Oral Dialogue Journals and Iranian EFL Learners' Pronunciation

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ABSTRACT: This study focused on the impact of oral dialogue journals on Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation. Three classes of intermediate learners, after being reassured of their homogeneity, were randomly assigned to treatment (14 students), control (9 students), and placebo (10 students) groups. Learners in the treatment group had to respond to the teacher by recording their voices using a voice recorder for two to five minutes. Learners in the placebo group had to record their voices in a form of monologue and learners of the control group did pronunciation practice and activities as a usual requirement of the course. The recorded oral dialogues between the teacher and the learners were thematically related to the units of their course book. The teacher then had to respond as fully as possible by giving the feedback in the forms of, for example, recast to emphasize learners' mispronunciation. Brown's (2004) scale for pronunciation rating was used by two trained raters. The data were then analyzed through one way ANOVA and it was revealed that the learners in the treatment group had better pronunciation achievement regarding, focus on sound, focus on word stress, focus on connected speech, and focus on intonation. The results suggest the use of oral dialogue journal for pronunciation instruction.

Keywords: oral dialogue journal, pronunciation, individual feedback

Pronunciation teaching has gained and lost popularity in different language eras. Since the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the 1980s, language instruction welcomed renewed interest in pronunciation teaching. Different scholars had different views as to the reasons behind this renewed interest. According to Chela-Flores (2001), one reason might be the interrelationship between listening, speaking, and pronunciation. Seidlhofer (2004) represents pronunciation in a similar fashion to that of Chela-Flores. She believes that teaching speaking and listening embrace teaching pronunciation too; as in any form of spoken language, all aspects of pronunciation are present simultaneously. However, it is not precisely clear how exactly pronunciation can be integrated with the rest of language learning/teaching activities. Most

programs gradually immerse the learner into grammar and vocabulary learning, but less attention is given to pronunciation. Short-term courses can hardly satisfy requirements recommended in the literature for a communicative-based instruction that focuses on learners' oral fluency and learners' accuracy going beyond isolated words and sentence levels to indicate discourse as well (Chela-Flores, 2001).

Another general problem in pronunciation pedagogy is the nature of limited training time, and the difficulty of assessment. Pennington (1998) maintains that most pronunciation courses do not yield positive effects due to the nature of training which typically concentrate on short lessons. He points out the problems of assessment and suggests that for a qualified rating, raters of pronunciation should be (a) specialist in phonology, (b) knowledgeable about assessment criteria, and (c) use assessment tasks similar to those used in training.

Although proponents of naturalistic methods such as Comprehension Approach believed learners should devote their time to learning listening before speaking and did not favor pronunciation instruction, it has been strongly suggested that pronunciation be taught as an integral part of a language learning course (Leather, cited in Chela-Flores, 2001). Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994) believe that teachers cannot teach pronunciation by mere exemplification; knowledge on language and pedagogic competence is necessary, as well. As they argue, teachers should receive formal training first and then teach formal aspects of phonology to their learners. This will contribute to learners' awareness of self-monitor and self-awareness. Levis (2005) notes that "pronunciation pedagogy has always been investigated by ideology and intuition rather than research" (p. 369). This implies the fact that pronunciation has been influenced mainly by common sense of teachers. Yet, more research has to be carried out to see the application of research on pronunciation pedagogy.

The focus on language as communication has brought a noticeable change in teaching pronunciation (Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin, 1996). According to Bailey (cited in Celce-Murcia *et al*., 1996) evidence from both empirical and personal experience have shown that there is a threshold level of intelligible pronunciation for non-native speakers, and if learners fall below this threshold, they will have oral communication problems, no matter how proficient they are in grammar and vocabulary knowledge. The importance of pronunciation, thus, urges the quest for strategies, techniques, and approaches which are suitable for pronunciation instruction. In the past decade or so, one innovative technique which could increase learners' awareness and self monitoring and is recommended, by many scholars (e.g., Celce-Murcia *et al*., 1996; Ur 1996; Pennington, 1998; Hedge, 2000; Jones, 2002; Ho, 2003; Walker, 2005) is the use of *oral dialogue journal* for teaching pronunciation. The use of this technique

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increases the time of training and makes the instruction suitable for individual needs, a condition similar to tutoring. Learners record their speaking in laboratory or home on tapes or CDs on a daily or weekly basis. The records are useful for self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher-assessment and feedback, promoting oral fluency and certain features of accuracy. Responding to all learners is somehow time-consuming (particularly in large overcrowded classes); however, many teachers believe that the individualized feedback on learners' oral production achieved through this technique is invaluable as oral dialogue journals help learners to communicate with their teachers on different subjects of interest.

Teachers initially discuss the procedure and select specific phonological features (whether segmental or suprasegmental) and learners and teachers communicate on oral records in a form of dialogue (Celce-Murcia *et al*., 1996). An important factor is that learners can redo a lesson, prepare an oral report, read a passage aloud, and ask questions. Moreover, learners can personalize their learning and by continuous practice and monitoring gain more confidence for face-to-face speaking in the classroom. Furthermore, oral dialogue journals are important in teaching pronunciation due to their controlled, objective, and systematic assessment.

As Celce-Murcia *et al*. (1996) put forward, oral dialogue journals (a) encourage or compliment learners in their oral production, (b) help them to contrast some non-target like features of the their pronunciation, (c) are useful means of explaining certain features of articulatory system or intonational contour, (d) attrive learners attention on certain aspects of their pronunciation, (e) assist learners to locate error patterns and analyze the instructors' feedback in order to control learning over time.

Learners in Allan's (cited in Hedge, 2000) study reported that, by practicing oral dialogue journals, they could gain higher awareness of their errors and reduce hesitancy in their delivery over a period of time. One limitation was application of this method in large classes, and as the oral dialogue journal was a planned discourse, there was a limitation in terms of communication. However, as learners gained confidence, they could gradually speak with reduced anxiety in classroom activities for more spontaneous performance.

Ho (2003), who responded as fully as possible to each entry rather than supplying brief comments, is concerned about the quality of teachers' response on oral journals. Furthermore, when learners ask for advice, the teacher has to respond and be supportive and emphatic to learners' responses. Station (cited in Ho, 2003) notes that learners have to feel that they are engaged in a personalized communication rather than doing an assignment. Since the focus of the journal is on communication, errors have to be corrected when interfered with intelligibility or when they are repeated many times. Jones (2002) states that in a study by Dickerson

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(cited in Jones, 2002), Chinese, Korean, and Japanese learners' formal phonological rules helped learners when it was used for monitoring speech. Participants of this study gained fluency and accuracy after a period of practicing in the form of talking to themselves (this can be associated to the practice of oral journals). The study focused on a balance between supplying ideal input and equipping learners to supply their own ideal input.

A highly successful form of individualized feedback can be assigned for outside of the class by using oral dialogue journals with a variety of formats (e.g. redoing a lesson, preparing an oral report, reading a passage aloud, and asking questions). In order to maximize the usefulness of the journal, learners should listen to their entry and then follow it up by recording their own evaluation. This practice both motivates better listening discrimination and the ability to self-monitor. Thus, the teacher can first respond to the self evaluation and then add feedback. The best way is to take notes while listening to the entry, keeping the track of errors on a separate piece of paper. Therefore, the learner can notice organized patterns of errors. The learner should, then, be encouraged to make use of this feedback by incorporating some problematic pronunciation features into the following entries. This technique has proved to be effective in helping learners to detect systematic errors, revise corrective input, direct their own learning, and note progress over time.

The present study attempted to examine whether teaching pronunciation through oral dialogue journals fosters pronunciation of Iranian EFL learners and if there is any statistically significant difference between pronunciation average score of the subjects under investigation. Consequently, the following null hypothesis was formulated:

There is no statistically significant difference between the pronunciation average score of the treatment group (the group in which pronunciation is taught through oral dialogue journals) and the contrast group (the group in which pronunciation is taught traditionally in the classroom).

Traditional here means formal instruction of pronunciation (working on segmental and suprasegmental features) in the classroom. The purpose of the present study was, therefore, to determine whether teaching pronunciation through oral dialogue journal has any statistically significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation.

Method

Participants

Participants of the present study were 33 adult male EFL learners in a language school in Tehran. They were all from the same language background, Persian. The participants were all at the intermediate level in

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three separate classes (14 in treatment, 10 in placebo, and 9 in control group respectively). For the learners in the treatment and placebo groups, it was actually the first time that they were going to practice pronunciation through oral dialogue journals. Moreover, none of the participants of the three groups had any formal and systematic pronunciation training before. As it was common in the language school, after the pre-intermediate level learners had to take Preliminary English Test (PET), a proficiency test of University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES) which is suitable for evaluating general proficiency of pre-intermediate and intermediate learners.

Instrumentation
The instruments of this study were a general proficiency test (PET) to assure homogeneity of the participants of the study, a diagnostic profile questionnaire for the purpose of needs analysis (adapted from Celce-Murcia et al., 1996) and a test of pronunciation as the pretest and posttest. The pretest functioned as a diagnostic test, and the posttest as an achievement test.

 Diagnostic profile questionnaire. The diagnostic profile questionnaire summarized the most important learner variables and offered suggestions for needs analysis. The factors that helped the instructor to diagnose the learners' needs and problematic pronunciation features were age, exposure to target language, amount and types of pronunciation instruction, aptitude, attitude, and motivation. The profile questionnaire is presented in Appendix A.

 Pretest, posttest. The pretest of pronunciation was taken in the form of a diagnostic evaluation to assess the pronunciation of the participants. The pretest results were used to set priorities and plan for the treatment in the Experimental group. Pronunciation tests typically consist of two main parts: (a) testing *perception* including consonant-vowel discrimination, word stress, prominence, intonation, and reduced speech; and (b) testing *production* including standardized sample of the learners reading aloud and the sample of learners' free or spontaneous speech, as Celce-Murcia *et al.* (1996) explain. They further contend that standardized sample texts for reading aloud as well as samples of learners' free or spontaneous speech are the two complimentary parts to *production* pronunciation test.

 For the first part of *production* pronunciation test, the researchers recorded the sample of reading aloud test (a standardized text) to assess learners' command of phonological features that might not necessarily occur in natural speech context. In the present study, the most representative text from the tape script sections of the text-book *True to Life*, (1996) was used. Learners had to listen to the standardized passage for several times, and rehearse for some time, before final production for

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recordings. The aim of this rehearsal before diagnostic assessment, as Celce-Murcia *et al*. (1996) maintain, was to obtain as true representative samples as possible. They mention, even for an articulate native speaker, the reading aloud of an unfamiliar passage can result in an unnatural flow, awkward pauses or stumbling over words, restart and the like.

For the second part of production pronunciation test, the researchers recorded the sample of free or spontaneous speech of the participants. The samples were selected from among the topics which were introduced to the learners during the course. During the interview, the learners were asked to talk about "an interesting childhood memory" for about two minutes. The interviews were recorded. This part, similar to the first part of the test, was conducted as the posttest as well. Since the two parts of the production pronunciation test namely reading aloud and free speech develop a complete format for testing form and meaning, they were both applied to the study. The pretests could predict and plan how the treatment should be carried out.

Procedure
After analyzing the results of PET and making sure of the homogeneity of the language proficiency of the learners, the diagnostic profile questionnaire and the pretest were administered to all of the participants. Then, the learners in the experimental group were exposed to the treatment. First, the teacher provided CDs for learners and codified them. Subsequently, the teacher initiated the dialogue exchange by recording introductory massage to the learners (the record was done through Nero software, version 8, in the form of multisession recording). It is worth mentioning that the teacher included the software on the CDs and instructed the participants how to record multisession records. Additionally, the learners received a project plan and an organizer (organizer was a chart to show the cycles of records) before recording their comments which had to take 2 to 5 minutes. The recorded CDs were collected on a regular basis (according to the organizer), and the teacher gave comments on the pronunciation of each of the students, and returned the CDs back to students. This procedure continued throughout the course.

In order to reach a more accurate comparison of the groups, the placebo group received treatment as well. However, the treatment was not in the form of oral dialogue journals (conversations between teacher and learners). In fact, the participants in the placebo group had to record their own voices; that is, the records were in the form of monologues, and reading aloud activities, though the time of the records was the same as the experimental group's records. The monologue records were collected to check whether the time of exposure was the same.

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Alternatively, the control group learners did pronunciation practice and activities in the classroom as a typical requirement of the course. They worked on pronunciation practices of their course book similar to the experimental and placebo groups. The time of classroom pronunciation instruction of the control group was the same as the other two.

In this study, the four general types of activities for the experimental group were: (a) reading aloud some texts from the audio script of the course; (b) talking to oneself (learners had to imagine a situation and talk to themselves); (c) talking to the teacher in the form of a dialogue; and (d) asking the teacher some questions regarding pronunciation, highlighting their individualized needs. For each record the researcher asked the learners to focus on specific features of pronunciation.

Learners were asked to self-assess after each record; thus the teacher, first, could listen to the self-assessment and then give the final feedback. The researchers gave the feedback after listening to the learner's entire response and then listened and responded by recording the feedback in the parallel form. Thus, the learner could spot the erroneous area using the computer's sound recorder and player in the parallel fashion or mode. Moreover, learners were encouraged to participate at the time of records to have the advantage of peer-feedback as well.

According to Chela-Flores (2001) and Brown (2001), suprasegmental features deserve priority, and to some others (e.g. Celce-Murcia *et al.*, 1996) a balanced approach of focus on segmental and suprasegmental features should be adopted. In this study, since the learners in the treatment group were at the intermediate level, techniques recommended by Celce-Murcia et al. 1996, such as *mirroring* (a technique that involves repeating simultaneously with a speaker, while imitating all the speakers' gestures, eye movements and body posturing), *tracking* (a technique in which students repeat simultaneously with the speaker but they do not mirror) and *shadowing* (a technique in which, learners repeat as in tracking, although slightly after rather than along with the speaker) were used. Learners initially got familiar with these techniques in the classroom and later in their records they applied them in the formal instruction of the class.

Generally, in each class, the teacher highlighted the importance of listening for several times. Learners learned to stop the course book's audio CDs and shadow in small chunks and later in bigger chunks. The use of audio scripts at times could be very useful since learners with more difficulty of perception could use the audio scripts as an aid for the perception of the parts that were phonologically too demanding.

In order to perform a needs analysis, the profile questionnaire (adapted from Celce-Murcia *et al.* 1996, see Apendix A) was used. The role of the questionnaire was to provide the researchers a diagnostic evaluation of the learners' pronunciation. More specifically, the researchers tried to conform

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the class instruction with the results of the questionnaire. The analyses and classifications helped the researchers to organize the current phonological needs of the class, especially the features that interfered with intelligibility.

Results
Inter-Rater and Intra-Rater Reliability
Through a holistic pronunciation scale (see Appendix B), the inter-rater reliability and intra-rater reliability of pretest and posttest of the experimental, control, and placebo groups were calculated by Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient formula and the results are shown in Tables 1 and 2:

Table 1. *The Inter-Rater and Intra-Rater Reliability for the Pronunciation Pretest*

Rater	RI_1 (Pretest)	RI_2 (Pretest)	RII (Pretest)
RI_1.Pretest	1.00	.74	.71
RI_2-Pretest	.77	1.00	.77
RII-Pretest	.71	.77	1.00

Table 2. *The Intra-Rater and Inter-Rater Reliability for the Pronunciation Posttest*

Rater	RI_1 (Posttest)	RI_2 (Posttest)	RII (Posttest)
RI_1.Posttset	1.00	.72	.51
RI_2-Posttest	.72	1.00	.40
RII-Posttest	.51	.40	1.00

As it is seen in Tables 1 and 2, the intra-rater reliability of pretest is .74 and the inter-rater reliability is .71, and .77 respectively. For the posttest, the intra-rater reliability is .71, and the inter-rater reliability is .51, and .40 respectively.

Table 3. *Descriptive Statistics of the Placebo Group*

Variable	N	Mean	Median	Lower Quartile	Upper Quartile	SD	Std. Error
Pretest Score	10	2.67	2.88	2.25	3.00	0.46	0.14
Posttest Score	10	2.80	2.88	2.50	3.00	0.51	0.16
Gain Score	10	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.43	0.14

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As it is shown in Table 3, the gain score of the placebo group, that is, the difference between the pretest mean score and the posttest mean score is (0.13).

Table 4. *Descriptive Statistics of the Control Group*

Variable	N	Mean	Median	Lower Quartile	Upper Quartile	SD	Std. Error
Pretest Score	9	2.58	2.50	2.50	2.75	0.38	0.13
Posttest Score	8	3.06	2.13	2.63	3.50	0.64	0.23
Gain Score	8	0.47	0.63	0.00	0.88	0.59	0.21

Table 4 shows the gain score of the Control group (0.47) which is the difference between the mean score of the pretest and the posttest.
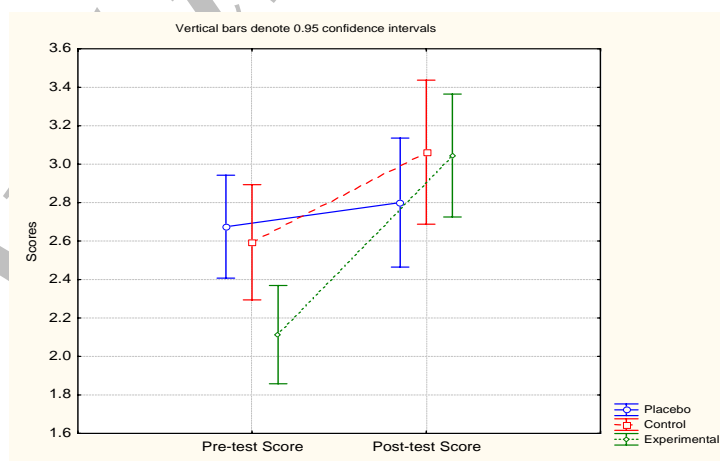
Table 5. *Descriptive Statistics of the Experimental Group*

Variable	N	Mean	Median	Lower Quartile	Upper Quartile	SD	Std. Error
Pretest Score	14	2.16	2.00	2.00	2.50	0.36	0.10
Posttest Score	11	3.05	3.00	3.50	3.50	0.42	0.13
Gain Score	11	0.93	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.28	0.08

As it is seen in Table 5, the difference between the mean scores of the pretest and the posttest is 0.93.

Gain Scores

In order to better illustrate the difference of the scores in the three groups, the comparison of the scores of the Experimental, Control, and Placebo groups in the pretest and posttest are signified in Figure 1 and Table 6.


Figure 1. Scores of the Pretest and Posttest of the Three Groups

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Table 6. *Descriptive Statistics of the Gain Scores of the Three Groups*

Group	Mean	N	SD	Std. Err.	Min.	Max.
Placebo	0.12	10	0.43	0.14	-0.50	0.75
Control	0.47	8	0.59	0.21	-0.50	1.25
Experimental	0.93	11	0.28	0.08	-0.50	1.50
All Groups	0.53	29	0.54	0.10	-0.50	1.50

The descriptive statistics and the comparison of the gain scores of the experimental, control and placebo groups are illustrated in Table 6 and Figure 2. As it is seen in Table 6, the experimental group has a higher gain score (0.93).
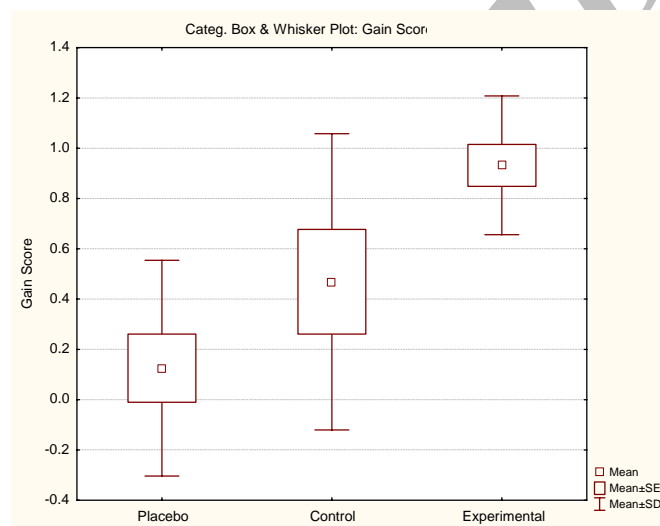
Figure 2. *Gain Scores of the Three Groups*

Inferential Statistics

Analysis of the variance (ANOVA). In order to compute the significance of the differences among the means of the three groups, a one way ANOVA was computed. As the first step, the *F* value was computed. The results of the analysis of the gained scores are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. *ANOVA Results*

Variable	SS Effect	df Effect	MS Effect	SS Error	df Error	MS Error	F	*p*
Gain Score	3.45	2	1.72	4.85	26	.19	9.24**	.00

$**P < .01$

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As it is seen in Table 7, the one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a statistically significant difference amongst the groups, F (2, 26) = 9.24, p = .00.

Post-Hoc test. As the final step and due to the significance of the differences among the means, the post-hoc Scheffe test was calculated in order to examine which one of the contrasts was significant. The results are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. *Scheffe Test Results*

Group	Placebo M=0.16	Control M=0.47	Experimental M=0.93
Placebo	--	.10	.00
Control			.03
Experimental			--

Table 8 shows the significance of contrasts amongst the groups. The Experimental group showed significant difference only with the placebo group (p = .00) and surprisingly no significant difference with the control group (p = .03). The control and placebo groups also exhibited no difference indicating that the two types of instruction were as effective. On the whole, as the means of the gain scores indicated, the experimental group only outperformed the placebo group.

Discussion
The results of the study showed that oral dialogue journals were effective in improving the pronunciation of the learners in the experimental group. The finding of the present study confirmed some of the previous research findings (Ho, 2003; Egbert, cited in Ho, 2003) that oral dialogue journals might create an out-of-class channel of spoken communication that enhances pronunciation. In this research, as learners were in an EFL setting, they welcomed oral dialogue journals as an opportunity to practice pronunciation outside the class. Findings are also in line with Allen (cited in Hedge, 2000) who found that Japanese EFL learners gained higher pronunciation ability through the practice of oral dialogue journals.

The finding, also, supported the view by Celce-Murcia *et al*. (1996) who believe that teachers could compliment and encourage learners to improve their pronunciation through oral dialogue journals. Learners could ask as many questions as they liked (primarily regarding pronunciation) and the teacher would discover the pronunciation problems of the learners much better. While learners were focusing on the talks, at times they could not pronounce intelligibly. Learners in the Experimental group were interested in listening to pronunciation feedback after their own attempts. Learners in the placebo group, in general, had less accountability for

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recording the monologues punctually. Many of them considered the assignment as boring and time consuming. Perhaps the learners in the placebo group regarded the assignment not serious enough.

However, it should be noted that oral dialogue journal was a complement to the speaking and pronunciation activities in the class work. As Ho (2003) argues, "what is required is to transform this form of 'canned talk' into face to face communication, where spontaneous speech is the norm" (p. 267). The researchers believe that oral dialogue journals can provide the opportunity for the learners to practice pronunciation authentically.

Furthermore, this study showed that practice of oral dialogue journal could stimulate a positive impression on the participants. The researchers believe that the learners in the experimental group experienced higher degrees of motivaion to participate in class discussions as they gained growing confidence outside the class by having multiple sessions of oral records. One obvious advantage was the sense of better friendship and rapport between the teacher and the learners in the experimental group. These learners could express themselves more privately and freely than the two other groups and they were less anxious to talk.

Regarding assessment, learners preferred to listen to the teacher's feedback as they were trying to self-assess before receiving the teacher's assessment. Most of the learners gave positive feedback regarding the advantage of having more individualized feedback and style of assessment. Because of the nature of this study, the collected samples of the learners' records could be used for formative assessment, as well. The findings of this study supported Celce-Murcia *et al.* (1996) who have suggested asking learners to self-assess their oral dialogue journal records every time they respond to the teachers. This could help learners to be more aware of their production and in fact learners waited with enthusiasm to see what the teacher was going to add as the complimentary feedback.

Conclusion

Oral dialogue journal promises more individualized and controllable talks between teachers and learners where they can focus on different language elements including pronunciation. Learners may need to gain more confidence in an anxiety-free environment. Oral dialogue journal facilitates less anxious oral production and may serve a proper readiness for face to face speaking activities of the EFL classrooms. The study's pedagogical implication backs up what Hedge (2000) has offered. Hedge suggests that when learners gain confidence through practice of oral dialogue journals, they can gradually speak with reduced anxiety in classroom activities for more spontaneous performance. Teachers, therefore, should notice that this technique is complementary to the classroom speaking practice and learners

need to apply the gained pronunciation abilities in the face to face situations.

In most classes, the time for individualized speaking between learners and teachers is really limited. In a class with average of 15 learners, and the instruction time of 90 minutes, it is virtually impossible for all learners to individually talk to their teachers for even 5 minutes. Ferguson (1998) pointed out "experiments show the degree of progress in oral skills is proportional to the amount of the language the learner has produced" (p. 315). Oral dialogue journal created the atmosphere for a more quantitative oral production which can be qualitatively controlled and assessed. Regarding the choice of tasks, oral dialogue journal encourages more collaboration with experts and thinking on non-test situation that can help better task selection and design.

The findings of this study may encourage teachers to use oral dialogue journals more seriously and frequently, to help learners concentrate on their pronunciation and pay more controlled attention to the teachers' feedback. This technique may be especially useful for teachers who like to provide a more stress free environment for more quantitative oral production and for learners who like to be critical about their own oral production.

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Appendices
Appendix A
The Pronunciation Profile Questionnaire (Adapted from Celce-Murcia, *et al.*, 1996)

Interviewee: ……………   Interviewer: ………….
Date: ………….   Comments: ………….
Venue: ………….

Demographic Features

This questionnaire is a way for me to get to know each of you better right from the very start. This will help me to teach the most useful course to you. Please answer as completely as you can.

Stage 1: General Background
1.   My native language is Persian □ English □ Others □
2.   My major is.
3.   I am a graduate □ an undergraduate □
4.   I have studied English for 1 year □ 2 years □ 3 years □ more □
5.   I have been at Kish Institute for 1 year □ 2 years □ 3 years □ more □
6.   I am 18-20 □ 21-23 □ 24-26 □ more □
7.   I have a private teacher. Yes □ No □
8.   My father is educated and speaks English. Yes □ No □
9.   My mother is educated and speaks English. Yes □ No □
10. I usually speak English for Less than 1 hour □ 1 hour □ 2 hours □ 3 hours □ more □

Stage 2: Questions (Yes/No)
1.   I watch satellite programs in English. Yes □ No □
2.   I watch English videos. Yes □ No □
3.   I use pronunciation section of my digital dictionary. Yes □ No □
4.   I am familiar with phonetic alphabet or any phonemic/phonetic symbols. Yes □ No □

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5.	My previous English teachers taught me about pronunciation. Yes □ No □
6.	I have practiced pronunciation through oral techniques. Yes □ No □
7.	I record my speaking to myself at home. Yes □ No □
8.	I have practiced shadowing and tracking. Yes □ No □
9.	I have practiced pronunciation at Language labs. Yes □ No □
10.	I surf the Internet for language learning. Yes □ No □

Stage 3: Your ideas (Frequency)	Never	Some times	Often	Usually	Always
1. I travel to a country whose native language is English.					
2. I speak on the phone in English					
3. I use the pronunciation key of my dictionary					
4. I give presentations in classes or at conferences.					
5. People usually misunderstand me because of my pronunciation.					
6. I ask English native speakers to help me with pronunciation.					
7. Pronunciation makes me anxious.					
8. I feel most comfortable when speaking English at home.					
9. I travel for pleasure.					
10. I record my reading aloud outside the class.					

Stage 4 : Your ideas (Agreement/Disagreement)	Highly Agree	Agree	No Idea	Disagree	Highly Disagree
1. I consider learning English a pleasant activity.					
2. I consider learning English a successful activity.					
3. I had more experience with British than with American English.					
4. I had more experience with some other varieties, such as *Australian, Indian, South African, etc.*					
5. I like to take a pronunciation course.					

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Appendix B

Holistic Pronunciation Scale, (Adapted from Brown, 2004, speaking assessment scale; and UCLA proficiency scale cited in Celce-Murcia *et. al*., 1996)

	UCLA Scale		**Brown (2001) Scale**
		5	Equivalent to and fully accepted by educated native speakers
4	Rarely mispronounces	4	Errors in pronunciation are quite rare
3	Accent may be foreign, never interferes, rarely disturbs	3	Errors never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb the native speaker. Accent may be obviously foreign
2	Often faulty but intelligible with effort	2	Accent is intelligible though often Faulty
1	Errors frequent, only intelligible to NS used to dealing with NNS	1	Errors in pronunciation are frequent but can be understood by native speakers used to dealing with foreigners attempting to speak his language.
0	Unintelligible		

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