having different effects on pupils' motivation. Generally speaking, the norm-referenced tests are the most demotivating since a pupil's achievement is "judged, not in relation to any absolute standard, but on the basis of comparison with others in their class" (Parkinson et al., 1981, p.15). Contrariwise, pupils find in the criterion-referenced test a more motivating means as it "concerns itself with the extent to which each individual student lives up to the aims set for the studies in question"(Faerch et al., 1984, p.245). In line with this, the criterion-referenced test is more favourable since a "teacher is willing to give all pupils a pass mark if all have learned what is required [unlike the norm-referenced test when] it is not surprising that approximately eight per cent actually achieve this grade. However well the class performs, the teacher has to find ways of denying 92 per cent the top grade"(Parkinson et al., 1981, p.15).

Finally, it is suggested that grades have a marked role in motivating pupils (De Roche, 1971; Bernard, 1972). From the present viewpoint, grades are only norms of assessment which indicate the variations in pupils' level of achievement. Although, as a motivational technique, the grading process, from teachers' viewpoint, means that pupils can keep a record of their progress (De Roche, 1971), "there is . . . a noticeable trend away from

thinking of grades as motivators"(Russell, 1971, p.92).

14. Friendly, rather than rivalry, competition can be used by foreign language teachers to arouse pupils' motivation to learn. Barrow (1984, p.127) states:

There is a certain amount of evidence that children respond to and learn well in situations that involve some degree of team competition. At any rate, it has been claimed (Michaelis, 1977) that individual competition produces higher standards of achievement than the use of individual rewards, group rewards, or group competition.

Furthermore, competition mostly results in losers as well as winners. The negative effects of competition on the motivation of the losers may be disastrous (Biehler, 1974). Yet this does not deny the fact that team competition has its own virtues in making pupils respond and learn well. This is enhanced by the realization that "the successful involvement of competition motives in the classroom requires the use of strategies which do not limit the number of winners and which are intrinsically interesting so that competition does not dominate the activity"(Kuethe, 1968, p.118).

Similarly, co-operation has been proved as a good motivational technique. Referring to D. W. Johnson et al. (1980), Klausmeier (1985, p.323) writes:

Johnson, Skon, and Johnson (1980) indicate that small groups can be arranged so that the members either cooperate or compete for rewards. Cooperation among members of small groups is arranged by having one person's achievement of his or her goals result in other members'

achieving their goals. . . [Here], three factors account for the higher achievement. First, the cooperative groups develop superior problem-solving strategies. Second, medium- and low-ability students profit from their interactions with high-ability students. Third, the initiative for achievement is increased by peer support and encouragement.

To sum up, thus far a number of motivational techniques that are suggested by specialists in the field of educational psychology have been demonstrated. It is not likely for teachers of foreign languages to control and implement all the aforelisted techniques in an attempt to arouse pupils' interest and motivation. Certain techniques might be very effective within certain instructional settings. The efficient use of any one of these techniques in foreign language lessons can be enhanced by teachers' efficiency in establishing good relationship with pupils, creating enthusiasm for learning the foreign language, setting good instructional goals, efficient handling of the teaching materials, and diversifying the methods of presenting such materials. It can also be enhanced by pupils' wide involvement while interacting with and reacting to the learning activities going on in the foreign language lesson.

4.7 Motivation of Foreign Language Teachers:

Introduction:

Teachers' motivation to choose the profession of teaching has been a matter of marked importance. It determines the behaviour teachers display throughout their

interaction with the taught and the teaching materials. It is "the product not only of the environment in which the teaching is carried on, but also of [a teacher's] own internal and external environment"(Dry, 1977, p.195). Such motivation has very high on the list of its determinants the extent to which teachers of foreign languages are satisfied with the profession of teaching in general, and that of foreign languages in particular. It also underlines the role the teaching profession can play in fulfilling teachers' basic needs. Kaiser (1981, p.41) states:

A teacher's level of motivation is dependent on at least two sets of factors: 1) those factors specific to the needs of that teacher, and 2) those factors specific to the job of teaching. Teachers deprived of factors specific to either of the above sets, can be said to be factor deficient.

Historical Background:

Wragg (1982) refers to many researchers who have investigated teachers' motives for the choice of the teaching profession. For instance, W. B. Tudhope's study (1944) specifies "job security" and "love for children" as the top two reasons, at a time when Herzberg (1959) underlines salaries, fringe benefits, working environments, and good human relations as basic factors that can prevent dissatisfaction with professions, including that of teaching, but they cannot bring about full satisfaction or motivation. T. Veness (1962) outlines the helping aspect of the teaching profession. In Wragg's study (1967),

priority is given to the motives: "love of children" and "love of subject", while E. Altman's study (1967) specifies the motive "opportunity to be helpful to others". Olasehinde (1972) points out that "vacation time and remuneration" were ranked low on the list of motives for choice of the teaching profession. Olasehinde (1972, pp.207-8) further states:

In general, many career choice studies have shown that teachers were motivated by their interest in children, the opportunity to work in their field of interest, opportunities for lifelong learning and creative expression, and a chance to serve humanity.

In G. James and B. Choppin's study (1977), emphasis is placed on "the value of the job to the society". H. K. Schwarzweller and T. A. Lyson (1978) carried out a study and concluded that "upward social mobility" was the prime attraction by those intending to become teachers. Finally, investigating student-teachers' choice of the profession of teaching, Morrison and McIntyre (1984, p.51) write:

The reasons which students give for choosing a teaching career tend to vary according to social and economic conditions. The range of opportunities for employment, the prestige of the teaching profession, conditions of employment for teachers, and the influence of parents over their children's occupations can all be important factors in some contexts but not in others.

Factors Affecting the Motivation of Foreign Language

Teachers:

Teachers' motivation is not solely determined by the fulfilment of the motives behind their choice of the

teaching profession. A host of other factors within society at large, and the school setting in particular, have been highlighted as influencing teachers' motivation to choose the teaching profession.

At the inception, the members of the social group tend to value the teaching profession variedly. It is often the case that the negative attitudes of the social group towards the foreign language, its people and culture might deter one's motivation to undertake the teaching profession.

Within the school, the factors that influence the motivation of foreign language teachers are multiplied in number and origin. Firstly, a teacher's dissatisfaction with certain administrative and educational regulations might have negative repercussions on his or her motivation. For instance, teachers who have no say in curriculum design, teaching methods, and public examinations are not likely to show interest and motivation in their profession. Kaiser (1981, p.43) claims that

increased responsibility for an enriched, interesting job is also a motivating factor. It is here where the employer must be very careful not to merely increase an employee's number of tasks. Job enlargement doesn't work; job enrichment does. An increase in the number of course preparations per teacher will do nothing for motivation and may, in fact, lower performance. Job enrichment means to increase the responsibility of teachers for their own jobs. Allowing teachers individually, or through their team to select teaching materials, decide curriculum, arrange their own classrooms, discipline their students, and choose their own teaching methods can greatly enrich the teaching job, increase motivation, and raise performance levels.

The attitude of headteachers and teachers of other subjects towards the foreign language, the value they attach to its teaching, and their role in motivating pupils to learn can also powerfully influence the motivation of foreign language teachers.

The interest and enthusiasm that pupils display for the learning of the foreign language, the availability of teaching aids, and the supportive environment within the classroom can enhance teachers' motivation to teach the foreign language.

Finally, a teacher's prior high expectations of certain occupational values before undertaking the profession of teaching, and his assessment of the extent of the achievement of such values while in the profession can influence his or her motivation. Low salaries, for instance, form a prime reason for many teachers' disfavour of their profession and leaving it.

4.8 Measurement of Motivation:

Although motivation is not liable to everyday types of measurement, "various methods have been employed in attempts to measure the strength of motivation. Rate or amount of responses, effort put forth in overcoming obstructions, and choice between goal objects have all been employed"(Fuller, 1968, p.77).

In the domain of education, where a number of varied parties interact, different procedures have been introduced to measure motivation.

Within the context of foreign language teaching and learning, it is commonly observed that some pupils learn foreign languages more successfully than others. Teachers can simply specify some pupils who have the potential to learn easily and quickly, while simultaneously designating some other pupils who face problems in either learning or retaining what they have already learned. Gardner and Lambert (1972) initially assumed such different "abilities for languages" to be due to the differences in pupils' linguistic aptitude. Green (1975), in his attempt to specify the differences that accounted for success or lack of it in learning foreign languages, stressed learners' intelligence, parental support, previous experience of foreign language learning, and primarily language aptitude. Yet, the low predictive validity of aptitude tests, and their relative lack of correlation with attitudes and motivation which can be learned, made many researchers decline to ascribe the *differences in learners' "abilities for languages"* merely to their varied linguistic aptitudes.

Hence, attention was called to factors other than aptitude which might influence pupils' achievement in foreign language learning. In this respect, motivation and interest were specified as main determinative factors. Yet the difficulty inherent in the measurement of both factors made researchers less enthusiastic over tackling them for some time in spite of the realization that such measurements would definitely account for learners' attitudes

towards the language, its people and culture, the language course and the teacher, and their desire to learn the language (Gardner and Lambert, 1972).

In the paragraphs ahead, reference will be made to some common techniques that are used to measure learners' motivation towards varied educational aspects including that of foreign language learning:

At the inception, it is worth mentioning that "the traditional paradigm in animal research on motivation has been the deprivation situation, a procedure only rarely used with human subjects. The most widely used method in human studies has been to use questionnaires to select groups differing in drive level, (the assumption being, therefore, that such differences are chronic) rather than directly to manipulate drive within the experimental situation"(Feldman, 1964, p.13).

Accordingly, the measurement of human motivation has been viewed as that of achievement, or capability to achieve. But according to Kuethé, low or high achievement is not necessarily the result of the difference in the motivation to learn. Two learners may desire learning the language at the same level, but the difference in their intellectual capacity is very likely. Kuethé (1968, p.99) further states:

Achievement is, then, a measure of motivation only when we have sufficient information about the individual's capacity for achievement.

Lawton (1972) points out that D. C. McClelland (1953)

invented the projective technique to establish the existence of achievement motivation. According to this technique, pictures are shown to the testees who are asked to write a story identifying the persons in the picture and what events are taking place. Lawton (1972, p.16) comments on the use of this technique by stating:

The content of the completed stories was analysed for "achievement imagery" such as the mention of competition, long-term goals, or unique achievements. Those subjects who were scored high on "achievement imagery" were regarded as possessing a high level of achievement motivation.

Changes in the quality of a learner's performance has also been viewed as an additional alternative to measure his or her motivation to learn a foreign language. Kueth (1968, pp.100-1) states:

The quality of a student's performance sometimes will show a relative loss, instead of a gain, and thereby reveal to the teacher that some unfortunate set of circumstances has caused the pupil to be relatively less motivated than at an earlier time.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) mention two more procedures to measure motivation. Firstly, the "Motivational Intensity Scale" that measures the amount of effort exerted and enthusiasm displayed by pupils as they attempt to learn the language:

As for the persistence or intensity of motivation, we reasoned that a first-level index could be developed through questioning each student about his interest in and attitude toward the work required for his foreign-language course, his spontaneous attempts to improve his

skills outside of class requirements, and his personal interest in continuing the study of language. In this fashion, a motivational intensity scale was formed which permits us to rank students, from those with strong and persistent motivation to those with few or no signs of interest, effort, or persistence.

(Gardner and Lambert, 1972, p.15)

Secondly, multiple-choice statements form another procedure to measure intensity of motivation through respondents' choice of the items most descriptive of themselves. This procedure, according to Gardner and Lambert, represents the most feasible of the objective item types.

Currently, tests for the measurement of learners' motivation which are mostly in the form of questionnaires are supposed to be reliable, suitably administered, easily scored and coded, and with few or no chances left for respondents to fake. In terms of the latter, Vernon (1969) refers to the difficulty inherent in assessing the nature and strength of motivation due to the inaccurate statement of verbal reports. Whitehead (1984) extends the scope of the problems confronted in the measurement of motivation to include the operationalization of variables such as extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, and the measurement of different types of motivation as opposed to motivation per se. According to her, intrinsic motivation is most problematic since "one would expect an intrinsically motivated pupil to show high levels of intellectual curiosity; to be interested in

the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake, to show task persistence and to enjoy working on projects with other interested individuals"(Whitehead, 1984, p.28).

All in all, whether the sample under investigation includes pupils or teachers, there would inevitably be a number of problems in the measurement of their motivation. It is worthy of note that such problems do not vary basically from those encountered in the measurement of attitudes to which reference has been made in the previous chapter. It is through the careful planning of the research work and the accurate analysis of the data obtained that a researcher can reduce these problems to a minimum. (For more information on the procedure followed in the measurement of pupils' and teachers' motivation in the current research, see Chapter Five, Section 5.5 on "The Analysis of Questionnaires").

4.9 Dimensions of Difference between Attitude and Motivation:

For a beginner, attitude and motivation might seem as entirely interchangeable psychological concepts. This is so because while treating any one of the two concepts, many writers tend, for the sake of clarity and substantiation, to bring the second into discussion. A procedure that has made the differences between the two concepts of a fine line.

The main objective behind the current section is to highlight the points of difference, if any of importance,

between attitude and motivation. Thus, the aspects of similarity between the two concepts will be less heeded since similarities lie under a flag different from that of disparities.

At the outset, attitude is a purely human phenomenon. No study has been reported on the "attitude of animals". This is mainly due to the role of the cognitive processes in pushing individuals to predispose in one way rather than another. Conversely, motivation seems to subsume a wider range of organisms. For instance, in the study of reinforcement and need satisfaction, animals have formed the subjects of almost all the experimental studies on motivation. In consequence, human motivation has been investigated in the light of the studies carried out on animals especially when "drive reduction" and "need satisfaction" are the focal points of studying.

The external environment plays a central role in attitude formation. It is the individual's experience with the outside world that leads to the formation of his or her attitudes. Such an experience furnishes the way to the preparedness for action. This interpretation contributes mainly to the claim that attitudes are not innate. They are learned or derived from one's experience with the external environment. Motivation, on the other hand, is an internal force that pushes the organism to engage in an action that would lead to the satisfaction of a need or achievement of a seeking goal.

Every thing or phenomenon within the social environ-

ment that the individual can psychologically realize as separate from himself can be an attitude object. Motivation does not have this wide range of objects as attitude does. Motivation seeks the "why of behaviour". It is usually towards those ends or goals that can reduce the born tension within the organism through the satisfaction of a need or the achievement of a beneficial goal. This is why motivation has been labelled as the state of arousing, sustaining and directing behaviour.

Attitude is well clarified through its widely agreed-upon cognitive, affective and behavioural components. In other words, "an attitude is an idea charged with emotion which predisposes a class of actions to a particular class of social situations"(Triandis, 1971, p.2). Attitude is also associated with the emotionally-characterized ways of behaviour. The affective component of attitude specifies the orientation of feelings, whether they are "towards or away", "for or against" attitude objects. Motivation has been interpreted in the light of some psychological variables such as incentives, motives, stimulus-response and drive-reduction which push the organism to action. Added to that, as a component or a stage within the motivational process, sustaining behaviour has something in common with the evaluative stage within the attitudinal process. The importance of this stage lies in the fact that the intensity of the effort required to achieve the goal or satisfy the need can be identified. It also determines the scope of the low or high motivational

orientations. It is worth mentioning that at this point the fine line difference between attitude and motivation becomes very evident.

Although a person is predisposed in the light of his cognitive and affective processes in the case of attitude, and the internal forces in terms of motivation, it is within the behavioural component where some hints of a divorce between attitude and motivation come to the surface. Since attitude, the precondition of behaviour, is implicit, obscure and unknown, it can be inferred from the individual's ways of behaviour. Such ways of behaviour shed light on the individual's favourable or unfavourable orientations towards varied attitudinal objects. In this respect, motivation works on a somewhat wider scale. Since the "why" of behaviour forms the focal point, motivation seeks the reason or reasons behind the organism's engagement in one action rather than another. Referring to Frymier (1971), Rivers (1983, p.108) states:

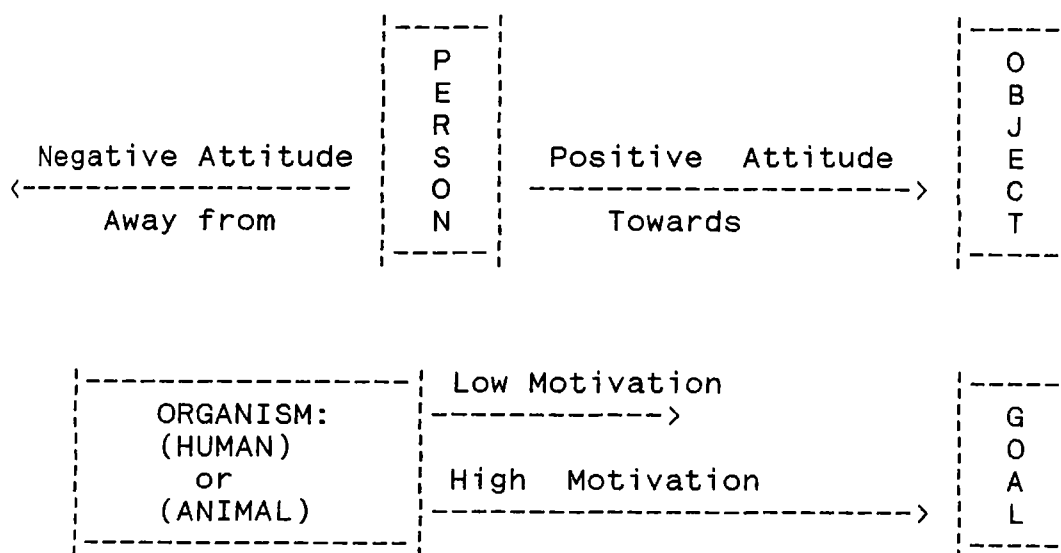
Frymier has defined motivation as "that which gives direction and intensity to behavior."
In psychological terms, [motivation] is a construct derived from the way an organism behaves.

It is worthy of note that such a facet of difference between attitude and motivation does not deny the claim that attitudes have motivational properties of their own; an important point to which reference will be made later in this section.

Motivation also differs from attitude in terms of the

latter's positive and negative orientations. Motivation is not labelled as "positive" or "negative". There is "strong" or "high" against "weak" or "low" motivation "toward a goal which has no real existence while it is serving as an incentive"(Fuller, 1968, p.83):

FIGURE (4.4): THE RELATION BETWEEN ATTITUDE AND THE ATTITUDE OBJECT, AND BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND GOAL ACHIEVEMENT.



In the case of attitude, positive and negative orientations go in opposite directions. "This double polarity in the "direction" of attitudes is often regarded as their most distinctive feature"(Allport, 1967, p.8), while in the case of motivation, the organism has either high or low motivation. When no motivation is there, it means that either the goal has been achieved or the task has been given up.

Attitudes are learned from one's experience with other objects or phenomena in the social environment. Gaining information and observing a model are main sources

of the learning of attitudes. Motivation, as McDonald (1965) points out, is ahistorical in orientation. The influence of the current conditions or circumstances forms the central point of emphasis in sustaining or directing behaviour. To put it differently, stimuli, reinforcement, goal achievement, instincts, biological and neurological developments of the organism, environmental influence, incentives, need satisfaction, and desire to conform are the main sources of motivation. Consequently, motivation can be considered as "an attribute of the temporal organization of behavior patterns"(Fuller, 1968, p.76).

Age plays an important role in the formation of the attitudinal and motivational constructs. Of the two, attitude is more affected since attitude development is determined by the duration that the individual's experience with the attitude object lasts and the influences practised by the social environment.

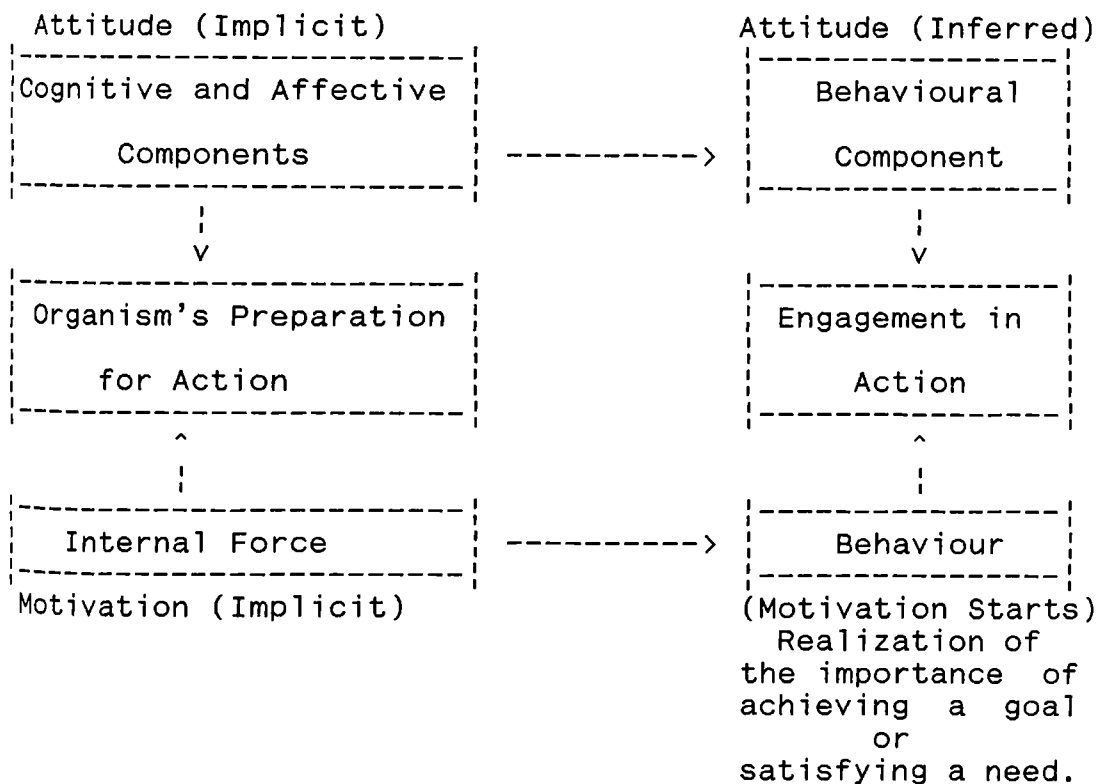
Because behaviour represents the final outcome where the concepts of attitude and motivation can be said to 'intersect', the different interpretations of it, i.e. of behaviour, have made this point quite debatable. Which is first: attitude or motivation? Is there any linkage between attitude and motivation? What is the role of behaviour in the explanation of attitude and motivation?, and other relevant questions have made the topic of the relationship between attitude and motivation worthy of consideration. For instance, Lemon (1973) points out that in terms of the motivational bases of attitude compo-

nents, two schools have put forward two different thoughts. On the one hand, Newcomb (1952) and other psychoanalytic theorists claim that attitudes do not have motivational properties of their own. Attitudes guide existing motivational forces in certain directions without energizing them. On the other hand, Allport (1935) and Doob (1947) have stated that attitudes do have motivational properties. According to them, the role of attitudes is not limited to the guidance and direction of behaviour. Attitudes drive individuals so as to respond either positively or negatively towards the attitude object, i.e. attitudes energize the forces within the individual to be engaged in action.

Of the two preceding viewpoints, the latter is the more convincing. In the case of human beings, there seems to be a reciprocal influence of attitude and motivation on one another. The intensity of motivation, i.e. the effort exerted in satisfying a basic need or achieving an important goal, might affect the relevant attitude. Positive or favourable attitudes are developed towards those social objects which fulfil some basic needs and, in turn, enhance motivation towards better achievement of the goals. Contrariwise, negative or unfavourable attitudes affect motivation and might reduce or hinder the achievement of those less important goals. Accordingly, new attitudes can come into existence or some old ones can be modified in certain ways commensurate with the new needs to be satisfied or goals to be achieved. Such

overlapping between attitudes and motivation has led some writers to label the newly born concept as "positive or negative motivation" which is in essence attitude towards those objects that do or do not seem instrumental in achieving goals. Furthermore, it is possible to claim that attitudes, whether positive or negative, determine to a large extent the motivation to carry out everyday tasks. In this respect motivation seems to be more dependent on attitude since the latter is said to send strong roots into the motivational system of one's personality:

FIGURE (4.5): THE RELATION BETWEEN ATTITUDE AND MOTIVATION IN TERMS OF THE BEHAVIOUR DISPLAYED BY THE ORGANISM.



We do not know a person's attitude unless some of his

or her behaviour is known to us. This is why attitude is labelled as 'implicit'. This is mainly evidenced in the cognitive and affective components of attitude since it is difficult to guess what real thoughts and feelings others have towards different phenomena in the outside world. The behavioural component of attitude enables us to specify the direction of attitudes on the condition that such behaviour represents the real expressions of the thoughts and feelings which a person holds.

In terms of motivation, since the concern is the "why of behaviour", motivation cannot be inferred or known in its initial stage as an internal force within the organism, i.e. motivation is implicit. The extent of the effort exerted by the individual to achieve a goal or satisfy a need leads us to know the strength of motivation.

4.10 Attitude, Motivation, and Interest:

Unlike the preceding section where emphasis has been placed upon the facets of difference between "Attitude" and "Motivation", the current section aims at introducing the concept "Interest", with a main objective to show the extent of its difference from both attitudes and motivation. A second aim of this section is to study the possibility of including a variable of "interest" in the attitudes and motivation questionnaires, of which those for the current study form no exception.

At the outset, interest, as Evans (1965) points out, is of much practical value in the domain of education. In

its broad sense, the term refers to the individual's inclination to be engaged in the appealing activities. Referring to White (1964, p.104), Wilson (1974, p.43) states:

To feel interested in anything is to feel attracted to it, to feel inclined to give attention to it. Naturally, it also involves feeling disinclined to attend to other things, and feeling vexed and uncomfortable, when prevented from giving attention to it.

The "inclination" and "towards the appealing activities" characteristics of "interest" makes the concept seemingly have much in common with the concepts of "attitude" and "motivation". "Is it true that 'interest' has much in common with 'attitude' and 'motivation'?" is a central question that the following paragraphs are intended to clarify.

Firstly, Evans (1965, p.92), comparing interest to attitude, states:

Attitude is the broader term, and an attitude represents a general orientation of the individual. Interest, on the other hand, is more specific and is directed towards a particular object or activity. It is response of liking attraction.

According to Evans, attitude usually denotes an orientation towards a particular object. This orientation can be generalized to other relevant aspects of that particular object. In the domain of education, for instance, attitude towards school can be "generalized to the whole situation of the school, to most of the school

subjects, to the staff of the school, and even to the students who attend the school"(Block, 1975, pp.20-1). At this very point, guard should be taken since the "generalization" aspect is only effective when attitudes are towards one particular object. In other words, in the case of the availability of more than one attitudinal object, our positive or negative attitudes towards any one of the objects in question cannot be generalized to include other objects. For instance, when an individual has a positive attitude towards a certain foreign language, it does not mean that his or her attitudes are negative towards other foreign languages.

Interest, on the contrary, is more specific. It is usually "interest" in something that is more attracting in comparison to other things. In consequence, interest in a certain school subject means more attraction to that subject and less or none to others. This is so because interest is the outcome of an individual's likes and dislikes to a variety of activities. It is, as Evans (1965) has already mentioned, the response of liking attraction.

To bring further differences between attitudes and interest into discussion, Wilson (1974, p.49) is quoted as saying:

'Feeling of interest' is not a set of sensations, nor a mood or emotion, nor an inclination to get or repeat pleasure, nor an impulse or habit. It is by contrast an inclination to notice something, to pay continuing attention to it and to try to enter into some active relationship with it which seems appropriate to

its interesting features.

In the preceding quotation, Wilson specifies interest as having very little in common with the cognitive, affective, and behavioural components of attitudes. The attraction characteristic of the activity or the object forms the source of the individual's interest, and results in the forthcoming engagement.

Furthermore, in attitude inventories, a respondent's favour or disfavour is measured through the introduction of the statements relevant to the social object or phenomenon under study, and to other factors of influence, at a time when "the interest inventory is based on the theory that a dependable picture of a person's interest can be obtained by asking him to express likes and dislikes of a large number of diverse activities and things"(Noll and Scannell, 1972. p.472). Accordingly, this expression of likes and dislikes towards learning or teaching English in comparison to other activities or more precisely, other subjects, makes it possible to include statements of "interest" such as "I like teaching/learning English more than any other subject" and "I am interested in English more than other school subjects" in attitude questionnaires. Such a procedure would also help in shedding more light on the attitudes under study. Yet, since motivation, unlike attitude, has more in common with the concept of interest, and since the statements on interest that were intended for inclusion within the attitudes questionnaires did not differ basically from

those within the motivation questionnaire, the idea was abandoned.

Secondly, motivation, unlike attitude, has more characteristics in common with interest. For instance, motivation usually means the direction of behaviour towards goal achievement or need satisfaction. It is either high or low motivation. Interest, similarly, "may be aroused simply because an individual's . . . immediate needs are being served"(Callahan, 1971, p.252).

In line with this, because engagement in action is the final stage of an individual's motivation to achieve a goal or satisfy a need, "both 'needs' and 'interests' may furnish reasons for action, . . . a child's interest will always constitute 'a good reason' for engaging in the activities which he sees as relevant to it"(Wilson, 1974, pp.63).

To be more specific, in the process of learning, learners focus attention on what interests them. Accordingly, a basic concept of effective teaching involves identifying individual interests and using them to achieve a high degree of motivation.

Due to the role played by interest in bringing about the motivation required, "interest is nothing more than a motivational aid, or in other words a means of inducing [individuals] to undertake tasks which . . . represent some desirable goal"(Wilson, 1974, p.53).

In the light of the preceding argument, there will be merit in including variables of interest in the motivation

questionnaires. By so doing, interest will work as a factor that would determine, side by side with other motivational variables, the intensity and strength of teachers' or/and pupils' motivation to teach or/and learn English as a foreign language. (See Appendix 5B, "The Pupils' Motivation Questionnaire", statements 15-19; and Appendix 5D, "The Teachers' Motivation Questionnaire", statements 21-27).

CHAPTER FIVE
METHOD OF RESEARCH

5.1 Introduction:

In Chapters Three and Four, "Attitudes" and "Motivation" have formed focal topics of detailed discussion. It is evident that by taking account of both concepts much can be brought about in the field of education in general, and that of foreign language teaching and learning in particular.

Similarly, the realization of the importance of the "Role of Pupils' Attitudes and Motivation", and likewise, their teachers', has prompted many researchers to tackle both topics from various angles, and in a more analytical manner. Consequently, the procedures followed, and the conclusions obtained are clear-cut evidence of researchers' seriousness and enthusiasm throughout their research which in many cases has culminated in the compilation of full books, the publication of many articles in worldwide journals, and the proceedings of international symposia, all for the sake of giving the process of foreign language teaching and learning more impetus towards the achievement of its objectives.

Pupils' attitudes and motivation to learn foreign languages, teachers' attitudes towards pupils, teaching materials, training courses, tests, and supervision, and their motivation to choose the profession of teaching have formed main topics of research by many scholars intending to achieve varied objectives.

In the lines ahead, reference will be made to some works on either attitude or motivation, or both together,

with more emphasis on their role in the teaching or learning of foreign languages. These works, as it has been previously mentioned, fall into either full books on the subject or articles in varied periodicals. For instance, on the one hand, R. C. Gardner and W. E. Lambert's book: *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning* is regarded as the hallmark of the material available on the subject. Since 1972, when this seminal piece of work was first published, almost every research work on attitudes and motivation in the field of foreign language learning has referred to it as a rich source of much reliable information. The popularity of the book is mainly due to the comprehensiveness and the consistency it reveals. It is the outcome of reliable investigational procedures and laborious research work in different parts of the world. In addition, Jordan (1941); Hilgard and Russell (1950); Nida (1956-1957); Lambert and Lambert (1964); Mori (1966); Russell (1969); Lukmani (1972); Burstall (1975); Gardner, Smythe, and Brunet (1977); Kharma (1977); Gardner (1979); Gardner, Smythe, and Clement (1979); Hermann (1980); Gardner (1982); Strong (1984); Whitehead (1984); Ely (1986); Pritchard (1987), and Gardner (1988) are authors who also have written relevant articles on the subject.

5.2 The Present Research Work:

Since pedagogical research does not always lead to totally new findings in comparison to its scientific counterpart, and since not so much originality can often

be brought about even when pedagogical investigation is carried out in areas that have not been tapped by past research, it cannot be claimed that the outcomes of the present study will be incomparable. What might mainly distinguish the current research work from previous ones is presumably the procedure followed and the sample selected. Almost all previous research works, the authors of only a number of which are contained in the preceding section, have yielded beneficial results through the adoption of particular investigational procedures. They are generally intended to study pupils' and/or teachers' attitudes towards various educational aspects within the school setting, pupils' attitudes towards the subjects taught including foreign languages, and their motivation to excel in particular school subjects, parents' role in the educational process, and teachers' motivation to choose the profession of teaching.

Accordingly, the present research draws on all of those works as good sources for the required information to follow a research procedure that fits the title suggested for the current research work: that is, "The Role of Attitudes and Motivation in Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages: A Theoretical and Empirical Investigation into the Teaching and Learning of English in Iraqi Preparatory Schools".

5.3 Method of Research:

Observations, interviews, and questionnaires form

main techniques available to researchers to gather data for their studies. Since the use of each technique implies a number of advantages and disadvantages, and since certain respondents' characteristics, namely age, sex, social background, and level of education form crucial points that are worthy of consideration, a researcher's choice of the most appropriate technique is of much importance in this respect.

In the present study, the selected samples are amply diverse in terms of respondents' characteristics. There are male and female pupils of three different branches of studying, namely general, scientific, and literary, who are drawn from inner-city and outer-city schools. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, there are male and female teachers, graduates of either Colleges of Arts or Colleges of Education, and of different years of experience in teaching English.

Since such variations in respondents' characteristics have been pondered over simultaneously with the disadvantages that the use of interviews and observations implies, the favoured approach has been the application of a common technique, that is the administration of questionnaire forms. This is also due to the fact that the information gathered through interviews is not standardized because questions are asked differently, and this would duly reduce the comparability of responses. Moreover, different topics may be covered in different degrees by different respondents, at a time when subjects

may have to distort their real views in order to choose a response category (Stone and Harris, 1984).

Limitations on the use of the observation technique have been a further justification for the administration of questionnaire forms. In this context, Mullings (1984) points out that observations are not favoured since 1) there is the possibility of a) the observer's bias, b) influencing the subject's behaviour; 2) it is not a suitable method for a) recording past events; it is best suited to current events, b) collecting data on people's attitudes, c) recording what may occur very rarely or at very unpredictable times; and 3) it can be very time-consuming and cannot be used for large numbers.

To limit the discussion to the present study, it is worth mentioning that in the light of the shortcomings that the use of interviews and observations implies, the 600 pupils and 52 teachers of English with their diverse characteristics might leave the door wide-open for many drawbacks to come into existence if either of the above-mentioned techniques was to be followed. For instance, female teachers, and female pupils in particular, due to the conservative traditions and values prevalent in the Iraqi society, would predictably give less comprehensive answers during face-to-face interviews or observations than they would when filling in anonymous questionnaire forms. Furthermore, carrying out the whole task alone in widely located schools that were not quite familiar with field-study researches of any kind, and the

availability of limited personal transportation and finance facilities, had been further reasons for using questionnaire forms to gather the data required for the empirical part of the present study. This complies with Heather and Stone's suggestion (1984) that questionnaires are cheaper to administer; they cover a large number of individuals, so they are less time-consuming; and they are free from the kind of variation which can occur in interview studies.

In the same vein, written questionnaires with full anonymity can lower the degree of bias on the part of respondents; something that usually occurs in the carrying out of interviews and observations. Moser and Kalton (1979, p.299) add:

When it sets out to study more complex things, particularly attitudes, formal interviewing may limit the investigation to too superficial a level to be appropriate.

The "systematic survey" category that the use of questionnaires implies can be a further reason behind their adoption:

A questionnaire is not just a list of questions or a form to be filled out. It is essentially a scientific instrument for measurement and for collection of particular kinds of data.

(Oppenheim, 1982, p.2)

Finally, questionnaires with well-designed contents beforehand and aims of the research work set in advance can reduce the number of weak points to a minimum during

their administration and analysis stages.

Yet, although questionnaires have been known to be used since a long time ago, the process of administering them is not entirely free from the drawbacks that characterize other instruments of measurement in varying degrees. For instance, the criticism that dates back to the early decades of the nineteenth century of the use of questionnaires is evidence of the early use of this instrument in research work, and of the realization that their use implied a considerable extent of venture. Consider the following comment made in 1839:

Quoting the Journal of Statistics Society of London. Vol.2. (October 1839, p.303), Engelhart (1972, pp.95-6) writes:

It is impossible to expect accuracy in returns obtained by circulars, various constructions being put on the same question by different individuals who consequently classify their replies upon various principles.

The same writer quotes the statement made by Edward L. Thorndike (1911, p.43) who expresses his dissatisfaction with the technique of administering questionnaires by correspondence:

One vice of statistical studies in education today is the indiscriminate use of lists of questions as a means of collecting data by correspondence.

(Engelhart, 1977, p.96)

It is worthy of note that in spite of the use of questionnaires in the present research, neither of the

preceding quotations can gain ground in criticizing the research method followed in the present work. Firstly, what Engelhart is quoting from 1839 seems to represent an old-fashioned approach, as questionnaires were constructed then on open-ended questions. In other words, such an old approach cannot be brought into line with Likert scales, in which respondents do not have to go beyond encircling or placing an (X) below the appropriate choices. Secondly, being wary of the unfavourable consequences of using questionnaires by correspondence, as some respondents tend to put them off or rather forget about them, and the difficulty in covering the large number of respondents concomitant with the limited post facilities, led the present researcher to administer the questionnaire forms personally. (For further details on the administration of the questionnaire forms for the present work, see section 5.4(2), entitled "The Main Study", of the current chapter).

To sum up, whatever the disfavours of the use of questionnaires may be (see Chapter Three: the section on "Problems in Attitudes Measurement"), the latter remain one of the few techniques that have been widely used and that yield acceptable findings. Numerous research workers have used, and are still using, well-designed questionnaires and achieving good results, among whom internationally are Evans (1965), Mori (1966), Jackson (1972), Lukmani (1972), Olasehinde (1972), Cavanaugh (1976), Gonzales (1976), Vijchulata and Lee (1985), and

Pritchard (1987); and within the Iraqi context are Mustafa (1978), Al-Amin (1984), and Al-Saud (1985). The best conclusion in this respect is that the competent and efficacious use of questionnaires leaves but little room for criticism.

5.4 The Studies:

In the field of teaching and learning English as a foreign language, many variables lend themselves to practical investigation. Such variables represent, in the main, certain characteristics of the sample under study. Although a given variable might be more crucial in comparison to another, the selected sample offers much benefit to the researcher, especially when it is drawn on sound and prior thought-of bases from among a larger population. How can this be put into practice? Awareness of how sampling can be carried out offers a convincing answer to such a question.

Sampling represents one of the prerequisites that a field-study researcher must bear in mind. It is usually the well-organized and correct sampling upon which the results of any research work rely, and in great measure.

In the current research work, the sample of pupils is drawn from 20, and that of teachers from 27, preparatory schools within the administrative boundaries of the Iraqi Governorate of Ninevah. The choice of this Governorate in particular has been determined in the light of the availability of certain distinguishable character-

istics in comparison to other Iraqi Governorates. Firstly, it is the present researcher's birth-place where he has been living since 1957. Consequently, the background the researcher has developed about the situation of English language teaching and learning is the outcome of 1) being a pupil at different primary, intermediate, and preparatory schools; 2) being a student specializing in English at the College of Arts, University of Mosul, for several years, culminating in the B.A. and M.A. degrees; 3) being a lecturer and head of English Department at the Primary Teachers' Institute/ Ninevah and visiting many inner-city and outer-city primary schools to observe second-year students on Teaching Practice; and 4) being in close contact with the supervisors and many teachers of English at schools located within and without the city of Mosul. Secondly, with a population of almost 1,507,240 according to the latest census in 1987, and an area more than 37,000 square kilometers, Ninevah is the second largest Iraqi Governorate in the number of its population after the Governorate of Baghdad. It is also the second Iraqi Governorate in terms of its area after the Iraqi Governorate of Al-Anbar. Thirdly and finally, while almost all Iraqi Governorates are characterized by less diversity in terms of the ethnical, religious and cultural characteristics of their populations, Ninevah may be said to be, and indeed is, a unique representative where different ethnic groups, religions, and languages are to be found. In the light of the aforelisted reasons, the

Governorate of Ninevah has been chosen as a promising setting for the achievement of the objectives expected from the current research investigation.

1. The Pilot Study:

To make a questionnaire-form appear in its ultimate design is a task that demands much patience, and acceptance of others' criticism and comments. It is usually through the evaluation by others that a questionnaire approaches its final form in which it materially fulfills the purposes for which it has originally been designed. Furthermore, a well-organized questionnaire that is initially administered to a sample of respondents having the same characteristics of those intended for the main study is usually the hallmark of the entire research work that follows. The number of people who might evaluate a questionnaire throughout the short period of its administration might be far more than those who will browse the complete work as it might lie motionless for years on a shelf within a library. Consequently, to design a questionnaire in such a way as to achieve what objectives a researcher might bear in mind means that the entire research work will be on the right track with less fits and starts. Here lies the importance behind carrying out pilot studies. A pilot study means the process of tapping resources that might add more stability and uniformity to a questionnaire and in turn to its final outcome. It may be further defined as the process of

administering an initially-prepared questionnaire to a small sample of respondents to discover what thoughts and feelings they have towards each one of the statements, and to know their personal opinions of all the aspects pertinent to the work. Oppenheim (1982, p.26) states:

With the information from the pilot work before us we are, however, in a much better position to shorten or alter a particular technique than if we had "just jotted down a few questions."

Moreover, an effective pilot study usually paves the way to a more feasible and productive main study. It makes a researcher revalue the adopted procedure to see whether the set objectives are attainable or not:

Only careful pilot work can show us whether our selection of items adequately reflects the way in which [respondents think about the object]. Pilot work is also needed to ensure that we use terms that are like those the respondents use themselves and that have roughly similar meanings to most of them-- and to us. Up to a point, the pilot work can also help us to interpret the "level" of responses.

(Oppenheim, 1982, p.83)

A pilot study may also be thought of as the first filtering zone for a questionnaire-form where all irrelevant and vague statements are removed. It enables the researcher to know the extent of the relevance of the statements to the variables intended to be measured in the main study. In other words, a questionnaire-form becomes more valid for administration in a main study when the statements that might arouse aggressive or critical

reactions on the part of the sample under study are deleted, and the vague and misleading ones are clarified so as to comply with respondents' opinions.

For the current research work, it is worth mentioning that the Iraqi Ministry of Education, through the General Directorate of Education in the Governorate of Ninevah, generously facilitated the process of carrying out the pilot and the main studies. Formal instructions were delivered to the headteachers, teachers of English and all those concerned in the schools selected for both studies to give assistance in order to achieve the hoped-for objectives.

It is also worthy of note that the pilot study was carried out after the intensive studying of several works on "questionnaire design". These works have formed the main sources of the initial design of all questionnaire forms in the present research. In this respect, reference is due to be made to Jordan, 1941; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Burstall, 1975; Mustafa, 1978; Oppenheim, 1982; Heather and Stone, 1984; Stone and Harris, 1984; and Al-Saud, 1985. Their works inspired the present writer with many guidelines to put all questionnaires in the final forms intended for the pilot study. This was followed by the stage of collecting statements from teachers of English and pupils at all studying levels in answer to questions like the following:

What motivates you to be a teacher of English?} for

What do you think of teaching English? } teachers

and,

Why do you want to learn English? } for pupils

What do you think of learning English?}

This initial step was followed by a close look into the collected statements which were characterized by much generality and overlapping. Accordingly, many identical statements were discarded to be represented by a more embracing one. At this stage, variables were also introduced so as to list the statements belonging to the same variable together. With this brief account of the steps the work had undergone, the questionnaires were put in the forms intended to be administered to the small samples of pupils and teachers of English in the pilot study.

Later on, as it was planned in advance, the pilot study was carried out in 12 schools during December 1987 and January 1988, with an average of 6 inner-city and 6 outer-city schools. 2 primary schools (one male and another female), and the same for intermediate and preparatory levels, represented the sample of the inner-city schools. The same procedure of sampling was followed for the outer-city schools.

The visits to the primary schools and the interviews held with pupils were characterized by scanty success. The main point of disappointment lay in the large number of respondents, almost 95% of them, being unable to answer the most important questions that formed the cornerstone of the interviews, namely "Do you want to learn English?"

If the answer was "Yes". "Why do you want to learn English?"

The ignorance of the answer by the pupils to such basic questions led the researcher to assume that no reliable or hoped-for results would be obtained from a study of this type designed for pupils who are beginners in English language-learning.

Teachers of English in these schools, i.e. primary schools, formed no exception. Being of no specialization in teaching the subject, most of the primary school teachers expressed strong interest in teaching English, in spite of the difficulty and the risks that the teaching of such a "difficult" subject implies. Consequently, most of their answers to the statements of both questionnaires on attitude and motivation were limited to those that were standing for very positive attitudes and high motivation towards the language and the task of teaching it, although most of the blame is directed to them in bringing about the current bad situation of English language-teaching and learning in Iraqi schools (Al-Hamash, 1973).

Pupils in intermediate schools demonstrated a considerable level of diversity. While some of them showed readiness and much support to answer the questionnaires, many others formed real sources of much difficulty. This was due to their inability to understand the contents of the questionnaires, or perhaps they were inattentive and did not appreciate the importance of carrying out studies of this type in the domain of teaching and learning

English as a foreign language.

As for teachers of English in intermediate schools, it is to be known that they are specialized in teaching the language. They are graduates of either Colleges of Education or Colleges of Arts in Iraq. Nothing but particular administrative and planning procedures have made them teach at this level and not the preparatory one. This is why many of them showed dissatisfaction with the level at which they were teaching since neither the lack of experience nor that of other qualifications were behind their teaching at the intermediate and not the preparatory level.

At preparatory schools, pupils and teachers showed more preparedness and pleasure to help. The accurate and promising answers by the 24 pupils and 8 teachers of English at this level to the pilot study questionnaires led to the following concluding points:

Firstly, the limitation of the main study to preparatory level would save time and effort. It would give more strength to the final outcomes of the current research work.

Secondly, pupils' and teachers' answers could be used as a basis to measure the reliability and validity of all questionnaire forms for the main study. Consequently:

1. 10 members of the teaching staff of the Department of Psychological and Educational Studies/ University of Mosul were asked to study the face validity of the questionnaires. Considering 70% as the lowest percentage

of agreement among judges on each statement to be included within the questionnaire forms, there had been varied levels of agreement AT and ABOVE 70% which meant that all statements were related to the variables to be measured.

2. The reliability of the questionnaires was measured through the interitem consistency within each variable. Through the measurement of the correlation between the total value scored on each statement and the total value scored for the variable as a whole, the following statements were dropped due to their low correlational values:

A. The Pupils' Attitudes Questionnaire:

- It is better to stop teaching English in Iraq.
- I think that spoken English is more pleasant to listen to than Arabic.
- Punishment makes a pupil learn a new language better.

B. The Pupils' Motivation Questionnaire:

- Learning English will help me understand Arabic language better.
- I will be able to make friends more easily with English-speaking people.

C. The Teachers' Attitudes Questionnaire:

- There is pride in being a teacher of English.
- I rarely teach according to a particular method of teaching.

D. The Teachers' Motivation Questionnaire:

-Teaching English does not require much physical effort.

3. The correlation between the variables within each questionnaire on the one hand, and between the same variables and the attitudinal object or the motivational goal on the other, had been considered in the studying of the validity of the variables within each questionnaire-form. It is worth mentioning that the high correlational values between each variable and the attitudinal object or the motivational goal had indicated the validity of the variable in question, at a time when the low correlational values between the different variables had indicated the variation in the purposes that the variables in question were intended to measure.

4. In the light of pupils' and teachers' comments, during the pilot study, on the extent of the understanding and the clarity of each statement, some statements had been either rewritten or rephrased.

Dimensions of Comparison within the Samples Selected for the Main Study:

At the inception, it is wise to shed light on certain points that are worthy of clarification in this respect. These are mainly related to the location and the characteristics of the preparatory school level within the ladder of the educational system in Iraq.

As it is outlined in Chapter Two of the current work, the educational system in Iraq is mainly divided into four levels of studying:

- 1) Primary level which lasts 6 years.
- 2) Intermediate level which lasts 3 years.
- 3) Preparatory level which lasts 3 years.

Intermediate and preparatory levels together are called "Secondary Level".

- 4) University level with different colleges and institutes that last different periods of time.

Furthermore, the term "pupil" is used in Iraq to refer to any person enrolled at primary, intermediate or preparatory levels. At university level, the term "student" is used instead.

Since the preparatory level forms the second half of the secondary level, the pupils enrolled at this level, and according to the regulation of streaming, form the majority of those who have already finished their studies at the intermediate level. The new entrants to the preparatory level are supposed to be of an age-average not less than 15 years.

At this pre-university level, as at other levels, pupils study obligatory subjects, i.e. pupils are left with no option in terms of the subjects taught. During each studying year at this level, pupils are supposed to have first-term, mid-year, second-term and final examinations. Only pupils in third year, i.e. sixth grade, have instead of the final examinations set by their

teachers, a Public Examination set by the Ministry of Education that qualifies them to get admission to a college or an institute.

As pupils are left with no option, they study many scientific and literary subjects during the first year which is labelled "fourth year" preparatory. On the completion of this year, pupils have to enrol at either the scientific or the literary branch. Each branch covers the next two years of the level. The latter are labelled as fifth and sixth year preparatory. Here, pupils study subjects of bias towards each one of the two branches, except English where the same texts are taught. In such a case, and while analysing the data statistically, comparison has been made between pupils taking literary branch subjects and their counterparts taking scientific branch subjects. This is due to the fact that the forthcoming benefits of learning English are viewed variedly by pupils' according to their branches of studying.

All preparatory schools from which the sample of the study has been drawn represent either male or female schools. No mixed schools are reported to be available at this level. In some outer-city schools, small numbers of female pupils can be found in the schools that are originally for the male sex, yet this is usually not enough to label the schools as "mixed". Consequently, the "sex" variable has received much concentration since many dimensions of comparison between male and female pupils have been carried out on the available relevant data.

The social background of schools has not been accounted for since it was intended to choose schools, whether inner-city or outer-city, with a range of different social backgrounds. Furthermore, pupils in these schools have Arabic as the medium of instruction. Although some pupils have their first languages, represented by Kurdish, Turkish and Assyrian, that are mostly spoken within their native communities, Arabic is the language of communication when pupils who belong to the different aforementioned communities get together.

As for teachers, although no independent departments of English are available within Iraqi preparatory schools, teachers of English at preparatory level have been a sample of many variables important for the carrying out of different statistical comparisons.

In terms of their sex, both male and female teachers take over the teaching of English. Attention is to be paid to the point that the overwhelming majority of teachers of English in Iraq teach in schools of their own sex. The dimensions available within the sex variable have provided an opportunity to carry out many comparisons. Male teachers have been compared with female ones. Undoubtedly, such comparisons can shed light on the impact of the sex variable on teachers' attitudes and motivation to teach English as a foreign language.

Teachers' period of experience in teaching English has been another variable worthy of investigation. This has been divided into short, medium, and long. It is

almost a general phenomenon that teachers of *English*, as well as other subjects, of long experiences in teaching can be found at inner-city schools, although this does not deny the fact that many teachers with long experiences prefer teaching, and indeed do teach, at outer-city schools that are near their places of living.

A third variable of importance within the teachers' sample is teachers' place of graduation. Two types of colleges, namely Colleges of Education and Colleges of Arts, provide Iraqi preparatory schools with teachers of English. Teachers who are graduates of Colleges of Education are trained for the profession. They study courses relevant to methodology and the psychology of teaching. They also have a teaching-practice period at either intermediate or preparatory schools during the final year of study at the college. Their visits to these schools give them the chance to observe lessons and acquire much knowledge and practice relevant to their future career. Conversely, graduates of Colleges of Arts, who are not supposed to be teachers of English since it is not on the listed aims of these colleges to provide intermediate and preparatory school teachers, do not study courses on methodology or educational psychology. They study certain courses for the sake of acquiring general knowledge of English language, at a time when noticeable numbers of them are specialized in translation. Furthermore, they do not have the teaching-practice period and almost all of them start the experience of teaching

within classroom environments they have never stepped into before.

The importance of the variable "the place of graduation" lies in the fact that teachers of English who are graduates of Colleges of Education are supposed to show more interest and enthusiasm for a profession they are prepared for in comparison to their counterparts, graduates of Colleges of Arts, who are not adequately prepared to take over the profession of teaching.

The following figure shows the variables that have been investigated in terms of pupils and teachers selected samples:

FIGURE (5.1): DISTRIBUTION OF VARIABLES WITHIN THE PUPILS AND TEACHERS SAMPLES SELECTED FOR THE MAIN STUDY.

Sample	Variables
1. Pupils:	1. Location of the School: a. Inner-city. b. Outer-city. 2. Sex: a. Male. b. Female. 3. Branch of Studying: a. General. b. Scientific. c. Literary.
2. Teachers:	1. Sex: a. Male. b. Female. 2. Place of Graduation: a. Colleges of Education. b. Colleges of Arts. 3. Years of Experience in Teaching English: a. Short. b. Medium. c. Long.

2. The Main Study:

In the light of the pilot study that was carried out during December 1987 and January 1988, four questionnaire forms on the attitudes and motivation of pupils and teachers of English at the preparatory level were put in final draft for the main study. Four more forms that were intended to investigate pupils' and teachers' perceptions of one another, and the perceptions of headteachers and supervisors of English at the preparatory level of the

prevailing state of English language teaching and learning at the level in question, were also prepared.

During October 1988, the approval of the Iraqi authorities was granted to carry out the main study on a sample of 600 pupils and 52 teachers of English in 20 preparatory schools within and without the city of Mosul, Governorate of Ninevah.

Shortly after arrival in Iraq, the questionnaire forms for pupils were translated into Arabic, the language of instruction in Iraqi schools. A professor specializing in translation certified them as appropriate translations of the original English forms. Undoubtedly, the Arabic version was thought to enable pupils to deal with the questionnaire forms more closely and enthusiastically since their limited knowledge would allow for the understanding of a small portion of any material administered in English. Later on, contact was established with officials at the Ministry of Education; Centre of Educational Research and Studies, and the General Directorate of Education/ Ninevah to obtain their approval for visits to the schools. It is worth mentioning that at the General Directorate of Education, Ninevah, ample information was provided on the type of schools intended for inclusion in the study, a procedure that had eventually resulted in the specification of 20 male and female preparatory schools within and without the city of Mosul:

FIGURE (5.2): DISTRIBUTION OF THE SCHOOLS SELECTED FOR THE MAIN STUDY IN TERMS OF LOCATION AND PUPILS' SEX.

S C H O O L s	
Inner-city	Outer-city
M A L E S	
1. Al-Gharbiyah Prep. Sch.	1. Zummar Prep. School.
2. Al-Risalah Prep. Sch.	2. Sinjar Prep. School.
3. Khalid Ibn Al-Waleed Prep. School.	3. Al-Rasheediyah Prep. School.
4. Abdul-Rahman Al-Ghafiki Prep. School.	4. Al-Hamdaniyah Prep. School.
5. Al-Mustakbal Prep. Sch.	5. Ain Sifni Prep. School.
F E M A L E S	
1. Maysaloon Prep. School.	1. Tel-A'far Secondary Sch.
2. Khadeejah Al-Kubra Prep. School.	2. Hammam Al-Alil Prep. School.
3. Al-Tahreer Prep. School	3. Ba'sheeka Secondary Sch.
4. Al-Kifah Prep. School.	4. Telkeif Secondary Sch.
5. Al-Mosul Prep. School.	5. Al-Hamdaniyah Sec. Sch.

From the aforementioned 20 preparatory schools and secondary schools, preparatory level, the sample of the 600 male and female pupils was drawn. 30 pupils, 10 from each branch of studying, were randomly selected at each school. Table (5.1) shows the distribution of pupils selected for the main study:

Table (5.1): DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS SELECTED FOR THE SAMPLE OF THE MAIN STUDY ACCORDING TO THEIR SEX, BRANCH OF STUDYING, AND LOCATION OF THE SCHOOL.

Location of the School	Sex of the School	Grade				T O T A L	
		Fourth General	Fifth		Sixth		
			Scien.	Lit.	Scien.		Lit.
Inner-city	Male	50	25	25	25	25	150
	Female	50	25	25	25	25	150
Outer-city	Male	50	25	25	25	25	150
	Female	50	25	25	25	25	150
T O T A L		200	100	100	100	100	600

As for teachers, since their number in the 20 aforementioned preparatory and secondary schools, preparatory level, did not come up to the figure intended for inclusion in the sample, that is 52, further visits were made to the following inner-city and outer-city schools:

1. Al-Khansa' Secondary School. }
2. Al-Talayi' Preparatory School. } Inner-city Females.
3. Al-Sharkiyah Preparatory School.} Inner-city Male.
4. Al-Muhammarah Secondary School. } Outer-city Female.
5. Al-Iyadhiyah Secondary School. }
6. Sinooni Secondary School. } Outer-city Males.
7. Iwinaat Secondary School. }

Table (5.2) shows the distribution of teachers

selected for the main study:

Table (5.2): DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS SELECTED FOR THE SAMPLE OF THE MAIN STUDY ACCORDING TO THEIR SEX, PLACE OF GRADUATION, AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH.

Place of Graduation	Years of Experience in Teaching English	Sex of Teachers		Total	
		Male	Female		
Colleges of Education	Short	-	1	1	17
	Medium	1	3	4	
	Long	11	1	12	
Colleges of Arts	Short	2	6	8	35
	Medium	9	14	23	
	Long	3	1	4	
T o t a l		26	26	52	

A further point that is worthy of note in this respect is the procedure followed in distributing the questionnaire forms among the samples of pupils and teachers. For instance, after introducing himself to headteachers, the researcher was always given the permission to go into classrooms and select the required number of pupils in any way he wished. Being randomly selected, pupils were taken to a lecture room where they were first given instructions on how to answer the questionnaires. No attempt was made to interfere or impose any personal viewpoints so as not to violate the validity and the reliability of the final results. The researcher's role was always limited to the clarification

of any items that a pupil was claiming to be unreadable since the questionnaires were written in Arabic in the researcher's handwriting. At all schools, pupils' filling in the questionnaire-forms lasted an hour to an hour and a half. As for teachers, their shortage of time, and in order not to disturb the way lessons were going on, meant that the questionnaire forms were left with them after full advice on how to give answers. The researcher subsequently re-visited the school some time later to collect the teachers' questionnaires.

5.5 Analysis of Questionnaires:

The first two questionnaires that appear in the appendices 5A and 5B at the end of the present work contain various statements on the attitude and motivation of pupils at the preparatory level to learn English as a foreign language. Likewise, the questionnaires that appear in the appendices 5C and 5D contain statements relevant to the attitudes and motivation of teachers of English to teach the language.

There are also general instructions stated at the beginning of each questionnaire which clarify the purpose behind the study, side by side with other guidelines that show the way each questionnaire form was supposed to be answered.

In the following sections, a general review of each questionnaire will be presented. This review of the questionnaire forms is ended with a diagram which illustrates

the area of investigation covered by each questionnaire, its appendix number, type of respondents, and the way answers were supposed to be given.

1. The Pupils' Attitudes Questionnaire:

Respondents: A sample of pupils in Iraqi preparatory schools.

Purpose: Measuring respondents' attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language.

Analysis of Contents:

This questionnaire-form begins with certain items that seek background information in terms of the name and location of the school, respondent's sex, studying grade and branch, and father's and mother's level of educational attainment. An extra item is placed there that seeks the marks obtained in English during the last two years. The purpose behind this is to see, when analysing the data, how far a pupil's attitude and motivation to learn English is correlated with his or her achievement in the subject. Furthermore, the items on father's and mother's level of educational attainment are included because of the assumption that pupils of parents with good educational attainment usually receive more encouragement than those of parents who are uneducated or of low educational attainment.

The main body of this particular questionnaire begins with a general instruction on how to give answers to the

statements. Answers are supposed to be according to Likert Scales for Attitude Measurement where five options are given and a respondent's choice of any option means the real expression of the way he or she is thinking or feeling towards the statement in question. The options are:

Strongly Agree	-----	(SA)
Agree	-----	(A)
Undecided	-----	(N)
Disagree	-----	(D)
Strongly Disagree	-----	(SD)

The following are the variables contained in this questionnaire form:

Variables	No. of Statements
1. Attitudes towards English Language Skills.	8
2. Difficulty of the Subject.	2
3. Attitudes towards English Textbooks.	5
4. Attitudes towards English Tests.	4
5. Perceived Benefits.	4
6. English as a Mark of Education.	2
7. Parental Encouragement.	2
8. Encouragement by Others.	2
	29

It is worth mentioning that the choice of these 8

variables in particular has been made in such a way as to reflect the different aspects of the concept of attitude outlined in Chapter Three. Consequently, since pupils' attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language forms a main part of the current research, variable No.1, namely English language skills which collectively represent the process of English language-learning, has been considered. Furthermore, since the reliable measurement of attitudes requires a precise study of the factors working on the attitudes under study at that moment, variables 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 have been considered. The latter represent, in the main, the various personal, social, and educational factors that affect attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language.

Added to that, the variables, whether those within the preceding questionnaire-form or the others ahead, do not contain equal numbers of statements. This is due to the fact that a researcher is helpless to assign equal numbers of statements to all variables. Such a phenomenon is also determined by the outcomes of the pilot study, as the statements of low correlational significance are usually discarded. In the same manner, the nature of each variable is the main determinant of the statements included; something that almost all the previous research works in the field reveal.

2. The Pupils' Motivation Questionnaire:

Respondents: The same sample of respondents of the

Attitudes Questionnaire.

Purpose: Measuring pupils' Motivation to learn English.

Analysis of Contents:

In a manner similar to that followed in the Pupils' Attitudes Questionnaire, five options are put forward in this questionnaire-form. They aim at finding out the degree of the application of each statement to the sample of pupils. Respondents were supposed to choose any one of the five following options:

1. Applies to me to a very high degree.----- (VHD)
2. Applies to me to a high degree. ----- (HD)
3. Applies to me to a moderate degree. ----- (MD)
4. Applies to me to a low degree. ----- (LD)
5. Applies to me to a very low degree. ----- (VLD)

This questionnaire form contains the following variables:

Variables	No. of Statements
1. Instrumental Motivation.	10
2. Integrative Motivation.	4
3. Interest in Learning English.	5
4. Parental Encouragement.	2
5. Encouragement by Teachers of English.	1
	22

Since motivation is usually to fulfil a goal or satisfy a need, respondents were given 14 statements, in the variables 1 and 2, on different instrumental and integrative goals behind learning English as a foreign language. Furthermore, a pupil's motivation to learn English is usually affected by various personal, social and educational factors that have noticeable repercussions on the whole process. That is what the statements of the variables 3, 4, and 5 represent.

3. The Teachers' Attitudes Questionnaire:

Respondents: Teachers of English at the preparatory level.

Purpose: Measuring teachers' attitudes towards teaching English as a foreign language.

Analysis of Contents:

Being teachers of English at preparatory schools and of more knowledge of the process of English language-teaching and learning in Iraq in comparison to their pupils, the sample of teachers was expected to contribute noticeably to the information I was endeavouring to gather.

Consequently, this questionnaire form begins with some instructions that urge respondents to put forward all the frank and sincere answers in the hope that such collaboration would pave the way, even if to a limited extent, for beneficial results in the field of teaching

and learning English in our schools. Within this part of the questionnaire, some general items that seek information on respondents' background are initially placed. They include, the name and location of the school, respondents' sex, place of graduation, and years of experience in teaching English.

The main body of the questionnaire is divided into two parts. Teachers were asked to indicate with (X) the way they were reacting to each statement. Similar to Pupils' Attitudes Questionnaire, teachers' answers were supposed to be any one of the following five options drawn from Likert Scales for Attitude Measurement:

1. Strongly Agree. ----- (SA)
2. Agree. ----- (A)
3. Undecided. ----- (N)
4. Disagree. ----- (D)
5. Strongly Disagree. ----- (SD)

The first part of this questionnaire includes two statements which are intended to investigate the degree of respondents' satisfaction with the profession of teaching in general, and that of English language teaching in particular.

The second part contains the following variables:

Variables	Number of Statements
1. Attitudes towards the Profession of Teaching English.	3
2. Attitudes towards the Training Courses for Teachers of English.	3
3. Attitudes towards English Text-books of the Preparatory Level.	11
4. Attitudes towards Teachers' Guides.	2
5. Attitudes towards Supervisors and Supervision of teachers of English.	4
6. Attitudes towards Tests of English.	4
7. Seriousness in Teaching English.	4
8. Attitudes towards the Communicative Approach of Teaching English.	4
	35

Variable No.1 represents the attitude object; that is English Language Teaching. This is followed by 7 other variables which represent the various factors that might affect teachers' attitudes towards teaching English as a foreign language.

4. The Teachers' Motivation Questionnaire:

Respondents: The same sample of teachers of English who answered the Attitudes Questionnaire.

Purpose: Measuring teachers' motivation to teach English.

Analysis of Contents:

No background information was sought since respondents were the same who filled in the questionnaire

on Teachers' Attitudes. Accordingly, both questionnaire forms were administered simultaneously as one unit.

In the Motivation Questionnaire, teachers were asked to make their choice of one of the following five degrees of the application of each statement to them. The options given are as follows:

1. Applies to me to a very high degree. ----- (VHD)
2. Applies to me to a high degree. ----- (HD)
3. Applies to me to a moderate degree. ----- (MD)
4. Applies to me to a low degree. ----- (LD)
5. Applies to me to a very low degree. ----- (VLD)

This questionnaire form contains the following variables:

Variables	Number of Statements
1. Occupational Values.	16
2. Nature of the Profession of Teaching English.	4
3. Interest in Teaching English.	7
	27

Like other preceding questionnaire forms, the "Teachers' Motivation Questionnaire" includes three variables with a total of 27 statements. The first variable is intended to find out the "occupational values" that had encouraged, or more precisely motivated, teachers

in the sample to choose the profession of English language teaching. Consequently, it is the motivation goal that variable No.1 intends to measure. Variable No.2 puts forward certain aspects of the profession of teaching English. Such aspects can stand as factors that might motivate somebody to undertake the profession. Finally, variable No.3 tackles a crucial factor that both questionnaires on pupils' and teachers' motivation contain, namely interest in teaching English. (For full details on the role of interest as a factor of influence on learners' and teachers' motivation, see Chapter Four, Section 4.10).

5.6 General Remarks:

1. A reader of the current research would discover that not every section or subsection within the literature review has been accounted for in the four questionnaire forms. This is mainly due to the extent of the liability of each topic within those sections or subsections to be interpreted and tackled empirically. For instance, in the construction of attitude scales, researchers' major objective has been, over the years, to measure the positive and negative dispositions of a selected sample or samples towards certain attitudinal objects and to find out the factors that can actively work to bring about such dispositions. Consequently, certain aspects of the concept of attitude have been intensively and quite frequently heeded in the construction of attitudes questionnaires, at a time when some others are

attended to less overtly or in a less direct way. The same is applied to the motivation questionnaires where the prime aim has been to find out the intensity and strength of the effort exerted in achieving a goal or satisfying a need.

Added to that, the extensive literature review within this research work is expected to be of benefit to those who might be interested in the theoretical background of attitude and motivation. It is also intended to work as a source of better understanding of the empirical part of the work.

2. The main source of the design of Pupils' and Teachers' Motivation Questionnaires is an M.Sc. dissertation in psychology by N. Mustafa at the College of Education, University of Baghdad, 1978. She constructed a similar questionnaire to measure the motivation of a sample of Iraqi teachers to choose the profession of teaching. Since then, many researchers have used it within the Iraqi context.

Furthermore, the choice of the selected method of construction of the motivation questionnaires is due to the fact that the data obtained can be statistically analysed according to Likert Scales for Attitude Measurement. The higher the degree of the application of any statement to a respondent is, the higher is the score given. Negative statements are reversedly scored.

3. An important point that is worth mentioning in this context, and which is mainly derived from the

present researcher's personal experience, is that in the field of English language teaching and learning in Iraq, there is a long record of reciprocal accusations between pupils and their teachers of English at all studying levels. Each party accuses the other for bringing about the current discouraging situation of English language teaching and learning. Accordingly, the harm in asking either party through an open question like the following: "What perceptions do you have of your pupils' learning of English?", for teachers, and "What perceptions do you have of your teacher's teaching of English?" for pupils, to state their perceptions of the second party seems to be multifaceted. Pupils and their teachers of English would be likely to find such an opportunity as an "outlet" to state whatever negative comments they have of one another. It would be a sort of a subjective and negative evaluation with much emphasis being placed on the personal and social aspects of the process rather than on the educational and pedagogical ones. Furthermore, pupils at large might lack the required ability and knowledge to state what is appropriate to the empirical procedure that was being followed. In the same manner, conventional norms in Iraqi society might influence female pupils to be less critical and less enthusiastic over their answers to such a question. The reason behind that lies in the gentle and close relationship that female pupils often have with their female teachers compared to male pupils and their male teachers of English.

Such an open-ended question might be successful with teachers, and to a limited extent. The benefit behind its use with pupils in providing responses of sufficient reliability is doubtful. This is coupled with the fact that statistical interpretation makes sense and is done more easily through the multiple choice procedure rather than eliciting certain meanings from a bulk of varied statements in answer to an open-ended question. Hence in order to obtain a more reliable and final judgement of the results obtained from pupils and their teachers of English in the sample, and in order to know how far the questionnaires of the current research had been seriously and sincerely reacted to, the following procedure was followed: forms that contained statements relevant to the behaviour of teachers and pupils in terms of their experience with English language-teaching and learning were distributed. Pupils were asked to choose the statements which they found applicable to their teachers, at a time when teachers of English were asked to follow the same procedure in terms of the behaviour displayed by their pupils in learning the language.

Finally, headteachers of the schools included in the sample and all supervisors of English at the preparatory level within the Governorate were given forms which contained an open-ended question that sought information on the process of English language teaching and learning at the preparatory level. Appendix 5E contains the four forms distributed for this purpose.

FIGURE (5.3): DISTRIBUTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE FORMS IN TERMS OF APPENDIX NUMBER, AREA TO BE INVESTIGATED, TYPE OF RESPONDENTS, AND CONTENTS TO BE ANSWERED.

Questionnaire or Appendix Number	Area to be Investigated	Type of Respondents Sample	Contents to be Answered
5A	Attitudes towards Learning English	Preparatory School Pupils (Male & Female)	Attitude Scales
5B	Motivation to Learn English	Preparatory School Pupils (Male & Female)	Motivation Scales
5C	Attitudes towards Teaching English	Preparatory School Teachers of English (Male & Female)	Attitude Scales
5D	Motivation to Teach English	Preparatory School Teachers of English (Male & Female)	Motivation Scales
5E	Perceptions of English Language Teaching and Learning	Pupils, Teachers and Supervisors of English, and Headteachers at Preparatory Level	Statement of Perceptions

CHAPTER SIX
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND SURVEY RESULTS

The raw data available from the distribution of four questionnaire forms required for their coding and computation much care and patience. Therefore, after access was obtained to the Computer Unit, University of Stirling, a new phase of intensive computational work was initiated. Firstly, two files were created: one for pupils under the name (PUPILDATA), and another for teachers under the name (TEACHDATA). Statistical analysis of the contents of both files was commenced in the light of the set hypotheses. The latter had outlined the scope of the statistical interpretation of the obtained data. Otherwise, such an amount of data with many variables belonging to two different populations, i.e. teachers and pupils, could easily divert attention to many less important particularities at the expense of more important ones.

It is also worthy of note that in order to avoid long repetitions and to save space, terms frequently used will be represented henceforth by simplified abbreviated forms:

1. The Pupils' Attitudes Questionnaire:

P. A. Q.: The Pupils' Attitudes Questionnaire.

ATLNGLRN: Attitudes towards English Language Learning.

LngSk : English Language Skills.

Diff : Difficulty of the Subject.

Textb : English Textbooks.

Test : Tests in English.

Benef : Perceived Benefits.

MarkEduc : English as a Mark of Education.

PrntEnc : Parental Encouragement.

OthEnc : Encouragement by Others within the
School Setting.

FathEduc : Father's Level of Educational Attain-
ment.

MothEduc : Mother's Level of Educational Attain-
ment.

2. The Pupils' Motivation Questionnaire:

P. M. Q. : The Pupils' Motivation Questionnaire.

MOTLNGLRN: Motivation to Learn English.

InstMot : Instrumental Motivation.

IntgMot : Integrative Motivation.

Intst : Interest in Learning English.

PrntEnc : Parental Encouragement.

TechEnc : Encouragement by Teachers of English.

To make the statistical analysis understandable and straightforward, the hypotheses will be individually stated, followed by the relevant statistical analysis:

6.1 The Pupils' Attitudes and Motivation Questionnaires:

Hypothesis No.1:

Iraqi pupils at the preparatory level have positive attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language:

It is worth mentioning that pupils' scores on

'ATLNGLRN' are the outcome of their responses to the variables within the P. A. Q.. Since such responses have been made according to a five-point scale that ranges between 1 and 5, positive attitudes can be traced from the number of average scores ABOVE the value of 3. This value represents the mid-point that separates negative attitudes from positive ones. Table (6.1) shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the negative, neutral, and positive average scores of pupils' attitudinal variables:

TABLE (6.1): FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES OF THE NEGATIVE, NEUTRAL, AND POSITIVE AVERAGE SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE PUPILS' ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE.

	Number and Percentage of Average Scores		
	BELOW 3	At 3	ABOVE 3
LngSk	94 (15.68%)	22 (3.66%)	484 (80.66%)
Diff	233 (38.83%)	110 (18.34%)	257 (42.83%)
Textb	143 (23.83%)	20 (3.34%)	437 (72.83%)
Test	369 (61.50%)	60 (10.00%)	171 (28.50%)
Benef	51 (8.50%)	19 (3.17%)	530 (88.33%)
MarkEduc	66 (11.00%)	76 (12.67%)	458 (76.33%)
PrntEnc	31 (5.18%)	46 (7.70%)	521 (87.12%)*
OthEnc	176 (29.33%)	132 (22.00%)	292 (48.67%)
ATLNGLRN	108 (18.00%)	2 (0.33%)	490 (81.67%)

* 2 respondents did not give answers to this variable.

A close look into the contents of this table reveals that out of the 600 pupils, representing the sample of the main study, only 108, i.e. 18.00%, have

expressed negative attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language. 490 pupils, i.e. 81.67% are of positive attitudes. Furthermore, the totals and percentages put forward a clear-cut image of pupils' dispositions. Except 'Test' variable, and to some extent the 'Diff', 'Textb', and 'OthEnc' ones, where pupils of negative attitudes are of noticeable percentages, the other 4 variables show high total scores and percentages on the positive side. It is worth mentioning that the disfavour expressed by the majority of pupils towards the variable 'Test' is, as it is outlined in Chapter Two: Section (2.3.3) of the current work, due to the fact that tests, which are constantly viewed as 'difficult', represent the only means of evaluation of English language learning in Iraqi schools.

Hypothesis No.2:

There are no differences in the attitudes of Iraqi pupils at the preparatory level towards learning English as a foreign language according to the Location of the School, Pupils' Sex, and Branch of Studying:

At the inception, table (6.2) shows the means and standard deviations of the scores of the 8 attitudinal variables in terms of Location of the School, Pupils' Sex and Branch of Studying:

TABLE (6.2): DISTRIBUTION OF MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE PUPILS' ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE.

A. According to the 'Location of the School':						
	Inner-city=300		Outer-city=300		All=600	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
LngSk	3.63	0.70	3.63	0.70	3.63	0.70
Diff	3.06	1.09	2.92	1.13	2.99	1.11
Textb	3.28	0.72	3.22	0.74	3.25	0.98
Test	2.67	0.81	2.53	0.82	2.60	0.81
Benef	4.10	0.78	4.08	0.79	4.09	0.79
MarkEduc	3.95	0.90	3.93	0.89	3.94	0.90
PrntEnc	4.35	0.74	4.11	0.85	4.23	0.80
OthEnc	3.14	0.96	3.27	1.04	3.21	1.00
ATLNGLRN	3.52	0.53	3.47	0.53	3.50	0.55
B. According to Pupils' Sex:						
	Male = 300		Female = 300			
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
LngSk	3.49	0.71	3.76	0.67		
Diff	2.93	1.23	3.05	1.10		
Textb	3.15	0.75	3.35	0.70		
Test	2.51	0.80	2.69	0.82		
Benef	3.99	0.83	4.19	0.73		
MarkEduc	3.94	0.91	3.94	0.88		
PrntEnc	4.10	0.85	4.36	0.73		
OthEnc	3.18	1.05	3.23	0.95		
ATLNGLRN	3.42	0.56	3.58	0.53		
C. According to Pupils' Branch of Studying:						
	General=200		Scientific=200		Literary=200	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
LngSk	3.63	0.71	3.77	0.64	3.48	0.71
Diff	3.05	1.08	3.20	1.09	2.71	1.11
Textb	3.27	0.69	3.29	0.73	3.18	0.77
Test	2.67	0.82	2.79	0.76	2.35	0.79
Benef	4.05	0.78	4.26	0.72	3.96	0.82
MarkEduc	3.86	0.92	4.08	0.83	3.89	0.93
PrntEnc	4.28	0.69	4.32	0.77	4.10	0.93
OthEnc	3.25	0.98	3.33	0.99	3.04	1.02
ATLNGLRN	3.51	0.53	3.63	0.50	3.35	0.58

Although some clear-cut differences can be traced in the light of the different means scored by pupils on each one of the 8 attitudinal variables, and towards 'ATLNGLRN', the analysis of variance of these values in terms of Location of the School, Pupils' Sex and Branch of Studying, as table (6.3) presents, has come out with the following F values which represent different levels of significance:

TABLE (6.3): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF PUPILS' ATTITUDES ACCORDING TO THE LOCATION OF THE SCHOOL, PUPILS' SEX AND BRANCH OF STUDYING.

	Location F (3.86) (6.70)	Sex F (3.86) (6.70)	Branch F (3.02) (4.66)
LngSk	0.00	22.80 **	9.40 **
Diff	2.50	1.85	10.54 **
Textb	0.76	11.76 **	1.23
Test	1.25	7.17 **	16.08 **
Benef	0.12	9.81 **	7.84 **
MarkEduc	0.13	0.01	3.38 *
PrntEnc	13.14 **	15.52 **	4.16 *
OthEnc	2.87	0.32	4.45 *
ATLNGLRN	1.49	13.15 **	14.15 **

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

As table (6.3) shows:

1. In terms of the 'Location of the School', there is 1 highly significant difference between inner-city and outer-city pupils in their responses to the variables within the P. A. Q.. Inner-city pupils have scored significantly higher than their outer-city counterparts on the variable 'PrntEnc'.

2. In terms of 'Sex', there are 6 highly significant differences between male and female pupils to 'ATLNGLRN', LngSk, Textb, Test, Benef, and PrntEnc. All these differences are in favour of female pupils. It is only on the variables, 'Diff, MarkEduc, and OthEnc' where both male and female pupils have similar scores.
3. In terms of 'Branch of Studying', there are 8 significant differences, 5 of which are very highly significant, between pupils from 'General, Scientific, and Literary' branches to 'ATLNGLRN, LngSk, Diff, Test, Benef, MarkEduc, PrntEnc, OthEnc'. Since the three branches of studying have been lumped together, it is too early to know in favour of which one of them these differences are. These differences become more realizable when the three branches are compared with each other. Table (6.4) shows the differences between pupils' 'ATLNGLRN', and between other attitudinal variables as far as each one of the three Branches of Studying is concerned:

TABLE (6.4): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF PUPILS' ATTITUDES ACCORDING TO THE THREE BRANCHES OF STUDYING.

	Gen. V Scien.	Gen. V. Lit.	Scien. V. Lit.
	F (3.86) (6.70)	F (3.86) (6.70)	F (3.86) (6.70)
LngSk	4.41 *	4.86 *	19.26 **
Diff	1.96	9.52 **	19.94 **
Textb	0.11	1.37	2.10
Test	2.46	14.85 **	31.56 **
Benef	8.03 **	1.13	14.92 **
MarkEduc	5.83 *	0.07	4.55 *
PrntEnc	0.24	4.82 *	6.41 *
OthEnc	0.65	4.36 *	8.21 **
ATLNGLRN	5.67 *	8.48 **	27.98 **

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

According to Table (6.4):

1. There are 4 significant differences between pupils in the General and Scientific Branches. All the differences are in favour of the Scientific Branch.
2. There are 6 significant differences between pupils in the General and Literary Branches. All the differences are in favour of the General Branch.
3. There are 8 significant differences between pupils in the Scientific and the Literary Branches. They are all in favour of the Scientific Branch.
4. 'Textb' is the only variable towards which pupils have shown no differences. This is due to the fact that the majority of pupils have expressed similar attitudes towards this variable.

Our conclusion of points 1, 2, and 3 is that pupils in the Scientific branch have more favourable attitudes

towards learning English in comparison to their counterparts in the General and Literary Branches. Pupils in the General Branch have also shown more favourable attitudes than pupils in the Literary Branch. Consequently, pupils in the Literary Branch can be said to have the least favourable attitudes towards learning English.

In the light of the preceding analysis, the null hypothesis that there are no differences in the attitudes of Iraqi pupils towards learning English as a foreign language is accepted according to the Location of the School, but rejected in terms of Pupils' Sex and Branch of Studying.

Figures (6.1), (6.2), and (6.3) show respectively the comparisons of pupils samples on attitudes towards learning English according to the 'Location of the School', Pupils' 'Sex' and 'Branch of Studying':

FIGURE (6.1): COMPARISON OF INNER-CITY AND OUTER-CITY PUPILS SAMPLES ON ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH.

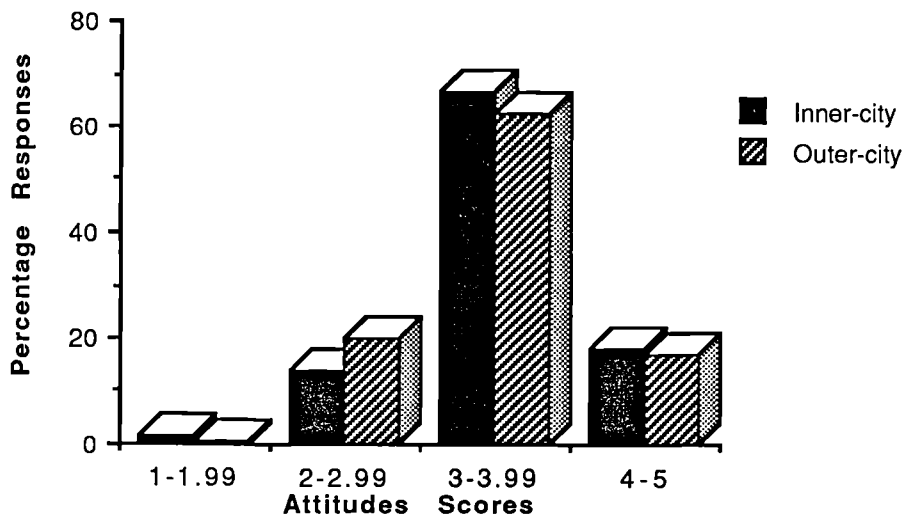


FIGURE (6.2): COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE PUPILS SAMPLES ON ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH.

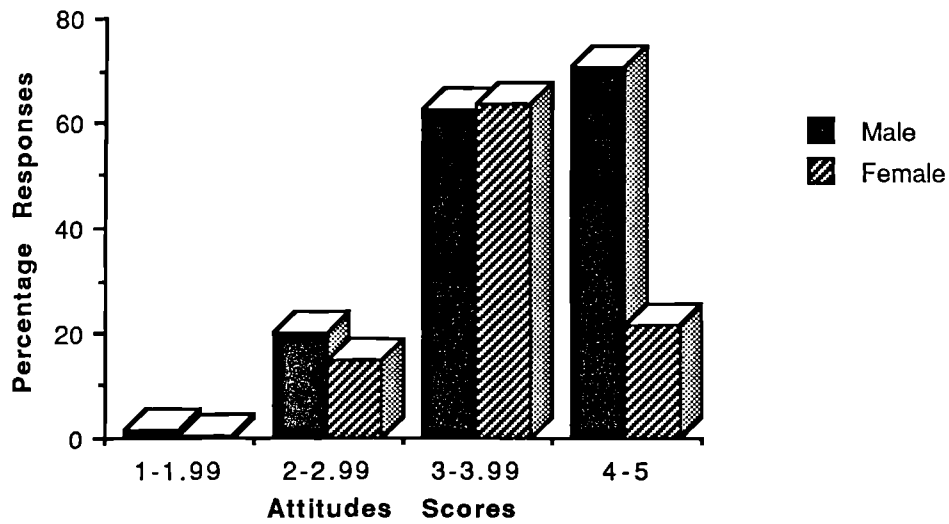
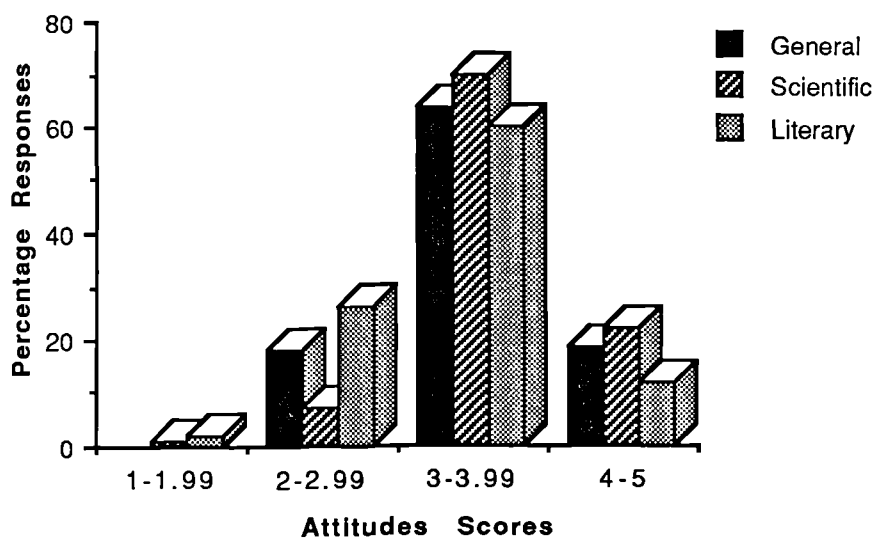


FIGURE (6.3): COMPARISON OF GENERAL, SCIENTIFIC, AND LITERARY PUPILS SAMPLES ON ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH.



Hypothesis No.3:

There are no differences in the attitudes of Iraqi pupils at the preparatory level towards learning English as a foreign language according to 'FathEduc' and 'MothEduc'.

'FathEduc' and 'MothEduc' have been coded in the following way:

1 = Illiterate.

4 = Secondary.

2 = Literate.

5 = University.

3 = Primary.

Table (6.5) shows the distribution of 'FathEduc' and 'MothEduc' of the sample of pupils selected for the main study:

TABLE (6.5):DISTRIBUTION OF FATHERS' AND MOTHERS' LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT.

	Level of Educational Attainment					Total
	1	2	3	4	5	
Fathers	132 23.10%	113 19.75%	97 16.95%	125 21.85%	105 18.35%	572*
Mothers	239 40.78%	129 22.03%	115 19.62%	78 13.31%	25 4.26%	586**

* There are 28 missing values.

** There are 14 missing values.

As table (6.5) presents, there are noticeable differences between the distribution of 'FathEduc' and

'MothEduc' at 1 and 5. 'FathEduc' is less than 'MothEduc' at 1 but greater at 5. This indicates that pupils' fathers are of better educational qualifications in comparison to their mothers.

Three questions are worthy of consideration in this respect: Are there differences in pupils' attitudes according to their 'FathEduc'? Are there differences in pupils' attitudes according to their 'MothEduc'? Are there differences in pupils' attitudes when 'FathEduc' and 'MothEduc' are the same?

In answer to these questions, analysis of variance has been applied to measure such differences, if any. Table (6.6) shows the level of significance of the differences in pupils' attitudes according to 'FathEduc' and 'MothEduc':

TABLE (6.6): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF PUPILS' ATTITUDES ACCORDING TO FATHERS' AND MOTHERS' LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT.

Scopes of Comparison according to 'FathEduc' and 'MothEduc'			F Values for Fathers	F Values for Mothers
1	Versus	2 } (Both Uneducated)	0.41	5.02 *
3	Versus	4 }	1.34	0.31
3	Versus	5 } (All Educated)	0.42	2.25
4	Versus	5 }	0.19	0.95
1	Versus	3 }	2.30	10.11**
1	Versus	4 } (Uneducated and Educated)	6.68 **	4.31 *
1	Versus	5 }	4.02 *	0.04
2	Versus	3 }	0.65	0.42
2	Versus	4 }	3.38	0.00
2	Versus	5 }	1.75	0.75
			Fathers & Mothers	
1	Versus	1	0.06	
2	Versus	2	1.85	
3	Versus	3	2.37	
4	Versus	4	0.10	
5	Versus	5	0.80	

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

As table (6.6) shows, there are no differences in pupils' attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language when fathers are uneducated. Similarly, pupils of educated fathers do not show any difference in this respect. It is worth mentioning that pupils of uneducated and educated fathers have shown 2 significant differences in their attitudes towards learning English. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, 'MothEduc' has also brought about some differences. There is a significant difference in the attitudes of pupils of illiterate mothers compared to those of literate mothers. Added to

that, there are 2 significant differences in the attitudes of pupils whose mothers are illiterate and those of educated mothers with either a primary or secondary certificate. Finally, there are no differences in 'ATLNGLRN' when fathers or mothers are of the same level of educational attainment.

In consequence, the null hypothesis that there are no differences in 'ATLNGLRN' according to 'FathEduc' or 'MothEduc' is rejected.

Hypothesis No.4:

Iraqi pupils at the preparatory level are motivated to learn English as a foreign language:

With respect to the P. M. Q., pupils' responses to the variables 'InstMot, IntgMot, Intst, PrntEnc, and TechEnc' give a broad image of what has already been hypothesized. Like the P. A. Q., pupils' responses to the P. M. Q. have been made according to a five-point scale that ranges between 1 as the minimum value, and 5 as the maximum value. Consequently, to find out the way pupils have reacted either positively or negatively to the variables within the P. M. Q., the value 3 has been considered as the average or the mid-point that separates negative responses from positive ones. Table (6.7) shows the frequency distribution and percentages of pupils' average scores of the variables within the P. M. Q.:

TABLE (6.7): FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES OF THE NEGATIVE, NEUTRAL, AND POSITIVE AVERAGE SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE PUPILS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE.

	Number and Percentage of Average Scores		
	BELOW 3	At 3	ABOVE 3
InstMot	44 (7.33%)	7 (1.17%)	549 (91.50%)
IntgMot	73 (12.17%)	49 (8.17%)	478 (79.66%)
Intst	144 (24.00%)	17 (2.83%)	439 (73.17%)
PrntEnc	55 (9.20%)	68 (11.37%)	475 (79.43%)*
TechEnc	66 (11.02%)	48 (8.01%)	485 (80.97%**)
MOTLNGLRN	59 (9.83%)	0 (0.00%)	541 (90.17%)

* 2 respondents did not answer this variable.

** 1 respondent did not answer this variable.

The last part of table (6.7), wherein the number and percentage of the scores of 'MOTLNGLRN' lie, shows that only 59 pupils, i.e. 9.83%, have scored lower than the average on their overall responses to the variables within the P. M. Q.. 541 pupils (90.17%) have scored higher than the average. Since such a distribution is the outcome of pupils' responses to the 5 variables, within the P. M. Q., which lie within the first five boxes of Table (6.7), another look at this table shows that for 4 variables, pupils have scored very high. The only variable that raises doubt is that of 'Intst'. Herein, we can see the lowest percentage scored. This should not be generalized since it is not known yet according to which variable, namely 'Location of the School', 'Sex', and 'Branch of

Studying', the difference in pupils' 'Intst' will be.

Hypothesis No.5:

There are no differences in the motivation of Iraqi pupils at the preparatory level to learn English as a foreign language according to the 'Location of the School', Pupils' 'Sex', and 'Branch of Studying':

To form an initial image of the way the variables within the P. M. Q. have contributed to the intended investigation, table (6.8) shows the mean scores and standard deviations of each variable within the P. M. Q.. The table is divided into three parts according to the Location of the school, Pupils' Sex and Branch of Studying. Finally, each part of table (6.8) ends with the core of our discussion; that is 'MOTLNGLRN'.

TABLE (6.8): DISTRIBUTION OF MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE PUPILS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE.

A. According to the Location of the School:						
	Inner-city = 300		Outer-city = 300		All = 600	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
InstMot	4.03	0.75	4.01	0.66	4.02	0.70
IntgMot	3.79	0.81	3.77	0.75	3.78	0.78
Intst	3.57	0.98	3.51	0.99	3.54	0.98
PrntEnc	4.12	0.88	3.93	0.98	4.03	0.94
TechEnc	4.17	1.24	4.25	1.15	4.21	1.19
MOTLNGLRN	3.94	0.65	3.89	0.63	3.92	0.64

B. According to Pupils' Sex:				
	Male = 300		Female = 300	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
InstMot	3.95	0.67	4.09	0.73
IntgMot	3.70	0.78	3.86	0.78
Intst	3.34	0.98	3.74	0.95
PrntEnc	3.86	0.95	4.19	0.89
TechEnc	4.17	1.25	4.25	1.13
MOTLNGLRN	3.81	0.62	4.02	0.64

C: According to the Branch of Studying:						
	General = 200		Scientific = 200		Literary=200	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
InstMot	4.01	0.66	4.10	0.70	3.95	0.74
IntgMot	3.75	0.77	3.87	0.77	3.72	0.81
Intst	3.55	0.97	3.81	0.89	3.27	1.02
PrntEnc	4.05	0.93	4.14	0.83	3.89	1.03
TechEnc	4.20	1.21	4.29	1.16	4.14	1.22
MOTLNGLRN	3.92	0.62	4.04	0.60	3.79	0.67

Although the means and the standard deviations in table (6.8) put forward a convincing image of the way pupils have responded to each variable, and of the role of Location, Sex, and Branch of Studying, a further study of

these values through the analysis of variance has given the following F-values by means of which the level of significance of the difference between the groups in question can be clarified:

TABLE (6.9): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF PUPILS' MOTIVATION ACCORDING TO THE LOCATION OF THE SCHOOL, PUPILS' SEX AND BRANCH OF STUDYING.

	Location F (3.87) (6.68)	Sex F (3.87) (6.68)	Branch F (3.03) (4.69)
InstMot	0.04	5.43 *	2.19
IntgMot	0.16	5.72 *	2.15
Intst	0.77	25.24 **	15.06 **
PrntEnc	5.73 *	18.98 **	3.71 *
TechEnc	0.68	0.55	0.75
MOTLNGLRN	0.63	17.47 **	7.41 **

* p<.05 ** p<.01

According to table (6.9):

1. In terms of 'Location of the School', there is 1 significant difference between inner-city and outer-city pupils. Inner-city pupils have scored significantly higher than their outer-city counterparts on the variable 'PrntEnc'. This is consistent with what already has been seen in the analysis of the P. A. Q. where a similar difference on the same variable has been found between inner-city and outer-city pupils.
2. In terms of Pupils' 'Sex', there are 5 significant differences between male and female pupils in their responses to the variables 'InstMot', 'Intg-

Mot', 'Intst', 'PrntEnc', and to 'MOTLNGLRN'. It is worth mentioning that all the differences are in favour of female pupils who have scored higher than their male counterparts.

3. In terms of pupils' 'Branch of Studying', table (6.9) presents 3 significant differences between pupils in the three branches of studying, namely General, Scientific, and Literary on the variables 'Intst' and 'PrntEnc', and on 'MOTLNGLRN'.

To be more precise, and to show the differences, if any, in pupils' motivation according to the three Branches of Studying, table (6.10) presents the effect of the three Branches of Studying on pupils' responses to the P. M. Q.:

TABLE (6.10): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF PUPILS' MOTIVATION ACCORDING TO THE THREE BRANCHES OF STUDYING.

	Branch		
	Gen. V Sci. F (3.86) (6.70)	Gen. V Lit. F(3.86) (6.70)	Sci. V Lit. F (3.86) (6.70)
InstMot	1.57	0.75	4.11 *
IntgMot	2.50	0.17	3.80
Intst	7.50 **	7.52 **	30.32 **
PrntEnc	1.09	2.63	7.22 **
TechEnc	0.50	0.26	1.50
MOTLNGLRN	4.23 **	3.30	14.75 **

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

As table (6.10) shows, there are 2 significant differences between pupils in the General Branch compared to

those in the Scientific Branch on 'Intst' and 'MOTLNGLRN'. It is worthy of note that both differences are in favour of the Scientific Branch. This can be ascribed to the fact that pupils in the Scientific Branch are always those who achieve better and intend to get admission to the prestigious colleges where most subjects are taught in English.

In the same manner, there is only 1 significant difference between pupils in the General Branch and their counterparts in the Literary Branch. The former have scored significantly higher than their Literary counterparts on 'Intst'. This may be due to the short experience by pupils in the General Branch in dealing with English in comparison to the pupils in the Literary Branch who are frequently labelled as 'low achievers' in their academic studies. Furthermore, table (6.10) shows a very limited number of differences between the General Branch on the one hand, and both Scientific and Literary Branches on the other. This is due to the fact that the General Branch represents a mixture of pupils who will be later specialized as Scientific or Literary.

Finally, there are 4 significant differences between pupils in the Scientific Branch and their Literary counterparts. All differences are in favour of the Scientific pupils who have scored higher on 'InstMot', 'Intst', 'PrntEnc', and 'MOTLNGLRN'. Consequently, according to the Branch of Studying, pupils in the Scientific Branch are the most motivated to learn English, followed by pupils in the General Branch, and finally those in the Literary

Branch.

In the light of what has been so far presented, the null hypothesis that there are no differences in pupils' motivation to learn English according to the Location of the School, pupils' Sex and Branch of Studying, is accepted in terms of Location, and rejected as far as pupils' Sex and Branches of Studying are concerned.

Figures (6.4), (6.5), and (6.6) show respectively the comparison of pupils' samples on motivation to learn English in terms of the 'Location of the School', pupils' 'Sex' and 'Branch of Studying':

FIGURE (6.4): COMPARISON OF INNER-CITY AND OUTER-CITY PUPILS SAMPLES ON MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH.

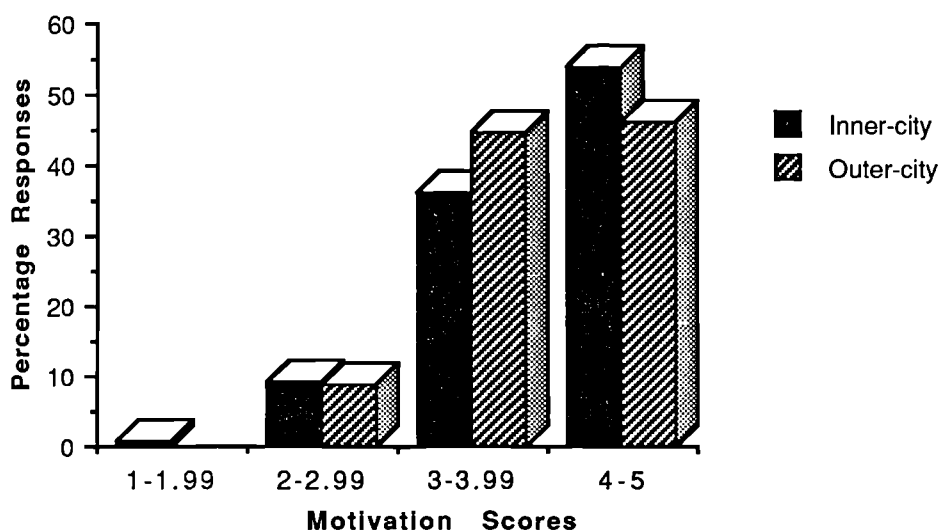


FIGURE (6.5): COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE PUPILS SAMPLES ON MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH.

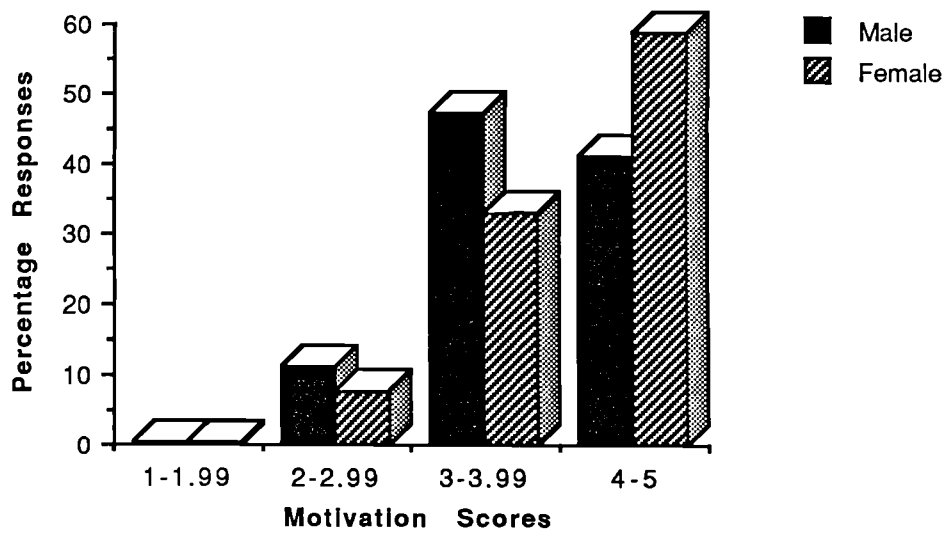
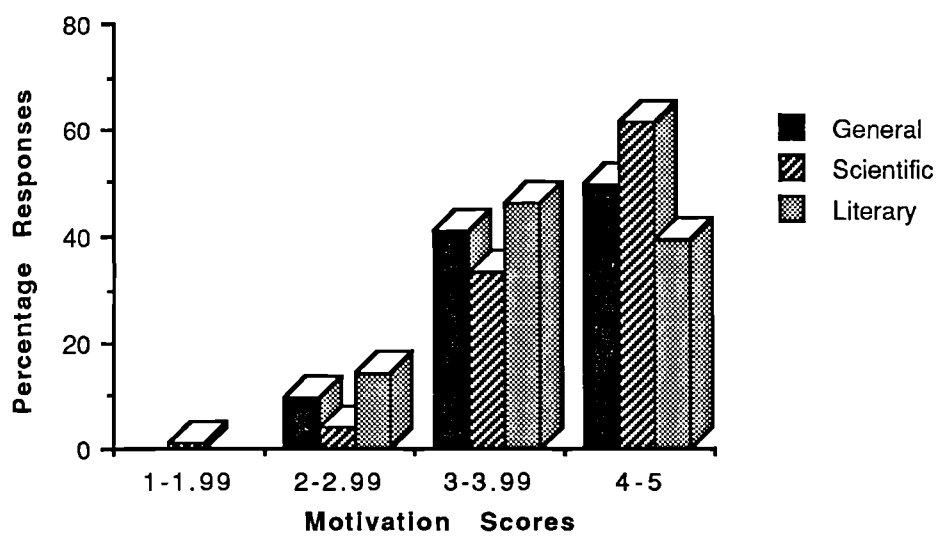


FIGURE (6.6): COMPARISON OF GENERAL, SCIENTIFIC, AND LITERARY PUPILS SAMPLES ON MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH.



Hypothesis No.6:

Iraqi pupils at the preparatory level show no differences in being instrumentally or integratively motivated to learn English as a foreign language according to the Location of the School, Pupils' Sex and Branch of Studying:

Table (6.11) shows the distribution of means and standard deviations of pupils' scores on 'InstMot' and 'IntgMot' variables. The scores are shown according to the 'Location of the School', pupils' 'Sex' and 'Branch of Studying'.

TABLE (6.11): DISTRIBUTION OF MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SCORES OF PUPILS' INSTRUMENTAL AND INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION.

A. According to the Location of the School:						
	Inner-city = 300		Outer-city = 300			
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
InstMot	4.03	0.75	4.01	0.66		
IntgMot	3.79	0.81	3.77	0.75		
B. According to Pupils' Sex:						
	Male = 300		Female = 300			
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
InstMot	3.95	0.67	4.09	0.73		
IntgMot	3.70	0.78	3.86	0.78		
C. According to Pupils' Branch of Studying:						
	General = 200		Scientific = 200		Literary = 200	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
InstMot	4.01	0.66	4.10	0.70	3.95	0.74
IntgMot	3.75	0.77	3.87	0.77	3.72	1.02

Table (6.11) presents higher mean scores on 'Instmot'

in comparison to 'Intgmot'. Furthermore, the differences in the mean scores have been of a uniform characteristic. In other words, all the differences are in favour of 'Instmot' in spite of the differences in the Location of the Schools, pupils' Sex and Branches of Studying.

Consequently, the null hypothesis that there are no differences between pupils' 'InstMot' and 'IntgMot' is rejected. Iraqi pupils at the preparatory level are more strongly instrumentally, than integratively, motivated to learn English.

To further our investigation in this respect, an additional experiment has been carried out. The objective is to see if any differences would exist in pupils' 'InstMot' or 'IntgMot' according to the Location of the School, Pupils' Sex and Branch of Studying. Table (6.12) shows the differences in question:

TABLE (6.12): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF PUPILS' INSTRUMENTAL AND INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION ACCORDING TO THE LOCATION OF THE SCHOOL, PUPILS' SEX AND BRANCH OF STUDYING.

	Location F (3.86) (6.69)	Sex F (3.86) (6.69)	Branch F(3.01) (4.65)
InstMot	0.04	5.43 *	2.19
IntgMot	0.16	5.72 *	2.15

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

As table (6.12) shows:

1. In terms of 'Location of the School', pupils show no differences in either 'InstMot' or 'IntgMot'.

2. In terms of 'Sex', there are significant differences between male and female pupils in their responses to the variables 'InstMot' and 'IntgMot'. It is worthy to note that both differences are in favour of female pupils.
3. In terms of 'Branch of Studying', there are no differences between pupils' 'InstMot' or 'IntgMot'. This may be due to the fact that the three Branches have been all accounted for together. A look at table (6.10) shows that for 'InstMot', there are differences in the mean scores. These differences are mainly between the Scientific Branch and its Literary counterpart in favour of the former.

Hypothesis No.7:

There are no differences in the motivation of Iraqi pupils at the preparatory level to learn English as a foreign language according to 'FathEduc' and 'MothEduc':

In a procedure similar to that followed in Hypothesis No.3, 'FathEduc' and 'MothEduc' have been coded as follows:

1 = Illiterate.	3 = Primary.	5 = University.
2 = Literate.	4 = Secondary.	

Because the counts and the percentages of these 5 levels are already presented in the analysis of Hypothesis No.3 (See p.347), reference can be made to them in case of any further information required. Furthermore, three main questions are awaiting convincing answers:

1. Are there differences in pupils' motivation to learn English according to their 'FathEduc'?
2. Are there differences in pupils' motivation to learn English according to their 'MothEduc'?
3. Are there differences in pupils' motivation when fathers and mothers of the same level of educational attainment are compared to each other?

In answer to these questions, Table (6.13) shows the levels of difference that the analysis of variance has come out with:

TABLE (6.13): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF PUPILS' MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH ACCORDING TO FATHERS' AND MOTHERS' LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT.

Level of Educational Attainment	F Values (Fathers)	F Values (Mothers)
1 Versus 2 } (Uneducated)	0.00	0.06
3 Versus 4 } (Educated)	4.20 *	0.07
3 Versus 5 }	3.45	0.22
4 Versus 5 }	0.01	0.35
1 Versus 3 } (Uneducated V Educated)	0.22	4.41 *
1 Versus 4 }	7.15 **	4.34 *
1 Versus 5 }	5.89 *	0.41
2 Versus 3 }	0.14	2.39
2 Versus 4 }	5.94 *	2.49
2 Versus 5 }	4.89 *	0.20
Fathers and Mothers		
1 Versus 1 }	0.27	
2 Versus 2 } (Uneducated)	0.29	
3 Versus 3 }	2.99	
4 Versus 4 } (Educated)	0.00	
5 Versus 5 }	0.34	

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

As table (6.13) shows, there are no differences in the motivation of the pupils of uneducated fathers or uneducated mothers. In the same vein, there is 1 significant difference in pupils' motivation to learn English when only fathers, and not mothers, are educated. This difference in motivation is between pupils of fathers with the primary certificate compared to those with the secondary certificate. Furthermore, when comparing the motivation of pupils of uneducated fathers or mothers with those of educated fathers or mothers, 4 significant differences exist in the case of fathers and 2 differences in the case of mothers. The differences are definitely in favour of pupils of educated fathers or mothers.

Likewise, when investigating the motivation of pupils of fathers and mothers of the same level of educational attainment, pupils have shown no differences in their motivation to learn English as a foreign language.

To sum up, the null hypothesis that there are no differences in the motivation of pupils of fathers or mothers of different levels of educational attainment is rejected.

Hypothesis No.8:

There are no differences in 'PrntEnc' according to 'FathEduc' or 'MothEduc'.

Parental Encouragement (PrntEnc) forms an important variable within the P. A. Q. and P. M. Q.. Its correlation with 'ATLNGLRN' in the P. A. Q. is 0.561, and with 'MOTLNGLRN' in the P. M. Q. is 0.706; two correlational

values that can be interpreted as very high. Consequently, to investigate this variable satisfactorily, comparisons similar to those already done in Hypothesis No.7 have been carried out. Table (6.14) presents the differences between uneducated; educated; and educated against uneducated fathers or mothers. The same table ends with the analysis of the differences in pupils' attitudes and motivation according to the encouragement they receive from fathers and mothers who are of the same educational attainment:

TABLE (6.14): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT OF PUPILS TO LEARN ENGLISH ACCORDING TO FATHERS' AND MOTHERS' LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT.

'Fatheduc' or 'Motheduc'			P.	A.	Q.	P.	M.	Q.
			Fathers			Mothers		
1	V	2 (Uneduc.)	1.49		9.99 **	3.01		3.10
3	V	4}	10.06 **		2.81	6.94 **		0.01
3	V	5} (Educ.)	21.57 **		1.12	14.47 **		0.75
4	V	5}	2.33		0.00	1.57		0.85
1	V	3 }	1.83		19.19 **	3.01		20.10 **
1	V	4 } (Uneduc)	21.84 **		28.84 **	18.66 **		14.23 **
1	V	5 } V	35.95 **		9.98 **	28.26 **		10.07 **
2	V	3 } Educ.)	0.2		1.35	0.00		5.66 *
2	V	4 }	10.95 **		6.75 *	6.94 **		4.04 *
2	V	5 }	21.86 **		2.51	14.47 **		4.41 *
			Fathers & Mothers			Fathers & Mothers		
1	V	1 } (Unedu-	0.10			0.82		
2	V	2 } cated)	3.14			0.29		
3	V	3 }	8.08 **			9.16 **		
4	V	4 } Educated	1.58			0.07		
5	V	5 }	0.01			0.13		

* p<.05

** p<.01

As table (6.14) shows:

1. In terms of the P. A. Q.:
 - a. Fathers who are illiterate and literate (uneducated) do not encourage their children differently.
 - b. There are 2 differences in the way educated fathers encourage their children to learn English. Both differences are of high significance between fathers with secondary and university certificates on the one hand, and those with primary certificate on the other. The differences are in favour of fathers with secondary and university certificates since fathers with primary certificate do not have the same level of experience with English language as the former do.
 - c. There are 4 highly significant differences between uneducated and educated fathers. These differences are in favour of educated fathers. It is worth mentioning that fathers with the primary certificate are the only group of educated fathers that does not differ from uneducated fathers. This can again be ascribed to the way they view English in the light of their short experience with the language and presumably their view of education in general.
 - d. There is 1 significant difference between 'PrntEnc' for pupils of Illiterate and Literate mothers, in favour of the latter. Unlike literate fathers, literate mothers think that they are of enough education as they can read and write. This can be

ascribed to the narrow scope of female education in Iraq in the past.

- e. There are no differences in the way educated mothers (with primary, secondary, and university certificates) encourage their children to learn English.
- f. There are 3 highly significant differences between illiterate mothers on the one hand, and educated mothers on the other. Table (6.18) also shows only 1 difference between literate mothers and mothers with the secondary certificate in favour of the latter.

2. In terms of the P. M. Q.

- a. There are no differences in the way uneducated fathers encourage their children to learn English.
- b. There are 2 highly significant differences between fathers with the primary certificate and their counterparts with the secondary or university certificate. This difference is in favour of the latter. It is the result of (as we have seen in b above) the way fathers with the primary certificate view their education as below the standard and their short experience of English language learning.
- c. There are 2 significant differences between illiterate fathers and educated fathers with the secondary and university certificates. Likewise, there are 2 significant differences between literate fathers and educated fathers with the secondary and university certificates. The interesting point is that neither

- illiterate nor literate fathers have shown differences against fathers with primary certificate; a point that has been interpreted throughout the previous lines.
- d. There are no differences in the way uneducated mothers encourage their children to learn English. Although such a phenomenon shows inconsistency in respondents' answers to the P. A. Q. and P. M. Q. as it has already been seen in the interpretation of the results obtained from P. A. Q. that literate mothers encourage their children to learn English more than illiterate mothers do, it is worthy of note that the inattentive answers by a number of respondents, not all of them, may have yielded such a result.
 - e. There are no differences between educated mothers in encouraging their children to learn English.
 - f. There are 3 very highly significant differences between illiterate mothers on the one hand, and mothers with the primary, secondary, and university certificates on the other, in favour of the latter. Likewise, table (6.14) shows 3 significant differences between literate and educated mothers, again in favour of the latter.
 - g. There is 1 difference when fathers and mothers of the same level of educational attainment are compared to each other. Mothers with the primary certificate encourage their children more than fathers

with the same certificate do. This is once again due to the fact that mothers with the primary certificate view themselves as more educated in comparison to fathers with the same certificate.

In the light of what has been so far presented, the null hypothesis that there are no differences in 'PrntEnc' according to 'FathEduc' or 'MothEduc' is rejected.

Hypothesis No. 9:

There is no relationship between pupils' marks in English and their attitudes and motivation to learn the language.

It has already been seen that Iraqi pupils have positive attitudes and are motivated to learn English. In an attempt to see if there is any type of relationship between pupils' attitudes and motivation to learn English and their final achievement in the subject, pupils were asked to state their final pass mark in English during the last two years. From these two final marks an average mark has been calculated. It is worthy of note that pupils' average marks have been coded in the following way:

40 - 49 = 5	80 - 89 = 9
50 - 59 = 6	90 - 99 = 10
60 - 69 = 7	100 = 11
70 - 79 = 8	

Table (6.15) shows the distribution of pupils' average marks according to the Location of the School, Pupils' Sex and Branch of Studying:

TABLE (6.15): FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS' AVERAGE MARKS IN ENGLISH ACCORDING TO THE LOCATION OF THE SCHOOL, PUPILS' SEX AND BRANCH OF STUDYING.

M A R K S	L o c a t i o n												T O T A L
	I n n e r - c i t y						O u t e r - c i t y						
	M a l e			F e m a l e			M a l e			F e m a l e			
	Gen	Sci	Lit	Gen	Sci	Lit	Gen	Sci	Lit	Gen	Sci	Lit	
5	1	-	1	-	-	3	1	1	1	-	-	-	8
6	14	13	22	4	9	11	17	15	32	7	9	23	176
7	13	17	21	18	16	23	19	15	10	14	17	24	207
8	11	6	5	12	14	6	6	11	5	14	14	1	105
9	7	8	1	10	4	5	4	5	2	11	8	2	67
10	3	6	-	3	7	1	1	2	-	3	2	-	28
11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
TOTAL													592

* There are 8 pupils who have not stated their final marks.

As table (6.15) shows, a large percentage of pupils' marks are distributed among 6, 7, and 8. In other words, 488 pupils, 82.43%, out of a total number of (592) have got average marks that range between 50 as the lowest mark, and 79 as the highest mark. Added to that, the correlation between pupils' attitudes and average mark is 0.469, and motivation and average mark is 0.399. These two values tell us that there is actually a significant positive relationship between pupils' attitudes or motivation and their marks in English. Yet our main concern in this respect is to investigate the extent of differences in pupils' average marks in relation to the

differences in their attitudes and motivation. Such differences have been accounted for in terms of the Location of the School, Pupils' Sex and Branch of Studying. Table (6.16) shows the levels of significance of the differences in pupils' average marks.

TABLE (6.16): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF PUPILS' AVERAGE MARKS ACCORDING TO THE LOCATION OF THE SCHOOL, PUPILS' SEX AND BRANCH OF STUDYING.

	Location F (3.86) (6.70)	Sex F (3.86) (6.70)	Branch F (3.02) (4.66)
Average Mark	** 6.51	** 18.77	** 34.18

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

As table (6.16) shows:

1. The difference is highly significant between pupils' average marks according to the Location of the School. Inner-city pupils have higher average marks than their outer-city counterparts.

2. The difference is very highly significant between pupils' average marks according to Sex. Female pupils have higher average marks in comparison to their male counterparts.

3. The difference is very highly significant between pupils' average marks according to the Branch of Studying. It is difficult to judge in favour of which one of the three branches this difference is. Consequently, table (6.17) shows the level of significance of the differences

in pupils' average marks according to their General, Scientific and Literary branches of studying:

TABLE (6.17): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF PUPILS' AVERAGE MARKS ACCORDING TO THE THREE BRANCHES OF STUDYING.

	Gen. V Scien. F (3.86) (6.70)	Gen. V Lit. F (3.86) (6.70)	Scien. V Lit. F (3.86) (6.70)
Average Mark	0.01	57.74 **	54.53 **

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

According to table (6.17):

1. There are no differences between the average marks in English obtained by pupils in the General Branch and their counterparts in the Scientific Branch.

2. The difference is very highly significant between the average marks in English obtained by pupils in the General Branch and their counterparts in the Literary Branch. This difference is in favour of pupils in the General Branch.

3. The difference is very highly significant between the average marks in English obtained by pupils in the Scientific Branch and their counterparts in the Literary Branch. It is in favour of the pupils in the Scientific Branch.

To sum up, if we look backward, and recall the differences in pupils' attitudes and motivation according to the Location of the School, pupils' Sex and Branch of Studying, we will come to the conclusion that there is a

very positive relationship between pupils' attitudes and motivation to learn English and their marks in the subject during the last two years before giving answers to the current questionnaire. In other words, pupils' mark, i.e. their achievement in English, seem to be influenced by the type of attitude and motivation they have. This confirms what has been stated in Chapter Three, the Section on "The Relation between Pupils' Attitudes and Achievement in Foreign Language Learning", that the more positive pupils' attitudes towards learning the foreign language are, more likely their success and better achievement in learning the language will be. As a consequence, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between pupils' final marks in English and their attitudes and motivation to learn the language is rejected.

6.2 The Teachers' Attitudes and Motivation Questionnaires:

Similar to the P. A. Q. and the P. M. Q., the following abbreviations will be used throughout the analysis and discussion of the Teachers' Attitudes and Motivation Questionnaires:

1. The Teachers' Attitudes Questionnaire:

T. A. Q. : The Teachers' Attitudes Questionnaire.

ATLNGTCH : Attitudes towards Teaching English.

Prof : The Profession of Teaching English.

Train : Training Courses.

Textb : English Textbooks.

Guides : Teachers' Guides.

Super : Supervisors and Supervision of
Teachers of English.

Test : Tests of English.

Serious : Seriousness in Teaching English.

CommApp : The Communicative Approach of
Teaching English.

2. The Teachers' Motivation Questionnaire:

T. M. Q. : The Teachers' Motivation Questionnaire.

MOTLNGTCH: Motivation to Teach English.

OccupVal : Occupational Values.

Nature : Nature of the Profession of Teaching
English.

Intst : Interest in Teaching English.

Hypothesis No.1:

Iraqi teachers of English at the preparatory level have positive attitudes towards teaching English as a foreign language:

To measure their attitudes towards teaching English, 52 teachers from inner-city and outer-city schools, males and females, graduates of Colleges of Arts and Colleges of Education, and of short, medium, and long experiences in teaching English, were asked to complete the Attitudes Questionnaire. 8 variables of much relevance to the task of teaching English were introduced, and teachers were asked to give responses according to a five-point scale that ranges between 1 as the minimum value and 5 as the maximum value. In analysing teachers' responses, the value of 3 has been accounted for as the average value that separates positive attitudes from negative ones. Positive attitudes occur ABOVE the value of 3, whereas negative attitudes occur BELOW this value. Table (6.18) shows the distribution of teachers' responses to the 8 variables within the T. A. Q., and to 'ATLNGTCH' in particular:

TABLE (6.18): FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES OF THE NEGATIVE, NEUTRAL, AND POSITIVE AVERAGE SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE TEACHERS' ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE.

	Number and Percentage of Responses		
	BELOW 3	AT 3	ABOVE 3
Prof	3 (5.77%)	2 (3.85%)	47 (90.38%)
Train	32 (61.54%)	6 (11.54%)	14 (26.92%)
Textb	43 (82.70%)	1 (1.92%)	8 (15.38%)
Guides	9 (17.30%)	11 (21.16%)	32 (61.54%)
Super	25 (48.07%)	10 (19.23%)	17 (32.70%)
Test	25 (48.08%)	15 (28.84%)	12 (23.08%)
Serious	0 (0.00%)	1 (1.92%)	51 (98.08%)
CommApp	0 (0.00%)	2 (3.85%)	50 (96.15%)
ATLNGTCH	6 (11.54%)	0 (0.00%)	46 (88.46%)

It is worth mentioning that 'ATLNGTCH' is the outcome of teachers' responses to the 8 variables within the T. A. Q.. 46 teachers included in the sample, i.e. 88.46%, have expressed positive attitudes towards the profession of teaching English. Yet, though we can conclude from such figures that the majority of teachers have positive attitudes towards teaching English as a foreign language, a close look at table (6.18) shows that for 4 variables, namely 'Train', 'Textb', 'Super', and 'Test', teachers have expressed negative attitudes, 61.54% for 'Train', 82.70% for 'Textb', 48.07% for 'Super', and 48.08% for 'Test'. Table (6.19) shows in order the variables according to the mean scores obtained. The mean scores are accounted for in terms of teachers' Sex, Place of Graduation (henceforth PlacGrad), and Years of Experience in teaching English (henceforth YrsExp).

TABLE (6.19): DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE TEACHERS' ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE ACCORDING TO SEX, PLACE OF GRADUATION, AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH.

A. According to Sex:					
Male = 26			Female = 26		
Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean
Serious	4.02	Prof	4.24	CommApp	4.07
CommApp	3.97	Serious	3.90	Guides	3.66
Prof	3.86	Guides	3.66	Super	2.99
Guides	3.42	Super	2.99	Train	2.78
Test	2.91	Train	2.78	Test	2.74
Super	2.69	Test	2.74	Textb	2.51
Train	2.65	Textb	2.51		
Textb	2.33				
B. According to the Place of Graduation:					
Colleges of Arts = 35			Colleges of Education = 17		
Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean
Prof	4.07	Serious	4.05	Prof	4.03
CommApp	4.03	Prof	4.03	CommApp	4.00
Serious	3.87	CommApp	4.00	Guide	3.49
Guides	3.59	Guide	3.49	Test	2.81
Super	2.88	Test	2.81	Super	2.75
Test	2.85	Super	2.75	Train	2.62
Train	2.82	Train	2.62	Textb	2.36
Textb	2.48	Textb	2.36		
C. According to Years of Experience in Teaching English:					
Short = 9		Medium = 27		Long = 16	
Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean
CommApp	3.97	Prof	4.29	Serious	4.06
Guides	3.96	CommApp	4.05	Prof	4.04
Serious	3.91	Serious	3.92	CommApp	4.04
Prof	3.82	Guides	3.44	Guides	3.24
Train	2.77	Super	2.92	Test	2.89
Super	2.75	Train	2.89	Super	2.75
Test	2.63	Test	2.82	Train	2.50
Textb	2.51	Textb	2.55	Textb	2.19

As table (6.19) shows, Male and Female teachers, teacher-graduates of Colleges of Arts or Colleges of Education, and of short, medium or long periods of experience in teaching English have scored what can be

labelled as uniform means. For 4 variables, namely 'Prof', 'Guides', 'Serious', and 'CommApp', teachers' positive attitudes are clear-cut and unquestionable. They occupy the first four positions in all the three divisions of table (6.19) in an interchangeable manner; this is on the one hand. On the other hand, teachers' less favourable attitudes, and in some cases negative attitudes, are shown towards the variables 'Train', 'Super', 'Test', and 'Textb'. The first three of these variables have occupied the three positions before the end in an interchangeable way. The only variable where teachers negative attitudes are very vivid is that of 'Textb'. This variable has occupied the last position in all the three divisions of table (6.19) since the lowest means have been scored on it.

Hypothesis No.2:

There are no differences in the attitudes of Iraqi teachers at the preparatory level towards teaching English according to teachers' Sex, Place of Graduation, and Years of Experience in teaching the language:

To form an initial image of how far teachers' Sex, Place of Graduation, and Years of Experience in Teaching English have affected their responses to the 8 variables within the T. A. Q. in general, and 'ATLNGTCH' in particular, table (6.20) shows the means and the standard deviations of the values scored in this respect.

TABLE (6.20): DISTRIBUTION OF MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE TEACHERS' ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE ACCORDING TO SEX, PLACE OF GRADUATION, AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH.

A. According to 'Sex':						
	Male = 26		Female = 26		All = 52	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Prof	3.86	0.56	4.24	0.70	4.05	0.65
Train	2.65	0.71	2.78	0.67	2.72	0.69
Textb	2.33	0.54	2.51	0.41	2.42	0.49
Guides	3.42	1.12	3.66	0.86	3.54	0.99
Super	2.69	0.57	2.99	0.66	2.84	0.63
Test	2.90	0.49	2.74	0.41	2.82	0.46
Serious	4.02	0.44	3.90	0.42	3.96	0.43
CommApp	3.97	0.44	4.07	0.46	4.02	0.45
ATLNGTCH	3.22	0.22	3.36	0.24	3.29	0.26

B. According to 'PlacGrad':				
	Colleges of Arts=35		Colleges of Education=17	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Prof	4.07	0.69	4.03	0.60
Train	2.82	0.56	2.62	0.89
Textb	2.48	0.44	2.36	0.57
Guides	3.59	0.93	3.49	1.13
Super	2.88	0.57	2.75	0.73
Test	2.85	0.42	2.81	0.53
Serious	3.91	0.45	4.05	0.38
CommApp	4.02	0.43	4.02	0.50
ATLNGTCH	3.33	0.23	3.25	0.32

C. According to 'YrsExp':						
	Short = 9		Medium = 27		Long = 16	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Prof	3.82	0.69	4.29	0.64	4.04	0.59
Train	2.77	0.60	2.89	0.67	2.50	0.69
Textb	2.51	0.45	2.56	0.47	2.19	0.47
Guides	3.96	1.05	3.44	0.88	3.24	1.12
Super	2.75	0.66	2.92	0.62	2.75	0.64
Test	2.63	0.39	2.87	0.42	2.89	0.54
Serious	3.91	0.41	3.92	0.45	4.06	0.42
CommApp	3.97	0.45	4.05	0.40	4.04	0.56
ATLNGTCH	3.27	0.29	3.38	0.23	3.21	0.27

Unlike table (6.18), table (6.20) puts forward a more detailed picture of the way teachers have responded to the variables within the T. A. Q.. For instance, there are very few means that can be interpreted as standing for very positive attitudes, although for three variables, namely 'Prof, Serious, and CommApp' the scores range between 3.82 as the lowest mean of 'Prof' by teachers of Short periods in teaching English, and 4.24 as the highest mean, also of 'Prof', given by Female teachers. Added to that, for the other four variables, namely 'Train, Textb, Super, Test', teachers have scored between 2.19 as the lowest mean for 'Textb' by teachers of Long experience in teaching, and 2.92 as the highest mean for 'Super' by teachers who are of medium experience in teaching English. It is only on 'Guides' where the range becomes wider. Herein, teachers responses to this variable have been so varied to the extent that the highest standard deviations can be seen standing for it (0.86 is the lowest, and 1.15 is the highest).

This brief review of the contents of table (6.20) can be made more sensible by the careful study of the variance in each one of the 8 variables, and of course in 'ATLNGTCH', according to teachers' 'Sex', 'PlacGrad', and 'YrsExp'. Table (6.21) presents the variance in teachers' responses to the T. A. Q..

TABLE (6.21): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES ACCORDING TO SEX, PLACE OF GRADUATION, AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH.

	Sex = 52 F (4.03) (7.17)	PlacGrad = 52 F (4.03) (7.17)	YrsExp = 52 F (3.18) (5.06)
Prof	4.54 *	0.04	2.73
Train	0.49	1.40	2.88
Textb	1.86	1.55	3.26 *
Guides	0.74	0.13	1.25
Super	3.02	0.53	0.50
Test	1.85	0.12	0.93
Serious	1.08	1.55	0.56
CommApp	0.69	0.07	0.14
ATLNGTCH	3.23	0.99	2.05

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

According to table (6.21), there are 2 significant differences only. The first difference is between Male and Female teachers on 'Prof' where Female teachers have scored higher than their Male counterparts. The second difference is according to 'YrsExp'. It is towards 'Textb'. No other significant differences are found. It is noteworthy that in terms of 'YrsExp' more analysis is required because in table (6.21) teachers of three different periods of experience in teaching English have been brought together. A procedure like this does not make precise differences come to the surface. Accordingly, table (6.22) shows the differences in 'ATLNGTCH' and other variables within the T. A. Q. in terms of the three Periods of Experience in teaching English:

TABLE (6.22): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES ACCORDING TO THE YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH.

	Short V Medium F (4.11) (7.39)	Short V Long F (4.26) (7.82)	Long V Medium F (4.07) (7.27)
Prof	5.19 *	2.54	0.60
Train	0.22	1.92	5.48 *
Textb	0.08	2.68	6.19 *
Guide	1.44	2.03	0.53
Super	0.52	0.00	0.78
Test	1.72	1.46	0.07
Serious	0.00	0.69	0.96
CommApp	0.27	0.02	0.14
ATLNGTCH	1.04	0.29	4.18 *

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

As table (6.22) shows:

1. There is 1 significant difference between teachers of Short periods in teaching English and their counterparts of Medium periods towards 'Prof'. This difference is in favour of teachers of Medium periods who have more knowledge of the profession of teaching English than their counterparts of Short periods. Unlike teachers of Medium periods who have shown more positive orientation, teachers of Short period have not yet experienced the profession fully, and in comparison, their reactions have been moderate.
2. No differences are found between teachers of Short and Long periods in teaching English. Our interpretation of this is that teachers of Long period gradually tend to experience no differences in

their teaching career. This results in changes in their orientations to be more moderate just like teachers of Short period.

3. There are 3 significant differences between teachers of Medium period in teaching and their counterparts of Long period on 'Train', 'Textb', and 'ATLNGTCH'. These differences are in favour of teachers of Medium experience. One can assume the latter to be very active and energetic. They are different from teachers of Long period who might show feelings of boredom, and from teachers of Short period who have not experienced all the aspects of their profession.

Figures (6.7), (6.8), and (6.9) put forward respectively the comparisons of teachers' samples on attitudes towards teaching English according to 'Sex', 'PlacGrad', and 'YrsExp'.

FIGURE (6.7): COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS SAMPLES ON ATTITUDES TOWARDS TEACHING ENGLISH.

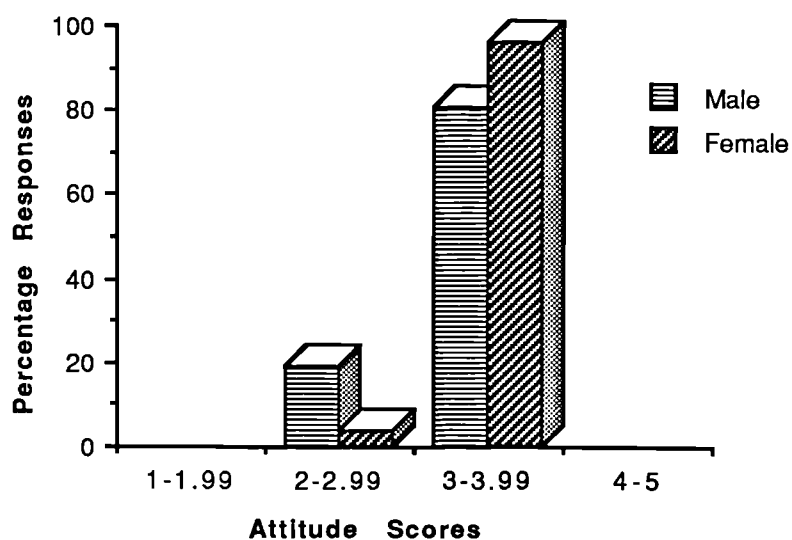


FIGURE (6.8): COMPARISON OF TEACHER-GRADUATES OF COLLEGES OF ARTS AND COLLEGES OF EDUCATION SAMPLES ON ATTITUDES TOWARDS TEACHING ENGLISH.

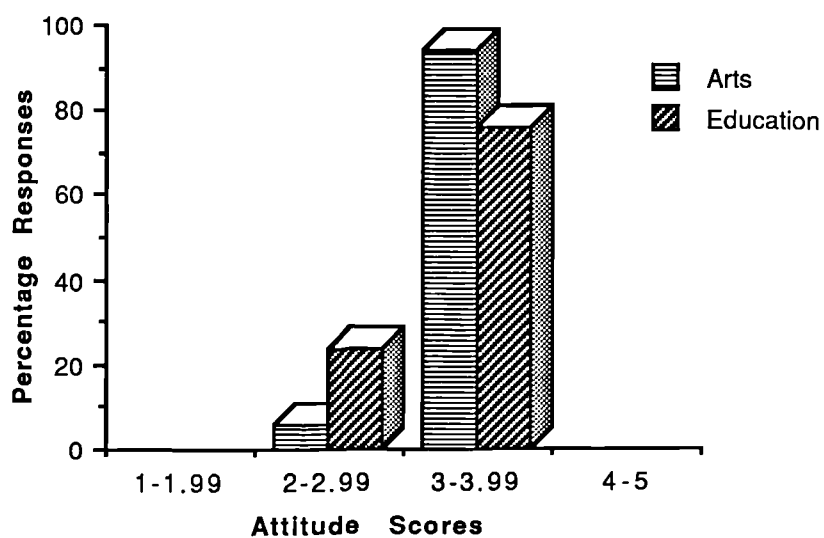
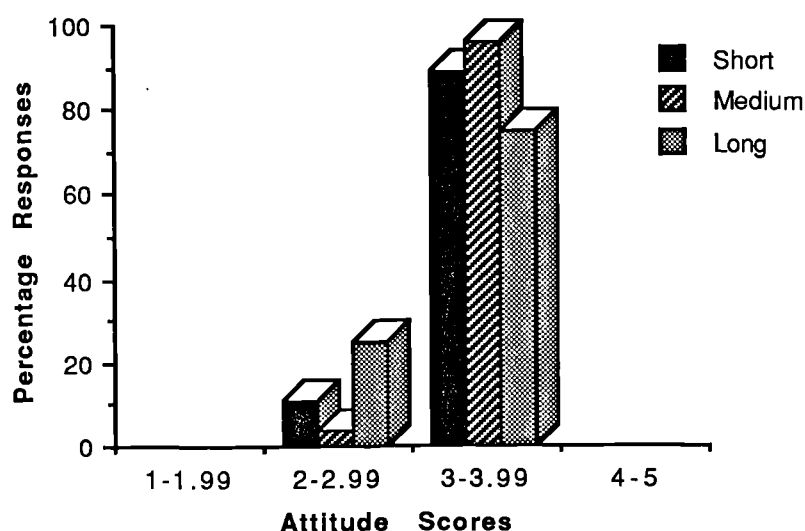


FIGURE (6.9): COMPARISON OF TEACHERS SAMPLES OF SHORT, MEDIUM, AND LONG EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH ON ATTITUDES TOWARDS TEACHING THE LANGUAGE.



Consequently, the null hypothesis that there are no differences in the attitudes of Iraqi teachers at the preparatory level towards teaching English is very weakly rejected in terms of 'Sex', sustained in terms of 'PlacGrad', and rejected in terms of 'YrsExp'.

Hypothesis No.3:

Iraqi Teachers of English at the preparatory level are motivated to teach the language.

In an attempt to investigate the motivation of Iraqi teachers at the preparatory level to teach English as a foreign language, a motivation questionnaire was distributed among the same sample of teachers who responded to the T. A. Q.. Three variables, namely 'OccupVal', 'Nature',

and 'Intst' were introduced, and teachers were asked to state their responses according to a 5-point scale ranging between "Applies to me to a very high degree" and "Applies to me to a very low degree". Similar to the T. A. Q., the value of 1 has been considered as the minimum value, whereas the value of 5 has been considered as the maximum value. Accordingly, the value of 3 has been accounted for as the average value that separates the values standing for high or above average motivation from those representing low or below the average motivation. Table (6.23) presents the number and percentage of responses that are BELOW, AT, and ABOVE the value of 3.

TABLE (6.23): FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES OF THE NEGATIVE, NEUTRAL, AND POSITIVE AVERAGE SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE TEACHERS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE.

	Number and Percentage of Average Scores		
	BELOW 3	AT 3	ABOVE 3
Occupval	2 (3.85%)	1 (1.92%)	49 (94.23%)
Nature	4 (7.70%)	4 (7.70%)	44 (84.60%)
Intst	6 (11.54%)	1 (1.92%)	45 (86.54%)
MOTLNGTCH	2 (3.85%)	0 (0.00%)	50 (96.15%)

According to table (6:23):

1. 2 teachers on the variable 'Occupval', 4 on the variable 'Nature', and 6 on the variable 'Intst', have scored BELOW the value 3.
2. By summing together the means scored by all teachers on the above-mentioned variables and dividing them by 3, new means are obtained that

stand for 'MOTLNGTCH'. The means are 96.15% ABOVE the value 3. This means that the overwhelming majority of teachers in the sample are motivated to teach English.

In order to find out the extent of the motivation expressed by the sample of teachers, table (6.24) shows in order the means scored on each one of the three variables within the T. M. Q.. Finally, the listed means have been considered according to teachers' Sex, PlacGrad, and YrsExp:

TABLE (6.24): DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE TEACHERS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE.

A. According to Sex:					
Male = 26			Female = 26		
Variable	Mean		Variable	Mean	
Intst	3.67		Intst	3.86	
Nature	3.64		Nature	3.73	
OccupVal	3.54		OccupVal	3.57	
B. According to Place of Graduation:					
College of Arts = 35			College of Education = 17		
Variable	Mean		Variable	Mean	
Intst	3.85		Intst	3.78	
Nature	3.79		Nature	3.58	
OccupVal	3.59		OccupVal	3.52	
C. According to Years of Experience in Teaching English:					
Short = 9		Medium = 27		Long = 16	
Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean
Intst	3.59	Intst	3.91	Intst	3.82
Nature	3.55	Nature	3.81	Nature	3.67
OccupVal	3.52	OccupVal	3.52	OccupVal	3.64

Although table (6.24) does not show a wide range of difference in the means scored, it is clear that the three variables have been ranked in the same order according to teachers' Sex, PlacGrad, and YrsExp. In other words, the highest means are scored as follows: 'Intst', 'Nature', and 'OccupVal'. Finally, such means indicate that teachers selected for the sample have expressed high or above the average motivation according to their responses to the T. M. Q..

Hypothesis No.4:

There are no differences in the motivation of Iraqi teachers at the preparatory level to teach English as a foreign language according to teachers' Sex, Place of Graduation, and Years of Experience in teaching the subject:

It has already been seen in table (6.24) that teachers, irrespective of the variations in their 'Sex, PlacGrad, and YrsExp', have consistently scored high on the three variables, namely 'OccupVal, Nature, and Intst', within the T. M. Q.. Nonetheless, slight variations have been noticed between the means of the three variables. Does this suffice to claim the availability of certain differences in teachers' motivation? The answer should be neutral. Further study of these overt superficial differences can shed light on certain aspects that otherwise might not be noticed. This is why in table (6.25) the means and standard deviations of each variable are firstly considered. These are followed by an additional table wherein the analysis of variance between the variables in question is presented according to teachers' Sex, PlacGrad, and YrsExp.

TABLE (6.25): DISTRIBUTION OF MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE TEACHERS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE.

A. According to Sex:						
	Male = 26		Female = 26			
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
OccupVal	3.53	0.45	3.61	0.47		
Nature	3.63	0.68	3.81	0.45		
Intst	3.66	0.60	4.00	0.67		
MOTLNGTCH	3.60	0.43	3.81	0.43		
B. According to Place of Graduation:						
	Colleges of Arts = 35		Colleges of Education-17			
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
OccupVal	3.59	0.46	3.52	0.46		
Nature	3.79	0.53	3.58	0.66		
Intst	3.88	0.66	3.78	0.65		
MOTLNGTCH	3.75	0.42	3.63	0.48		
C. According to Years of Experience in Teaching English						
	Short = 9		Medium = 27		Long = 16	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
OccupVal	3.52	0.43	3.54	0.49	3.64	0.44
Nature	3.55	0.57	3.81	0.51	3.67	0.69
Intst	3.59	0.90	3.91	0.57	3.82	0.63
MOTLNGTCH	3.55	0.58	3.75	0.36	3.71	0.47

The analysis of variance of these values will give a clearer image of the differences in teachers' responses to the T. M. Q. according to Sex, PlacGrad, and YrsExp.

TABLE (6.26): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE TEACHERS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE ACCORDING TO SEX, PLACE OF GRADUATION AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH.

	Sex F (4.03) (7.17)	PlacGrad F (4.03) (7.17)	YrsExp F (3.18) (5.06)
OccupVal	0.41	0.29	0.29
Nature	1.29	1.43	0.76
Intst	3.77	0.12	0.81
MOTLNGTCH	2.86	0.79	0.68

As table (6.26) shows, there are no significant differences in teachers' responses to the T. M. Q.. Since 'YrsExp' includes three periods that are accounted for together, our last attempt is to compare the three periods of teaching, namely Short, Medium, and Long with one another, in order to see if any differences would result from such a comparison.

TABLE (6.27): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF THE VARIABLES WITHIN THE TEACHERS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE ACCORDING TO THE YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH.

	Short V Medium F (4.11) (7.39)	Short V Long F (4.26) (7.82)	Medium V Long F (4.07) (7.27)
OccupVal	0.01	0.41	0.46
Nature	1.62	0.18	0.59
Intst	1.57	0.54	0.25
MOTLNGTCH	1.46	0.51	0.12

According to table (6.27), there are no differences between teachers of English in their motivation to teach

the language whatever the period of teaching is.

Consequently, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in teachers' motivation to teach English according to their Sex, PlacGrad, and YrsExp is accepted.

Figures (6.10), (6.11), and (6.12) show the comparison between teachers samples on motivation to teach English according to 'Sex', 'Place of Graduation', and 'Years of Experience in Teaching the Language'.

FIGURE (6.10): COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS SAMPLES ON MOTIVATION TO TEACH ENGLISH.

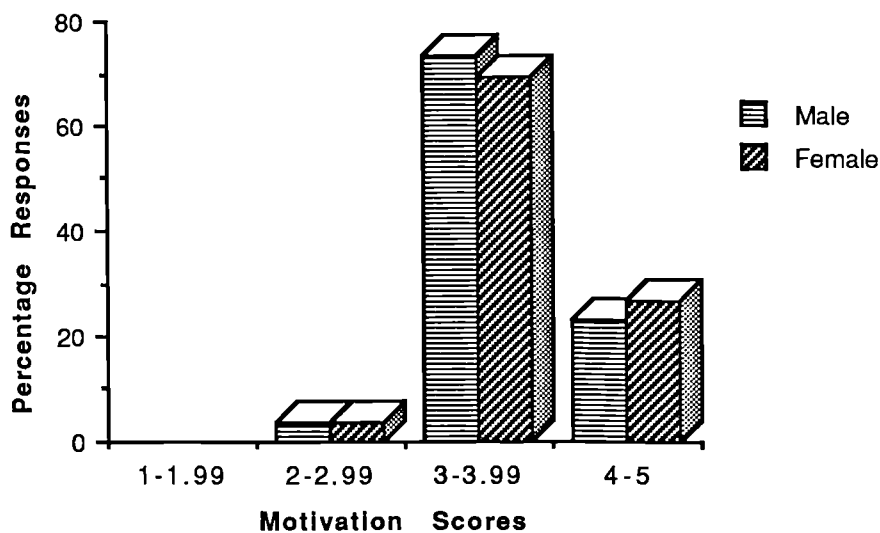


FIGURE (6.11): COMPARISON OF TEACHER-GRADUATES OF COLLEGES OF ARTS AND COLLEGES OF EDUCATION SAMPLES ON MOTIVATION TO TEACH ENGLISH.

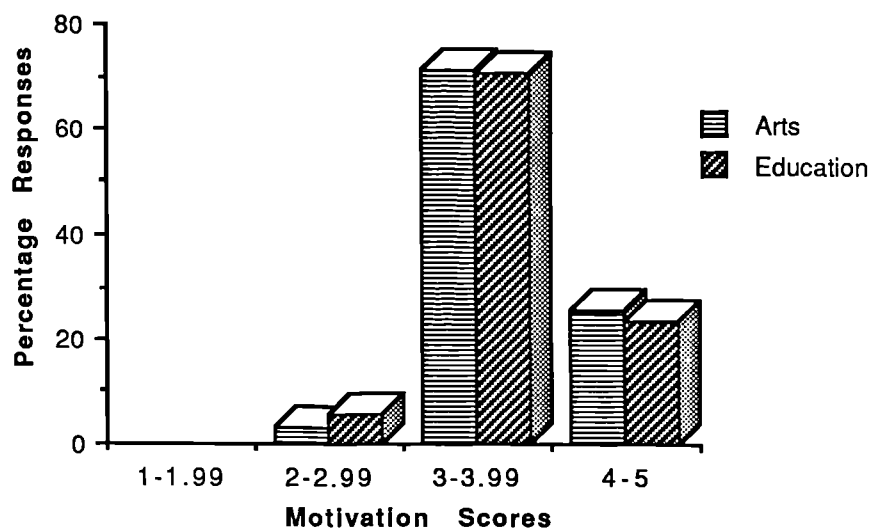
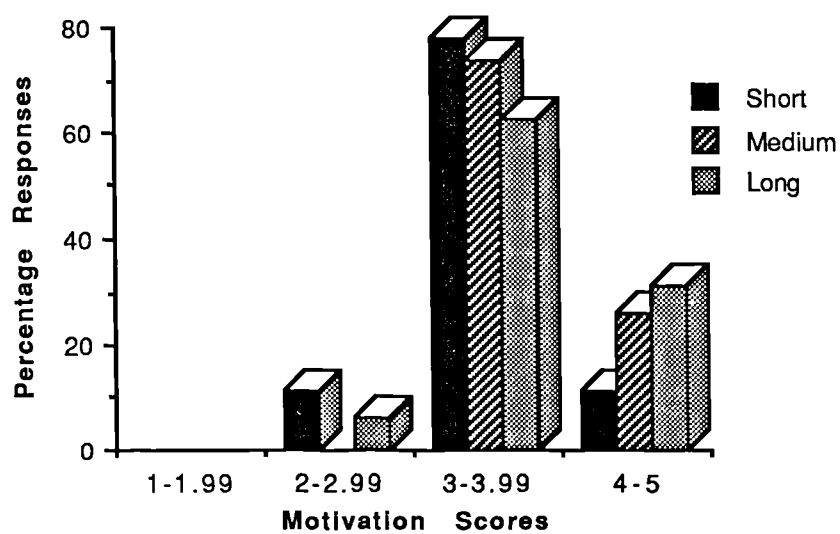


FIGURE (6.12): COMPARISON OF TEACHERS SAMPLES OF SHORT, MEDIUM, AND LONG EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH ON MOTIVATION TO TEACH THE LANGUAGE.



Hypothesis No.5:

There are no differences in the way Iraqi teachers of English are satisfied with the profession of teaching in general and that of teaching English in particular according to Sex, Place of Graduation , and Years of Experience in Teaching English.

Figures (6.13), (6.14), and (6.15) show the comparison between teachers' samples on satisfaction with the profession of teaching in general according to Sex, PlacGrad, and YrsExp:

FIGURE (6.13): COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS SAMPLES ON SATISFACTION WITH THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING.

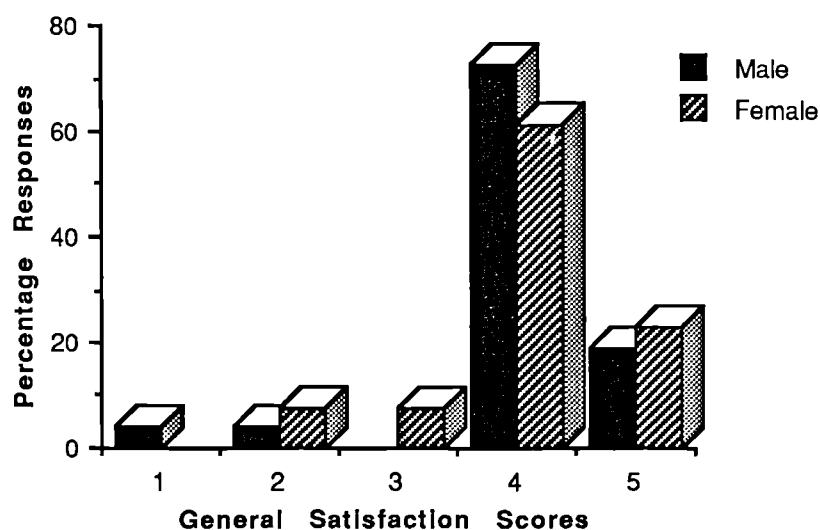


FIGURE (6.14): COMPARISON OF TEACHER-GRADUATES OF COLLEGES OF ARTS AND COLLEGES OF EDUCATION SAMPLES ON SATISFACTION WITH THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING.

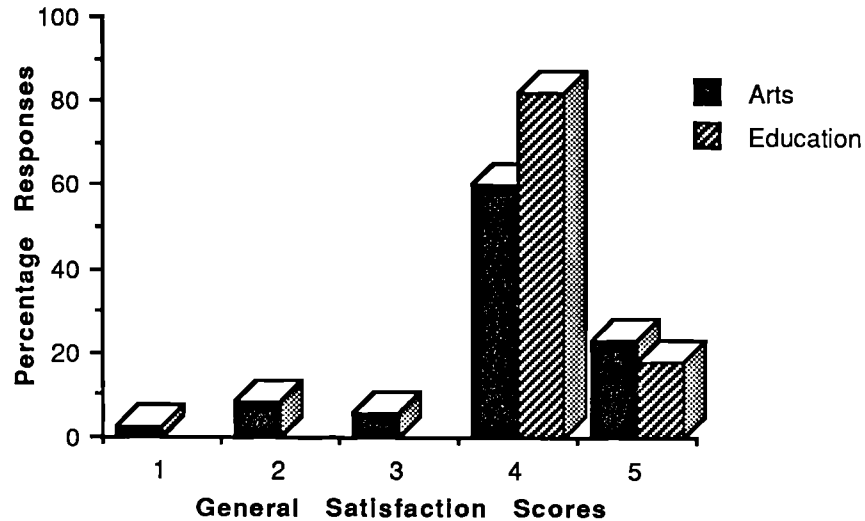
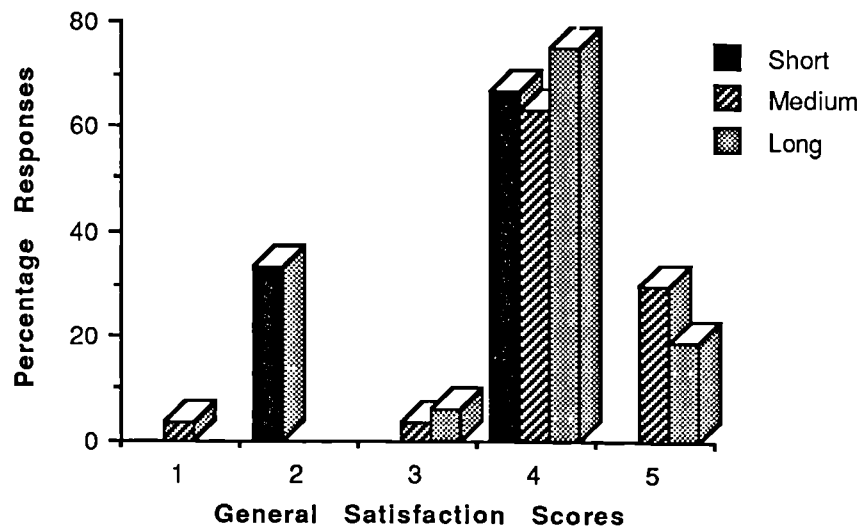


FIGURE (6.15): COMPARISON OF TEACHERS SAMPLES OF SHORT, MEDIUM, AND LONG EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ON SATISFACTION WITH THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING.



Figures (6.16), (6.17), and (6.18) likewise show the comparison between teachers' satisfaction with the profession of teaching English according to Sex, PlaceGrad, and YrsExp:

FIGURE (6.16): COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS SAMPLES ON SATISFACTION WITH THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING ENGLISH.

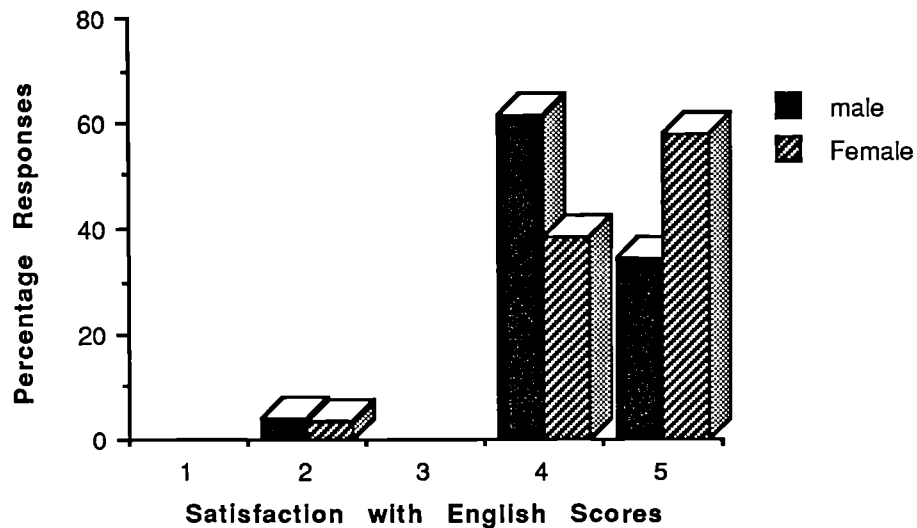


FIGURE (6.17): COMPARISON OF TEACHER-GRADUATES OF COLLEGES OF ARTS AND COLLEGES OF EDUCATION SAMPLES ON SATISFACTION WITH THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING ENGLISH.

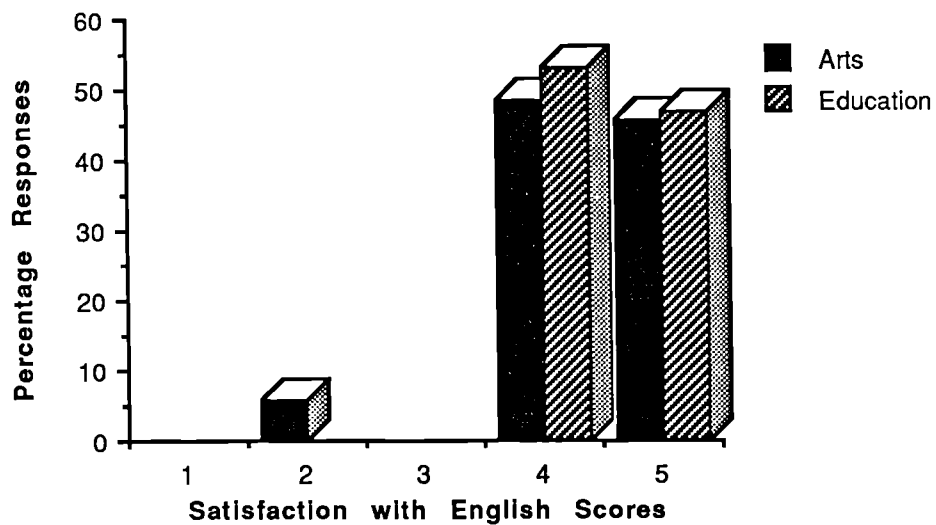
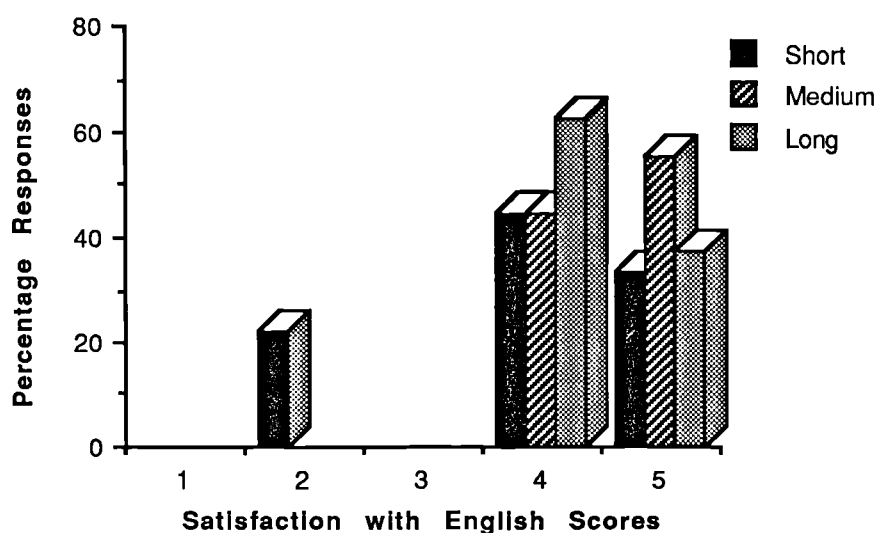


FIGURE (6.18): COMPARISON OF TEACHERS SAMPLES OF SHORT, MEDIUM, AND LONG EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH ON SATISFACTION WITH THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING THE LANGUAGE.



In an attempt to make the contents of the figures (6.13) to (6.18) more understandable, table (6.28) shows the means and the standard deviations of teachers' satisfaction with the profession of teaching in general (henceforth 'SatisGen'), and satisfaction with the profession of teaching English (henceforth 'SatisEng') according to 'Sex, PlacGrad, and YrsExp':

TABLE (6.28): DISTRIBUTION OF MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SCORES OF TEACHERS' SATISFACTION WITH THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING AND TEACHING OF ENGLISH ACCORDING TO TEACHERS' SEX, PLACE OF GRADUATION AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH.

		SatisGen		SatisEng	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Sex	Male	4.00	0.84	4.26	0.66
	Female	4.00	0.80	4.50	0.70
PlacGrad	Arts	3.91	0.95	4.32	0.76
	Education	4.14	0.39	4.45	0.51
YrsExp	Short	3.33	1.00	3.89	1.16
	Medium	4.14	0.81	4.56	0.50
	Long	4.12	0.50	4.37	0.50

As table (6.28) shows, there are clear differences in the means scored by the sample of teachers according to 'Sex, PlacGrad, and YrsExp'. Furthermore, the higher the standard deviations are, the wider the range of responses has been. To shed more light on the differences in question, and in order to know the level of significance of such differences, table (6.29) presents the F-values of the comparisons carried out in this respect:

TABLE (6.29): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF TEACHERS' SATISFACTION WITH THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING AND TEACHING OF ENGLISH ACCORDING TO SEX, PLACE OF GRADUATION, AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH.

	Sex F (4.03) (7.17)	PlacGrad F (4.03) (7.17)	YrsExp F (3.18) (5.06)
SatisGen	0.00	1.18	4.07 *
SatisEng	1.47	0.39	3.45 *

* $p < .05$ ** $P < .01$

As table (6.29) shows, there are no differences in teachers' 'SatisGen' or 'SatisEng' according to 'Sex' and 'PlacGrad'. As far as teachers' 'YrsExp' is concerned, 2 significant differences are there in 'SatisGen' and 'SatisEng'. Since 'YrsExp' includes three periods, namely short, medium, and long, it is difficult to predict in favour of which period these 2 significant differences are. Table (6.30) sheds more light on these differences and specifies the period(s) of experience in favour of which the differences are:

TABLE (6.30): ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE SCORES OF TEACHERS' SATISFACTION WITH THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING AND TEACHING OF ENGLISH ACCORDING TO THE YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH.

	Short V Medium F (4.12) (7.42)	Short V Long F (4.26) (7.82)	Medium V Long F (4.07) (7.27)
SatisGen	6.00 *	7.07 *	0.01
SatisEng	5.81 *	2.14	1.29

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

As table (6.30) shows, there are 2 significant differences between teachers of Short experience and their counterparts of Medium experience. Both differences are in favour of the latter. Likewise, there is 1 significant difference between teachers of Short experience and their counterparts of Long experience on 'SatisGen' in favour of the latter. Our interpretation to these differences is that teachers of medium 'YrsExp' have more 'SatisGen' and 'SatisEng' than those of Short 'YrsExp'. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, teachers of Long 'YrsExp' have scored higher on 'SatisGen' because the profession may have helped in the fulfilment of most of their aims.

Consequently, the null hypothesis that there are no differences between teachers in their 'SatisGen', and 'SatisEng' is accepted in terms of 'Sex' and 'PlacGrad', yet rejected in terms of 'YrsExp'.

Finally, in order to investigate and know whether there are any differences between 'SatisGen' and 'SatisEng' when teachers are of the same Sex, PlacGrad, and YrsExp, a look back at table (6.28) shows that all mean scores are higher on Satisfaction with the Profession of Teaching English than on Satisfaction with the Profession of Teaching in General.

6.3 Further Remarks on the Analysis of the Pupils' and Teachers' Attitudes and Motivation Questionnaires:

At the inception, it is worthy of note that in Chapter Three, the Section on 'Construction of Attitude Scales', it has been stated that a questionnaire subsumes a list of statements that are either in favour of (positive) or against (negative) the attitude object. It has also been stated that the negative statements are reversedly scored, which means that a respondent's choice, for instance, of 'Strongly Disagree' when a statement is negative means his positive attitude towards the attitude object. Hence the score given should be 5 not 1. Consequently, since in the pages ahead, reference will frequently be made to such negative statements, and since the scores of such statements might mislead the reader, it is advisable to read all the negative statements in the positive rather than in the negative form. Below is an example of a negative statement drawn from table (6.36):

I feel uncomfortable in English lessons.

The average score of this statement is 3.50. Because this statement has been reversedly scored, the value 3.50 does not stand for respondents' negative reaction. It rather stands for their positive reaction:

I feel comfortable in English lessons.

1. Since learners, teachers, and teaching materials form main factors that determine the success of any educational process, it is now intended to investigate

the way these three factors are interrelated in the current research. This can be done by looking into pupils' attitudes and those of their teachers of English towards the English textbooks currently in use, pupils' perceptions of their teachers' teaching of English, and vice versa.

A. On investigating the numbers and percentages of teachers' responses to the variables within the T. A. Q. (See table (6.18)), the highest percentage of negative responses, i.e. BELOW 3, has been scored on the variable 'Textb'. In other words, 82.70% of the mean scores of the 11 statements on the variable 'Textb' have been on the negative side. Since these 11 statements have been designed in such a way as to deal with the various aspects of the English textbooks taught at Iraqi preparatory schools, it is hoped that the following statistical analysis would help in throwing more light on the statements in question. It is worthy of note that, henceforth, statements will be numbered as they occur in the original questionnaire forms.

TABLE (6.31): DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES OF TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO THE STATEMENTS OF THE VARIABLE 'TEXTBOOK' WITHIN THE TEACHERS' ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE.

	Statements	Mean Scores
13.	English textbooks relate well to pupils' real lives.....	2.86
9.	Current English textbooks are of a good standard.....	2.82
11.	English textbooks present all activities properly.....	2.78
17.	English textbooks with topics presented in the foreign language are more acceptable to pupils.....	2.76
14.	English textbooks are not coping with the new developments in the field of English language teaching.....	2.57
12.	The quality of print and drawings in the English textbooks are not of a satisfactory standard.....	2.44
7.	English textbooks contain many unimportant topics.....	2.21
15.	The frequent changes of English textbooks have not led to any improvement in the range of the topics covered.....	2.15
10.	The English textbooks in use at present are unnecessarily long.....	1.98
16.	Teachers of English should have their say in designing English textbooks.....	1.80
8.	I do not consider that English textbooks achieve their stated objectives.....	1.80

As table (6.31) shows, teachers' attitudes towards the different aspects of the current textbooks presented through the 11 statements are negative. Furthermore, a very low range seems to be there in terms of the means scored. Having 2.86 as the highest mean and 1.80 the lowest, the range 1.06 tells us that teachers have shown much consistency and uniform reactions in their disfavour of the English textbooks currently in use.

B. In an attempt to investigate teachers' perceptions

of their pupils' learning of English, the sample of teachers was given 9 statements dealing with the way their pupils think, feel, and behave towards learning the language. Teachers were asked to choose the statements they thought applicable to their pupils' everyday interaction with the language. Table (6.32) shows in order the frequency distribution and percentages of the statements of teachers' perceptions of their pupils' learning of English:

TABLE (6.32): FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES OF THE STATEMENTS OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR PUPILS' LEARNING OF ENGLISH.

	My pupils.....	Number and Percentages
1.	learn English just to pass examinations.....	47 (90.83%)
2.	are unhappy with the difficulty of their English textbooks.....	41 (78.84%)
3.	are unhappy with the difficulty of the tests in English which they are required to take.....	35 (67.30%)
4.	prepare the lesson before coming to the class.....	29 (55.76%)
5.	are lazy and inattentive.....	19 (36.53%)
6.	like learning English.....	18 (34.61%)
7.	have positive attitudes towards learning English.....	16 (30.76%)
8.	are motivated to learn English.....	9 (17.30%)
9.	show enthusiasm for learning English.....	4 (7.69%)

In the light of the answers in table (6.32), teachers have largely agreed that English tests, set by the Ministry of Education, and English textbooks are difficult for pupils. They have almost unanimously agreed that pupils' main objective behind learning English is to

pass examinations. Yet, the percentages 30.76 and 17.30 of teachers who think that pupils have positive attitudes, and are motivated to learn English do not correspond to pupils' expression of their attitudes and motivation to learn the language. They, i.e. percentages, further confirm the phenomenon of reciprocal accusations among the parties involved in the process of English language-teaching and learning in Iraq. Generally speaking, teachers do not have positive perceptions of pupils' learning of English.

C. In a procedure similar to the one followed in A, pupils' attitudes towards English textbooks currently in use have been analytically looked into in the light of the mean scores of the statements of the variable 'Textb' within the P. A. Q.. Table (6.33) shows in order the means scored by pupils sample on the statements representing the attitudinal variable 'Textb'.

TABLE (6.33): DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES OF PUPILS' RESPONSES TO THE STATEMENTS OF THE VARIABLE 'TEXTBOOK' WITHIN THE PUPILS' ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE.

	S t a t e m e n t s	Mean Scores
11.	I think my English textbooks are well-organized.....	3.80
15.	I think my English textbooks clarify the subject through different illustrations.....	3.36
13.	I think my English textbooks do not take learners' standards into regard.....	3.19
14.	I think my English textbooks are difficult to understand.....	3.19
12.	I think my English textbooks lack balance in the materials presented.	2.81

According to table (6.33), pupils do not have the same level of negative attitudes towards English textbooks as their teachers do.

D. To investigate pupils' perceptions of their teachers' teaching of English, pupils in the sample were given 12 statements on the behaviour displayed by their teachers of English while teaching the language. Table (6.34) shows the frequency distribution and percentages of pupils' choice of the statements that best describe their teachers' behaviour through interaction with English as the foreign language which they are supposed to teach effectively.

TABLE (6.34): FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGES OF THE STATEMENTS OF PUPILS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR TEACHERS' TEACHING OF ENGLISH.

	Our teacher of English.....	No. and %
1.	tries his/her best to make all pupils understand.....	480 (80.00%)
2.	is serious in his/her teaching of the subject.....	469 (78.16%)
3.	has a good control of the subject...	466 (77.66%)
4.	makes the classroom atmosphere conducive to learning.....	429 (71.50%)
5.	is efficient.....	395 (65.83%)
6.	encourages everyone to learn English.....	358 (59.66%)
7.	is interested in teaching the subject.....	347 (57.83%)
8.	effectively uses many teaching aids.	227 (37.83%)
9.	gives tests that are too difficult..	188 (31.33%)
10.	is too subjective in correcting the exam papers.....	106 (17.66%)
11.	continuously criticizes everything related to the subject.....	69 (11.50%)
12.	shows dissatisfaction with his profession.....	67 (11.16%)

It is clear from table (6.34) that the sample of pupils have positive perceptions of their teachers of English. This is so because high percentages of pupils have selected the 8 positive statements appearing at the top of the list followed by the 4 negative statements on which low percentages have been scored. In a manner similar to what teachers of English have stated of themselves, pupils agree that their teachers are satisfied with their profession of teaching English. Furthermore, pupils' have perceived their teachers as enthusiastic over teaching English and trying their best to make pupils learn the language.

Finally, the main points of discussion in the points

A, B, C, D can be summarized as follows:

- (1) Teachers have negative attitudes towards all the aspects of the English textbooks, currently in use, which have been put forward through the T. A. Q..
- (2) Teachers have different levels of positive and negative perceptions of their pupils' learning of English. The most noticeable thing is most teachers' perceptions of their pupils as unmotivated and having negative attitudes towards learning English.
- (3) Pupils have low positive attitudes towards almost all the aspects of their English textbooks. Some of the pupils' responses have been consistent with those made by their teachers of English which outline pupils' dissatisfaction with the difficulty of the textbooks.
- (4) Pupils have positive perceptions of their teachers. They have perceived their teachers of English as concerned about pupils' understanding and learning of English.
- (5) Both teachers and pupils have negative attitudes towards the way Tests of English are carried out. It is worth mentioning that pupils reaction in this respect is towards the tests set by their teachers of English as well as those set by the Ministry of Education. In contrast, teachers reaction is limited to the tests set by the Ministry of Education.

2. When introducing a foreign language into the

educational system of a country, local authorities usually set a number of short- and long-term objectives to be fulfilled. Very commonly, many of these objectives coincide with those that learners of the foreign language themselves intend to achieve. It is now intended to study the extent of the overlap between pupils' instrumental motivation to learn English and the objectives set by the Ministry of Education. Table (6.35) shows in order the distribution of the means of pupils' scores on the statements of the variable 'InstMot'.

TABLE (6.35): DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES OF PUPILS' RESPONSES TO THE STATEMENTS OF THE VARIABLE 'INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION' WITHIN THE PUPILS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE.

	S t a t e m e n t s	Mean Scores
7.	Learning English will help me pursue my studies abroad.....	4.36
6.	Learning English will help me broaden my knowledge of the world.....	4.26
2.	Learning English will make me an educated person.....	4.09
4.	Learning English is beneficial when travelling abroad.....	4.03
10.	Learning English enables me to communicate with educated people.....	4.02
3.	Learning English will guarantee me a good social position.....	3.97
9.	Learning English makes me feel the fulfilment of my real objectives in life.....	3.94
8.	Learning English will increase others' respect for me.....	3.90
1.	Learning English is useful in getting a good job.....	3.82
5.	Learning English enables me to read books and newspapers in English.....	3.74

A close look into the contents of table (6.35) shows

that pupils' instrumental motivation to learn English can mostly be of either an educational or social characteristic. Pupils in the sample can be said to be more attentive to the achievement of the educational objectives. This is clear from their high scores on the first five statements in table (6.35). Furthermore, such a result emphasizes the intention of Iraqi pupils to learn English so as to achieve certain objectives that are of much similarity to those set by the Ministry of Education (1987). (For more details on the objectives in question, see Chapter Two, Section 2.3.2).

3. Since interest plays a central role in enhancing motivation and modifying attitudes, and since interest is largely determined by the extent that an object or activity appeals to the individual, two main points are worthy of investigation in this respect. To what extent does pupils' interest in learning English agree with their positive attitudes and high motivation to learn the language? More specifically, what variations have come into existence when pupils' interest has been accounted for in the light of the statements of 'Intst' in the P. M. Q.? Table (6.36) shows in order the mean scores of pupils' answers to the statements of 'Intst' within the P. M. Q.:

TABLE (6.36): DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES OF PUPILS' RESPONSES TO THE STATEMENTS OF THE VARIABLE 'INTEREST' WITHIN THE PUPILS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE.

	S t a t e m e n t s	Mean Scores
15.	I am interested in learning more than one language.....	3.97
16.	I find learning English interesting.	3.82
18.	I feel uncomfortable in English lessons.....	3.50
17.	I find learning English tiring.....	3.45
19.	I am interested in English more than other school subjects.....	2.97

According to table (6.36), pupils have shown a level of interest in learning English that goes well beyond the average value 3. Such a level enhances the reliability of pupils' positive attitudes and high motivation. The only point that seems worthy of consideration is the last statement in table (6.36). Here, pupils have scored the lowest mean, or have shown low motivation. Our interpretation of this is that pupils are interested in learning English when it is considered as a subject by itself; that is what the first 4 statements show. When English is compared to other subjects, pupils have not considered it as the most interesting subject. This can be ascribed to pupils' specialization at the preparatory level which creates a feeling of bias towards those subjects that are related to their Branches of Studying.

4. Teachers in general, and those included within the sample of the present research investigation in particular, did have certain objectives to fulfil when they

first entered the profession of teaching. Such objectives are represented, in the main, by the values that the profession is expected to confer. To find out which occupational values were and still are on the minds of Iraqi teachers of English at the preparatory level, the sample of teachers was given 16 statements that represent different occupational values. Table (6.37) shows in order the mean scores of teachers' responses:

TABLE (6.37): DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES OF TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO THE STATEMENTS OF THE VARIABLE 'OCCUPATIONAL VALUES' WITHIN THE TEACHERS' MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE.

S t a t e m e n t s	Mean Scores
6. Teaching English is beneficial when travelling abroad.....	4.75
2. Teaching English does not make me feel any sense of achievement.....	4.09
9. Teaching English does not enable me to communicate with educated people.....	4.05
12. Teaching English does not guarantee others' respect for me.....	3.92
16. Teaching English enables me to understand foreign art and literature.....	3.78
6. Teaching English contributes to the service of my community.....	3.76
5. Teaching English does not help in getting better jobs in the future.....	3.65
8. Teaching English enables me to get access to materials published in English.....	3.62
7. Teaching English is not the way to be more modern.....	3.57
3. Teaching English enables me to be innovative and creative.....	3.51
11. Teaching English provides me with enough independence in my work.....	3.37
1. Teaching English helps in developing my personality.....	3.25
2. Teaching English does not enable me to understand English-speaking people's way of life.....	3.19
13. Teaching English does not make me feel like English-speaking people.....	3.09
10. Teaching English is the way to obtain social recognition.....	3.07
14. Teaching English makes me behave like English-speaking people.....	2.57

As table (6.37) shows, there are different mean values scored by the sample of teachers on the statements representing the occupational values of teaching English. The mean scores range between 4.75 out of 5 on the statement 'Teaching English is beneficial when travelling abroad', and 2.57 on 'Teaching English makes me behave

like English-Speaking peoples'. Generally speaking, teachers in the sample have emphasized the communicative value of English as an international language. Added to that, they do not intend to use their profession as a means to approach the English-speaking people especially as far as the latter's different way of life and behaviour are concerned.

5. On investigating teachers' attitudes towards the profession of teaching English, teachers have scored a negative mean of 2.72 on the variable 'Train', i.e. training courses. Because this variable, likewise others, includes a number of statements the mean scores of which have brought about the mean score 2.72, it is now intended to investigate the way teachers have reacted to each one of the statements within the variable 'Train'. Table (6.38) shows the distribution of the mean scores of the statements in question:

TABLE (6.38): DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES OF TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO THE STATEMENTS OF THE VARIABLE 'TRAINING COURSES' WITHIN THE TEACHERS' ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE.

	S t a t e m e n t s	Mean Scores
4.	I consider that in-service training courses for teachers of English in Iraq are beneficial.....	3.5
5.	I consider that the facilities offered at teachers' training courses are inadequate.....	2.42
6.	I consider that the evaluation of the training courses is not up to a satisfactory standard.....	2.36

In terms of 'Train', teachers have scored relatively high on the statement which implies the idea that training courses are beneficial. Yet when some particular aspects of such courses are considered, teachers have expressed negative attitudes. In other words, being satisfied with the training courses in general as sources of benefit to teachers, the facilities and the evaluation of such courses are perceived as not up to the standard.

6. Having been accounted for as a factor of central role in determining teachers' attitudes, the variable 'Super', i.e. supervision, has been negatively reacted to by the sample of teachers. The mean score 2.84 means that teachers are not satisfied with the way the supervision of English language teaching is going on. The main question in this respect is: Can such dissatisfaction be generalized to include other aspects of supervision? Since the mean score 2.84 is the outcome of the scores on the four statements that the variable 'Super' includes, it is better to investigate each statement individually in order to find out the extent of its contribution in bringing about such negative attitudes:

TABLE (6.39): DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN SCORES OF TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO THE STATEMENTS OF THE VARIABLE 'SUPERVISION' WITHIN THE TEACHERS' ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE.

	S t a t e m e n t s	Mean Scores
22.	I consider that listening to the instructions given by supervisors of English is beneficial.....	3.78
21.	I find that supervisors of English emphasize teachers' mistakes only.	2.53
23.	I consider that supervisors' evaluation is subjective rather than objective.....	2.53
22.	I consider that the current approach to the supervision of the teaching of English is unsatisfactory.....	2.48

According to table (6.39), teachers have expressed attitudes towards 'Super' that are very similar to those expressed towards 'Train'. For instance, they regard supervision in general as a beneficial educational procedure, and have consequently scored 3.78 out of 5. On other aspects of supervision, namely supervisors' bias, subjectivity, and shortage of the knowledge of their career, teachers have expressed negative attitudes.

6.4 Perceptions of Headteachers and Supervisors of English of the Current State of English Language Teaching and Learning at the Preparatory Level:

1. In a further step to make the empirical part of the current research more comprehensive, 27 male and female headteachers, of the schools where the sample of pupils and teachers were drawn, were given forms containing the following request:

Would you please state your perception of the current state of English language teaching and learning as far as teachers of the subject and pupils at the preparatory level are concerned.

It is worthy of note that the lack of satisfactory knowledge of English by almost all the headteachers in the sample made the present researcher distribute the forms and receive the required answers in Arabic. By so doing, the sample of headteachers was expected to state some further perceptions of the way the process of English language teaching and learning in Iraq is heading for the achievement of its objectives. Finally, the statements made by the above-mentioned group have been classified as follows:

A. Generally, English is viewed as an important subject within the curriculum. It is not limited to a specific studying stage or branch. Consequently, pupils, in the light of the obligatory aspect of English within

the educational system, and the international reputation of the language, are supposed to exert more effort to learn it.

B. In terms of teachers, the majority of headteachers have stated that the current discouraging situation can be attributed to the availability of weak and inexperienced teachers of English at the primary level. They have further suggested that teachers should have more responsibility than pupils in bringing about a more encouraging situation. Hence, more training courses for teachers to familiarize them with the new methods of teaching English, more freedom to innovate, less teaching hours, and more incentives to make the profession more appealing are required.

C. As for pupils, their low standard in English has been emphasized by a noticeable number of headteachers. The latter have designated pupils' lack of interest, perception of English as a subject with limited future benefits, and lack of encouragement by parents and by teachers of the language as the main causes of the current discouraging situation.

D. English textbooks currently in use, teaching methods, and tests form three additional points that headteachers have stated their views of in detail. Firstly, English textbooks, from headteachers' viewpoints,

are of a bad quality since they are long, difficult, unorganized, and the activities are inadequately presented. Secondly, the current predominant method of teaching, i.e. the audio-lingual method, as the headteachers perceive, is inappropriate. Consequently, more updated methods are required side by side with more visual aids to be used. Finally, the unsatisfactory way of setting English tests enhances pupils' perception of the subject as difficult to learn.

2. The only 3 supervisors of the teaching of English at the preparatory level have stated their perceptions in a more uniform and comprehensive manner. This is due to their limited number, and to the fact that they know more about the process of teaching and learning English than headteachers do. Generally speaking, supervisors of English have perceived the current situation to be overcrowded with many serious problems related to teachers, pupils, and current textbooks.

In terms of teachers, supervisors think that a large number of new teachers are short of adequate training and experience. In the same vein, most teachers do not accept the new methods of teaching and the suggestions made by supervisors. To be more precise, supervisors have perceived teachers 1) to be busy with supplementary jobs not related to their profession, 2) to be busy because of the unbearable number of teaching hours which, in turn, limit their chances for extra reading and research, 3) to

have negative attitudes towards English textbooks, 4) to be unable to adapt themselves to different syllabuses and methods of teaching, and 5) to prepare pupils just to pass examinations.

Commenting on pupils' learning of English, the 3 supervisors have emphasized pupils' general weakness in English. Pupils, from the supervisors' viewpoint, are facing much difficulty in learning the language. This can be attributed to their low interest, moderate motivation, reading just to pass examinations, and adoption of the rule-following approach to learn English.

Finally, English textbooks currently in use, as the 3 supervisors of English see, are of lengths incommensurate with the time allotted to cover them. They undergo constant change, and the activities are not discussed or presented in a satisfactory graded manner.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION

"English Language Teaching and Learning in Iraq", "Attitude", and "Motivation" have been central points of discussion throughout the present work. The broad review of the relevant literature, in Chapters Two, Three, and Four, on these three main topics has been of much assistance in the building up of the theoretical background, firstly of the educational system in Iraq, including the process of English language teaching and learning, and then of attitude and motivation as psychological concepts of remarked influence on the process of teaching and learning foreign languages.

In terms of English language teaching and learning in Iraq, attention has been drawn to the full conviction by the local educational authorities, over the years, that learning English, the most widespread international language, may confer many present and future benefits. Consequently, teaching English as a foreign language has been noticeably heeded in an attempt to bring about learners' varied objectives. Yet, the constant discouraging outcomes of teaching English as well as the conclusions of the relevant theoretical and empirical studies by Iraqi researchers in the field, have highlighted the presence of some chronic problems since the early introduction of the language in schools. These drawbacks are constantly assumed to be inherent in the inadequate pre- and in-service training of teachers of English, the inappropriate textbooks, the unsatisfactory procedure of supervision, the way English tests of the

Ministerial Public Examinations are set, and teachers' lack of knowledge of how to create atmospheres conducive to the learning of English. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, a further major drawback is characterized by the fact that the search for the proper solutions to the preceding problems has been mostly limited to the school setting, with teachers and pupils mainly being considered responsible for all the unfavourable outcomes. By so doing, chances to look more closely into the factors outside the school setting which can negatively influence the process have been diminished. For instance, officials in charge of running the training courses and setting English tests of the Ministerial Public Examination, textbook designers, and supervisors of English language teaching have not been receiving the same amount of criticism as they appear to be less involved in the everyday activities of the process (See Chapter Two, pp.65-67).

As for "attitude" and "motivation", although, in the opening of their relevant chapters and within a considerable number of pages, emphasis is placed upon both concepts in terms of their historical development, definition, relevant thoughts and theories, and ways of measurement, the technique of narrowing the broad relevant literature to subsections mainly related to the "Role of Attitudes and Motivation in Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages" marks the limitation of the present study to a vital process within the domain of educational psychology.

The cruciality of the role of pupils' and teachers' attitudes and motivation as determinative factors of the success of the process of teaching and learning foreign languages has been proven. When positive and enhanced, attitude and motivation mark the effectiveness of the process in bringing about the set objectives. They also mean more feasibility in arriving at the proper solutions to the drawbacks the process might undergo.

To create a form of link between the status of English language teaching and learning in Iraq on the one hand, and the role of attitude and motivation on the other, it is worthy of note that the drawbacks of the types mentioned above have been coupled with the rarity, if not the entire absence, of any literature on the personal, social, and psychological factors that might affect the attitudes and motivation of Iraqi pupils and their teachers of English at the preparatory level. Accordingly, the current study is but an attempt to build such a link by designating the role, whether positive or negative, of each one of the varied parties that are involved in the process. This has been done through the carrying out of an empirical study in 27 preparatory schools within and without the city of Mosul, Governorate of Ninevah. The selected samples included 600 male and female pupils, from the general, scientific, and literary branches, and 52 male and female teachers of English who are graduates of either Colleges of Arts or Colleges of Education, and of different years of experience in

teaching English. Four questionnaire forms to measure pupils' and teachers' attitudes and motivation, and 4 forms on pupils' perceptions of their teachers' teaching of English, teachers' perceptions of their pupils' learning of English, and supervisors of English and headteachers' perceptions of the process of English language teaching and learning at the preparatory level, were distributed to investigate the following main assumption:

Iraqi pupils and their teachers of English at the preparatory level have positive attitudes and are motivated to learn and/or teach English as a foreign language.

When analysing pupils' and teachers' answers to the questionnaires, the preceding assumption has been heeded in great measure. In the same manner, other hypotheses were studied with focus on the varied aspects of the process of English language teaching and learning in Iraq. It is worth mentioning that the aspects in question were presented in the form of variables within the main body of the questionnaires. The main objective has been to know the extent of the influence of the personal, social, and educational factors on the process of teaching and learning English.

In the light of the preceding theoretical review of literature, and the analysis of the responses made by the selected samples (See Chapter Six), the following general conclusions have been drawn:

General Conclusions:

1. Since attitude is learned and can be duly modified or discarded (p.85f.), and motivation is created and is liable to development, the factors of influence on both concepts, when specified, should be directed towards the development of positive attitudes and high motivation. This underlines the importance of equipping teachers with the knowledge of how to sustain and develop pupils' positive attitudes and motivation through the creation of the environments conducive to the learning of the foreign language (p.247f.).

2. Educationalists almost unanimously agree that the success of any educational process is largely determined by the type of the prevalent attitudes and motivation. They further suggest that learners' achievement is augmented when attitudes are positive, and when enough motivation is available (p.115f.). Consequently, in the field of foreign language teaching and learning, pupils' positive attitudes and high motivation have always been coupled with their approach to the learning of the language, and their high achievement in its varied activities (See table 6.15).

3. Since 490, i.e. 81.67%, out of the 600 pupils selected for the sample of the main study have stated their positive attitudes towards learning English (See table 6.1), and 541 pupils, i.e. 90.17%, are motivated to

learn English (See table 6.7), and since the current discouraging situation does not comply with the maxim: Positive Attitudes and Motivation Mean Better Achievement, it has been of much cruciality to investigate pupils' positive and negative responses to the different attitudinal and motivational variables. By so doing, it has been possible to probe the nature of the process of "English language learning in Iraq" in the light of the varied factors that are affecting this process either positively or negatively. Accordingly,

a. in terms of the variables within the Pupils' Attitudes Questionnaire, noticeable percentages of pupils, namely 38.33%, 23.83%, 61.50%, 29.33%, have scored lower than the average, i.e. 3, on the variables "Difficulty of English", "Textbooks", "Tests", And "Encouragement by Others" (See table 6.1);

b. in terms of the variables within the Pupils' Motivation Questionnaire, almost the same level of positive responses on "Motivation to Learn English" has been scored on the motivational variables, namely Instrumental Motivation, Integrative Motivation, Parental Encouragement, and Encouragement by Teachers of English. The only exception in this respect is the variable "Interest" on which 24.00% of the pupils have scored below the average (See table 6.7).

4. Inner-city and outer-city pupils have shown no differences in their attitudes and motivation to learn

English. The only variable within both questionnaires on which the pupils have scored differently is "Parental Encouragement". Inner-city pupils have scored higher than their outer-city counterparts (See tables 6.3 and 6.9). This has been interpreted to be due to the differences in parents' education. Inner-city parents have better educational qualifications in comparison with their outer-city counterparts. Such a finding complies with the statements made in the previous pages by Finocchiaro, 1969; Spolsky, 1969; and Gardner and Lambert, 1972.

5. Female pupils have scored higher than their Male counterparts on "Attitude towards Learning English", and also on 5 out of the 8 attitudinal variables, "English Language Skills", "Textbooks", "Tests", "Perceived Benefits", and "Parental Encouragement" (See table 6.3). In the same vein, there are differences in favour of Female pupils against their Male counterparts on "Motivation to Learn English", and on 4 out of the 5 motivational variables, namely "Instrumental Motivation", "Integrative Motivation", "Interest", and "Parental Encouragement" (See table 6.9).

6. Except for the variable "Textbooks" within the Pupils' Attitudes Questionnaire, pupils from the General, Scientific, and Literary Branches of Studying have scored differently on "Attitude towards Learning English" and on the other 7 attitudinal variables (See table 6.4).

Likewise, except for the variables "Integrative Motivation" and "Encouragement by Teachers of English", where pupils from the three branches of studying have responded in the same way, there is a significant difference between Scientific and Literary pupils on "Instrumental Motivation" in favour of the former. There are also differences in the responses of the three Branches of Studying on the variable "Interest". Pupils from the Scientific Branch have the highest scores followed by pupils in the General Branch, and finally those in the Literary Branch. Furthermore, in terms of the variable "Parental Encouragement", there is only one difference which is in favour of the Scientific Branch against the Literary Branch. Such accumulation of differences between the Scientific and the Literary Branches are due to the fact that pupils in both branches are of entirely different future orientations. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, the rarity of differences between the General Branch and either of the Scientific and the Literary Branches is due to the fact that pupils in the General Branch are mixed of those who will later be specialized in either the Scientific or the Literary Branch (See table 6.10).

7. Iraqi pupils at the preparatory level are instrumentally rather than integratively motivated to learn English (See table 6.11). This finding agrees with those of similar studies carried out in the Far East by Gardner

and Santos, 1970; Lukmani, 1972; and Braj Kachru, 1977.

8. Pupils are encouraged differently according to their parents' level of educational attainment. Educated parents encourage their children more than uneducated ones do. Yet, fathers who have the primary certificate do not encourage their children to the level that mothers having the same certificate do. This may possibly be so because fathers who occur within this category possibly often underestimate their personal level of educational attainment. Conversely, mothers who only read and write, i.e. have no educational qualification, show no differences in comparison with educated mothers. This is due to the fact that the limited education of the female sex in the past has made literate mothers regard themselves as having a good educational qualification. This is enhanced by the finding that pupils of mothers who have the primary certificate have scored significantly higher than those of fathers of the same level of educational attainment. Finally, except for the primary certificate, there are no differences when fathers and mothers have the same level of educational attainment (See table 6.14).

Likewise, almost identical results have been found while investigating pupils' attitudes and motivation to learn English in the light of their fathers' and mothers' level of educational attainment (See tables 6.6 and 6.13).

9. The objectives that pupils have emphasized behind their learning of English are, to a considerable extent, in line with those set by the Iraqi Ministry of Education (pp.19-21). The variable "Instrumental Motivation" within the Pupils' Motivation Questionnaire contains two main sets of objectives: educational and social (See Appendix 5B). Pupils have scored higher on the educational objectives (See table 6.35).

10. Pupils have positively perceived their teachers of English. This is evident from their choice of those statements which reflect teachers' 1) endeavour to make pupils understand, and to create atmospheres conducive to learning, 2) seriousness and interest in teaching, 3) use of teaching aids, and 4) good control of the subject. Low percentages of pupils, in comparison to the former, have emphasized some negative characteristics of their teachers of English which are represented by 1) the difficult tests set by teachers, 2) teachers' sensitivity, and 3) teachers' dissatisfaction with their profession (See table 6.34).

11. Pupils have shown interest in learning English as a subject by itself. This is evident from the mean scores of the responses to the statements of the variable "Interest" in the Pupils' Motivation Questionnaire. Being presented with the statement, "I am interested in English more than other school subjects", which compares pupils'

interest in English with that in other subjects within the curriculum, pupils have reacted negatively and scored below 3, the average value, on the statement in question (See table 6.36).

12. On investigating the relation between pupils' attitudes and motivation on the one hand, and their average marks in English on the other, it has become evident that the differences in the latter have been mostly consistent with those in the attitudes and motivation. In other words, there are differences in the average marks in favour of Inner-city pupils, Female pupils, and pupils from the Scientific and General Branches (See tables 6.16 and 6.17).

13. Forty-six, i.e. 88.46%, teachers of English, out of the 52 included in the sample of the main study, have expressed positive attitudes towards teaching English. Although the scores on attitudes towards teaching English are the averages of summing the mean scores of all other variables within the Teachers' Attitudes Questionnaire, teachers have not necessarily expressed positive attitudes towards each variable as a unit by itself. For instance, the variables "Training Courses", "Textbooks", "Supervision", and "Tests" have been negatively reacted to. The following percentages have been scored on the negative side for the above-mentioned variables: 61.54%, 82.70%, 48.08%, and 48.08%. Conversely, on the variables

"Profession of Teaching English", "Teachers' Guides", "Seriousness", and "Communicative Approach", very high percentages have been scored on the positive side (See table 6.18).

14. Teachers in the sample have almost overwhelmingly shown no differences in their "Attitudes towards Teaching English" according to Sex, Place of Graduation, and Years of Experience in teaching the language. The only difference is between teachers of Medium and Long Experiences, and it is in favour of the former (See table 6.22).

In terms of the variables which constitute the Teachers' Attitudes Questionnaire, Female teachers have scored higher than their Male counterparts on the variable "Profession of Teaching English." Likewise, teachers of Medium Experience have scored higher than their counterparts of Long Experience on 2 variables, namely "Training Courses" and "Textbooks". Teachers of Medium experience have also scored higher than their counterparts of Short Experience on the variable "Profession of Teaching English" (See tables 6.21 and 6.22).

15. Fifty teachers, i.e. 96.15%, out of the 52 included in the sample, have scored above the average, i.e. 3, on "Motivation to Teach English" (See table 6.23).

Likewise, high percentages of teachers have scored positively on the variables "Occupational Values", "Nature

of the Profession of Teaching English", and "Interest". The percentages 94.23%, 84.60%, and 86.15% stand respectively for the three preceding variables (See table 6.23).

It is worthy of note that teachers have shown no differences either on "Motivation to Teach English" or on the variables "Occupational Values", "Nature of the Profession of Teaching English", and "Interest" according to Sex, Place of Graduation, or Years of experience in Teaching English (See tables 6.26 and 6.27).

16. In terms of their satisfaction with the Profession of Teaching in general and the Profession of Teaching English in particular, teachers have reacted rather positively. Furthermore, teachers have shown no differences in this respect according to "Sex" and "Place of Graduation" (See table 6.35).

Yet, on considering the variable "Years of Experience in Teaching English", teachers of Medium Experience have scored higher than their counterparts of Short Experience on both types of Satisfaction. Likewise, teachers of Long Experience have scored higher than teachers of Short Experience on Satisfaction with the Profession of Teaching only (See table 6.30).

17. Teachers and pupils have reacted negatively to the variable "Tests" in the Teachers and Pupils' Attitudes Questionnaires. The means scored by both parties are respectively 2.82 and 2.60 which are well below the

average score 3. In the light of the statements of the variable "Tests" in both attitudes questionnaires, such mean scores imply teachers' and pupils' disfavour of the way the Ministerial Public Examinations of English are set, and the necessity to give teachers of English a say in this respect. In addition to the Public Examinations, pupils' negative responses also reflect their desire to have English tests, including those set by their teachers, which are more comprehensive, and with more time allotted to cover them. (For more information on the variable "Tests", See Appendix 5A, statements 16-19, and Appendix 5C, statements 24-27).

18. Teachers in the sample have perceived their pupils negatively. A very low percentage of teachers have emphasized pupils' positive attitudes and motivation to learn English (See table 6.32). This does not comply with what pupils have stated about themselves, and it falls within the scope of the reciprocal accusations between teachers and pupils. It further forms a major drawback within the process because teachers' evaluation in this respect is limited to pupils' achievement in English with less account of the prevalent negative circumstances that might affect pupils' attitudes and motivation to learn English as a foreign language.

19. "Teaching English is beneficial when travelling abroad", "Teaching English makes me feel a sense of

achievement", and "Teaching English enables me to communicate with educated people" are the three "Occupational Values" which have been given priority by teachers in their responses to the Teachers' Motivation Questionnaire. Teachers have also scored the lowest two means, namely 3.07 and 2.57 out of 5 on the statements "Teaching English is the way to obtain social recognition", and "Teaching English makes me behave like English-speaking peoples" (See table 6.37).

20. Perceiving "Training Courses" as generally beneficial, teachers in the sample have scored 3.5 out of 5 on the relevant statement. When presented with other statements on the particularities of the training courses, namely their adequacy, evaluation, and the following up of participants, teachers have expressed very negative attitudes (See table 6.38).

21. Similar to their reaction to the statements of the variable "Training Courses" within the Teachers' Attitudes Questionnaire, teachers have scored 3.87 out of 5, a high positive score, on the variable "Supervision" in terms of supervisors' beneficial instructions. Conversely, negative attitudes have been expressed towards supervisors' subjectivity, unfair evaluation, and the unsatisfactory way of carrying out their job (See table 6.49).

22. Since pupils, teachers, and textbooks form basic factors upon which the success of any educational process relies in great measure, and since the specification of the negative role played by any one or more of these factors has been a primary aim towards which a considerable part of the current research is geared (p.122f.), it is worthy of note that in the light of pupils' and teachers' responses to the variable "Textbook" within the attitudes questionnaires, the following concluding points have been drawn:

a. In terms of the organization of their English textbooks, pupils have scored positively. That is what the first statement of table (6.33) shows. The same table shows that on the next 3 statements related to the clarification, consideration of pupils' standards, and difficulty of the English textbooks currently in use, pupils' responses have been very low positive. Finally, concerning the last statement that is intended to measure pupils' attitudes towards English textbooks in terms of their balance in presenting the varied activities, pupils have reacted negatively.

b. As table (6.18) shows, 43 , i.e. 82.70% teachers out of the 52 selected for the sample of the main study have expressed negative attitudes towards English textbooks currently in use. In the same vein, table (6.31) shows that teachers have reacted negatively to all the 11 statements of the variable "Textbooks" within the Teachers' Attitudes Questionnaire. This is evident from

the means scored which are all below 3, the average score. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, when asked to state their perceptions of pupils' learning of English, teachers have perceived their pupils to be unhappy with the difficulty of English textbooks.

In the light of such relatively consistent responses by pupils and their teachers of English to the statements of the variable "textbooks", and the information given in the points 23 and 24 below on the perceptions of headteachers and supervisors of English of the textbooks currently in use, it is possible to say that English textbooks are "mainly" responsible for the current discouraging situation of English language teaching and learning in Iraq.

Yet this does not deny the fact that in addition to English textbooks, there are other factors of negative influence especially those towards which the samples of pupils and teachers have expressed negative attitudes. In line with this, pupils and teachers should not be regarded as perfect factors. Teachers and the taught do come under the influence of a number of personal, educational, and social factors other than textbooks. Yet, these factors do not have the same "fatal" effects as textbooks do. This is so because textbooks are part and parcel of the everyday life of the process of teaching and learning English. They form a source of assistance that neither teachers nor pupils can dispense with.

23. Headteachers who were asked to state their perceptions of the current state of English language teaching and learning at the preparatory level have emphasized the lack of efficiency and experience by noticeable numbers of teachers. In terms of pupils, the sample of headteachers has underlined pupils' lack of interest in learning English. Added to that, headteachers have shared with pupils and teachers of English their disfavour of English textbooks and tests. Finally, headteachers have emphasized the point that the current methods of teaching are not encouraging and are not so productive (See Chapter Six; Section 6.4(1)).

24. Being almost in daily contact with teachers of English and pupils, the 3 supervisors of English who were asked to state their perceptions of the current state of English language teaching and learning, have emphasized teachers' lack of experience and efficiency in implementing the new methods of teaching, and their hesitation in carrying out supervisors' suggestions and instructions.

Pupils, from supervisors' viewpoint, are generally weak. They face difficulty in learning, read just to pass examinations, and are rule-following.

Finally, the sample of supervisors have perceived English textbooks to be long, difficult, and unorganized.

In an attempt to find the least of the possible solutions to the drawbacks that have been designated through the statement of the "General Conclusions", and to

collaborate with other Iraqi scholars in their endeavour to put the process of teaching and learning English in Iraq on its right track, the following implications for future work have been suggested:

Implications for Future Work:

1. Since the primary level forms the initial and basic level of English language learning in Iraq, and since almost all the blame is directed to teachers of English at this level in bringing about the current discouraging situation (See Section 2.3.4(A)), better pre-service training for teachers of English at this level is required. Although the latter has been partially fulfilled through the establishment of English departments at the Central Primary Teachers' Institutes (p.27f.), many graduates are reported not to be allowed to teach English without any convincing reasons. The authoritative role of the educational officials is required in this respect since many of the graduates in question joined these departments with high interest and motivation to teach English.

A second solution is that in the absence of a licensed teacher to teach English at the primary level, selection of one should be made by the supervisor who finds in the selected member of the staff the qualities that will result in successful teaching.

2. Since the shortage of teachers of English in Iraq

has necessitated the recruitment of teacher-graduates of Colleges of Arts to take over the task of teaching English (p.33), the syllabus for the Departments of English at the colleges in question should contain subjects on educational psychology and methodology. In the same manner, students at the Departments of English, Colleges of Arts, are supposed to have the teaching-practice period and observation lessons in the nearby intermediate and preparatory schools.

3. Since a teachers' long experience in teaching plays a crucial role in encouraging pupils to learn and in creating better learning environments, and since teachers, whether male or female, and of medium or long experience in teaching, have shown more satisfaction with the profession of teaching in general, and with that of teaching English in particular, in comparison with those of short experience who lack the required knowledge to deal more closely with the teaching situation both psychologically and pedagogically, teachers are supposed, as the present researcher sees, to start teaching English at the preparatory level after spending some time in teaching English at the intermediate level. This point has also been suggested as 9 out of the 52 teachers selected for the main study are of short experience in teaching English.

4. Solutions to the problems that impede teachers'

work should not be limited to the claim that teachers do not have positive attitudes and motivation, and are not interested in teaching English. Looking for the appropriate solutions should be extended to include teaching conditions. In this respect, teachers' freedom to innovate, to prepare teaching materials, and to have a say in the Public Examinations are essential sources for the development of their positive attitudes and motivation.

5. Since training courses, in their broad sense, have been viewed by teachers in the sample as something beneficial, and since some particular aspects of these courses are not favoured by teachers (table 6.38), two suggested alternatives might be helpful in this context:

a. Looking for the appropriate procedures to make the training courses more adequate and effective in terms of the facilities available, evaluation and following up.

b. Looking for the appropriate techniques to make the teaching material of the training courses which is viewed by teachers as beneficial, yet constantly repeated, available through other channels. One suggestion may be to imply such important materials within the Teachers' Guides towards which teachers have shown positive attitudes.

6. Since "how to teach" a subject is not less important than "what to teach", the training courses should not be limited to the presentation of the activities included in English textbooks and the analysis of these

books. Emphasis should also be placed on the updated methods of teaching, the varied activities within English textbooks, and educational psychology. By so doing, teachers who attend the training courses are expected to acquire the knowledge of how to deal with the everyday aspects of the process of teaching. They would find at their disposal many techniques to deal with the teaching materials and to interact with pupils so as to enhance their positive attitudes and motivation, and make English language lessons more appealing to them.

In line with this, teachers' knowledge of the social background of English-speaking peoples would be of much help in their profession. This is so because the culture and the behaviour of these peoples are very well reflected in the language taught.

7. Since it is not the policy of the educational authorities to recruit teacher-graduates of Colleges of Arts unless it is the demanding need of covering the shortage of teachers of English, these authorities might advisedly look into the reasons behind the availability, for example, of 35 graduates of Colleges of Arts among the 52 teachers of English drawn from 27 male and female preparatory schools within and without the city of Mosul.

8. In spite of the efforts made by the Ministry of Education to improve the relations between teachers and supervisors so as to give impetus to the educational

process (p.61f.), it is sadly the case that many teachers are still viewing supervisors as too authoritative, unfair in their judgement, and looking for teachers' mistakes. To change teachers' negative attitudes towards some aspects of the supervision process, educational authorities are required to make teachers know that a supervisor's job is to help not to threaten or punish.

Similarly, the priorities of the Ministry of Education should not lie in supervision or in in-service training to improve teachers' qualities, it should rather lie in improving teachers' pre-service training so that supervision and in-service training would be less critical issues.

9. Since Female teachers have scored higher than their Male counterparts on attitude towards the profession of teaching English, on motivation to teach the language, and on satisfaction with the profession of teaching English, the admission of more female students to the departments of English might improve the situation. Added to that, having more female teachers means, as the sample of supervisors has suggested, less male teachers who are keeping busy with supplementary jobs that have nothing to do with the profession of teaching.

10. It is beneficial to give teachers of English while in service and students specialized in the teaching of English the chance to visit at least a foreign country

with English as the native language. By so doing, teachers and students will have the chance to know more about the foreign culture which plays a crucial role in the teaching or learning of the foreign language. It would also enable teachers and students to practise their knowledge of English in real life situations.

11. It may prove beneficial to establish at least one committee within the General Directorate of Education in each Iraqi Governorate. Such a committee would work, in the case of its establishment, under the authority of a central committee within the Ministry of Education in the capital Baghdad. It would also be in constant contact with teachers of English through the distribution of questionnaire forms among random samples of them. Teachers comments on the various aspects of the process of English language teaching and learning can be studied and subsequent remedial procedures can be put into practice.

12. To put teachers of English in constant contact with their profession and knowledgeable of its varied aspects, especially in the domain of motivating pupils and creating atmospheres conducive to learning, a committee, of the type mentioned in (11) above, might possibly ask all teachers of English within the province to undertake at least one task in research and/or innovation during the academic year. Such a procedure is hoped to familiarize teachers with many relevancies of

educational psychology, curriculum design and development, recent audio-visual aids, and methods of teaching.

13. The researcher suggests the revision or the replacement of the English textbooks currently in use. The disfavour of English textbooks, by all the parties selected for the pilot and the main studies, due to their length, difficulty, lack of balance in presenting the varied activities, and rarity of the bound-cultural topics, has proved their negative bearings on the status of English language teaching and learning.

14. Since pupils in the Literary branch have constantly shown levels of attitudes, motivation, and interest in learning English that are generally lower than their counterparts in the Scientific branch, and since these pupils are always viewed as less competent, it is unfair to have a uniform syllabus of English for both branches. Many pupils in the Literary branch claimed (personal communication) that they had repeated the studying year because of failure in English. Furthermore, they have viewed the difficulty of English textbooks and their bias towards the scientific topics as main reasons behind their poor achievement in the subject.

Consequently, when there would be English textbooks with the needs and the topics relevant to each branch widely considered, pupils are expected to approach learning the language with positive attitudes and enhanced

motivation.

15. It was evident through contact with pupils from the primary and intermediate levels during the pilot study that the majority of them did not know the objectives behind their learning of English. Since a learner's knowledge of the objectives behind studying any subject has much bearing on his or her attitudes and motivation to learn the subject in question, there is no harm in setting right from the beginning within an introductory section of every English textbook, even if in Arabic, the objectives behind teaching the language.

16. The mere saying that pupils do not have positive attitudes or enough motivation, and are not interested in learning English should be based on solid justifications. Research should be launched to investigate the real reasons behind pupils' negative attitudes, and low motivation and interest, if any. For instance, difficulty of English, English textbooks and tests, and lack of parental encouragement form factors that affect pupils negatively but have not been satisfactorily probed within the Iraqi context.

17. The close relationship and reciprocal respect between the administrative and teaching staff of schools on the one hand, and pupils' parents on the other is important in designating the varied problems that might

hinder pupils' further pursuing their studies, and influence their interest in school and their attitudes and motivation to learn.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 5AThe Pupils' Attitudes Questionnaire

Dear Pupil:

I have the pleasure to benefit from your frank and clear answers to the following questionnaire which investigates the Attitudes of Iraqi Pupils at the Preparatory Level towards Learning English as a Foreign Language.

Thank you for your assistance and co-operation.

H. A. AHMED

Ph. D. Postgraduate.

Name of the School:

Location of the School: Inner-city 1 Sex: Male 1
 Outer-city 2 Female 2

Grade: Fourth 1 Branch: General 1
 Fifth 2 Scientific 2
 Sixth 3 Literary 3

Final marks obtained in English during the last two ()
 years: ()

Father's Educational Attainment:

1 2 3 4 5

Illiterate Literate Primary Secondary University

1 2 3 4 5

Mother's Educational Attainment:

A Sample of How to Answer the Questionnaire:

For each statement, the following five options are given:

1. Strongly Agree -----> (SA)
2. Agree -----> (A)
3. Undecided -----> (N)
4. Disagree -----> (D)
5. Strongly Disagree -----> (SD)

If your answer, for example, is Agree to the following statement, please put (X) in the square below (A), and so on:

No.	Statement	(SA)	(A)	(N)	(D)	(SD)
22.	Learning English is not relevant to my life.		X			

No.	Statements	(SA)	(A)	(N)	(D)	(SD)
1.	I like reading materials published in English.					
2.	I dislike learning to speak English.					
3.	I am trying my best to improve my English vocabulary.					
4.	I like learning English grammar.					
5.	I should like less homework in English and more in other subjects.					
6.	I have considerable difficulty in understanding English when spoken in the classroom.					
7.	I find listening to programmes in English a waste of my time.					
8.	I like writing in English.					
9.	English is difficult for me to learn.					
10.	I think English demands less effort to learn than other subjects.					
11.	I think that my English textbooks are well-organized.					
12.	I think my English textbooks lack balance in the materials presented.					
13.	I think my English textbooks do not take learners' standards into regard.					
14.	I think my English textbooks are difficult to understand.					
15.	I think that my English textbooks clarify the subject through different illustrations					

No.	Statements	(SA)	(A)	(N)	(D)	(SD)
16.	I think that English tests I take do not cover all the activities taught.					
17.	I think my English tests are too difficult.					
18.	I think that the time allotted to English tests is not enough.					
19.	Teachers of English should have their role in setting questions for the public examinations.					
20.	I think English is useful for the development of Iraq.					
21.	The English lessons I receive enable me to learn the language.					
22.	Learning English is not relevant to my life.					
23.	Learning English is important for the achievement of my ambitions.					
24.	I think English knowledge is important for the educated person.					
25.	English helps me develop a good reasoning ability.					
26.	My parents think that learning English is a waste of my time.					
27.	My parents think that learning English is useful for me.					
28.	My English teacher thinks that English is too difficult for me to learn.					
29.	My classmates say that English is easy to learn.					

أختي الطالبة :

أخي الطالب :

يسعدني أن أفيد من أجوبتكم الصريحة الواضحة أزاء العبارات

المتضمنة في الاستبيان الآتي الذي يبحث في موضوع

" اتجاهات الطلبة العراقيين في المرحلة الاعدادية نحو تعلم

الانكليزية بوصفها لغة أجنبية . "

شكراً على تعاونكم ومساعدتكم على الأجابة

الباحث

أسم المدرسة:

1	ذكر
<	أنثى

الجنس:

1	داخل المدينة
<	خارج المدينة

موقع المدرسة:

1	عام
<	عالي
3	أدبي

الفرع:

1	الرابع
<	الخامس
3	السادس

الصف:

الدرجات النهائية في اللغة الانكليزية خلال السنتين الأخيرتين: ()
()

0	4	3	<	1
جامعة	ثانوية	ابتدائية	قرأ وكتب	أخي
جامعة	ثانوية	ابتدائية	تقرأ وتكتب	أخيّة
0	4	3	<	1

التحصيل العلمي للوالد:

التحصيل العلمي للوالدة:

أنموذج الأجابه على الاستبيان:

أعطيت أزاء كل عبارة الخيارات الخمسة التالية:

1. موافق بشدة < موافق 3. لا رأي لي 4. غير موافق 5. غير موافق بشدة

فمثلاً لو كان جوابك «موافق» على العبارة الآتية، يرجى وضع علامة (X) في المجال تحت خيار «موافق» وهكذا:

رقم العبارة	العبارة	موافق بشدة	موافق	لا رأي لي	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
22	لا صلة للغة الانكليزية بحياتي		X			

رقم العبارة	العبارات	موافق بشدة	موافق	لا رأي لي	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
١	أرغب في قراءة المواد المنشورة باللغة الانكليزية .					
٢	لذا أرغب في تعلم التحدث باللغة الانكليزية .					
٣	أحاول جهد الامكان زيادة معرفتي بالمفردات الانكليزية .					
٤	أرغب في تعلم قواعد اللغة الانكليزية .					
٥	أريد واجبا بيئيا أقل في اللغة الانكليزية والثر في المواد الأخرى .					
٦	أواجه صعوبة كبيرة في فهم ما يقوله المتكلم بالانكليزية داخل الصف .					
٧	أرى أن الاستماع الى البرامج الانكليزية ضياع لوقتي .					
٨	أحب الكتابة باللغة الانكليزية .					
٩	اللغة الانكليزية صعبة التعلم بالنسبة لي .					
١٠	أعتقد بأن اللغة الانكليزية تتطلب جهداً أقل في تعلمها مقارنة بالمواد الأخرى .					
١١	أعتقد بأن كتيبي الدراسية في اللغة الانكليزية منظمة بشكل جيد .					
١٢	أعتقد بأن كتيبي الدراسية في اللغة الانكليزية بحاجة الى الموازنة بين ما تتضمنه من مادة .					
١٣	أعتقد بأن كتيبي في اللغة الانكليزية لا تتفق ومستويات الطلبة .					
١٤	أعتقد بأن كتيبي الدراسية في اللغة الانكليزية صعبة الفهم .					
١٥	أعتقد بأن كتيبي الدراسية في اللغة الانكليزية توضح الموضوع من خلال الرسوم التوضيحية المختلفة .					
١٦	أعتقد بأن امتحانات اللغة الانكليزية لا تشمل جميع ما تدرسه من فعاليات					
١٧	أعتقد بأن امتحانات اللغة الانكليزية صعبة جداً .					
١٨	أعتقد بأن الوقت المخصص لامتحانات اللغة الانكليزية غير كافٍ .					

رقم العبارة	العبارات	موافق بشدة	موافق	لا رأي لي	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
١٩	ينبغي أن يكون لمدربي اللغة الانكليزية دورهم في وضع اسئلة الامتحانات العامة .					
٢٠	أعتقد بأن اللغة الانكليزية مفيدة لتطور العراق .					
٢١	تساعدني الدروس التي أتلقاها في اللغة الانكليزية على تعلم اللغة .					
٢٢	لا صلة للغة الانكليزية بحياتي .					
٢٣	تعلم اللغة الانكليزية مهم لتحقيق طموحي .					
٢٤	أعتقد بأن معرفة اللغة الانكليزية مهمة للشخص المثقف .					
٢٥	تساعد اللغة الانكليزية على تطوير مقدرتي على التفكير بصورة جيدة .					
٢٦	يعتقد والدياً بأن تعلم اللغة الانكليزية ضياع لوقتي .					
٢٧	يعتقد والدي بأن تعلم اللغة الانكليزية ضروري لي .					
٢٨	يعتقد مدرسي للغة الانكليزية بأن المادة صعبة التعلم بالنسبة لي .					
٢٩	يقول زملائي في الصف بأن اللغة الانكليزية سهلة التعلم .					

APPENDIX 5BThe Pupils' Motivation Questionnaire

Dear Pupil :

I have the pleasure to benefit from your frank and clear answers to the following questionnaire that tackles the Motivation of Iraqi Pupils at the Preparatory Level towards Learning English as a Foreign Language.

Thank you for your co-operation and assistance.

A Sample of How to Answer the Questionnaire:

For each statement, the following five options are given:

	1. A Very High Degree----->	(VHD)
	2. A High Degree ----->	(HD)
Applies to me to:	3. A Moderate Degree ----->	(MD)
	4. A Low Degree ----->	(LD)
	5. A Very Low Degree ----->	(VLD)

For example, if your answer is Applies to me to a Low Degree, please put (X) within the square below Applies to me to a (LD), and so on:

No	Statement	Applies to me to a				
		(VHD)	(HD)	(MD)	(LD)	(VLD)
2.	Learning English does not make me an educated person				X	

No.	Statements	Applies to me to a				
		(VHD)	(HD)	(MD)	(LD)	(VLD)
1.	Learning English is useful in getting a good job.					
2.	Learning English does not make me an educated person.					
3.	Learning English will guarantee me a good social position.					
4.	Learning English is of no benefit when travelling abroad.					
5.	Learning English enables me to read newspapers and books in English.					
6.	Learning English will help me broaden my knowledge of the world.					
7.	Learning English will help me pursue my studies abroad.					
8.	Learning English does not increase others' respect for me.					
9.	Learning English does not make me feel the fulfilment of my real objectives in life					
10.	Learning English enables me to communicate with educated people.					
11.	Learning English enables me to communicate with English-speaking people.					
12.	Learning English will not help me understand English-speaking people's way of life.					
13.	Learning English enables me to behave in ways similar to English-speaking people.					

No.	Statements	Applies to me to a				
		(VHD)	(HD)	(MD)	(LD)	(VLD)
14.	Learning English will not enable me to assimilate the cultures of English-speaking people.					
15.	I am interested in learning more than one language.					
16.	I find learning English interesting.					
17.	I find learning English tiring.					
18.	I feel uncomfortable in English lessons.					
19.	I am interested in English more than other school subjects.					
20.	I find in my parents' encouragement of me to learn English a waste of their time.					
21.	My parents encourage me to learn English.					
22.	My teacher of English does not encourage me to learn English.					

أختي المالبة:

أخي الطالب:

يسعدني أن أفيد من أجوبتكم الصريحة الواضحة أزاء العبارات المتضمنة في الاستبيان الآتي الذي يتناول "دافعية الطلبة العراقيين في المرحلة الأعدادية نحو تعلم اللغة الانكليزية بصفتها لغة أجنبية".

شكراً على تعاونكم ومساعدتكم على الأجابة....

أنموذج الأجابة على الاستبيان:

أعطيت الخيارات الخمسة التالية أزاء كل عبارة:

١. كبيرة جداً

٢. كبيرة

٣. معتدلة

٤. قليلة

٥. قليلة جداً

تنطبق عليّ بدرجة

فمثلاً لو كان جوابك على العبارة الآتية «تنطبق عليّ بدرجة قليلة»،
توضع علامة (X) في المربع تحت «تنطبق عليّ بدرجة قليلة»، وهكذا:

رقم العبارة	تنطبق عليّ بدرجة				
	كبيرة جداً	كبيرة	معتدلة	قليلة	قليلة جداً
١.				X	

تنطبق عليّ بدرجة				العبارة	رقم العبارة
قليلة جداً	قليلة	متدلة	كبيرة		
				١. تتعلم اللغة الانكليزية مفيدتي حمولي على عمل جيد .	
				٢. تتعلم اللغة الانكليزية لا يجعلني شخصاً مثقفاً .	
				٣. تعلم اللغة الانكليزية سيجعلني في مركز اجتماعي جيد .	
				٤. ليست هناك فائدة من تعلم اللغة الانكليزية عند سفري الى خارج القطر .	
				٥. يمكنني تعلم اللغة الانكليزية من قراءة الصحف والكتب باللغة الانكليزية .	
				٦. يساعدني تعلم اللغة الانكليزية على زيادة معرفتي بالعالم .	
				٧. يساعدني تعلم اللغة الانكليزية على مواصلة دراستي خارج القطر .	
				٨. ليزيد تعلم اللغة الانكليزية من احترام الآخرين لي .	
				٩. تعلم اللغة الانكليزية لا يجعلني أشعر بتحقيق طموحي في الحياة .	
				١٠. يساعدني تعلم اللغة الانكليزية على التفاهم مع الناس المثقفين .	
				١١. يساعدني تعلم اللغة الانكليزية على التفاهم مع الناطقين بها .	
				١٢. لا يساعدني تعلم اللغة الانكليزية على فهم طريقة حياة الناطقين بها .	
				١٣. يمكنني تعلم اللغة الانكليزية من المتصرف مثل الناطقين بها .	
				١٤. لا يمكنني تعلم اللغة الانكليزية من استيعاب حضارة الناطقين بها .	
				١٥. أنا مولع بتعلم أكثر من لغة واحدة .	
				١٦. أجد تعلم اللغة الانكليزية شيئاً ممتعاً .	
				١٧. أجد تعلم اللغة الانكليزية شيئاً مرهقاً .	
				١٨. لا أشعر بالراحة عند دراستي اللغة الانكليزية .	
				١٩. أنا مولع باللغة الانكليزية أكثر من المواد الدراسية الاخرى .	
				٢٠. أجدني تنبجح والديني على تعلم اللغة الانكليزية ضياعاً لوقتهما .	
				٢١. يشجعني والدي على تعلم اللغة الانكليزية .	
				٢٢. لا يشجعني مدرس اللغة الانكليزية على تعلم المادة .	

APPENDIX 5CThe Teachers' Attitudes QuestionnaireDear Teacher:

I have the pleasure to benefit from your frank and clear answers to the following questionnaire that investigates the Attitudes of Iraqi Teachers of English at the Preparatory Level towards Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

There is no need to mention your name. The answers will be treated confidentially. With many thanks for your assistance and co-operation.

H. A. AHMED, Ph. D. Candidate
University of Stirling
Scotland

PART ONE:

No	Statements	(SA)	(A)	(N)	(D)	(SD)
1.	I am satisfied with my job as a teacher.					
2.	I am satisfied with my job as a teacher of English.					

PART TWO:

No.	Statements	(SA)	(A)	(N)	(D)	(SD)
1.	Teaching English is a good profession.					
2.	I became a teacher of English because there was no other choice.					
3.	I am happy with my profession as a teacher of English.					
4.	I consider that in-service training courses for teachers of English in Iraq are beneficial.					
5.	I consider that the facilities offered at teachers' training courses are inadequate.					
6.	I consider that the evaluation of the training courses is not up to a satisfactory standard.					
7.	English textbooks contain many unimportant topics.					
8.	I do not consider that English textbooks achieve their stated objectives.					
9.	Current English textbooks are of a good standard.					
10.	The English textbooks in use at present are unnecessarily long.					
11.	English textbooks present all activities properly.					

No.	Statements	(SA)	(A)	(N)	(D)	(SD)
12.	The quality of print and drawings in the English textbooks are not of a satisfactory standard.					
13.	English textbooks relate well to pupils' real lives.					
14.	English textbooks are not coping with the new developments in the field of English language teaching.					
15.	The frequent changes of English textbooks have not led to any improvement in the range of the topics covered.					
16.	Teachers of English should have their say in designing English textbooks.					
17.	English textbooks with topics presented in the foreign cultural context are more acceptable to pupils.					
18.	I consider that the Teachers' Guides that are currently available are of no benefit.					
19.	The Teacher's Guide helps me overcome many difficulties encountered in teaching.					
20.	I consider that the current approach to the supervision of the teaching of English is unsatisfactory.					
21.	I find that supervisors of English emphasize teachers' mistakes only.					
22.	I consider that listening to the instructions given by supervisors of English is beneficial.					
23.	I consider that supervisors' evaluation is subjective rather than objective.					
24.	English tests do not adequately cover all the activities presented in the classroom.					

No.	Statements	(SA)	(A)	(N)	(D)	(SD)
25.	I consider that English tests are generally set at a level that is appropriate to the pupils taking them.					
26.	I consider that the time allotted to answering English questions is not enough.					
27.	Experienced teachers of English should have a role in setting questions for the Ministerial Public Examinations.					
28.	I am always keen to develop my skills in teaching English.					
29.	I give pupils the chance to succeed regardless of their abilities.					
30.	It is my habit to encourage every pupil to learn English.					
31.	Encouraging slow learning pupils to learn English is a waste of the teacher's time.					
32.	When teaching English, I consider it essential to use English as the dominant language of communication in the classroom.					
33.	When teaching English, I believe it is essential to develop grammatical accuracy in all learners.					
34.	When teaching English, I believe that pupils should be encouraged to communicate, even if this means making mistakes.					
35.	When teaching English, I encourage pupils to talk in English in pairs and small groups.					

APPENDIX 5D

The Teachers' Motivation Questionnaire

Dear Teacher:

I have the pleasure to benefit from your clear and frank answers to the statements of the following questionnaire that investigates the Motivation of Iraqi Teachers of English at the Preparatory Level towards Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

Thank you for your co-operation and assistance.

A Sample of how to answer the Questionnaire :

For each statement, the following Five options are given:

1. (VHD) -----> Very High Degree.

2. (HD) -----> High Degree.

Applies to me to a : 3. (MD) -----> Moderate Degree.

4. (LD) -----> Low Degree.

5. (VLD) -----> Very Low Degree.

For example, if the following statement Applies to you to a Moderate Degree, indicate with (X) in the square below

Applies to me to a (MD), and so on:

No.	Statement	Applies to me to a				
		(VHD)	(HD)	(MD)	(LD)	(VLD)
19.	Teaching English is a stable profession.			X		

No.	statements	Applies to me to a				
		(VHD)	(HD)	(MD)	(LD)	(VLD)
1.	Teaching English helps in developing my personality.					
2.	Teaching English does not make me feel any sense of achievement.					
3.	Teaching English enables me to be innovative and creative.					
4.	Teaching English contributes to the service of my community					
5.	Teaching English does not help in getting better jobs in the future.					
6.	Teaching English is beneficial when travelling abroad.					
7.	Teaching English is not the way to be more modern.					
8.	Teaching English enables me to get access to materials published in English.					
9.	Teaching English does not enable me to communicate with educated people.					
10.	Teaching English is the way to obtain social recognition.					
11.	Teaching English provides me with enough independence in my work.					
12.	Teaching English guarantees others' respect for me.					
13.	Teaching English does not make me feel like English-speaking people.					
14.	Teaching English makes me behave like English-speaking people.					

No.	Statements	Applies to me to a				
		(VHD)	(HD)	(MD)	(LD)	(VLD)
15.	Teaching English does not enable me to understand English-speaking people's way of life.					
16.	Teaching English enables me to understand foreign art and literature.					
17.	Teaching English is a useless profession.					
18.	I find my job in teaching English to be tiring.					
19.	Teaching English is a stable profession.					
20.	If I had the chance, I would immediately change this profession for another.					
21.	I like teaching English more than any other subject.					
22.	I am not interested in teaching English.					
23.	I am following with interest the new developments in the field of teaching English.					
24.	I feel very relaxed while teaching English.					
25.	I imagine myself to be in a prison while teaching English.					
26.	It would be better if more school hours were given to English.					
27.	I am pleased when my English lessons come.					

APPENDIX 5E1. Pupils' Perceptions of their Teachers' Teaching of English:

Please indicate with (X) the statements you agree with from among the following:

Our Teacher of English:

1. is efficient.
2. is interested in teaching the subject.
3. is serious in his teaching of the subject.
4. has a good control of the subject.
5. tries his/her best to make all pupils understand.
6. encourages everyone to learn English.
7. gives tests that are too difficult.
8. does not grade fairly.
9. continuously criticizes everything related to the subject.
10. makes the classroom atmosphere conducive to learning.
11. shows dissatisfaction with his profession.
12. effectively uses many teaching aids.

أختي الطالبة:

أخي الطالب:

يرجى وضع علامة (X) أزاء العبارات التي تتفق معها مما يأتي:

- مدرسنا في اللغة الانكليزية:

١. كفت .
٢. مولع بتدريس المادة .
٣. جاد في تدريسه للمادة .
٤. متمكن من المادة .
٥. يبذل ما في وسعه لجعل الطلبة يفهمون المادة .
٦. يشجع كل واحد على تعلم اللغة الانكليزية .
٧. يمتحننا امتحانات صعبة جداً .
٨. غير عادل في تصحيح الاوراق الامتحانية .
٩. ينتقد بآسئمرار كل شيء ذي صلة بالمادة .
١٠. يجعل جو الصف ملائماً لتعلم المادة .
١١. يظهر عدم القناعة بهنثه .
١٢. يستخدم الوسائل المساعدة على التدريس بكثرة وبكفاءة .

2. Teachers' Perceptions of their Pupils' Learning of English:

Please indicate with (X) the statements you agree with from among the following :

My pupils:

1. like learning English.
2. show enthusiasm for learning English.
3. learn English just to pass examinations.
4. are lazy and inattentive.
5. have positive attitudes towards learning English.
6. prepare the lesson before coming to the class.
7. are motivated to learn English.
8. are unhappy with the difficulty of their English textbooks.
9. are unhappy with the difficulty of the tests in English which they are required to take.

3. Headteachers' Perceptions of English Language Teaching and Learning at the Preparatory Level:

Dear Headteacher:

Would you please state your perception of the current state of English language teaching and learning as far as teachers of the subject and pupils at the preparatory level are concerned.

With many thanks for your assistance and co-operation.

أختي مديرة المدرسة :

أخي مدير المدرسة :

يرجى بيان رأيكم حول الوضع الحالي لتعلم وتدرّيس اللغة الانكليزية
بقدر تعلق الأمر بمرسبي المادة والطببة في المرحلة الاعدادية ..
شكراً على تعاونكم ومساعدتكم على الاجابة ..

4. Supervisors' Perceptions of English Language Teaching and Learning at the Preparatory Level:

Dear Supervisor of English:

Would you please state your perception of the current state of English language teaching and learning as far as teachers of the subject and pupils at the preparatory level are concerned.

With many thanks for your assistance and co-operation.