

# **A case study of primary school Persian heritage language learners in Australia**

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## Synopsis

Following four decades of pure research on individual issues in heritage languages, there has emerged the need to develop an integrated theory of heritage language acquisition, similar to theories of second language acquisition (Van Deusen-Scholl, 2014). Moreover, the field of heritage language research has largely focused to date on the study of commonly taught languages in high school, college and university students. The number of studies focusing on Primary school heritage language learners of less commonly taught languages such as Persian, is limited.

This research, as the first study of Persian heritage language learners in Sydney, Australia, focuses on Primary school Persian language learners attending four Persian community language schools on Saturdays.

A pilot study (Mokhatebi Ardakani & Moloney, 2010) conducted by interviewing principals of the four Persian community language schools, indicated the challenges and issues encountered by the stakeholders such as students, parents and teachers. The issues included students' lack of motivation, students' high rate of attrition, lack of parental involvement, lack of standard curriculum resulting in ad hoc curriculum, and lack of appropriate Persian language learning resources. The pilot study findings initiated this doctoral research to fully understand what influences Persian language learning among Persian heritage language learners.

Following a sociocultural perspective on heritage language learning (He, 2010), the thesis identifies the need to investigate both formal and informal settings of heritage language learning (Lo Bianco & Peyton, 2013). Layder (1993) suggests four components for a social research: context, setting, situated activity and self. While this study recognises its Australian context, it focuses on the other three components. Home and Persian school as Persian language learning *settings*, Persian language learning *activities* at home and Persian school, and students' motivation and identity are explored in this study.

This qualitative case study research was conducted by interviewing 35 students, nine parents and seven teachers. Students were interviewed in focus groups and they were observed in their Persian language classes. Parents and teachers were interviewed individually.

A grounded theory approach was used and participant data were triangulated. The study findings highlight that both language input and interaction at home and Persian school, as cornerstones of sociocultural theory of language learning, affect students' Persian language learning. The findings also suggest the influence of students' identity and motivation on their Persian language learning. Consequently, the association between the sociocultural aspects such as access to language through input and interaction; identity and motivation establishes a theory of better Persian heritage language acquisition that can be applied to heritage learners of other languages. The theory can be implemented to develop a pedagogy with explicit statements of principles and choices resulting in coordinated language development.

## **Preamble**

Before starting the introduction chapter, a summary of the Iranian community in Australia, the researcher's background, a brief description of the Persian language and the status of Persian language learning in Sydney are presented to set the scene for the research project.

### **Iranian community in Australia**

Many Iranians have migrated to countries around the world including Australia. According to the information provided by Australian Government Department of Immigration and Citizenship and based on 2011 census data, Iranian migration from Iran to Australia started before the 1979 revolution and particularly included service workers in the oil industry.

During the 1980s and the major war between Iran and Iraq, an increase in migration from Iran to Australia was evident. This migration further increased during the 1990s when many Iranians emigrated under the Skilled and Family Streams of the Migration Program. Of the total number of Iranian people in Australia, 17.2 percent arrived between 2001 and 2006; and 30.1 percent arrived between 2007 and 2011.

The latest census in Australia in 2011 recorded 34,453 Iran-born people living in Australia, an increase of 52.8 percent from the 2006 census. New South Wales has the largest number of Iran-born people with 15,463.

The age distribution of Iranian people in Australia showed that 6.9 percent were aged 0-14 years. Persian language was the main language spoken at home by 24,481 Iran-born people in Australia. According to 2011 census, 67.4 percent of the Iran-born aged 15 years and over had higher qualifications.

## **Researcher background**

As a mother of two children who were attending one of the Persian community schools operating on Saturdays in Sydney, my constant concern was how to motivate my children to continue their Persian language learning. This concern was later related to other students whom I taught Persian language when I was working as a volunteer teacher in one of the Persian community schools in Sydney. During this one-year experience, while I was closely involved in children's Persian language learning, I realized that a reflective research was necessary to understand and explore Persian language learning among these heritage language learners. An investigation of Persian language learning, which had not been yet explored, was required.

My experience as a volunteer teacher started in 2008. During this time, as a teacher, I was involved in Persian teaching and learning activities and I was familiar with the challenges students, parents and teachers were confronting. These challenges were driving forces behind my research. My immersion in Persian language teaching environment resulted in broadening my view of these issues emanating from the experience and influenced my area of interest for my PhD research. Then, in 2009, I conducted my pilot study of four Persian community schools in Sydney by interviewing the four principals of the schools. A brief description of the four schools will be presented in the next section. A detailed report of the findings of the pilot study is provided in the introduction chapter. The results of the pilot study, as an unpublished paper, were presented in The First International Conference on Heritage/Community Languages at UCLA in 2010. I officially started my PhD studies at Macquarie University in 2011.

### **A brief description of the Persian language**

Persian, also known as Farsi, is the official language of Iran. It is primarily spoken in Iran, Afghanistan, Uzbekistan and Tajikistan. In fact, two varieties of Persian known as Dari and Tajik are official languages in Afghanistan and Tajikistan, respectively. Historically, the areas where the language is spoken range from the Middle East to India, but today, Persian is understood in parts of Armenia, Azerbaijan, India, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Pakistan, Turkmenistan and Turkey.

### **Persian language learning status in Sydney**

In 2009 and at the time of the pilot study, four Persian schools were registered by Department of Education and Training (DET) in Sydney. Only one of these four schools was operating under The Ministry of Education and Training legislations in Iran. The other three schools had no connection with the government in Iran. The researcher acknowledged that there maybe were other Persian Community schools in Sydney of which she was not aware. At the time of the pilot study, the number of Persian heritage language learners attending these four schools was relatively significant compared to the time when the major study started in 2011. A description of each school investigated for the pilot study and the current research is provided in chapter three, Methodology.

## **Statement of Candidate**

I certify that the work in this thesis: A case study of primary school Persian heritage language learners in Australia, has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirements for a degree to any other university or institution other than Macquarie University.

I also certify that the thesis is an original piece of research and it has been written by me. Any help and assistance that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself have been appropriately acknowledged.

In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis. The research presented in this thesis was approved by Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee, Reference No. 5201100293 on 20/05/2011.

Signature

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# **Chapter 1: Introduction**

## **1.1 Overview**

This chapter outlines the research project background and provides definition of key terms of the research. Then, the importance of the research will be identified by situating the research in the relevant context and pinpointing the significance of the research. The justification for the research and rationale for the methodology applied will be followed by the focus of research and research questions. The aim and purpose of the study, research methodology and limitations of the research are presented. The chapter concludes with the organization of the thesis.

## **1.2 Background**

Nations such as Australia, USA, UK and Canada are experiencing the growth of their immigrant populations. The population movement has resulted in the increasing number of individuals who speak languages other than English or who come from a home where a language other than English is spoken in those diasporic communities. These individuals typically have a passive competence in the language, known as Heritage Language or Community Language, and extensive knowledge of another culture (Peyton, Ranard, & McGinnis, 2001) . These Culturally And Linguistically Diverse (CALD) communities represent invaluable national and personal resource (Brecht & Ingold, 2002; Brinton, Kagan, & Bauckus, 2008; Campbell & Rosenthal, 2000; Kondo-Brown, 2006a). These communities can promote Australia's social, economic and political well-being nationally and around the world through supporting bilingualism in those societies. Moreover, along with national benefits of the heritage language learning and bilingualism, these heritage language speakers can foster stronger intergenerational communication and it may result in social cohesiveness and inclusion

Heritage speakers are situated on a continuum of competence, from native-like to a second language speaker. For instance, Polinsky (2008) asserts that a heritage speaker may not be a competent L1 speaker, may not be considered a "balanced" bilingual and is not considered as a second language learner. Because of heritage language learner's family background in the language and culture, their language needs and their identity is different from a second language learner and due to lack of sufficient exposure to the language and culture, heritage language learners are not considered as L1 learners (Carreira, 2004).

For decades, heritage/community language learners were discussed and debated as bilinguals and therefore lack of a coherent policy in relation to heritage languages addressed by Cummins (2005). The importance of all aspects of bilingualism and its positive effects on children's linguistic and educational development has been reinforced by Cummins (2001). Cummins (2001) states that developing language abilities in two or more languages in primary school years deepens children's understanding of language and of how to use it effectively. Moreover, the development of children's heritage/community language is a strong predictor of their second language development by knowing that knowledge and skills transfer across languages. Cummins, however, states that children's heritage/community language in diasporic societies) is fragile and easily lost in the early years of schooling as a result of a "subtractive" model of English acquisition.

The importance of bilingualism to the individuals and the role of language diversity to the nation and community has resulted in increased interest among researchers and practitioners in providing heritage language instruction. Heritage languages are taught at home by family members and/or in heritage/community language schools.

Both family and community support is crucial for language proficiency and maintenance (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). Schools, as part of community support, have impact on the development of the languages of young learners. Both (Baldauf, 2005; Hatoss, 2006) refer to macro- and micro- planning for community language provision in Australia. They state that both governmental and community planning are essential for community language maintenance. Baldauf (2006) also focuses on the role of local planning activities. However, they emphasize that at community planning level, greater recognition of community language schools is essential. The contributions of heritage/community language schools to the preservation of the languages were identified by Fishman (2001). The rapid growth of languages spoken such as Spanish in America and Italian in Australia resulted in these languages being taught in both regular schools and after-hour schools. This growth resulted in language-specific focus in research and extensive work on Spanish heritage language especially in America (Beaudrie & Fairclough, 2012; Carreira, 2004; Oh & Au, 2005; Roca & Colombi, 2003). Growth in the population of East Asian immigrants contributed to increased number of Chinese, Japanese and Korean learners and this led to extensive research of these languages (He, 2006; Kondo-Brown, 2006d; Moloney & Oguro, 2015; Oguro & Moloney, 2012; Oriyama, 2011).

In Australia, the majority of heritage language research has focused on specific languages of more established communities. Limited attention has been paid to less commonly taught languages. Persian language is considered as a less commonly taught language by Federation of Ethnic Community Council of Australia (FECCA, 2011).

The background to this research necessitates definition of key terms used so far and throughout the thesis.

In order to facilitate precise understanding of the concepts reported in this thesis, definition of key terms such as Community Language or Heritage Language, Community Language Learner and community language schools are to be considered.

### **1.3 Community/Heritage Language**

Both “Heritage Language” and “Community Language” are used interchangeably in different related studies. While scholars in the USA have recently turned to the term Heritage Language, Australian policy and practice have been using the term Community Language to refer to the same range of language resources in their national context (Hornberger, 2005).

Wiley and Valdés (2000) elaborate on this mutual use of both terms by stating that the “Heritage Language” label is referred to both immigrant and indigenous languages. For some researchers this terminology suggests the positive aspect of the connection to past traditions and the maintenance of ancestral languages from a point of view. However, Baker and Jones (1998) state that the association with ancient cultures and past traditions “may fail to give the impression of a modern international language that is of value in a technological society”.

Therefore, for those who share the same concern, “community language” may be desirable as community-based education begins with people and their immediate reality. This research will interchangeably use both “community language” and “heritage language”. The reason is because the term community language is most commonly used in Australia which is the context of this research. At the same time, the researcher may still use the term “heritage language” in order to align with the literature available in other contexts such as USA and Canada.

### **1.3.1 Community language learner**

The identification of the special nature of the heritage language learner's development has led to a variety of definitions appropriate to particular contexts and their needs (Christian, 2008; Wiley, 2005). The linguistic differences between heritage language students, foreign language students and second language students necessitate a unique definition for heritage language learners. In regard to a heterogeneous nature of heritage language learners, it is difficult to clearly define these learners. In order to define a heritage language learner, learners' level of language proficiency has been highlighted. For example, Heritage language learners are defined as "a heterogeneous group ranging from fluent native speakers to non-speakers who may be generations removed, but who may feel culturally connected to the language" (Van Deusen-Scholl, 2003, p. 221). She distinguishes between heritage learners and learners with a heritage motivation. Heritage learners are exposed to a language other than English at home and they are linguistically and/or culturally competent through family interactions. However, many heritage language learners defined as such, may hardly speak the language or their immediate family member may not speak the language with the language learners. These learners have particular family relevance and an affiliation with and allegiance to an ethnolinguistic group (Fishman, 2001). A heritage language learner is defined by Valdés (1999): "A heritage language learner is one who is raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken and who speaks or at least understands the language and who is to some degree of bilingual in that language and in English." This definition however, importantly emphasizes that heritage language acquisition begins at home.

### **1.3.2 Community languages schools**

Learning diverse languages spoken in Australian community and the benefits of multilingualism for the language learner and the broader Australian community has been emphasized (Bialystok, 2007; Clyne, 1991, 2003; Cummins, 1984; Liddicoat, 2007). *National Statement and Plan for Languages Education in Australian Schools* affirms that all languages

are equally valid. However, the national plan acknowledges that mainstream schools cannot accommodate all languages and recognises that after-hours community language schools can provide languages education. Therefore, community language schools and their contribution to establishing a multilingual Australia should be recognised.

Community language schools, in Sydney, are operating outside school hours on Saturdays in local government school buildings. Hard-working volunteers including parents and community leaders are involved in organizing and teaching at these not-for-profit schools which are open to any school-aged student attending a school in Sydney. Community language schools are aimed at helping students who wish to learn and use their community language as well as students who want to learn a new language. Families may be asked to pay a small fee to enrol their children in those schools. Parents and community leaders who would like to establish a school to teach their community language in their local area receive grants provided by NSW Community Languages Schools Program. More than 32,000 students from 44 different language backgrounds are taught by 2347 language teachers in one of 494 schools in New South Wales (NSW) (Cardona, Noble, & Di Biase, 2008). The current study is located in Sydney which is the capital city of NSW).

#### **1.4 Provision for community languages in Australia**

From the early 1970s, the Australian Federal Government under Prime Minister Whitlam supported more positive attitudes towards immigrant languages than had existed previously (Clyne, 1991). In 1973, for the first time since 1917, Australian primary schools started to teach non-English languages. In the early 1980s the growth of foreign language teaching activity both within regular schools and in after-hours programs accelerated. The National Policy on Languages by Lo Bianco (1987), for the first time recognised and supported Australian linguistic diversity and community languages. Reviews of the field such as Review of the Commonwealth Languages other than English Program and National Statement and Plan for Languages Education in Australian Schools have identified both success and



difficulties in languages education. These documents have signaled an ongoing lack of consistency in language offerings and program requirements across states and territories (Liddicoat, 2007). Moreover, the review of language teaching programs revealed concerns about the educational weaknesses of the programs such as lack of formal curriculum especially for less commonly taught languages, inappropriate teaching material and lack of qualified teachers (Baldauf, 2005).

### **1.5 The major research trends and research inquiries about community language issues**

The field of heritage language research, policy and education is mainly based in countries such as United States of America, Australia and Canada. North American research has outlined more than 300 years of community language education in the United States (Cummins, 2005; Fishman, 2001). However, the foundation for the academic field was laid from mid 1990s. The First National Conference on Heritage Languages in Long Beach, California was an effort to support the study of heritage languages in the United States, and outlined the reasons for and challenges of developing heritage languages ((Brecht & Ingold, 2002). After the conference, the first major publication in the field (Peyton et al., 2001), sketched a variety of perceptions presented in the conference and the research topics were identified for future research. Heritage language learning was one of the topics introduced. After a number of other conferences, a bilateral USA-Australia dialogue meeting took place in Melbourne, Australia where scholars in the field of heritage language from both countries gathered to identify potential collaborations in developing, implementing and evaluating Heritage/Community Language Education (Van Deusen-Scholl, 2014). In the meeting, one of the research questions outlined the importance of understanding the language needs of heritage language learners and to find the gap between needs, attitudes and abilities of these language learners (Hornberger, 2005, p. 106). In addition, a number of factors called for further investigation were as follows:

Factor 1: Nature and frequency of heritage language learners' language use both within and outside the home

Factor 2: heritage language learners' attitudes to heritage language development

Factor 3: The heritage language program in schools

Factor 4: heritage language learners' perceived needs

Factor 5: Perceived and actual abilities (receptive and productive) in heritage language learners (Hornberger, 2005).

The First International Conference on Heritage/Community Languages organized by National Heritage Language Resource Centre (NHLRC) at UCLA (2010) reflected the growth and diversity of the studies conducted in the field of heritage language education. The researcher of this study presented the results of the pilot study (Mokhatebi Ardakani & Moloney, 2010) at the conference. The Second International Conference on Heritage/Community Languages took place in March 2014 at UCLA and the conference revealed the increasing number of heritage language studies especially less commonly taught languages. The researcher's preliminary findings were presented at the conference (Mokhatebi Ardakani, 2014). In addition, a collection of dissertations and theses is an evidence of growth in the field of academic research of heritage languages. (Seals, Liu, & Moore, 2012)

In Australia, the major document emphasizing the significance of languages was developed as the "National Policy on Languages" by Lo Bianco (1987). Lo Bianco emphasizes the maintenance and development of languages other than English as one of the four guiding principles of language policies. Bale (2010) reviewed heritage language education policy research conducted in six international contexts including Australia. The review reveals examples of recent research about Aboriginal and community languages in Australia. It also demonstrates the decline of state support for community languages. However, official support for Asian languages exposes the necessity of these languages for economic development and competition. The study of Australian community languages has been confined to studies of

Hungarian (Hatoss, 2006), Arabic (Cruickshank, 2008), Japanese (Moloney & Oguro, 2012, 2015; Oguro & Moloney, 2010, 2012; Oriyama, 2000, 2002, 2010). The lack of research in other languages especially less commonly taught languages such as Persian language, provides the rationale for this research. Moreover, even though much attention has been paid to different issues of community languages (such as learner's motivation and identity) over almost three decades and mainly in North America, the field of heritage languages research is still relatively new in terms of developing theories such as the theories developed for second language acquisition. More research is currently required to search for theoretical concepts to develop the emerging subfield of heritage language acquisition (Van Deusen-Scholl, 2014). However, Lynch (2003) states that in order to develop a theory for heritage language acquisition, a clarification in terms of heritage language learner definition and heritage language learning requirements is essential.

## **1.6 Significance of the study**

This study of Persian heritage language learners is significant because:

**1.6.1.** As noted in the preamble, according to the Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011 census data shows that 34,453 Iranian-background people live in Australia. This is an increase from 2006 census data which Iranian population in Australia was 22,549. 2011 census data reveals that from the total number of Iranian population in Australia, 14,607 live in Sydney.

Moreover, Iranian population is more than 500,000 across USA and Canadian 2006 census data reveals the population of 163,290 claiming Iranian background across Canada.

Despite the fact that Iranian population is increasing in the countries noted above, according to the census data, less attention is paid to Persian language maintenance and development among Persian language learners residing outside Iran. A recent unpublished research paper (Sedighi, 2014) presented in The Second International Conference on Heritage/Community Languages at UCLA, presented evidence of the inadequacies of Persian studies. According to Sedighi (2014), even though a number of Persian language programs and schools provide the

opportunity for Persian community language learners to learn the language, these programs have been rarely evaluated. The study of Persian heritage language learners in Sydney is the first study conducted in order to investigate what influences Persian language learning among Persian heritage learners attending four Persian schools in Sydney.

**1.6.2.** Persian language is amongst the less commonly taught languages in Australia according to Federation of Ethnic Communities Councils of Australia (FECCA, 2011). In their response to The Draft Shape of Australian Curriculum: Languages, FECCA (2011, p. 5) recommended “continued research and data collection in order to find out to what extent the current and proposed outcomes of language learning are occurring in reality and whether heritage language learners are becoming bilingual as a result of language education”.

**1.6.3.** Languages such as Spanish and Arabic in the USA and, Chinese and Italian in Australia are on the list of most commonly taught community languages. In Australia, most commonly taught languages have been provided with valuable recognition and support. They benefit from a unified curriculum provided by curriculum suppliers in different states of Australia. For example, New South Wales Board of studies provides languages curriculum for those languages that have a significant number of speakers around the state. An explicit framework for teaching and learning of these languages provides the languages with valuable recognition and support. However, less commonly taught languages such as Persian language do not have a unified curriculum or guidelines for language teaching and learning.

**1.6.4.** Due to the lack of consistent quality learning among Persian heritage language learners (as found by the researcher’s pilot study), an investigation of what influences Persian language learning among Persian heritage language learners is required. FECCA (2011, p. 5) recommends consistent teaching of less commonly taught languages such as Persian and continuous maintenance of these languages. In fact, FECCA (2011, p. 4) highlights what Lo Bianco (2009) concerns: “lack of support for language teaching has led to a language learning which rarely creates practicable bilingualism in students.” This has consequences for the

community, the families and the heritage learners. Heritage learners' concerns are the loss of ancestral language, weaker connections with their community and culture and even their immediate family, which leads to loss of self-esteem (Kondo-Brown & Brown, 2008). For society the loss of these heritage language learners, as they grow older, represents the loss of potential sources of language professionals needed for trade, diplomacy, security and defence (Christian, 2008).

**1.6.5.** Despite the expansion of heritage language research in recent years, heritage language program evaluation that incorporates stakeholders' (including students, parents and teachers) voices and culture is infrequent. More research focus has been placed on the secondary level students and beyond and there is limited research at the primary school level heritage language learners (Kondo-Brown & Brown, 2008). FECCA (2011) recommends community members' involvement and engagement in regards to how languages are taught. As this is a study of primary school level of Persian heritage language learners, it is necessary to gather data from different stakeholders such as learners, parents and teachers in order to triangulate multiple forms of data in this study.

**1.6.6.** Despite the critical role of motivation and identity on learning behaviours and learning outcomes, little empirical work has been done to examine the nature and impact of these factors among heritage language learners, according to Kondo-Brown and Brown (2008), Furthermore, in order to develop an appropriate heritage language curriculum, it is necessary to understand the characteristics of the learners in terms of their language learning motivations, beliefs, attitudes, instructional needs and ethnic group affiliation, according to , Lynch (2003) and Valdés (1995).

## **1.7 Justification for the research**

The research questions of this doctoral project were generated after the researcher conducted the pilot study in 2009. Therefore, in order to provide the rationale for the current research, it is required to specify the results of the pilot study conducted through interviewing principals

of four Persian schools in Sydney. The challenges and problems of learning Persian community language identified by principals and revealed through the pilot study are summarised below. Each one of the findings below will be linked to the factors listed and noted as worth of further investigation by (Hornberger, 2005) (see section 1.5. above) and will be considered as the underlying principle for the current study.

### **1.7.1 The findings of the researcher's pilot study (Mokhatebi Ardakani & Moloney, 2010)**

1. The most common issue addressed by principals was **lack of parental involvement** in their children's Persian language learning. Even though parent role has a major impact on language learning of community language learners, parent's lack of involvement in activities at school and after school activities such as mentoring their children at home is significant. Moreover, according to one of the principals, because a number of parents speak English at home with their children, learners hardly have the opportunity to speak Persian at home. This finding is related to factor 1: Nature and frequency of heritage language learners' language use at home.
2. The other issue addressed by the principals was students' inclination to speak English in Persian school. Speaking English was noticeable during recess time in the school yard. This finding is related to factor 1: Nature and frequency of heritage language learners' language use with focus on school setting.
3. In terms of teaching four language skills, the priority is given to reading and writing first and then speaking and listening. This finding is related to factor 3: The heritage language program and factor 5: Perceived and actual abilities (receptive and productive) in heritage language.
4. While a number of teachers are qualified teachers and are trained in Iran, others are learners' parents or community members who are unqualified and untrained in

language pedagogy and they are voluntarily teaching Persian language. This finding is related to factor 3: The heritage language program

5. While the schools utilize the resources prepared in Iran for native speakers of Persian language, a number of schools developed their own curriculum as well. It results in ad hoc curriculum among schools which is emphasized by principals. Furthermore, school 1 uses resources such as CDs which were specifically prepared in Iran for the learners who are learning Persian as their foreign language. This finding is related to factor 3: The heritage language program
6. High rate of attrition and moving between schools among Persian community language learners is addressed by principals. In other words, lack of consistent quality Persian language learning among Persian heritage language learners was highlighted. This finding is related to factor 4: heritage language learners' perceived need.
7. The issue of motivation among Persian language learners was addressed by the principals. According to their view, parents' motivation remained the main reason for the learners to attend Persian school. However, principals described this motivation as "both emotional and instrumental"; that is, their reasons for language learning have to do with identity, culture and future career option. However, practical opportunities to use the language at home and in the wider community were neglected. Yet, as students became older, they were more intrinsically motivated to attend the Persian school in order to learn Persian language. This finding is related to factor 2: heritage language learners' attitudes to heritage language development. Furthermore, the matter of identity and especially learners' ethnic identity needs further exploration.
8. Principals recognized that language learning process was slower for those Persian language learners who were born in Australia. However, the exceptions were those students whose families who took serious approach to school study and extended student language learning through home learning. In other words, parents'

responsibility and seriousness and its effect on a student's pace of learning and achievement. This finding is related to factor 1: Nature and frequency of heritage language learners' language use at home which also highlights parent role.

### **1.7.2. Rationale for research methodology**

The challenges and problems of learning Persian language noted above provide an explanation of why this research is necessary. The main gap this research endeavour will address is lack of existing knowledge base about Persian heritage language learning in Sydney and the fact that the phenomenon has not been explored previously. Lack of prior research about Persian heritage language learning in Sydney was the reasoning for the researcher's choice of grounded theory as the theoretical underpinning in the research project. The main theme revealed through the pilot study is the issue of stakeholders (students, parents and teachers), their involvement and the challenges encountered by them. These stakeholders' point of view mainly informs the current research and therefore it provides the rationale for research participants.

The opportunity to access the participants' perspective was obtained through in-depth responses from individual interviews, focus group interviews as well as data achieved by class observations. In particular, qualitative research is being carried out in this current research in order to conduct in-depth investigation of Persian heritage language learning in Sydney and to provide detailed information about the phenomenon.

The project needs access to stakeholders perspective because, according to Marsh (2009), stakeholders are individuals or groups of persons who have a right to comment on, or have input into, school programs such as students, parents and teachers.

Firstly, students' needs and interests might be sought by teachers. This is in consideration that students do not have opportunity to participate directly in the planning of their curriculum.

They can, however, provide vision and be constructive participants in educational planning.

The research by Cook-Sather (2002, p. 12) argues the need to authorize students' perspective



in conversation about schooling and reform and move toward trust, dialogue, and change in education.

Secondly, parents' participation in child schooling will generally lead to improved student learning. It enables them to understand education processes more fully and to support the goals of schooling (Marsh, 2009). However, many parents do not have clear and sufficient knowledge of the educational system and activities happening at schools. Sharing responsibility for curriculum decision-making with parents and getting them more involved in school activities will lead to greater impact on child development and education achievements. Parents' involvement in the process and context of heritage language learning is noticeable. Their contribution is more substantial in community language learning context because a number of parents organize these schools and a number of them are teachers in those schools.

Thirdly, teachers as the professionals are the mediators of the teaching programs and educational plans. According to Australian Professional Standards for Teachers provided by Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL, 2015), a teacher needs to know students; to know the content and how to teach it; to plan for and implement effective teaching and learning and to engage parents in the educative process.

Therefore, heritage language learner's participation as well as parents' and teachers' engagement as stakeholders of this research provided multiple forms of data. Sources of data were provided separately because:

1. Due to students' young age, which was seven to fourteen, their self-reporting might not be reliable. Therefore, using parents' and teachers' answers, as other participants of the study, clarified the students' responses.
2. Parents and teachers represented different aspects of students' lives and have different perspectives.

3. The aim of the study was to create a holistic portrait of the students and their subjectivity. It included students as parents' children and family member in home setting (informal setting) as well as teachers' students and language learners in school setting.

4. Teachers represented perspectives from formal teaching context and parents represented informal transmission of language. Both of these perspectives were used to reflect the effects of both contexts on students' Persian language learning.

The multiple forms of data were triangulated resulting in validation of research questions and findings.

### **1.8 The focus of the research**

As noted above in section 1.5 above, a need for research on heritage language learning is one of the categories outlined by Hornberger (2005) . Through linking the findings of the researcher pilot study with the factors identified by Hornberger (2005) as the areas of further research for heritage language learning (see section 1.7.1: The findings of the researcher's pilot study) this research seeks to develop a framework for Persian heritage language learning.

Developing a coherent framework for heritage language learning and teaching may result in successful language learning and language maintenance. Without such a framework, developing an appropriate curriculum, instructional strategies and teaching materials for heritage language learners will continue to operate impractically using materials designed for either native speakers or foreign language learners. Nonetheless, providing such a framework for heritage language learning is challenging because of the particular issues associated with the specific and diverse nature of the heritage language learner. Heritage language learners do not start from a "level playing field" or "an equal starting line".

The first issue is a heterogeneous disposition of Persian heritage language learners in regard to their access to Persian language resources. They vary from fluent native speakers to non-speakers who may feel culturally and ethno-linguistically connected to a language. The reason is because as noted in the definition of heritage language learners, these learners may hardly

speak the language or their immediate family member may not speak the language with them. Furthermore, according to the findings of the pilot study, Persian heritage language learners' speaking English at Persian school was another issue addressed by the principals. Therefore, Persian learners' access to language resources or "language availability" at home and at school will in turn influence the opportunities or their choice of the language spoken by them (Norton, 2000).

In addition, Persian language learners are diverse in terms of language learning motivation and ethnic identity achievement. This makes it quite difficult to understand how their language learning is influenced by their ethnic identity and motivation. The variety of goals and objectives (which are inherent in motivation) for language learning among heritage language learners is another issue considered in providing a coherent framework for their language learning. Their goals may be on a purely individual level such as communicating with their parents and grandparents or on a central concern of literacy acquisition or academic competence (Van Deusen-Scholl, 2003, p. 221).

Furthermore, earlier in this chapter, family and community support was recognized as crucial aspects for language proficiency and maintenance (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). The contributions of heritage/community languages schools to the maintenance of the languages were also identified by (Fishman, 2001). Consequently, both home and school are settings in which investigation of the diversity of Persian heritage language learners' in terms of their access to Persian language resources, ethnic identity achievement and principal motivators for language learning takes place.

In sum, this study of Persian heritage language learners is informed by understanding of diverse sociocultural practices at home and at school. It investigates relationship between access to language resources, ethnic identity achievement, motivation and heritage language learning. In recent years, the studies of Second Language Acquisition have captured the complex relationship between motivation, identity and language leaning (Dörnyei & Ushioda,

2009). In the case of heritage language studies, the number of the studies of heritage/community language learning investigating identity and motivation has recently increased. The Heritage Language Journal dedicated a volume to studies of ethnic identity and heritage language learning (Carreira & Van Deusen-Scholl, 2010). In addition, (Potowski, 2012) studied Spanish heritage language learners' identity. Carreira and Chik (2014d) identify identity as the driving force behind heritage language learning. Lynch (2003) has reinforced that the question of motivation in the case of heritage language learning required more investigation and exploration.

However, the studies that investigate the intersection of access to language resources, ethnic identity, motivation and heritage language learning are scarce, to the knowledge of the researcher. This investigation may result in understanding what influences Persian language learning among Persian heritage language learners. This understanding may further develop a comprehensive framework to ensure quality consistent heritage language learning among the learners and lead to an appropriate curriculum for heritage language learning (Wiley & Valdés, 2000, p. iv).

## **1.9 The aim of the study**

The aim of this first study of Persian heritage language learners in Sydney is to better understand what influences Persian language learning among Persian heritage language learners.

## **1.10 The purpose of the research**

In order to achieve the aim of the study noted above, this research investigates Persian heritage learners' language availability and choice, Persian language learners' ethnic identity development and achievement, and Persian language learners' principal motivators for learning the language. These areas of investigation shape the research questions.

## **1.11 The research questions**

The overarching Research Question: What influences Persian heritage language learning among its heritage language learners?

Research Question 1: What language resources do Persian heritage language learners have access to?

Research Question 2: How is learners' ethnic identity developed and achieved?

Research Question 3: What principal motivators have primary roles for language learning among these learners?

## **1.12 Description of procedures**

### **1.12.1 Method**

A qualitative case study research has been adapted to investigate what influences Persian heritage language learning among Persian heritage language learners. It is the most appropriate way to listen to and hear stakeholders' (learners, parents and teachers) voices as guidance to their perspective; because Persian Heritage language learning is regarded as a social phenomenon (the details will be provided in the next chapter). The explanatory nature of qualitative research has been considered as an efficient way to study new, unexplored areas (Dörnyei, 2007). As this study is the first to investigate Persian heritage language learners in Sydney and little is known about Persian heritage language learners attending the four schools, detailed explanation of these cases, without relying on previous literature or previous empirical findings, is appropriate.

In order to inform Persian families about this research and to get their approval to participate in the study, advertisements were provided in both English and Persian language and were sent to the school principals. In order to have access to Persian heritage language learners, Persian community school principals were approached first. Upon their approval, the advertisements were distributed in order to recruit the research participants. The voluntary participants demonstrated their interest by returning the advertisement filled with their

information. Then, information and consent forms for parents, students and teachers were delivered to class teachers.

### **1.12.2 Research site and Participants**

#### **1.12.2.1 Four Persian schools**

This research is a case study of Persian heritage language learners attending four Persian community languages schools in Sydney, Australia. The four schools are the same schools in which the researcher conducted the pilot study. These schools, registered by Department of Education and Training (DET), are part of the NSW Community Languages Schools Program. They usually operate on Saturdays between 9 a.m. till 1 p.m. Persian heritage language learners' parents and community members are involved in school administration and language teaching. It is not compulsory for students to attend the school. Students with different age attend different levels of schooling from preschool to high school. Detailed information about the four Persian schools of this study are provided in preamble and chapter three, Methodology.

#### **1.12.2.2 Student participant**

The number of students attending the schools were diverse and students' attendance at school was infrequent. Students' demographic information about their age, gender, year of Persian schooling, attending other Persian school in Sydney and schooling in Iran is presented in Table 3.1. The first group of participants were 35 Primary school Persian heritage language learners attending the schools in Sydney. They were primary level students aged from seven to fourteen. They participated in nine focus group interviews and a number of them were observed in their Persian language learning classrooms. A detailed information about each focus group interview is provided in Chapter 3, Methodology. A Pseudonym consisting of the school, the focus group and the student number was used for the student participant. For instance, S4 FG2 St3 shows that the participant was from school number 4, focus group

number 2 and student number 3 in the focus group. The duration of the focus group interviews varied and they took between 30 and 40 minutes.

#### **1.12.2.3 Parent participant**

Nine parents were interviewed individually by the researcher. The duration of interviews differed and they took between 20 and 60 minutes. A pseudonym consisting school number and parent number was used for the parent participant. For example, S2 P1 represents Parent number 1 from school number 2.

#### **1.12.2.4 Teacher participant**

Seven teachers who were teaching primary school Persian language learners were interviewed individually by the researcher. Five out of seven teachers were observed in their classes. The interviews took place between 20 and 40 minutes.

### **1.12.3 Data collection methods**

The major techniques used by researcher to collect qualitative data included participant (and non-participant) observation, focus group and individual interviews. As the learner participants were primary school students, in order to validate research questions by using multiple resources and multiple forms of data, similar questions were provided for parents and teachers in order to combine data sources of the study.

#### **1.12.3.1 Student focus groups**

Student focus group interviews were chosen to elicit data from participant because it offered students a comfortable environment where they could share their ideas, beliefs and attitudes. The researcher as the interviewer took on the moderator role (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000). Each focus group contained 4 students (with the exception of one focus group comprising three students). These focus group interviews conducted during students' recess time in their Persian school and they took approximately 30-45 minutes. First, students were asked individually to fill in a form containing the questions about students' demographic and biographical data. A list of interview questions can be found in Appendix H. The researcher

asked open ended semi-structured questions and encouraged students to elaborate on the issues. Students answered the interview questions individually in the focus group.

Limitations and shortcomings of interview (Becker & Geer, 1957) may lead the researcher to make invalid inferences about situations and events. Therefore, “with Participant observation, the researcher is open to a greater breadth and depth of information, is able to triangulate different impressions and observations, and is able to follow u emergent discrepancies in the course of the fieldwork (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000, p. 44).

#### **1.12.3.2 Semi-structured Parent interview**

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the 9 parents. The interview questions can be found in Appendix I. Six out of nine parents were those whose child was interviewed too. All parents were born in Iran. The time and place of interview negotiated with parents and it was in accordance to their convenience.

#### **1.12.3.3. Semi-structured teacher interview**

Seven Persian language teachers were interviewed using semi-structured interview questions (see Appendix J). The time and place of interviews negotiated with teachers in order to decrease their class interruption. Five out of seven teachers had teaching qualifications from Iran. In addition, the teachers had the opportunity to attend “Professional development for teachers, principals and members of community language schools” courses offered each year.

#### **1.12.3.4 Classroom observation**

Eight Persian classes were observed while the researcher attended the class as a non-participant observer. Classroom observation field notes (writing a record of the observed procedures of lessons and students’ behaviour) were taken to ensure reliability and validity of data. An example of field notes can be found in Appendix K.

#### **1.12.4 Approaches to data analysis**

As mentioned above, little is known about the status of Persian heritage language learning and this study claims to be the first study of Persian heritage language learners in Sydney,



Australia. Therefore, without having a previous literature or previous empirical findings to rely on, this research chooses grounded theory approach for data analysis. By selecting grounded theory approach (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), the researcher seeks to explain relevant categories such as access to language resources, motivation and ethnic identity and the relationship among them in regard to Persian heritage language learning phenomenon. Then, the phenomenon will be explained based on the conceptual framework which has been developed from the data and without limiting to a previously developed theory (Layder, 1993).

### **1.13. Limitation of study**

This research project carries the limitations of a case study, the investigation of the only Persian heritage language learners attending four Persian community languages schools in Sydney. There may be other schools teaching Persian as heritage language in Sydney and in other Australian cities. Therefore the data of this project may not completely reflect the whole picture of Persian language teaching and learning in Australia and the results may not be generalizable to the other similar educational context and environment. However, they may provide invaluable addition to knowledge in the area of the research.

There were limitations in the sample size, the number of students, parents and teachers interviewed. The concern is the idiosyncratic nature of the small participant samples investigated by the qualitative researcher.

The other limitation was the short time span over which observations and data collections were made. In addition, special school events which at times disrupted the normal classes and thus the data collection timetable, were considered another limitation of the research project. As another limitation of the study, there was some variation and inconsistency in conducting the student focus groups. As it was regarded to interview focus groups of four, one of the focus groups consisted of three students. There was some lack of control over the distribution

of the comments offered by students because some students were naturally voluble and more eager to offer comments.

The role of the researcher is deemed another limitation of the research project. This limitation of the study will be explained in details in the next section.

#### **1.14. The role of researcher**

The researcher of this study was the interviewer as well. The project researcher, as a member of Persian community, is a parent and former teacher in one of the Persian schools in Sydney prior to the period of this research. Her personal perspective informs this research and at the same time she is aware of the need to maintain an objective researcher role. Qualitative research outcome is ultimately the product of the researcher's subjective interpretation of data (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992) and results of the study may be influenced by the researcher's personal biases and interpretation (Russell & Kelly, 2002).

The interviewer commenced the interview in Persian; however, the student participants were given the chance to choose Persian or English language to answer the interview questions. Surprisingly, 100% of student participants chose to answer in Persian language. This might regard as a validity threat to the study, known as "The Hawthorne effect". "The reason for such an irrational effect is that participants perform differently when they know they are being studied." (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 53). Hence, a number of students struggled, to a great extent, to answer the questions in Persian language. Therefore, code switching was apparent in majority of their responses.

In addition to interview, a number of Persian classes were observed. In order to obtain valid data, the researcher strove to minimize the negative impact of the "observer effect" by maintaining the conduct of classroom events and linguistic interchange as naturally as possible (Dörnyei, 2007). In order to achieve that, the researcher did not use audio or video recording, as operating the recording devices would have disrupted the natural setting of the

classes, and effected linguistic interchange. The observation was conducted in consideration of Labov's Observers' Paradox (Labov, 1972, p. 209).

### **1.15. Consideration of ethical issues**

In order to gain ethics approval from Macquarie University Ethics Committee, a detailed ethics application was submitted to Macquarie University Ethics Committee and it was approved by the committee. An approval letter from Macquarie University Ethics Committee were presented to the four school principals. Upon their approval, information and consent forms for parents, students and teachers were delivered to Persian class teachers. Those participants who indicated their consent were approached. The participants were informed that their participation in this study was entirely voluntary. They were not obliged to participate and they could withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence. Any information or personal details gathered in the course of study remain confidential. Pseudonyms were used for all participant names and all participants remained anonymous. The participants were ensured that the researcher and the supervisor of this study had access to the data while the research was on progress.

### **1.16. Thesis organization**

This thesis, which is the product of a full-time study carried out over four years, consists of nine chapters.

The first chapter, Introduction, has outlined the research. The chapter identified the background to the study by defining heritage language and its background literature. Based on the pilot study findings (Mokhatebi Ardakani & Moloney, 2010), the significance of the study and the rationale for conducting this research were presented. The aim and purpose of the study were followed by the methodology chosen to collect and analyse data. Finally, the limitations of the study and the role of the research were identified.

The second chapter, Theoretical Background and Related Literature, provides the conceptual framework of the study and the relevant literature for the various concepts required to situate this research within existing research in the field of heritage language teaching and learning.

The third chapter, Methodology, establishes an overview of the research methodology employed and it explains the research processes in details.

Chapter four to eight provide the data collected and analysed and the findings. These chapters answer the overarching research question as well as the other three research questions. Due to the complexity of the data and extensive analysis of each research question, Chapters Four, Five and Six will focus on the research questions respectively. Chapters Seven, Eight and nine will add findings for the overarching research question. Each chapter will provide a detailed description and analysis of the data collected and will use the themes and findings emerging from the data to answer the research questions.

Chapter four will provide the answer to the first research question: “What language resources do Persian heritage language learners have access to?”

Chapter five provides the findings to answer the second research question: “How is learners’ ethnic identity developed and achieved?”

Chapter six will present and discuss the data to answer the third research question: “What principal motivators have primary roles for language learning among these learners?”

Chapter seven will describe and analyse the data collected to evaluate current status of Persian language programs and suggestions to improve Persian language learning among Persian heritage language learners. This chapter provides part of answer to the overarching question: “What influences Persian heritage language learning among its heritage language learners?”

Chapter eight will provide and analyse the data related to “parent role and Persian heritage language learning.” Because of significant impact of parent role on heritage language learning (Li, 2006; Park & Sarkar, 2007) and based on the findings of the pilot study (Mokhatebi

Ardakani & Moloney, 2010) which identified contribution of parent role, this chapter will discuss the findings which emerged from this research.

Chapter nine, discussion and conclusion, discusses and summarises the findings provided in chapters four to eight. The chapter aims to synthesize those findings in order to answer the overarching question of this research: “What influences Persian heritage language learning among its heritage language learners?” The theory emerging from the synthesized findings may inform the heritage language education field. Recommendations and further suggestions for future investigation in order to enhance knowledge of heritage language education will conclude the chapter.

## **Chapter 2: Theoretical Background and Related Literature**

## **2.1. Overview of the chapter**

The review of relevant literature as the foundation of the research establishes the context of the research by focusing on the relevant previous studies in order to identify the gaps in the field of the research. It also highlights the potential contributions of the research to the field under investigation.

This chapter will present a review of the relevant literature based on the research question components. In fact, the aim is to maintain a close alignment between the structure of the Literature Review, the structure of the research and the research findings. Therefore, at first, the conceptual framework of the research project will be provided. Then, sociocultural theory of language learning, as the chosen theoretical framework of the study, will be presented.

Ethnic identity and its contribution to language learning in general and heritage language learning in particular will be considered. Motivation theories and studies in language learning and heritage language research will be discussed. The literature related to heritage language improvement and significance of parental role in the study of heritage language learning will be provided. Finally, the chapter will conclude with a short synthesis of the reviewed literature. Table 2.1 demonstrates the structure of Literature Review chapter.

**Table 2.1** Structure of Literature Review Chapter

2.2. Social Research Theory as the conceptual framework of the research
2.3. Sociocultural Theory as the theoretical framework of the research
2.4 Self, a component of social research, identity and motivation
2.4.1. Identity and ethnic identity
2.4.1.1 . Identity and Second Language Learning
2.4.1.2 . Ethnic identity and Heritage language learning
2.4.2. Motivation and language learning
2.4.3. Motivation and heritage language learning
2.4.4. Intersection of ethnic identity, motivation and heritage language development
2.5. Foundations of heritage language program development
2.6. Significance of parental role in heritage language learning
2.7. Synthesis of Literature Review

## **2.2. Social Research Theory as the conceptual framework of the research**

This section presents conceptual framework of the current research and demonstrates how the research project is informed by the social research framework developed by Layder (1993). Because heritage/community language learning is, in its background literature, recognized as a social activity and viewed from a language socialization perspective (Cho, 2000; He, 2006, 2010), the chapter begins with the discussion of the conceptual understandings of social research and its components. Four components of a social research are context, setting, situated activity and self, according to Layder (1993). These four components shape research resource map which will be explained in section 2.2.2 below. In order to conduct social research, a researcher requires to consider these four elements of the research. Based on the nature of a research, all of the four elements or the selected elements can be explored through



a research project. Each of the four elements has sub-elements identified based on a research context. Each component of social research will be addressed by exploring links between those components and heritage/community language studies and by embedding heritage/community language learning in social research context.

This research project is designed to approach heritage language learning from a social research perspective. It concentrates on the discovery of new findings about heritage language learning and it seeks to construct theory from the material uncovered by the research. As part of approaching the research project from a sociocultural perspective (He, 2010), the thesis also identifies the need to investigate both formal and informal settings of heritage language learning (Lo Bianco & Peyton, 2013, p. iii). Therefore, while the study recognizes its Australian context, it places more emphasis on the other three components of social research, that is, setting, situated activity and self (Layder, 1993).

Heritage language learning research, and in particular, studies involving most commonly taught languages (for example Spanish) had a fair amount of research attention paid to them during the last three decades. Persian heritage language learning in Australia, however, has had no research attention to this point. Therefore, the absence of an established body of knowledge about Persian heritage language learners involves the researcher in developing theories through gathering empirical information on it. By conducting this research, the researcher may add to the existing body of heritage language learning research by developing original theoretical ideas which complement the established ideas as well as representing new ways of thinking about the topic.

The data gathered and the observations made during the course of this social research helped the researcher develop new theories. The researcher used strategies required developing an emergent theory.

### **2.2.1 Strategies required developing an emergent theory**

Three strategies are required to develop an emergent theory based on the empirical data. The first strategy is to distinguish the approach to social research and the development of theory from research. (Layder, 1993, p. 19) introduces middle-range theory and grounded theory as approaches guiding the researcher: “Middle-range theory (MRT) encourages research which is led by a clear theoretical idea formulated prior to the research”. “In contrast, Grounded Theory (GT) approach encourages the initiation of research without any perceived theoretical ideas about the topic being researched”.

The second strategy is to provide a *research resource map*. This map includes key features of society and social life representing particular levels and aspects of analysis proved to be useful in social research. This map characterizes potential areas or sites of research and has four elements: context, setting, situated activity and self (Layder, 1993, p. 72). Norton (2000, p. xv) also introduces research resources and research targets as two interconnected research worlds. Norton identifies Layders’ research resource map in which both macro and micro-sociological features are incorporated and individual actors are identified both as selves and as social persons. The research resource map helps plan and formulate the research in order to generate the theory. Thus, the research resource map as a framework may become more directly involved with emergent theory.

The third strategy is how to choose particular methods and techniques in order to produce the most efficient means of collecting empirical data. Collecting relevant empirical data is a step towards generating an emergent theory. This strategy is closely related to the research resource map elements and flows from them. The theory needs to be developed through close observation of learners’ experiences voiced through interview questions. Regarding the significance of research resource map in social research, it will be clarified more

### **2.2.2 Resource map for research**

The research resource map has four elements (Layder, 1993, pp. 71-72). These elements, as levels of social organization, are closely interrelated but they can be examined separately for analytic and research purposes. These elements are *context*, *setting*, *situated activity* and *self*. These elements are assorted from the macro end of the scale which is context to the micro end of the scale which is the self. Both macro and micro elements interact with each other through the medium of social activity. The researcher is responsible to identify elements which are more interesting and important to the research topic. This “selective focusing” (Layder, 1993, p. 74) compels the researcher to concentrate the attention on one or more areas and the other areas remain in the background.

#### **2.2.2.1 Context**

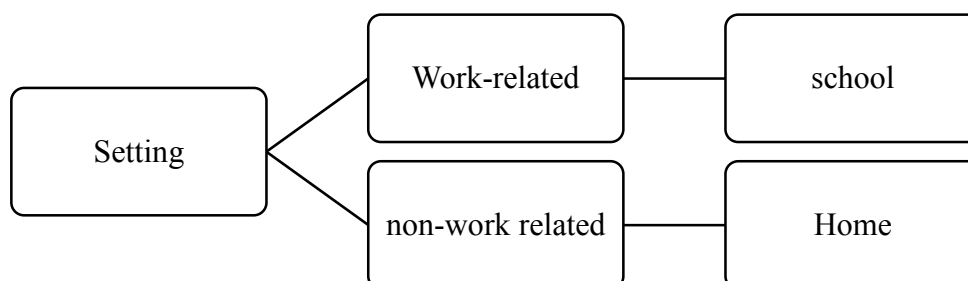
The first element is *context* which involves features such as the macro social organization, values, traditions and forms of social organizations. In this research, by considering the location of the Persian heritage language learners, the (macro) context is Australia and particularly Sydney. Investigating the context of this research is beyond its scope and it remains in the background of the research.

#### **2.2.2.2 Setting**

The second element in the resource map for research is *setting*. It focuses on social organization, known as work and non-work related settings (Layder, 1993, p. 72). In a language learning context, for instance, setting provides language learning opportunities for the language learner (Norton, 2000, p. xvi). In the case of heritage language learners, as it was noted in the introduction, both family and community language schools provides heritage language learning opportunities for the language learners. In language revival efforts, according to Lo Bianco and Peyton (2013, p. iii), research supports links being made between formal and informal settings. It is the rationale for choosing these two settings because both formal teaching and informal transmission of the language are involved in the development of

language proficiency and language use. In the current research, work-related setting is Persian community language school operating on Saturdays and non-work-related setting is home.

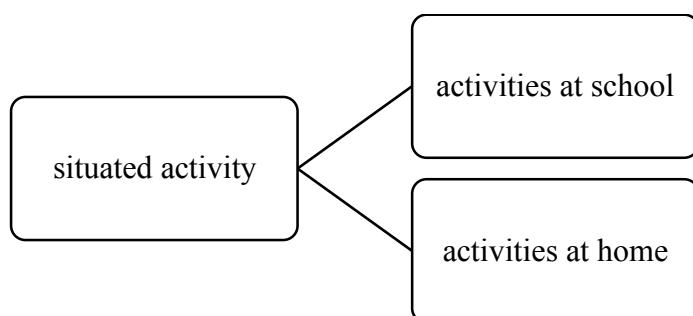
Figure 2.1 below demonstrates setting and its components.



**Figure 2.1** Setting and its components

### **2.2.2.3. Situated activity**

*Situated activity* focuses on the “face-to-face, or mediated, social activity involving symbolic communication by skilled, intentional participants implicated in the above contexts and settings”(Layder, 1993, p. 72). Figure 2.2 illustrates situated activities and its components.

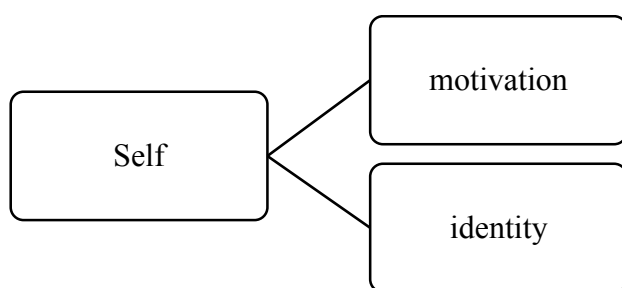


**Figure 2.2** Situated activities and its components

In terms of situated activity, this research will explore activities at home and at school which illustrate the issues noticed in the research questions. Therefore, research participants were asked about those activities demonstrating learners’ access to language resources, learners’ ethnic identity formation and their motivation. These activities affect or are affected by setting (illustrated above) and subjective disposition of individual known as self. Self is the fourth element of the resource map for research.

#### 2.2.2.4. Self

Self is the fourth element of the research resource map. Norton (2000) raises the issue of how self is to be defined; as an entity independent of social context influenced by needs, motivations and goals for language learning or as an context-dependent entity whose social roles within social network affects opportunities and willingness for language learning. Norton's findings suggest that the three elements of a resource map for research illustrated before self, directly impinge on selves and identities and consequently on language learning (Norton, 2000, p. xviii). In addition to identity, motivation, which is titled as "investment" by Norton Peirce (1995), is another component of self. Both Identity and motivation as the components of self will be investigated in the current research. Figure 2.3 shows self and its components.



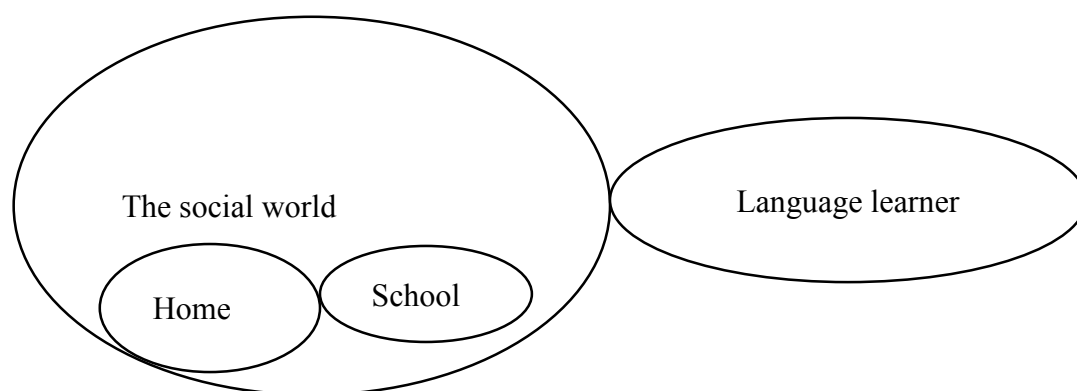
**Figure 2.3** Self and its components

As previously noted in section 2.2.1, research target is the counterpart of research resource map, according to Norton (2000, p. xv). In the case of the current research, the research target is to create an emergent theory based on the conceptual framework offered by Layder (1993) and Norton (2000). This conceptual framework establishes the ground for social research and emphasizes the concept of self in social practices. Therefore, self will be investigated socially and not individually. Their work represents the era of language learning when many theorists of sociocultural language learning struggled to theorize the relationship between the individual language learner and the larger social world. Therefore, following the foregrounds of social research, sociocultural theories of language learning will inform the research project.

The next section will provide sociocultural theories of language learning in general and heritage language learning in particular.

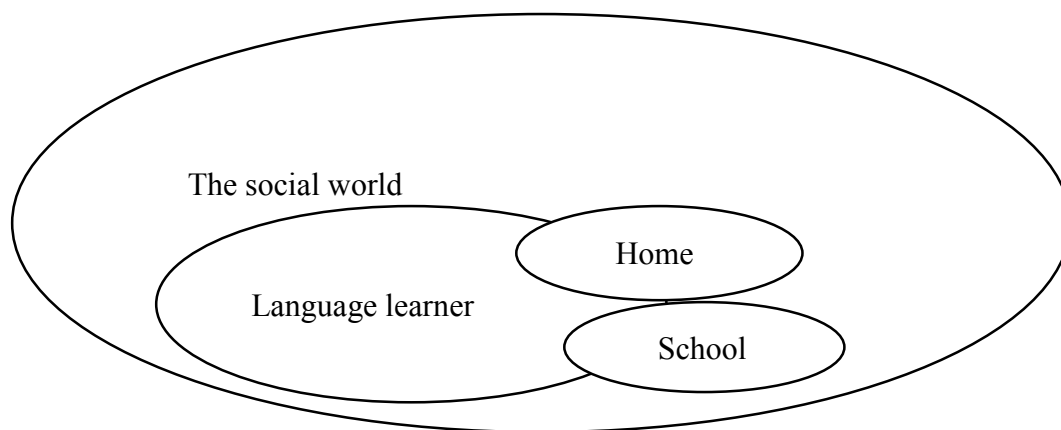
### **2.3. Sociocultural Theory as the theoretical framework of the research**

Upon the advent of sociocultural theory of language learning, two eras of language learning were identified: before and after the development of sociocultural theory. Before the development of sociocultural theory, the language learner was totally separated from the social world. It was supposed that it was the learner essentially responsible for language learning. Figures 2.4, illustrated by the researcher, display the era before the development of sociocultural theory of language learning.



**Figure 2.4** Before the development of sociocultural theory of language learning

However, after sociocultural theory was introduced, it was claimed that the learner was under the influence of the social world. Figure 2.5, illustrated by the researcher, display the era after the development of sociocultural theory of language learning.



**Figure 2.5** After sociocultural theory of language learning

As noted above, this research is informed by the sociocultural theories of language learning.

As it is demonstrated above, the sociocultural theory of language learning considers language learners as members of social collectives. The theory promotes the examination of individual as well as the activities provided for learner in their diverse environments (Lantolf, 2000).

The next section will present sociocultural theory and its application in language learning.

### **2.3.1. Sociocultural theory and language learning**

The principle and construct of sociocultural theory (also known as SCT in literature) is originated in the work of Vygotsky and his colleagues whose concern was L1 learning from a cultural psychology perspective. Vygotsky's work published in Russia during the 1920s and translated to English in the 1970s informed Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the mid-1980s. Previous approaches to SLA separated the individual from the social; however, sociocultural theory reconstructed the relationship. Sociocultural theories are also considered as the foregrounding of SLA. The application of SCT in the field of Applied Linguistics emerged in the work of Lantolf and colleagues (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). SCT emphasizes a shift from considering language learners as individuals with internal stable systems of language knowledge to members of social collectivities who are differentially positioned by using and learning language. The theory approaches language as emerging from social and cultural activities and the process of language learning is not acquiring language

system, new sounds and structures. Instead, language learning relies on learners' participation in social activities. Considering SLA, these social activities include but not limited to talking to classmates and teachers and having conversation outside the school. However, in regard to heritage/community language learning, these social activities include speaking the heritage language at home with parents and siblings as well as speaking the language at the community school with teachers and classmates. In fact, the theory emphasizes that developmental processes are fundamentally mediated processes and the mediation occurs through means such as language use in settings such as family life, peer group and schooling, and through interaction within these social environments (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007, p. 197). Sociocultural theories, in general, are founded on social nature of learning and from this perspective learning is a social process in which participants engage in activities provided for learning in diverse environments. Therefore, the learners' access to **resources** and its significance are stressed. In fact, the social conditions for language learning such as the issues of access to appropriate practices in a community of language is required. Therefore, the theme "language learners must 'see' or be exposed to mature practice of language is a basis for SLA researchers who investigate learners' access to second language communities (Norton & Toohey, 2011, pp. 418-419). Hence, from a sociocultural theory perspective, in addition to interaction, exposure to input is necessary for SLA. As a result, interaction and input as the primary constructs of sociocultural theory inform the study of SLA.

In the most current perspectives on SLA, the role of interaction is vital as it is found to be central ingredient in sociocultural theory, according to Van Lier (2000, p. 247). The interaction implies input and the need to produce output. In order to produce a comprehensible output, language knowledge (competence) is prominent.

Language socialization also focuses on the process through which a language user becomes a competent member through language use in social activities (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1995). In fact, this approach focuses on the relations between language use and the larger contexts of



communication (settings), ideologies and practices concerning socializing the novices, relationships between the novice and the expert, the specific activities and tasks (activities) and so on. In other words, interactional routines become a source for growth and change. Hence, the focus is on the sociocultural contexts of language use; the language used by language learner and the language used to speak to language learner by others (He, 2004, p. 200). These “others” shape community of practice and local analysis of the community is important as they vary regarding ease of access to expertise, opportunities for practice and so on (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Hence, according to Duff (2007, p. 310), second language socialization participants “may not experience the same degree of access, acceptance or accommodation within the new discourse communities as their L1 counterparts do.”

Community of practice orientation covers sociocultural theory (Duff, 2007).

Consequently, assessing individual’s commitment to gain language knowledge or skill relies on social structure of particular communities and the variety of positioning available for the learners and the specific activities and tasks at hand in that community.

The paucity of existing research on heritage language learning, especially studies which explicitly consider sociocultural contexts of language use (He (2008, p. 204), lays the foundation for this research.

### **2.3.2. Sociocultural theory and heritage language learning**

The concept of heritage language is an inherently sociocultural concept because it is both a means of communication of a group of people and a reflection of an affiliation with an ethnolinguistic group. Both correlational perspective and social constructivist perspective have explored the relationship between heritage language learning and sociocultural processes (He, 2010, p. 66).

Correlational research has been used in second language research and similarly in heritage language studies. However, examining relationships among a number of variables and relying on average frequencies or probabilities is not enough. We need to explain why a particular

variable is associated with another. For example, understanding complex and evolving constructs such as motivation, ethnic identity, language proficiency, heritage language development and their association is necessary (He, 2010, p. 71).

Therefore, by applying a qualitative method, a social constructivist approach considers heritage language as a dependent variable. The approach considers heritage language acquisition and socialization as an integrated process. It reflects the proposal by Ochs and Schieffelin (1995) that the process of language acquisition is embedded in socialization practices in which children's access to sociocultural aspects such as language practices and activities takes place through input and interaction. In addition, heritage language learning is dominated and controlled by social institutions such as school and the dominant society as well as domestic settings such as home environment and their practices. Thus, considering the route by which heritage language is acquired is important. It is crucial to know that heritage language learning takes place in both formal setting such as school and classroom and, more importantly, informal setting such as home and communities. In addition to school and home, patterns of language use in informal setting such as home requires investigation. Therefore, as a recommendation for future research, He (2010, p. 76) proposes the social constructivist approach to explore the challenges heritage language learners encounter. A research sensitive and responsive to multiple sociocultural dimensions is needed as heritage language progresses throughout social interaction. A heritage language learner, also, transforms in response to others' practices and their positioning as well as his/her positioning. Furthermore, heritage language socialization research needs to shift from focusing on individual heritage language learner to co-participants such as parents; teachers, siblings, peers and community members. This approach will highlight the co-constructed and collaborative nature of heritage language learning.

Examination of different domains of heritage language development and co-constructed, interactive nature of learning activities as means of sociocultural dimensions of development

is required. In other words, both spatial and temporal dimensions need to be investigated. A study by He (2006) revealed the nonlinear, iterative, dynamic nature of Chinese heritage language development along the temporal dimension; and multiagency and multidirectionality of Chinese heritage language development along the spatial dimension.

Consequently, it is required to understand how sociocultural constructs such as access to language resources in different domains of heritage language development including home and school, motivation, identity and heritage language learning become symbiotic with each other. The next section will present the background studies for self and its components, identity and motivation.

## **2.4. Self, a component of social research, identity and motivation**

As noted above, research resource map is required in order to conduct social research. The last component of the research resource map is “self” (Layder, 1993). How we relate self to the social world is linked to our identity goals (Van Lier, 2007). In fact, identity is mainly related to ones’ sense of self (Ushioda, 2011). Self is who we are and identity is the core of self (Kramsch, 2006, p. 101). The significance of concepts of self, identity and motivation is highlighted in the current theories of language learning and L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2009a; Ushioda, 2011). The next sections will provide background to the studies of identity and motivation in language learning in general and heritage language research in particular.

### **2.4.1. Identity and ethnic identity**

How humans make sense of the world around them and their experiences with their environment shapes their identity. Identity is not a mental construct shaping prior to and independent of social activities and it is not a static and fixed attribute (Hall, 1990). Rather, it is a process through which constant emerging and becoming is achieved through social interactions. Through their interaction, humans internalize practices, knowledge and beliefs they perceive from the world around them. Identity, constantly emerging from social interaction, is “more nuanced, multileveled and ultimately complicated framing”, according to

Block (2007, p. 13). Moreover, identity is constructed through interaction and negotiation with others (Norton, 2000; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004).

Block (2007) summarized seven types of an individual's identity. One form of identity is ethnic identity which shows association with a cultural group in terms of shared history, decent, belief systems, language and more. (Phinney, 1990, p. 63) defines identity as “a dynamic, multidimensional construct that refers to one's identity, or sense of self as a member of an ethnic group.”

Ethnic identity has been researched by social scientists from a variety of disciplines such as psychology, sociology, anthropology and sociolinguistic; therefore it has been defined and studied using a variety of theoretical approaches and research methods. However, it is common among all disciplines that ethnic identity is multifaceted, partial, subjective and situation-dependent because it depends on how one is being defined or labelled by oneself or by others in a context (Duff, 2012, p. 40). It derives from a sense of peoplehood within a group, a culture and a particular setting.

Ethnic identity is an aspect of social identity. Ethnic identity research has been based on the study of group identity developed by social psychologists such as Tajfel (1981, p. 255) who defined ethnic identity as “that part of an individual self-concept which derives from [his] knowledge of [his] membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership.”

Ethnic identity as a multifaceted construct includes a number of components. In order to examine aspects of ethnic identity (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004) and other researchers such as Phinney and Ong (2006) identified the major components of group (collective) identity and they provided a useful framework for understanding components of ethnic identity in a broader context. These components are self-categorization and labelling, commitment and attachment, exploration, behavioural involvement, in-group attitudes, ethnic values and beliefs, importance or salience of group membership and ethnic group in relation

to national identity. Not all of the preceding components are common to the ethnic identity of all ethnic group members.

In order to measure ethnic identity, Phinney (1992) developed a Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) using a number of ethnic identity components mentioned above. It was designed for ethnic identity measurement across diverse ethnic groups. Therefore, cultural values and beliefs which are content specific to particular groups were not included. Through conducting a number of large scale studies, it was suggested that MEIM was consisted of two factors: Commitment and exploration. In fact, these two factors are key components in ethnic identity measurement. Consequently, Phinney and Ong (2007, p. 276) suggested a revised version of MEIM (MEIM-R). It consisted of three items for exploration factor and three items for commitment factor. Although these two scales are closely related, using these two scales together or separately depends on the research purposes. For those studies concerned with the overall strength of ethnic identity or the degree of ethnic identity achievement, the two scales can be combined. The MEIM-R does not contain all components of ethnic identity discussed earlier. It is suggested that additional measures for other aspects of ethnic identity should be included, depending on the research questions (Phinney & Ong, 2007, p. 278).

The exploration scale of MEIM-R consists of these items: *"I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs"*, *"I have often talked to other people in order to learn more about my ethnic group"*. *"I have often done things that will help me understand my ethnic background better"*. The commitment scale of MEIM-R includes these three items: *"I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group"*, *"I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me"*, and *"I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group."* (Phinney & Ong, 2007, p. 276).

Because the commitment scale does not assess explicit attitudes such as pride and feeling good about one's group, researchers can add positive attitude item to the scale when such feelings are of interest to the research (Phinney & Ong, 2007, p. 278).

Research on ethnic identity achievement and development has faced questions about the use of interview versus questionnaire to assess them. However, “interviews allow in-depth exploration and open-ended expression of identity themes which result in assignment of subjects to distinct identity status.” (Phinney, 1992, p. 160). For example, Phinney (1989) assessed ethnic identity achievement using a revised version of the interview used by Phinney and Tarver (1988). The interview consisted of questions assessing the extent of exploration of ethnic identity (e.g. Have you ever talked with your parents or others about your ethnic background?), the commitment to an ethnic identity, and attitudes about their ethnic identity (e.g. Are there things you like or enjoy about your own cultural background? (Phinney, 1989, p. 40).

The current research assessed ethnic identity achievement and development among Persian language learners. Ethnic identity achievement means the four distinct acculturation profiles which the study by Berry, Phinney, Sam, and Vedder (2006) distinguished for minority group members. In *Integration profile* both identities are strong and positively correlated. In *Ethnic profile*, ethnic identity is strong and national identity is weak. *National profile* is characterized by a strong national identity and weak ethnic identity. In *diffuse profile*, both identities are low (Phinney & Ong, 2007, p. 274). Tse (1998) also developed a four-stage model of ethnic identity. The first stage is unawareness of ethnic identity. Stage Two is ambivalence or evasion of the home culture. At Stage Three, ethnic identity emergence, identity exploration happens and the dominant culture may be rejected. Stage Four is identity incorporation, which involves the embracing of a bi-cultural identity.

How individuals perceive themselves and how they are perceived by others, has impact on their ethnic identity. Erikson (1963) proposed the idea of identity conflict which can be experienced by individuals through social conditions and interactions. Erikson (1963) suggested that positive sense of who an individual is, can be developed through supportive social environment. Therefore, the importance of “monitoring bilingual children’s identity

formation” was emphasized by Brown (2003, p. 4) because children experience negotiation of differences in their personal values and others’ expectations.

In order to assess Persian heritage language learners’ ethnic identity achievement and development interviews questions were developed based on the items of both exploration and behaviour scales of MEIM-R. The interview questions and the scales of MEIM-R presented next to the questions are summarized below. In order to measure exploration scale, these questions were asked:

1. Do you participate in Iranian social events such as Norooz (Iranian New Year celebration)? “I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs”
2. Do you talk to your parents, siblings or others to learn about Iranian custom, culture, history and food? “I have often talked to other people in order to learn more about my ethnic group”.
3. Do you watch Iranian movies/ listen to Iranian music/ read Persian books? “I have often done things that will help me understand my ethnic background better”.
4. How often do you go to Iran?

In order to explore learners’ self-categorization, these questions were asked:

1. Do you feel Iranian, Australian or both? “I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group”.
2. When do you feel Iranian, Australian or both? “I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me”
3. How do you feel about being Iranian or knowing Persian language? “I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group”

Language knowledge and usage which are widely used markers of ethnic identity are not included in MEIM-R because both language knowledge and use are different among various groups and cannot be included in a general measure. However, students in this study were

asked about the language they spoke at home with their parents and their siblings and the language they spoke at Persian school and Persian class with their teachers and friends.

Therefore, the last question was:

4. What language do you speak at home with your parents and your siblings? What language do you speak at Persian school and Persian class with your teacher and your friends?

The next two sections below present the background to the studies of identity and ethnic identity in second language and heritage language learning.

#### **2.4.1.1 . Identity and Second Language Learning**

New theories of identity and language learning demonstrate a conceptual shift in research about identity and second language learning process. Contemporary theories of identity emphasize social context, time and space as affecting identity and therefore, identity is multiple, changing and a site of struggle. Limited opportunities for learners to have access to resources through social interaction may distort learners' identity perception and language learning process (Norton & Toohey, 2011). According to the study by Shirazi and Borjian (2012, p. 165), "Iranian culture is a socially situated practice constituted by interaction, rather than a standard transcript to be memorized."

However, experiencing identity through social interaction is not confined to the world around the learner and humans' experience with a text can shape their identity too. In other words, literacy practices have impact on learners' identifications and positioning. On the other hand, learners' identification has influence on how they interact, respond and learn in classroom.

Identity as an important but overlooked issue in the studies of literacy. Therefore, research to explore identity and learners' literacy practices is needed (McCarthy & Moje, 2002, pp. 228-229). For instance, a study by Moje (2000) revealed how learners repudiated the readings that teachers had chosen for literacy practice; because, students could not identify and connect with the characters and experiences in the text. The characters' backgrounds and experiences



were too different or distant to connect with. The issue of identity lays out the orientations for heritage language teaching. It implies selecting engaging and meaningful materials for the learners. It also suggests to adapt the existing materials for heritage language learning (Carreira & Chik, 2014a).

#### **2.4.1.2 . Ethnic identity and Heritage language learning**

The connection between language and identity has been well-studied (Bucholtz & Hall, 2004; Norton, 2000). However, the matter of (ethnic) identity is problematic for heritage language learners because more than one language is available to these learners. Heritage language learners' positioning between two languages and two cultures is a potential crisis of identity ambivalence. These learners' ethnic identity is questioned by their own communities as well as by the society where the learners are considered as minority speakers. Therefore, how heritage language learners identify themselves has impact on their language learning. In fact, when the learners' language or culture is questioned by others, their identity will be questioned too (Potowski, 2012) Potential crisis of identity ambivalence can be resolved by creation of hybrid identity (Potowski, 2012, p. 181) or what Ghuman (1991) called "hyphenated identity". However, it is suggested that the hyphen should be dropped in order to show that these dual identities are now permanent and accepted (Potowski, 2012).

Language has a significant role in the construction of identity. Language learning is a social interaction and identity is achieved through the language learning medium. For a heritage language learner, identity is the core of the language development (He, 2006). Ethnic identity is the driving force behind heritage language learning (Carreira & Chik, 2014a). Previous studies indicated the complex relationship between ethnic identity and language. Many studies identified a positive relationship between ethnic identity and heritage language proficiency (Caldas & Caron-Caldas, 1999; Cho, 2000; Kondo, 1997; Phinney, Romero, Nava, & Huang, 2001; Tse, 1997, 2000). Oh and Fuligni (2010) found that language proficiency is a strong predictor of ethnic identity. On the other hand, heritage language

development can be an important part of identity formation. Heritage language proficiency fulfils both linguistic and identity needs of heritage language learners (Carreira, 2004). Fani (2013, p. 19) found that Persian, the lingua franca of Iran constitutes the personal identity of Persian heritage language learners. A study of Puerto Rican children who were highly competent in Spanish demonstrated their strong sense of ethnic identity (Soto, 2002). Heritage language ability can enable the heritage language speaker to have a deeper contact with family, heritage language community and the country of origin (Fillmore, 1991; Peyton et al., 2001) .

In addition to positive relationship between ethnic identity and heritage language learning, a number of studies demonstrated a relationship between ethnic identity and attending weekend heritage language schools. Japanese-Canadian heritage language learners (Oketani, 1997) and Japanese-American heritage language learners showed their stronger sense of ethnic identity by attending Japanese Saturday school (Chinen & Tucker, 2006; Shibata, 2000). The study by Wright and Taylor (1995) showed Inuit children's self-esteem significantly increased after they enrolled in Inuktitut language teaching programs.

So far, a review of background studies of ethnic identity and heritage language learning showed the positive relationship between ethnic identity and heritage language learning. However, a study by (Brown, 2009, p. 7) revealed the complexity of ethnic identity for Korean-American heritage language learners. Dual identity was not a voluntary choice for heritage language learners. They distinguished themselves and they were distinguished by the society around them. Brown (2003, p. 61) revealed that heritage language learners have both "public identity" and "private identity" which are different. Heritage language learners may choose their ethnic identity or their ethnic identity is imposed on them (Brown, 2009, pp. 7-8). Therefore, ethnic identity is defined as multifaceted and developmental and it is socially constructed and negotiated by individuals and social groups (Noro, 2009). A collection of

studies investigating identity and heritage language learning converge on a number of important findings showing the multiplicity of identities, the variety of factors affecting development of identity, interactional practices and more (Carreira & Van Deusen-Scholl, 2010). A comprehensive investigation of the relationship between ethnic language and ethnic identity formation is required (Noro, 2009).

An identity theory of Chinese Heritage Language (CHL) Development documented by He (2006, p. 1) demonstrated that CHL development occurs through intersections of three dimensions: time, space and identity. Therefore, related hypotheses were formulated along temporal, spatial and identity dimensions (He, 2006, pp. 19-20). Three hypotheses along the temporal dimension are: The Rootedness Hypothesis, The Benefits Hypothesis and The Interaction Hypothesis.

*The Rootedness Hypothesis* refers to the positive correlation between heritage language learners' desire to be rooted in their heritage culture and to assimilate with the members of the community. Learners' disinclination to take the language lessons at young age can be related to their lack of maturity and desire to remain connected with their family background. However, when learners are fully grown up and they are ready to connect with their cultural heritage, they become eager to learn the language.

*The Benefits Hypothesis* states positive correlation between heritage language development and learners' predicted benefits and rewards of heritage language development in the future.

*The Interaction Hypothesis* refers to positive correlation between learners' willing to communicate successfully in desired activities such as understanding a comic strip, being able to talk to relatives or travel to the country of origin.

Beside the three aforementioned hypotheses, three hypotheses along the spatial dimension are: The Positive-Stance Hypothesis, The By-Choice Hypothesis, and The Diverse-Input Hypothesis.

*The Positive-Stance Hypothesis* denotes to positive correlation between the stance of English-speaking community towards the heritage language.

*The By-Choice Hypothesis* discusses the positive correlation between heritage language development and how frequent the learners' family use the language by choice. Because, when families choose to speak the HL at home, this selection of language serves as a model of HL development and maintenance.

*The Diverse-Input Hypothesis* refers to positive correlation between heritage language development and access to diversity the language input at home and at school. This diversity does not limit to reading materials at home and school and further interaction with family members and visiting places where the language is used is essential in the language development.

And last but not least, the hypothesis along the identity dimension is *The Multiplicity Hypothesis* which states that identity is not singular, unitary and non-contradictory. Identity can be hybrid, complex, fluid and shifting as a person moves between places and experience different relationships. Various contexts and relations cause multiple identifications for heritage language learners. Therefore, there is a positive correlation between the heritage language development and the ease of coping with the differences heritage language learner encounters. This diversity provides a helpful rationale to consider and interview, in addition to heritage language learner, people who are close to the learner and interact with the learner such as parents and teachers in order to find out their point of view (McCarthy & Moje, 2002, p. 231).

The hypotheses noted above highlight the fact that heritage language development relies on learners' participation in social activities and continuous adaptation to the diverse activities and identities which surround the learner. He (2006) asserts that the hypotheses provided are applicable to Chinese Heritage Language (CHL) development. Moreover, in regard to the learner age and heritage language developmental stage, a number of hypotheses may be indeterminate.

The study by He (2006) revealed that identity is a dynamic attribute dependent on the ongoing interaction between heritage language learner and social world. Heritage language acquisition, accomplished in the social conversation is essential for ethnic identity formation.

#### **2.4.2. Motivation and language learning**

Motivation is the most important factor in language learning process, according to Van Lier (1996). The topic of motivation within second language acquisition has been investigated in different discipline over five decades (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). Gardner and Lambert (1972, p. 132) initiated the second language motivation research from a social-psychological perspective and proposed two motivational orientations: *integrative motivation* “reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group”, and *instrumental motivation* “reflecting the practical value and advantages of learning a new language. The *cognitive-situated* period of second language research highlighted the importance of cognitive theories, for instance self-efficacy and situated analysis of motivation in learning settings Dörnyei (2005). Though important, however both social-psychological and cognitive-situated perspective were not sufficient to explain motivation and engagement in learning in formal classroom context. Therefore, both intrinsic and extrinsic orientations were found relevant to the analysis of language learning in the classroom (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012) Therefore, Self-Determination Theory or SDT was introduced by Deci and Ryan (1985). According to SDT, motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsically motivated person is “a person moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than

because of external prods, pressures, or rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 56). Contrary to intrinsic motivation is extrinsic motivation comprising three sub-types of motivation varying along a continuum of self-determination. External regulation is the least self-determined form in which students involve in a task because it will result in some rewards or it prevents some negative consequences and there is no intrinsic interest in the task. Introjected regulation is more internal to the self-concept because, even though the external pressure underlies students' effort, these pressures are self-inflicted. The learner engages in the task to avoid the guilt and anxiety of the unsatisfactory job. However, once this external pressure disappears, the motivation for continuing the task will diminish. Identified Regulation representing a more self-determined form of extrinsic motivation is the case in which a learner has identified a goal which is valuable to learner's self-concept or personal development and it is likely that the learner will put effort into the activity. Amotivation is the situation in which no intentional intrinsic or extrinsic reason exists to involve and perform an activity (Noels, 2005, pp. 286-287).

A significant development in the current second language motivation theory is the shift from an external reference to an internal domain of "self-concept" (Dörnyei, 2009c) conceptualized the "L2 Motivational Self System". The concept is about peoples' vision of themselves in the future, including *ideal self*, *ought-to-self* and *future self*. Ideal self "refers to the representation of the attribute that someone would ideally like to possess." Ought-to-self "refers to the attributes that one believes one out to possess." The hypothesis is that "if proficiency in the target language is part and parcel of one's *ideal* or *ought-to* self, this will serve as a powerful motivator to learn the language." (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009, pp. 3-4). Future self "reflects a dynamic, forward-pointing conception that can explain how someone is moved from the present toward the future." (Dörnyei, 2009a, p. 11).

Contemporary to the studies of second language motivation and self, scholars in the field of identity reassessed the nature of second language motivation and integrative orientation

(Giddens, 1991) In regard to second language motivation and identity, Norton (2000, p. 4) argued that second language acquisition theories required to develop a theory of identity considering language learner in language learning context. Therefore, how a language learner's understanding of his or her relationship to the world is constructed across time and space and how the learner understands the possibilities for the future, shapes learner's identity (Norton, 2000). The construct of investment complement motivation theory in the field of second language acquisition. (Norton, 2000; Norton Peirce, 1995). The varying degrees of investment across time and space have been identified for second or foreign language learners. Investment and identity together construct the relationship of language learner and target language and the learner shows ambivalent desires to learn and practice the language. Both investment and identity are not unitary and fixed and they are socially constructed. A significant amount of second language motivation research incorporated quantitative methods to explore motivation. The gap between motivation theory and practice required to adopt alternative research method and qualitative method was found to be powerful method investigate motivation (Kim, 2006; Norton Peirce, 1995; Ushioda, 1996, 2001; Williams & Burden, 1997). Quantitative methods are strictly limited to describe dynamic nature of motivation in both second and heritage language learning (Ducar, 2012, p. 163). While the influence of motivation on second language learning has long established (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012), corresponding research in the field of heritage language remains understudied (Lynch, 2003). The next section will elaborate the role of motivation in heritage language learning context.

#### **2.4.3. Motivation and heritage language learning**

As noted above, the role of motivation in second language acquisition is well-studied and well-established. However, there is a need for increased research efforts on the issue of motivation in heritage language learning (Kagan, 2005; Lee, 2006; Lee & Kim, 2008)

A study of Persian heritage and non-heritage language learners at universities in California State by Miremadi (2014) found reasons for learning Persian language. Preserving Persian language, as students' mother tongue, knowledge of Persian literature and culture, instrumental and integrative motivation and connection with family and relatives in Iran were found as reasons for learning Persian language among the learners. Miremadi (2014, p. 8) recommended that teaching materials should attract learners' attention and should be in accordance with students' interest. Furthermore, Persian teaching material should be compatible with learners' language proficiency level.

The social nature of heritage language learning (He, 2010) and socially constructed identity as a motivating factor (Norton & Toohey, 2011) for language learning, claim to investigate motivation and identity of heritage language learners from a more socioculturally informed approach. According to sociocultural theory, "the individual emerges from social interaction and as such is a fundamentally social being." (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007, p. 217).

Weger-Guntharp (2008) found that providing a sense of investment for Chinese heritage language learning and providing the opportunities to reconnect with ethnic background were essential for Chinese heritage language maintenance. A study by (Coryell & Clark, 2009) found that primary motivation for learning heritage language was an integrative motivation. However, Tse (2001) found that strong long-term motivations may not result in successful Chinese Heritage Language.

In order to fully understand attitudes and motivation of heritage language learners, incorporation of more qualitative and mixed method approaches is recommended. Moreover, socioculturally informed perspectives for investigation of attitudes and motivation is required. In order to understand the role of integrative, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, identity formation and community participation should be investigated (Ducar, 2012).



#### **2.4.4. Intersection of ethnic identity, motivation and heritage language development**

The paucity of research dedicated to the roles of attitude and motivation in heritage language learning is emphasized by Ducar (2012, p. 164). The intersection of attitude and motivation is indisputable (Ducar, 2012, p. 163) and the positive correlation between motivation and second language achievement is well established (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). A study of Chinese heritage language learners attending public universities in the U.S pointed to the role of identity in motivation and the overlap of identity and motivation construct (Wen, 2011). Similarly, a study of Italian heritage language learners in Wellington, New Zealand, adopted a social constructivist approach and found that identity construction and motivation are highly implicated and related to heritage language maintenance (Berardi-Wiltshire, 2013). Integrative motivation and positive attitudes were discovered significant in heritage language learning of nineteen different languages (Reynolds, Howard & Deak, 2009). Stronger integrative motivation for heritage language learners were found for Russian heritage language learners (Geisharik, 2004). The study by Noels (2005, p. 299) showed the importance of identity as a principal motivator for German heritage language learners. In other words, integrative motivation which highlights identity formation is under the influence of social milieu and therefore the role of identity, motivation and social milieu needs detailed analysis (Ducar, 2012).

Positive attitudes towards listening skills and an insecure feeling towards speaking ability among Spanish heritage language learners were found through the study conducted by Beaudrie and Ducar (2005).

Learners' ethnic identity formation was found by He (2006) to be the primary motivation for heritage language learning. Interactions with other persons and across different settings and developmental stages result in an ongoing, evolving assessment and adjustment of ethnic identity by the learner. This conceptualization of heritage language development (based on language socialization) involves multiple agencies, multiple direction and multiple goals.

An “ethnic identity model” was developed by Tse (1997) revealed four stages of ethnic identification by explaining the relationships between ethnic identity, motivation/attitudes and heritage language development. The four stages include: lack of awareness of ethnic identity, ethnic identity ambivalence/ evasion, ethnic identity emergence and ethnic identity incorporation. Later on, Tse (2000) investigated the relationship between ethnic identity and heritage language learning by examining the narratives of American-Asians adults. The study revealed that the language ability and interest is positively correlated to attitudes towards ethnic group and the speakers of the language.

Through a quantitative study, both heritage language proficiency and language use were correlated with ethnic identity of immigrant background adolescents from Latin America and Asia, not choice of languages (Oh & Fuligni, 2010)

Wei (1994) found the correlation between heritage language proficiency and a well-developed sense of ethnic identity and network with ethnic group.

The relationship between ethnic identity, attitudes towards the language school and self-assessed proficiency of Japanese-American adolescents in Los Angeles were examined by Chinen and Tucker (2005). The quantitative research revealed that the variables were significantly related. Moreover, a stronger sense of identification as Japanese were realized in older students than younger ones. Furthermore, positive achievements were found in regard to attitudes, self-assessed Japanese proficiency and ethnic identity over a period of six months.

A mixed method study of second-generation Korean-American adults found heritage language competency have influence on ethnic identity achievement, social interaction and strong relationships with the speakers of the language (Cho, 2000).

Through conducting a mixed method research, Lee (2002) studied Korean-American university students in the United States in order to understand the role of cultural identity in heritage language learning.

The study by Qin (2006) demonstrated that college heritage language speakers' positive attitudes towards heritage language even though they felt identified with English (Tse, 1997).

## **2.5. Foundations of heritage language program development**

Kagan and Dillon (2012, p. 500) assert that “with appropriate instruction, heritage language learners are capable of reaching higher levels of proficiency in a shorter period of time than typical second language learners.” Before developing relevant pedagogical theories and instructions, educators require to understand “who heritage language learners are in various contexts and how they see, perceive, interpret, present and represent themselves in those contexts”, according to Hornberger and Wang (2008, p. 6).

Instructional issues surrounding heritage languages require to provide a foundation for improved practices and identifying areas of need for further development. Curriculum and program development is of importance to practitioners. Specialized heritage language instructions which are linguistically and culturally responsive to the needs and goals of heritage language learners are recommended (Carreira, 2012). A wide range of linguistic needs and abilities of heritage language learners makes it difficult for instructors to both understand and manage learners (Carreira, 2012; Valdés, 1995).

A number of pedagogically significant learner variables were identified through research, including amount and exposure to heritage language, learner's age, motivation and reasons for studying heritage language, learner's attitudes and cultural connectedness. A general profile of heritage language learner is valuable for curriculum design. Therefore, learners' diversity requires a learner-centered/differentiated approach rather than a uniform teaching. In addition to heritage language instruction, teacher professional development implies teachers to have basic understanding of heritage language learner and heritage language learning as an individual and social activity (Carreira, 2012).

A number of studies have evaluated heritage language programs (Peyton et al., 2001; Potowski & Carreira, 2004; Wang & Green, 2001). Heritage language programs need to be

designed in order to meet the specific needs of heritage language learners. Therefore, heritage language instructional materials specifically designed for heritage language learners, community-based curriculum and teachers trained in teaching methodologies and approaches are recommended by Kagan and Dillon (2012, p. 500). However, most heritage language programs begin to teach literacy at a beginning level without commitment to develop heritage language to a higher level of proficiency in a long-term period.

The relationship between home language practices and formal and informal exposure to heritage languages in print and online, require sustained and systematic research. The rapidly growing world of online communities through which close linguistic contact with communities is feasible needs more attention (Lynch, 2014).

In program and curricular decisions, heritage language learners' voices play a more crucial role (Beaudrie, Ducar, & Relaño-Pastor, 2009); because learners' perspectives about what they want to study can be incorporated profitably. Potowski (2012, p. 194) suggests that the advancement of the field of identity studies requires qualitative scholarship. Moreover, in order to study the role of ethnic identity in positive intergroup attitudes, Phinney, Jacoby, and Silva (2007, p. 483) used qualitative method because "qualitative methods provide an advantage in addressing research questions that have not been widely studied." Furthermore, qualitative analyses provide a rich body of information that adds to the understanding of the phenomena being investigated (Phinney et al., 2007)

A case study of Iranian community in New York (Shirazi & Borjian, 2012) explored both informal efforts of Iranian community and school programs in order to understand how and why Persian language was taught to Iranian children. The study showed ad hoc community-based Persian language programs.

Another example of heritage language, culture and identity development is Camp Ayandeh (Ayandeh means "future" in English) which became a unique sociocultural experience organized by young Iranian American adults for Iranian American youth. For one week

during the summer, eighty-five high school students and thirty-five collegiate staff build what many participants refer to as a family. Together, they generate the trust necessary to grapple with questions of history and identity, and thereby grow as leaders and human beings (Vossoughi, 2011).

## **2.6. Significance of parental role in heritage language learning**

Studies of parental involvement in community language schools and their support at home shows the positive influence of parental role on language abilities and attitudes of Heritage language learners (Lynch, 2014, p. 238)

The researcher's pilot study findings (Mokhatebi Ardakani & Moloney, 2010) highlighted parental role in Persian heritage language learning. The study of Italian heritage language learners conducted by De Fina (2012, p. 374) found that family is a central cultural constructs and family activities are strongly connected to heritage language learners' identity.

Babaei (2013) studied Persian language maintenance of an Iranian child in the United Kingdom. The study showed the significance of parent role, familial attachment, and frequency of visiting the home country on the participant's Persian heritage language maintenance. However, the study by Rohani, Christine, Amjad, Christal, and Christopher (2014) showed that, with the exception of Persian language learners, learners of Japanese, Urdu, Cantonese and Spanish were provided with access to their ethnic culture through newspaper, video, music and food in order to maintain their heritage language. The study by Qin (2006) showed community and familial support has a significant role in maintaining heritage language among heritage language learners.

Li (2006) discusses parent role in child's heritage language development. It is noted that parent role is essential but not sufficient for heritage language maintenance and support beyond the family domain such as community language school seems to be essential to complement parents' efforts.

A study by Phinney et al. (2001) showed the impact of parental cultural maintenance and social interaction with peers on ethnic language proficiency and ethnic identity of minority groups in Southern California. According to Potowski (2012, p. 184) positive associations with ethnic group can be fostered when same-group peers are around.

## **2.7. Synthesis of Literature Review**

This literature review presented the conceptual and theoretical framework chosen as the foundation to the current research. In addition, a collection of literature which have been selected as the background of the current research were provided.

In order to answer the overarching Research Question: “what influences Persian language learning among Persian heritage language learners?”, a pedagogically significant profile of heritage language learners including amount and exposure to heritage language, learner’s identity and motivation, learners’ goal and need for learning heritage language, and learner’s attitudes was recognized to be valuable for curriculum design. Moreover, qualitative approach to illustrate more complex aspects of heritage language learner and to investigate heritage language learner profile has limitations.

The following chapter will present methodology and research design used in the current research. The chapter comprises information about participants, data collection method, data analysis and limitations of the study.



## **Chapter 3: Methodology and Research Design**



### **3.1. Introduction**

This chapter outlines the methodology and research design employed in this research. It includes description of research sites and participants, procedures for data collected from the four Persian community language schools, data coding and data analysis methods. A discussion of the credibility of the data and the limitation of the research conclude the chapter.

### **3.2. Overview**

As the literature review chapter has suggested, studies of second language learning and the recent studies of heritage/community language learning are most commonly positioned within the qualitative research methodology. The researcher is aware of the wide range of methods used in second and heritage language learning research, in particular, the variety of qualitative research used by other researchers in similar research projects. The qualitative research approach has been chosen to collect the appropriate type of data to provide answers to the research questions. In addition, qualitative research has been an effective way of exploring new and uncharted areas through a detailed study of a case. Therefore, this first study of Persian language learning in Sydney investigates Persian language learning among primary school Persian heritage language learners. The study explores learners' access to language resources at home and at school, their identity formation and their motivation for learning Persian language and is positioned within the qualitative research methodology.

As demonstrated in the previous chapter (literature review), a wide range of methods have been used in order to explore the relationship between language learning and motivation as well as language learning and identity in similar research projects. Studies related to second language learning and motivation are commonly quantitative research. However, contemporary research, according to Dörnyei (2007), demonstrates that core quantitative areas such as the study of identity and motivation are being driven by qualitative research. A number of studies such as Ushioda (1993) and Williams and Burden (1999) adopted interviews as an alternative research method. These studies detected a gap between motivation

theory and practice and tried to adopt alternative research methods. Among a distinctive variety of interviews (open-ended, semi-structured and structured formats), Ratner (2002) suggests that the unstructured or semi-structured interviews would be the best choice for the investigation of complex human psychology such as motivation. Therefore, a qualitative approach has been taken in this research in order to collect the appropriate type of data to provide answers to the research questions. As stated above, another purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between Persian heritage language learning and identity. Similarly, the same methodological instruments of qualitative nature were used to answer the related research questions. Further justification for positioning the current research within a qualitative research field will be addressed in the next section.

### **3.3. Research Design**

A research design is a set of guidelines that connect theoretical paradigms to strategies of inquiry first and then to methods for collecting empirical data, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2002). The qualitative case study is the strategy of inquiry to conduct this research. Research design serves as a background for applying the specific designs for a case study. A case-study can be designed as a single-case design or multiple-case design. In either of the case-study designs, either a single-unit of analysis (known as holistic) approach or multiple-units of analysis (known as embedded) approach can be applied. The embedded case-study design involves a single case and more than one unit of analysis. In other words, while a single case such as an organization is under investigation, subunit(s) or embedded units of the single case are explored as well (Yin, 2003).

The current qualitative case study applied embedded single-case design. The single case is investigation of Persian language learning in four Persian community languages school in Sydney. The embedded units of analysis were Persian heritage language learners, their parents and their teachers. The four Persian schools served as empirical sites of the research.

### **3.4. Sampling method and strategy**

A qualitative study must follow a sampling plan by describing the sampling criteria for the study. The sampling should align with the study purposes. A qualitative study uses a much smaller sample of participants than a quantitative research. Furthermore, a researcher requires to consider feasibility issues while designing the sampling plan (Dörnyei, 2007).

Theoretical sampling as a flexible and ongoing process of selecting participants is the appropriate sampling in grounded theory approach, according to Glaser and Strauss (1967).

However, because of the researcher's limited access to the participants and the research sites, theoretical sampling or what Silverman (2005) called "purposive sampling" was not practicable. Therefore, a sampling plan was needed to choose student participants, parent participants and teacher participants as the embedded units of analysis of the current research.

The most practical and feasible yet less principled sampling is convenience sampling. It involves the selection of the most available participants (Marshall, 1996). The convenience sampling is the highly practical approach at the postgraduate research level. In fact, the researcher chooses the participants who are available and willing to participate in the research. Participants' willingness is regarded as a prerequisite to have rich data (Dörnyei, 2007). Therefore, this study used convenience sampling as the sampling strategy to choose different participants of the study. School principals, teachers and coordinators introduced the willing participants and consequently learner, parent and teacher participants were selected randomly by the researcher.

Student participants were selected among Persian heritage language learners attending primary level at the four Persian schools. They were seven to 14 years old and they were attending primary school year one to year six. The total number of student participants was 35 students who formed nine focus groups. Each group consisted of four student participants, except one focus group, S1 FG3 (School 1 Focus Group 3), which comprised of three student participants. These students were also being observed in their natural classroom settings in

order to provide detailed and direct information rather than self-report accounts of their motivation and identity.

In order to apply an effective strategy to ensure research validity, in addition to students as an embedded unit of analysis, parent and teacher participants as other embedded units of analysis were chosen to answer individual interview questions. This combination of data sources, known as triangulation of data, involved using different sources of information in order to increase the validity of a study. In-depth interviews with different stakeholders could be conducted in order to gain insight into their perspectives (Dörnyei, 2007) . A total number of nine parents and seven teachers who were teaching the primary school Persian heritage language learners were chosen as other participants of the research.

During the data analysis stage, different stakeholders' point of view would be compared to determine areas of agreement as well as areas of divergence. This type of triangulation, where the researchers use different sources, is perhaps the most popular because it is the easiest to implement.

### **3.5. Description of research sites and participants of both the pilot and current study**

The four Persian schools registered by New South Wales (NSW) Department of Education and Training (DET) were operating on Saturday mornings for about three to four hours. The schools were the research sites for both pilot study and the current research. While all the descriptions about the four schools remained the same for both studies, the only difference was the number of Persian heritage language learners attending the four schools at the time of the pilot study and the current study. The number of students attending the four schools at the time of the pilot study was more significant than the time the current study started in 2011. Students' significant dropout from the Persian community schools was evident. The next section will explain the four schools in detail, as the research sites for both the pilot and the current study.

### **3.5.1. Description of research sites of the Pilot study**

According to the pilot study findings (Mokhatebi Ardakani & Moloney, 2010), the demographic details of the four schools were as follows:

#### **School 1**

According to the school principal, this school was established in 1988. The number of students enrolled in 2009 was 78, including senior secondary students. The students were four to 18 years old, 32 students were male students and 46 students were female students. Most of the students were born in Iran and a number of them were born in Australia. The school was operating on Saturday mornings for 10 sessions in each term (with a total of 4 terms per year, according to the Australian school time table). This school received grants from the DET per capita, and students also pay a weekly fee.

The school followed their own curriculum focused on Persian language literacy and Mathematics. The school also used the reading and writing books that were used at schools in Iran for native speakers of Persian language. In order to teach students geography, the principal said that they show some documentaries about Iran and its cities during the recess time. While students were walking around, they watched the documentary in the school corridors. The school used CDs provided for learning Persian as a foreign language in Iran. The school provided Persian songs and movies as the teaching material, and the principal believed that music and songs were more enjoyable for children than other material. The school had debate classes for learners from year four and above. In giving priority to four skills (reading, writing, speaking and speaking) in their curriculum, the school principal stated that writing and reading were more important than speaking and listening. He asserted that there was no attention to listening and this skill was neglected to some extent. The principal said the teachers were trained teachers with teaching qualifications from Iran.

The principal asserted that their main problem was lack of relationship and connection with parents. Students' lack of interest in doing their homework were highlighted by the school principal.

## **School 2**

According to the school principal, this School was established in 1999. The number of students enrolled in 2009 was about 60 students. The school offered Persian classes for kindergarten, year one, beginners, intermediate, senior secondary and adult levels. However, most of the learners were female students aged from five to 15 years old. Most of the learners, who lived with their parents, were born in Australia; so they had first learned to speak Persian at home and only later they had learnt to read and write in Persian by attending the school. Only a minority of these students started learning Persian in Iran. The principal stated that these Iran-born learners were more capable than the Australian-born students in understanding abstract meanings.

In regards to teaching material, the school supplied different material for the beginners but for the other levels, they used the books that were used in Iran for native speakers of Persian. In addition, the school offered extracurricular events which involved learners in activities such as book-reading competitions, doing Persian puzzles, drama, choir group and more. Besides reading and writing activities as their homework, the learners were encouraged to search the internet to conduct research in Persian.

The principal believed that although learners might not be initially interested in Persian language learning when they started the school, after a while they became interested to learn Persian language as they became older. The school principal's main concern was parents' lack of involvement in their children's language learning at school and at home. However, parents' motivation remained the main factor for children's Persian language learning. A number of parents taught Persian in the school and a number of teachers had teacher qualifications from Iran.

### **School 3**

According to the school principal, the school was established in 1990s with cooperation of people from Afghanistan who were interested in learning Persian language. At that time, the school accommodated a large number of students. However, after a several years, the school administration decided to teach students from Iran and Afghanistan separately.

Located in an area of Sydney with a large population from Iran, the school followed its own teaching material created and developed by the school principal. The teaching approach was a kind of dual language program (bilingual education both in English and Persian language) for primary and secondary learners. The teachers had a degree of flexibility, where, if the students and parents were not satisfied with the teaching material taught, they could choose the teaching material which was preferably the material used in Iran for native speakers of Persian language.

This school offered classes from kindergarten to year 12 and for adults. About 20 students were attending the primary Level. The number of female students were more than male students, and they were from Iran, Iraq, Afghanistan, and even Tajikistan.

All students lived with their parents. Students were born both in Iran and in Australia. A number of students had schooling and experience of learning Persian language in Iran. The principal asserted that students had different Persian language proficiency depending on the number of years of schooling in Iran. The principal also believed that those who were born in Australia were generally slower language learners, with the exception of families which took a serious approach to school study and extended student language through home learning. The principal emphasized the parents' responsibility and seriousness and its effect on a student's pace of learning and achievement. Students were not often intrinsically motivated to learn their heritage language, especially in primary level, and thus it was parents' motivation and expectations motivating students to learn Persian language.

In the school, students were placed according to their level of proficiency and literacy, not their age. For example, a 35-year-old Australian woman, whose husband was Iranian, attended the school to learn Persian language. She was enrolled in level 1 and she was learning Persian language next to the other students who were much younger than her. The school principal emphasized reading and writing skills and mentioned the focus of the school was primarily on teaching Persian literacy and Mathematics. The school principal noted that students were inclined to talk in English during recess time in the school and even in the class.

The school principal referred to the time constraints that they encountered given that they only had about 3 hours a week to teach Persian language to students. The school had three teachers who had teacher qualifications and the school principal was one of them.

#### **School 4**

According to the school principal, the school was registered by NSW DET and it was under the supervision of The Ministry of Education and Training in Iran. The school followed the exact curriculum used for Persian native speakers in Iran. This school was located in an area of Sydney which had a large population of Afghan people.

The school was accommodating different students with different needs. Of the three groups of students in this school, the first group of students were living in Sydney for a limited period of time; because, their parents were undertaking tertiary studies for a limited time and students were continuing their studies before returning to Iran. The second group of students were permanent residents who were living in Sydney and they had no intention to come back to Iran to pursue their studies there. The third group were Afghan learners who attended this school in order to learn Persian language. This school aimed to meet the needs of those students who planned to return to Iran and therefore the learners received the same curriculum and assessment offered in Iran. This school did not have a fixed number of students throughout the year because some of the students left the school during the year. Of the four



teachers (including the principal) who were teaching in the school, only two of them had teaching qualifications, which they received from Iran. The other two teachers were students' parents with no teaching qualifications.

The school principal asserted that the majority of parents whose children were studying in this school were satisfied with the curriculum and assessment approach.

### **3.5.2. Description of research sites of the current research**

The description of the four Persian community languages schools in Sydney remained the same as what has been stated above. However, in comparison to the time of pilot study, the only difference observed by the researcher was a significant students' dropout from the schools by the time of commencing data collection for this study (data collection started in April, 2012). In fact, this was an indication of high rate of attrition from school as the findings of pilot study showed. These dropouts had influence on the data collection as it changed the researcher's decision and plan for the focus group interviews. The following section provides the information about research participants.

### **3.5.3. Research participants**

As noted in the Introduction chapter, the aim of the study is to investigate what influences Persian language learning among Persian heritage language learners. Approaching the current research from a sociocultural perspective provides the rationale for choosing the participants of the study. Both home and school are the main settings in which the process of learning heritage language occurs. Both parents and teachers, in addition to students, are representatives of the two different settings. An understanding of the settings and learners' interactions with multiple participants who help to shape the path of heritage language learning is necessitate. In other words, in addition to investigating the heritage language learner, understanding the contribution of the very people who socialize with the heritage language learner to learn and use the language is required (He, 2010). Moreover, heritage language development happens through both formal teaching and informal transmission of the

language and it requires individual and collective cooperation (Lo Bianco & Peyton, 2013). Therefore, three different groups of participants including students, parents and teachers comprised the participants of the current research. Information about the number of the research participants and their demographic information are provided below.

#### **3.5.3.1. Student participants**

This research involved 35 (N=35) Persian heritage language learners attending four Persian community languages in Sydney. These schools served students in different levels of schooling. However, the focus of this study was on students attending primary level classes available in these schools. Student participants' demographic information varied and it is shown in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1** Student participants' demographic information

<b>Name</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Attending other Persian school in Sydney</b>	<b>Attending school in Iran</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Persian school year attending</b>	<b>Place of birth</b>
S1 FG1 St1	11	No	Yes	Female	Year 4	Iran
S1 FG1 St2	12	No	No	Female	Year 4	Australia
S1 FG1 St3	11	Yes	Yes	Female	Year 4	Iran
S1 FG1 St4	12	Yes	No	Male	Year 4	Australia
S1 FG2 St1	10	No	Yes	Female	Year 4	Iran
S1 FG2 St2	11	No	Yes	Female	Year 4	Australia
S1 FG2 St3	12	No	Yes	Male	Year 4	Australia
S1 FG2 St4	11	No	Yes	Male	Year 4	Iran
S1 FG3 St1	11	No	No	Female	Year 5	Iran
S1 FG3 St2	12	No	No	Female	Year 5	Iran
S1 FG3 St3	11	No	No	Female	Year 5	Australia
S2 FG1 St1	10	No	Yes	Female	Year 2	Iran
S2 FG1 St2	9	Yes	Yes	Female	Year 2	Iran
S2 FG1 St3	more than 12	No	No	Male	Year 5	Australia
S2 FG1 St4	10	No	No	Male	Year 5	Australia
S2 FG2 St1	11	Yes	No	Male	Year 1	Australia
S2 FG2 St2	more than 12	Yes	No	Male	Year 4	Iran
S2 FG2 St3	10	Yes	Yes	Male	Year 4	Australia
S2 FG2 St4	12	Yes	No	Female	Year 4	Australia
S3 FG1 St1	12	Yes	No	Male	Year 2	Iran
S3 FG1 St2	12	No	No	Male	Year 2	Iran
S3 FG1 St3	7	Yes	No	Male	Year 2	Australia
S3 FG1 St4	10	No	Yes	Male	Year 2	Iran
S3 FG2 St1	8	No	No	Male	Year 1	Iran
S3 FG2 St2	8	No	No	Male	Year 1	Australia
S3 FG2 St3	10	No	No	Female	Year 1	Australia

<b>Name</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Attending other Persian school in Sydney</b>	<b>Attending school in Iran</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Persian school year attending</b>	<b>Place of birth</b>
S3 FG2 St4	12	No	No	Female	Year 2	Australia
S4 FG1 St1	12	No	No	Male	Year 6	Australia
S4 FG1 St2	12	No	Yes	Male	Year 6	Iran
S4 FG1 St3	11	No	Yes	Male	Year 5	Iran
S4 FG1 St4	12	Yes	Yes	Female	Year 4	Australia
S4 FG2 St1	9	No	No	Male	Year 3	Other
S4 FG2 St2	10	No	No	Male	Year 3	Australia
S4 FG2 St3	9	No	No	Female	Year 4	Australia
S4 FG2 St4	11	No	No	Female	Year 5	Australia

### **3.5.3.2 Parent participants**

Parents (mother or father) of Persian heritage language learners attending primary level were chosen as another group of participants of this study. The aim was to interview those parents whose children were chosen to participate in the focus group interview. However, it was not possible because of not having access to all of those parents. As the consequence, this limited the amount of student/parent data triangulation possible. Consequently nine parents (N=9) including one father and 8 mothers were willing to participate in an individual interview with the researcher. All parent participants were born in Iran. Parent participants' demographic information is shown in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2** Parent participants' demographic information

Parent	Gender	Place of birth
S1 P1	Male	Iran
S1 P2	Female	Iran
S1 P3	Female	Iran
S1 P4	Female	Iran
S1 P5	Female	Iran
S2 P1	Female	Iran
S2 P2	Female	Iran
S3 P2	Female	Iran
S4 P1	Female	Iran

### **3.5.3.3. Teacher participants**

The number of teacher participants, who were teaching Persian heritage language learners at primary level, was seven teachers (N=7). All seven teachers interviewed were female teachers. Five teachers had teacher qualification and the other two were parents of students without teaching backgrounds. Teacher participants' demographic information is presented in Table 3.3.

**Table 3.3** Teacher participants' demographic information

Teacher	Gender	Teaching experience
S1 T1	Female	Yes
S1 T2	Female	Yes
S2 T1	Female	No
S2 T2	Female	Yes
S3 T1	Female	Yes
S4 T1	Female	Yes
S4 T2	Female	No

### **3.6. Procedures for data collection in the four Persian community language schools**

This research was granted an approval from the Faculty of Human Sciences Human Research Ethics Sub-Committee at Macquarie University before its commencement. The approval was presented to the four principals of the Persian community languages school in order to obtain their permission and the study was introduced to the four principals. The Information and consent forms for principals were given to them in order to gain their permission by signing the consent form (Appendix A). By receiving the principals' approval, a participation advertisement both in English and Persian language (Appendices B and C) was sent to the schools to find willing student, parent and teacher participants. The information and consent forms for teachers (Appendix D) were given to seven teacher participants. Teachers were asked to give information and consent forms to willing students and their parents. Parent information and consent forms (Appendix E) were given to nine parent participants who showed their interest to participate in the research. Parents also were given information and consent forms for parents' permission for child/ward to participate in the research (Appendix F) because the students were not able to sign the consent form due to their age. Consequently, consent forms obtained for the participants were collected and were kept confidentially by the researcher.

The process started with an introduction phase. The researcher introduced herself and welcomed the participants. Then the research was introduced to all research participants prior to data collection. The teacher and parent participants were informed that the school principal supported the research. Then the purpose of the interview and its parameters in terms of length and confidentiality were outlined. The researcher also explained why the interview should be recorded. The participants were asked if they prefer the interview to be conducted in Persian or English. All the focus group interviews were conducted in Persian language based on the interviewee's call. All participants were assured that the research would create minimal disturbance to students. A prepared plan of data collection was presented to the research participants. An example of a plan of data collection in school 1 is shown in Table 3.4. The data collection timeline period took place between the end of April 2012 and the end of November 2012. Because the Persian community languages schools operate on Saturdays only, the data were only collected on Saturday mornings by the researcher.

**Table 3.4** An example of data collection plan in School 1 (April-May 2012)

<b>Date</b>	<b>Task 1</b>	<b>Time / place</b>	<b>Task 2</b>	<b>Time / place</b>	<b>Task 3</b>	<b>Time / place</b>	<b>Task 4</b>
Saturday 28/04/12	1 <sup>st</sup> focus group interview	TBC	1 teacher interview	TBC	1 parent interview	TBC	Class observation
Saturday 05/05/12	2 <sup>nd</sup> focus group interview	TBC	1 teacher interview	TBC	1 parent interview	TBC	
Saturday 12/05/12	3 <sup>rd</sup> focus group interview	TBC	1 parent interview 1 parent interview	TBC	1 parent interview	TBC	

### **3.7. Data collection instruments**

The two major instruments used by the researcher to collect qualitative data were interviews and participant observation.

#### **3.7.1. Interview**

Interviews, both focus group interview and one-to-one interview, were used to collect data from Persian heritage language learners, their parents and their teachers. As a research instrument, individual interview can provide a thick description of a particular issue. The researcher can attain interesting points in details with appropriate questions predetermined. However, interview may lead the researcher to invalid inferences about situations and events (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000).

On the other hand, in the case the researcher faces time constraints, it is beneficial to interview a small number of participants in a focus groups than conducting individual interviews. It is also used when one-on-one or face-to face interaction may seem “scary” or intimidating” for the participants (Madriz, 2000). The focus group interview is a more genuine social interaction in which the researcher plays the role of a moderator. A focus group interview is more stimulating and it provides the ground for the participants to talk, to respond and to react to each other’s experiences and impressions Bauer and Gaskell (2000).

The semi-structured interview questions, attached in Appendix I, were categorized according to the Research Questions. As noted in Chapter 2, the framework developed for ethnic identity Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measurement- Revised (MEIM-R) by Phinney and Ong (2007) was used to develop the interview questions in order to investigate Persian heritage language learners’ identity achievement and development. The interview questions which were used to explore heritage language learners’ access to language resources and motivation, were adapted from studies by Mucherah (2008) and Wu (2005). In addition, a number of interview questions were adapted from the study by Carreira and Kagan (2011).



### **3.7.2. Class observation**

Classroom observation and observing student participants, provides the researcher with the opportunity to have access to a greater breadth and depth of information. It will result in ability to triangulate different observations and impressions and to follow up emergent discrepancies while conducting the fieldwork (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000).

Because the qualitative research objective is to describe social phenomenon as it occurs naturally, the project researcher focused on recording specific behaviours (verbal and non-verbal) of student participants in their classrooms. Detailed and direct information about students' motivation and identity were investigated through class observation and field notes. The aim of using field notes was to minimize student participant and classroom activities disruption.

### **3.8. Data collection methods**

To collect data for this study, these methods were used: student focus groups, semi-structured parent interviews, semi-structured teacher interviews and classroom observation of students with researcher as a non-participant observer.

During the process of data collection, previously developed and existing theories such as theories of motivation in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and ethnic identity formation in general were used as some background to research situation. Knowledge of these existing theories provided ways of collecting data from the research participants. These theories were used to start the research by deriving the interview questions in order to not only satisfy different committees such as Macquarie university ethics committee and the research participants regarding the research intent, but also to use the interview questions as the research instruments. In fact, the purpose of using these existing theories is to begin with them and to attempt to apply them to the new and varied situation of heritage language learning. In other words, a particular concept which has general currency in a particular area (in this case, sociocultural theory and second language learning; motivation and identity

theory and SLA) has been used as an organizing device for the current research. The existing theories as a starting point for theoretical reflection can also stimulate questions during data analysis process (Strauss & Corbin, 1990)

### **3.8.1 Student focus group**

The size of a focus group ranges between six to 12 participants (Dörnyei, 2007) and between six to eight participants (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000). Both Dörnyei (2007) and Bauer and Gaskell (2000) consider one to two hours of interview appropriate for the focus groups. However, regarding the time constraints and limited access to student participants, the number of students attending focus groups was reduced to four students in each focus group, except S1 FG3 which contained three students. In addition, the interviews had to be conducted during students' recess time which was about 20 minutes. However, the interviews lasted more than 20 minutes and they were between 30-40 minutes. Those students with consent forms were observed in their natural classroom settings.

Before starting the student focus group interviews, students were asked to answer a number of questions to provide their demographic and biographical information (Appendix G). The goal of this survey was to collect information from Persian heritage language learners currently enrolled in a primary level of Persian community language schools in Sydney to better understand their backgrounds and their heritage language history. The demographic and biographical questions were amended form of the questions provided for Heritage Language survey conducted by National Heritage Language Resource Centre (NHLRC) (Carreira & Kagan, 2011). Then, in a focus group, students were asked semi-structured interview questions (Appendix H). The interview questions consisted of the questions which were used to reveal students' perception of their identity, their motivation for learning Persian language and their evaluation of current Persian language learning process at their school. The focus group interviews varied between 30 to 40 minutes. All focus group interviews were audio-

recorded. A summary of information regarding each school focus groups is demonstrated in Table 3.5.

**Table 3.5** Focus group information

School	Number of focus groups	Number of student participants in each focus group	Date of interview
School 1 (S1)	3	Focus group No.1 (N=4) Boy=1 Girl=3	05/05/12
		Focus group No.2 (N=4) Boy=2 Girl=2	12/05/12
		Focus group No.3 (N=3) Boy=0 Girl=3	1/09/12
School 2 (S2)	2	Focus group No.1 (N=4) Boy=2 Girl=2	15/09/12
		Focus group No.2 (N=4) Boy=3 Girl=1	13/10/12
School 3 (S3)	2	Focus group No.1 (N=4) Boy=4 Girl=0	20/10/12
		Focus group No. 2 (N=4) Boy=2 Girl=2	27/10/12
School 4 (S4)	2	Focus group No.1 (N=4) Boy=3 Girl=1	03/11/12
		Focus group No.2 (N=4) Boy=2 Girl=2	10/11/12

### 3.8.2. Semi-structured parent interviews

In the selection process of parent participants, the aim was to interview those parents whose child were interviewed and observed in the classroom. However, it was not possible as a number of parents did not returned their consent forms. Finally, nine parents (including a number of parents whose child was on the list of participants) gave permission and signed consent forms to be interviewed individually by the researcher. These interviews took place on Saturday mornings at the school when the students were attending their classes. All the parent interviews were conducted in Persian language based on the interviewee's call. The duration of interviews varied between 20 to 70 minutes.

Parent semi-structured interview questions (Appendix I) were designed to allow parents to reflect on the similar questions the researcher asked the student participants. Parent interviews were also audio recorded.

Summary information about the parent participants' interview is provided in Table 3.6.

**Table 3.6** Parent participants' interview information

School	Number of parent participants	Number of male and female	Date of interview
School 1 (S1)	5	Parent 1 (P1): male	28/04/12
		Parent 2 (P2): female	28/04/12
		Parent 3 (P3): female	05/05/12
		Parent 4 (P4): female	12/05/12
		Parent 5 (P5): female	01/09/12
School 2 (S2)	2	Parent 1 (P1): female	08/09/12
		Parent 2 (P2): female	08/09/12
School 3 (S3)	1	Parent 1 (P1): female	27/10/12
School 4 (S4)	1	Parent 1 (P1): female	03/11/12

### **3.8.3. Semi-structured teacher interviews**

Similar to focus group and parent interviews, the teacher interview process started with an introduction phase. The researcher introduced herself and welcomed the teacher participant. Then the purpose of the interview and its parameters in terms of length and confidentiality were outlined. The researcher also explained why the interview should be recorded. All the teacher interviews were conducted in Persian language based on the interviewee's call.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted individually with the seven teachers teaching Persian heritage language learners at primary level in the four Persian schools. These teachers were teaching students from year one to year six. Teacher interview questions (Appendix J) were designed to allow teachers to answer and comment on the similar questions the researcher asked the students about their identity and motivation regarding Persian language learning. The teacher interviews also included questions about their teaching background. The teacher interviews varied between 20 to 40 minutes. The teacher interviews were also audio recorded.

Summary information about the parent participants is provided in Table 3.7.

**Table 3.7** Teacher participants' interview information

School	Number of teacher participants	Number of male and female	Date of interview
School 1 (S1)	2	Teacher 1 (T1): female	28/04/12
		Teacher 2 (T2): female	05/05/12
School 2 (S2)	2	Teacher 1 (T1): female	15/09/12
		Teacher 2 (T2): female	22/09/12
School 3 (S3)	1	Teacher 1 (T1): female	27/10/12
School 4 (S4)	2	Teacher 1 (T1): female	03/11/12
		Teacher 2 (T2): female	10/11/12

#### **3.8.4. Classroom observation**

In a natural setting, the researcher as a non-participant observer followed a structured observation by focusing on recording specific behaviors (verbal and non-verbal) of Persian heritage language learners attending year one to year five of primary school Persian

community languages. It is to be noted that from the beginning of 2012, primary school became six years (instead of five years) in Iran. Therefore, a number of the classes observed included year 6 students as well. Classroom observation field notes were taken and an example of the field notes can be found in Appendix K. The running writing of the observed procedures of lessons, student-teacher and student-student interactions, verbal and non-verbal behaviors demonstrating students' motivation and identity were used and analysed later.

Table 3.8 demonstrates the summary of the process of classroom observation in each school.

**Table 3.8** Information on classroom observation

School	classes observed	Number of students attended	Time of classroom observation	Date of classroom observation
School 1	Class 1 (year 4)	Boy=3 Girl=4	10:15-11:30	28/04/12
	Class 2 (year 2)	Boy=0 Girl=5	10:15-11:30	05/05/12
	Class 3 (year 5/6)	Boy=0 Girl=5	10:15-11:30	01/09/12
School 2	Class 1 (different years)	Boy=4 Girl=3	10:15-11:30	15/09/12
	Class 2 (year 1)	Boy=3 Girl=2	10-11:30	13/10/12
School 3	Class1 (different years)	Boy=5 Girl=0	10:15-11:30	20/10/12
School 4	Class 1 (year 6 & year 2)	Boy=3 Girl=0	9:15-10:30	03/11/12
	Class 2 (different years including some high school students)	Boy=2 Girl=4	10:45-12	10/11/12

### 3.8.5. A summary of research questions and methods employed to answer the questions

So far the methods employed by the researcher to answer the research questions were presented in details. Table 3.9 represents the relationship between each research question, purpose and data sources:

**Table 3.9** Research questions and methods employed to answer the questions

<b>Research questions</b>	<b>Purpose</b>	<b>Data sources</b>
RQ1: What language resources do Persian heritage language learners have access to?	To identify the language availability and choice for the learners	- Student focus group data - Observation of Persian language classrooms
		Parent interview data
		Teacher interview data
RQ2: How is the learners' ethnic identity developed and achieved?	To identify language learners' ethnic identity achievement and development	- Student focus group data - Observation of Persian language classrooms
		Parent interview data
		Teacher interview data
RQ3: What principal motivators have primary roles for Persian language learning among these learners?	To identify language learners' principal motivators for learning Persian	- Student focus group data - Observation of Persian language classrooms
		Parent interview data
		Teacher interview data

### **3.9. Data Analysis**

As it is stated in chapter 2, Theoretical Background and Related Literature, under theoretical framework section, it is necessary to distinguish the approach to social research and the development of theory from research by choosing Middle-Range Theory (MRT) or Grounded Theory (GT) (Layder, 1993). While the former approach will lead to theory testing or theory verification, the latter results in theory generating. Through qualitative research method, this case study aims to uncover and understand what influences Persian language learning about which little is yet known. By choosing grounded theory method for data analysis, rather than testing the relationships among variables and theory-testing, this research aims to discover relevant categories such as learners' access to language resources, their motivation and ethnic identity and the relationship among them in the field of heritage language learning. Then the phenomena, Persian language learning among its heritage language learners, will be explained in the light of the theoretical framework evolving during this research without constraining to adhere to a previously developed theory.

By choosing a grounded theory approach for analysis of data, data coding process were conducted in accordance with the principles of grounded theory approach.

#### **3.9.1. Data coding**

By confirming using grounded theory as the approach to the current social research and the development of a theory which is growing out of the research data, the next step is to describe data coding and analysis techniques.

The nature of research questions and the answers the researcher seeks for the research questions, has influence on the specific coding choice (Saldaña, 2012). The epistemological questions of this research address theories of knowing and understanding the student participants' perceptions through triangulating students', parents' and teachers' data. These questions explore the participants' access to Persian language in different settings as well as their motivation and ethnic identity formation. The research questions are as follows:



What influences Persian language learning among Persian heritage language learners?

1. What language resources do Persian heritage language learners have access to?
2. How is learners' ethnic identity developed and achieved?
3. What principal motivators have primary roles for language learning among these learners?

As noted as one of the limitations of the study, although an iterative process was not followed in the process of data collection, an iterative and inductive process was conducted during the coding and analysis of data. The researcher started the data coding process by reading and re-reading of the transcriptions and coding the transcriptions line by line.

- Focus groups and interviews: transcriptions (and translations) of audio- recordings were coded according to three-step coding of grounded theory: open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Strauss & Corbin, 1990),
- Field notes from classroom observation were also coded similarly. Observer's Comments (OC) are included as descriptive detail.
- Simple frequencies from focus groups and interviews were reported from time to time.

#### **3.9.1.1. Coding process**

Coding is the basic analytical process through which the researcher gives a unit of language-based data a noticeable attribute in a form of a word or short phrase. This code represents a primary content and essence of data (Saldaña, 2012).

The coding process of this research commenced with initial and thorough readings of transcribed auto-recordings and classroom observation field notes. It is to be noted that all participants including students, parents and teachers answered the questions in Persian language. Therefore, transcribed auto-recordings in Persian language were translated into English language. The back translation method, as an instrument for assuring the quality of

translation between the data source and target language, was conducted with part of the research data.

Analysis of the field notes became the principal source of observation data. The analysis of the field notes (writing a running record of the observed procedures of lessons) focused on the specific incidences (verbal and non-verbal) of students and teachers during class time. The number of students attending the four schools and the classes observed was diverse and it showed uneven enrolments across the four schools. For instance, school three (S3) had the least number of students. Only five out of 13 students enrolled in S3 attended the S3 CL1 at the time of class observation. The school teacher and the school principal were dissatisfied with the number of students attending the school.

The three basic types of coding including “open” coding, “axial” coding and “selective” coding of grounded theory research, were employed for data analysis process.

### **Open Coding**

By the readings of the data and through an open-ended approach, known as “Open coding” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) or “Initial Coding” (Saldaña, 2012, p. 100) the researcher generated as many codes as was justified by the data. Through conducting open coding, the researcher gained new insights into the data by interpreting the phenomena as reflected in the data or by operating with a “clean slate”(Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 423). In fact, data were broken down, labelled, compared, conceptualized and categorized (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 61). Then, they are compared against each other for similarities as well as differences.

Conceptually similar ones were grouped together to form categories. Open coding process can employ different coding methods, according to Saldaña (2012, p. 100). In Vivo coding and descriptive coding are the examples of the coding methods.

In Vivo coding (verbatim coding , emic coding), as one of the methods, uses the identical language of participants as codes instead of using words or phrases generated by the researcher. This method is recommended in studies of young people to prioritize and honour

these participants' voices and to ground the analysis from their perception. Moreover, a grounded theorist uses In Vivo coding in order to keep the data rooted in the participants' own language (Saldaña, 2012, p. 61).

Descriptive coding (topic coding) as another method summarises an excerpt of data and gives a word or a short phrase (a topic) to the passage of qualitative data. For example, an ethnographer employs descriptive coding to data and categorizes the breadth of opinions demonstrated by different participants. (Saldaña, 2012, p. 88).

In addition to coding as a transition between data collection and data analysis, tentative ideas for codes are written down in a form of analytic memos. They serve "*as an additional code- and category-generating method*" (Saldaña, 2012, p. 51).

After a thorough readings and open coding, using both In Vivo and descriptive coding, for focus groups and interviews, the data were compared against each other for similarities and differences. Then the similar ones were grouped together to form categories. Descriptive coding was also applied while the researcher was analysing classroom observation field notes. Observer's Comments (OC) were also included.

An example of open coding process regarding the "attitudes and feelings" of Persian heritage language learners can be found in Appendix L.

The open coding process can be presented in a visual display. Henwood and Pidgeon (2003) recommend matrix data display which consist of three columns. The major code is in one column; then an example (or two) of a datum which supports the major code appears in the second column, followed by researcher's short interpretive summary.

The researcher applied both open coding and analytic memo writing and a list of categories (and subcategories) was developed. The list were employed to proceed to the next level of coding, "Axial Coding".

## **Axial Coding**

After open coding through which the data were flexibly broken down in order to identify categories, the researcher proceeded to the next stage of coding known as “Axial” coding. Through axial coding which was much more closed and restricted than open coding, the researcher was able to identify the core categories (and subcategories) essential to the research questions. At this stage, the researcher scrutinized the data to determine in what conditions or in what context a category was indicated. Further development of categories occurred in order to look for indications of them (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 423). In fact, the researcher returned to data and searched for the evidence that supported or refuted the state of the category. While in some situations the data supported the category and the statement of relationship was issued, in other situation the researcher came across a data that add disparity and depth of understanding to the statement of relationship. These alternative cases added density and variation to the theory. Consequently, the researcher were involved in the “emergence” and naming of themes (Bazeley, 2009, p. 7).

In this research, categories (and subcategories) essential to the research questions were identified through axial coding. Then, the researcher searched for indications of the categories whether they supported or contradicted the state of that category.

The categories were presented in a visual display such as a diagram providing an executive summary useful for both the researcher and the reader. Example of the axial coding procedure can be found in findings chapters.

## **Selective Coding**

Through selective coding which occurred in the later phases of a research, all categories unified shaped a central “core” theme or concept. This core theme was a product of coding, categorizing and analytic thinking and reflection. After identifying different themes through analysis of data, the researcher attempted to integrate those themes into a broader pattern or “theory”. The integration of themes provided a profound understanding and a visual model of

findings. As Strauss and Corbin (1990) assert, diagraming can be a very useful tool for presenting the applicable theory.

### **3.9.1.2. Analysis process**

The research participants (students, parents and teachers) answered the interview questions.

The data collected from the participants were separately analysed through the three stages of grounded theory coding illustrated above. Each group of the participants considered as an embedded unit of analysis. However, although the researcher studied a number of units of analysis such as parents, teachers and students, they all together comprised or informed a single case (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013, p. 6). Therefore, in a form of an embedded single-case design, each group of participants' data analysis were provided first and then through triangulation of data, a summary of findings was represented for each interview question.

Triangulation of data is considered an efficient way to reduce the chance of bias in a qualitative research. By triangulating the data through using different methods for data collection as well as using different data sources, a researcher may come to the same conclusion. This convergence demonstrates a strong validity of the research (Dörnyei, 2007).

In this research, different methods for data collection such as interviews and class observations were used. In addition, different data sources were used; which means the perspectives of different people such as students, parents and teachers were compared.

As an important starting point to analyse the data, data collected from each group of participants were described separately in details. In addition to a thick description, data were challenged, extended, and linked to indicate their full value. As the result, themes emerged to describe characteristics and boundaries and to provide a basis for comparative analysis. Then, different themes emerged across various research participants were compared and integrated in order to provide a profound and rich understanding of what was found (Bazeley, 2009, p. 7). Through flexibility and being open to the data, more distinctions and different emphasis were also found in the data.

In order to record results of data analysis in a more meaningful and coherent model or theory, the researcher followed three-step formula known as Describe-Compare-Relate which were developed by Bazeley (2009, pp. 8-9).

**Describe:** The context of the study and details about sources of data such as the demographic features of the research samples were outlined first. Through description, necessary background as well as a basis for comparative analysis was provided. Then, the first category, its characteristics and boundaries were described. For example, in terms of ethnic identity realization and labelling, how many students recognized themselves as Iranian and why? How did their parents think of their ethnic identity?

**Compare:** Diversities in the characteristics and boundaries for just one category were compared across divergent demographic groups. For example, in terms of ethnic identity realization and labelling, whether it was expressed differently by diverse demographics by asking questions such as what, who, why, when. Meaningful associations were recorded in order to stimulate further questions in mind. An absence of a meaningful association was recognized as a variation of the phenomena (or negative cases) in order to challenge generalization and to make a more solid theory.

**Relate:** A category or theme were related to other categories or themes which were elaborated hitherto. As Bazeley (2009, p. 8) recommended, coding paradigm were used to assist the researcher. Therefore, the questions such as “under what circumstances does this category arise?” or “what actions/interactions/ strategies are involved?” were asked and the results, which were found (or not found) were recorded.

These three steps were repeated for each set of the data. Relating different categories helped structure the research data and further develop the integrating theory.

### **3.10. Assessing the quality of the research design**

By providing the details of the research design, data collection and data analysis method; this embedded single-case study is being assessed in terms of the study validity and reliability.

However, instead of using those terms mainly related to a quantitative methodology, this study will be assessed concerning the study credibility (internal validity), transferability (external validity), and dependability (reliability).

Through the analytic process the researcher encountered some analytic dilemmas (researcher accountability and trustworthiness). A number of the research participants did not answer a number of the interview questions.

### **3.10.1. Study credibility and trustworthiness**

In a case study research, the concern over study credibility and trustworthiness may be related to “making inferences” (Yin, 2013). In the case of this study, it was anticipated that an event could not be directly observed based on the evidences collected such as interviews and focus groups. However, using various kinds of triangulation such as different rigorous methods of qualitative data collection and using different data sources, indicates the study credibility.

### **3.10.2. Study transferability**

Transferability refers to the problem of knowing whether the results of the study can be generalized or transferred to other contexts (Yin, 2013). By description of the research participants, the context in which the research were carried out and the assumptions that were central to the research, the transferability of the study were enhanced. Designing an embedded single case study (instead of a single case study) also offered a robust basis for the study transferability.

### **3.10.3. Study dependability**

Dependability, the qualitative counterpart of reliability in quantitative research, is concerned with whether the same findings and conclusions will be obtained if a second investigator follows the same procedures as described by the first investigator. The researcher’s subjective interpretation of the data was assessed by employing a second coder to code a part of transcription.

### **3.11. Researcher role**

In order for the readers of the study to understand the relationship between the researcher and the participants, the researcher will describe her own role thoroughly. It is a critical component of the written report, according to Janesick (2000) and the researcher must honestly probe her biases and attempts to minimize her obtrusiveness in the field and in the text produced (Schwandt, 2000). This study acknowledges the role and assumptions of the researcher, a member of Persian community in Sydney. Furthermore, qualitative research outcome is ultimately the product of the researcher's subjective interpretation of data (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992) and results of the study may be influenced by the researcher's personal biases and interpretation (Russell & Kelly, 2002)

The researcher is a member of Persian community living in Sydney for about seven years. Before the researcher starts her study in 2011, her son and her daughter attended one of these schools in, but they stopped Persian language learning after one and half year participation at the school. At the same time the researcher taught one of the classes in that school for one year.

The researcher acknowledges that there may be other Persian Community schools in Sydney of which she is not aware. Therefore, for data collection purposes, she could only rely on the four schools registered by NSW Department of Education and Training (DET). At the time of this research the researcher had no involvement in the four schools and her role must be described as the researcher only. She worked alone both in the collection and analysis of the data. However, based on the interviewee's call, all the interviews were conducted in Persian language. The researcher acknowledges that it might regard as a validity threat to the study, known as "The Hawthorne effect". "The reason for such an irrational effect is that participants perform differently when they know they are being studied." (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 53).



A transcriber assisted to transcribe the audio files. Based on recommendations of the supervisor and in order to prevent research biases, all of the transcriptions were translated by employing an accredited translator.

In addition to interview, a number of Persian classes were observed. In order to obtain valid data, the researcher strived to minimize the negative impact of the “observer effect” by maintaining classroom events as natural as possible (Dörnyei, 2007).

### **3.12. Issues of ethics and consent**

Similar to most research in education, this research concerns human’s lives, hence it certainly involves ethical issues. The primary principle of research ethics is no harm (mental or physical) should come to the respondents as the result of their participation (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 67).

The researcher adopts the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007); and to other relevant legislation and guidelines. The principle issue was the engagement of Persian heritage language learners attending Persian community languages schools in Sydney, for classroom observation and focus group interviews, during 2012. After gaining ethics approval from Macquarie University Ethics committee, informed permission sought from the principals of the four Persian community language schools. Then willing participants including students, parents and teachers were informed about the principal approval. As noted in section 3.6 above, information and consent forms for the research participants were prepared to seek their approval and permission for participation.

All participants were advised that their participation in the research was entirely voluntary and they could withdraw from participation at any time without penalty. They were also advised of contact details for the university body to which they could make complain.

The researcher also appreciated that students may experience some distraction or embarrassment in being observed, or in reflecting their opinion during focus group interviews. The researcher’s aim was to make every effort to put them at their ease.

To ensure anonymity, students, parents and teachers have been identified with pseudonyms and all participant data have been kept confidential. The process of de-identification for the sake of research participants' privacy is as follows. Each school was given a number, for example S1, S2. Each FG was specified with a number for instance, FG1, FG2. Every one of the students, parents and teachers was given a number, for example, St1, P1, and T1. Therefore, S1 FG1 St1 meant the student participant was the student number 1 from focus group number 1 and from school number 1. Similarly, S1 P1 meant the parent participant was parent number 1 from school number 1. S1 T1 meant the teacher participant was teacher number 1 from school number 1.

### **3.13. Limitations of the study**

Several issues are considered as the limitations of this study:

*Sample size:* Quality qualitative research is very “labour-intensive” and therefore it involves much smaller samples than quantitative research, according to Dörnyei (2007, p. 38). This is the most frequent criticism from quantitative researchers whose concern is the idiosyncratic nature of the small participant samples investigated by the qualitative researcher.

*Generalizability:* As a weakness of a qualitative research, the specific conditions or insights of a project may not be generalized broadly to other and the issue of the “potential over-reading” may happen, according to Yates (2003, p. 224). Considering this issue, there might be other schools teaching Persian as heritage language in Sydney and in other Australian cities. Therefore the data of this project may not completely reflect the whole picture of Persian language teaching and learning in Australia.

*Researcher role:* Qualitative research outcome is ultimately the product of the researcher's subjective interpretation of data and the researcher is the main “measurement device” in the study. Therefore, it should be assured that results of the study are not influenced by the researcher's personal biases and interpretation (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 41). Regarding this study, the researcher, as noted, is a member of Persian community, a parent and a former teacher in

one of the Persian community school in Sydney. Her personal perspective informs this research and at the same time she is aware of the need to maintain an objective researcher role.

*The limitation of this study in regard to iterative, inductive process of data collection:* In grounded theory, as soon as the first section of data is collected, the analysis process begins. It is a basic foundation of grounded theory because it directs the next interviews and observations. Therefore, collecting much of the data prior to the beginning of the data analysis interrupts the basic foundation (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Because of the researcher's data collection restrictions and constraint of having access to the research sites and participants, the process of data collection was not followed according to the basics of grounded theory and the researcher was not able to follow "constant comparison analysis" for further data collection. Therefore, the data were collected first and the process of a systematic data analysis was conducted subsequently.

*The limitations of the generated theory:* with an emphasis on Grounded Theory to discover relevant categories and the relationship among those categories in the context of Persian language learning as a heritage language, the researcher could not, in confidence, formulate a theory from this study due to a limited amount of participants and fieldwork time in the classrooms. However, based on the contexts of this study, a theory did develop and is explicated.

## **Chapter 4: Findings 1: Persian heritage learners' language availability and choice**

*“The limits of your language are the limits of your world.”*

*Ludwig Wittgenstein*

## **4.1. Overview of Chapter four to Chapter nine**

The theoretical context of the research project was established in Chapter 2 and the methods used to investigate and to find the answers for research questions were detailed in Chapter 3 of this thesis.

The Chapters four to eight present the research findings. Each chapter is informed by data collected through these sources of empirical data:

- 1) Focus group data (Student interviews)
- 2) Parent interview
- 3) Teacher interview
- 4) Class observations

Data from the audio-recordings of interviews were transcribed, translated and coded according to grounded theory approach. The lessons observed were analysed by using the field notes. Field notes were coded using the grounded theory coding process and based on the three research questions (Persian heritage learners' language availability and choice, Persian heritage learners' ethnic identity development and achievement, and Persian heritage learners' principal motivators for language learning). The data collected through the sources of empirical data noted above were analysed, triangulated and synthesized to answer the research questions. Each research question is informed by data collected through the sources of empirical data noted above.

Due to complexity of the data and extensive analysis of each research question, each chapter will focus on a research question separately and provides an analysis of the related data and the findings in order to answer the related research question of the project. An overview of the research questions and the overview of the Chapters four to eight are as follows:

The main Research Question: What influences Persian heritage language learning among its heritage language learners?

Research Question 1: What language resources do Persian heritage language learners have access to?

Research Question 2: How is learners' ethnic identity developed and achieved?

Research Question 3: What principal motivators have primary roles for language learning among these learners?

Chapter four will provide the answer to the first research question: "What language resources do Persian heritage language learners have access to?"

Chapter five provides the findings to answer the second research question: "How is learners' ethnic identity developed and achieved?"

Chapter six will present and discuss the data to answer the third research question: "What principal motivators have primary roles for language learning among these learners?"

Chapter seven will describe and analyse the data collected to evaluate current Persian language programs offered in the four schools and to present the research participants' suggestions for Persian language learning programs improvement.

Chapter eight will provide and analyse the data related to "parent role and Persian heritage language learning." Because of significant impact of parent role on heritage language learning (Li, 2006; Park & Sarkar, 2007) and based on the findings of the pilot study which identified contribution of parent role, this chapter will discuss the findings which emerged from this research.

Chapter 9 will answer the main research question: "What influences Persian heritage language learning among its heritage language learners?" The chapter will discuss the overall findings of the study by triangulating the findings presented in chapters four to eight and will demonstrate a number of conclusions from the research project.

As the data are complex visual representation of the structure of the chapters four, five and six is presented at the beginning of the chapters.

## **4.2. Overview of chapter 4**

As it is noted above, having established the theoretical framework of the project and through a qualitative case study method, chapter 4 presents the research findings for the research question 1: “What language resources do Persian heritage language learners have access to? The sources of empirical data including students’ focus group interview, parents’ and teachers’ individual interviews, and class observations provided the grounding for triangulation of data in order to answer question 1.

## **4.3. Persian heritage learners’ language availability and choice**

Having extensive access to a language through a variety of resources increases language learner’s knowledge of that language and the opportunity to use it (Norton & Toohey, 2011). In order to investigate what language resources are available for Persian heritage language learners, their access to the language through different resources was assessed. In the sections 4.3.1, 4.3.2 and 4.3.3, the issue of languages, which are spoken with different interlocutors such as parents, siblings, friends and teachers in different settings such as home and school, was explored.

In the section 4.3.4 students’ access to Persian language resources was examined by asking students if they watched Iranian movies (Hinton, 2001) or listened to Iranian music. Similarly, parents and teachers were asked if they provided Persian language resources for the students to watch Iranian movies or listen to Iranian music.

In the section 4.3.5 frequency of visiting the country of origin, Iran, as a means of retaining close ties to their homeland was explored (Hinton, 2001; Mucherah, 2008; Wu, 2005).

Students and parents were asked the interview questions in order to understand the role and impact of frequency of visiting Iran on students’ language knowledge and language use.

Teachers were not asked about students’ frequency of visiting Iran; however, they referred to it in other interview questions.

Table 4.1 provides a visual presentation of the sections 4.3.1 to 4.3.5 in details.

**Table 4.1** Structure of chapter 4: Persian heritage learners' language availability and choice

Section	Data/ data discussion	Areas of evidence: discussion
4.3.1 RQ1: Student data: language(s) availability and choice at home and at school	4.3.1.1 Focus group raw data: language(s) availability and choice at home and at school	
	4.3.1.2 Students data discussion: language(s) availability and choice at home and at school	4.3.1.2.1 Speaking Persian language only
		4.3.1.2.2 Speaking English language only 4.3.1.2.3 Speaking both languages
	4.3.1.3 Summary discussion: student data	
4.3.2 RQ1: Parent data: child's language(s) availability and choice at home and at school	4.3.2.1 Parents' interview raw data: child's language(s) availability and choice at home and at school	
	4.3.2.2 Parent data discussion: child's language(s) availability and choice at home and at school	4.3.2.2.1 Parent perception: children speaking Persian only
		4.3.2.2.2 Parent perception: children speaking English only  4.3.2.2.3 Parent perception: children speaking both languages
	4.3.2.3 Summary discussion: parent data	
4.3.3 RQ1: Teacher data: students' language(s) availability and choice at home and at school	4.3.3.1 Teacher interview raw data: students' language(s) availability and choice at home and at school	
	4.3.3.2 Teacher data discussion: students' language(s) availability and choice at home and at school	4.3.3.2.1 Teachers' perceptions: students' speaking Persian only



Section	Data/ data discussion	Areas of evidence: discussion
		4.3.3.2.2 Teachers' perceptions: students' speaking English only
		4.3.3.2.3 Teachers' perceptions: students' speaking both languages
	4.3.3.3 Summary discussion: teacher data	
	4.3.3.4 triangulation of data	
4.3.4 RQ1: Participant data: watching Iranian movies/listening to Iranian music	4.3.4.1 Student data discussion: watching Iranian movies/listening to Iranian music	
	4.3.4.2 Parent data discussion: child's watching Iranian movies/listening to Iranian music	
	4.3.4.3 Teacher data discussion: students' watching Iranian movies/listening to Iranian music	
	4.3.4.4 Triangulation of data	
4.3.5 Participant data: frequency of visiting Iran	4.3.5.1 Student data discussion: frequency of visiting Iran	
	4.3.5.2 Parent data discussion: frequency of visiting Iran	
	4.3.5.3 Teacher data discussion: frequency of visiting Iran	
	4.3.5.4 Triangulation of data	
	4.3.5.5 Observation data discussion: Persian heritage learners' language availability and choice	
4.3.6 RQ1 Result: Persian heritage learners' language availability and choice		

#### **4.3.1 RQ1 Student data: language(s) availability and choice at home and at school**

As mentioned in Chapter One, under theoretical framework, a research resource map consists of four elements: *context*, *setting*, *situated activity* and *self*. In this section, the focus of data analysis will be on setting and situated activities in Persian language learning.

*Setting*, according to Norton (2000, p. xvi), provides language learning opportunities for the language learner. Layder (1993) categorises setting to work-related and non-work related settings. While work-related setting provides a more formal situation in which language learning happens, non-work related one offers a more informal atmosphere for language learning.

In this research, Persian community language schools operating on Saturday mornings constitute the work-related setting. Home environment in which language learners have access to language resources informally creates a non-work related setting.

*Situated activity*, as another element of a research resource map, focuses on social activities involving different participants in different settings. These activities affect or are affected by both the settings in which they occur as well as subjective dispositions of individuals involved (Layder, 1993, p. 72).

Based on this study, the situated activity comprises Persian heritage language learners' access to language resources through different social activities. For instance, students' language choice in different settings with different individuals were examined in detail. Therefore the situated activities and the settings are as follows:

- a) Speaking Persian/English language in a non-work related setting
  - Speaking Persian/English language with parents at home
  - Speaking Persian/English language with siblings at home
- b) Speaking Persian/English language in a work-related setting:
  - Speaking Persian/English language with teachers at Persian school

- Speaking Persian/English language with friends at Persian school

Students were asked about the language they spoke at home and at school with different interlocutors such as parents, siblings, teachers and friends.

#### **4.3.1.1 Student focus group raw data: language(s) availability and choice at home and at school**

Table 4.2 below displays the number of students in focus groups who, according to the transcribed texts of the focus groups, speak Persian, English or both languages with their parents, siblings, friends and teachers at home and at school.

**Table 4.2** Total number of students speaking Persian, English or both with parents, siblings, friends and teachers

	Total number of students reporting that they Speak Persian with	Total number of students reporting that they Speak English with	Total number of students reporting that they Speak both languages with
Mothers	26/35	17/35	10/35
Fathers	24/35	21/35	12/35
Siblings	5/30	11/30	1/30
Friends at Persian school	5/35	29/35	1/35
Teachers	9/35		

A number of dominant features apparent from table 4.4 are as follows:

1. Persian was mostly spoken with mothers. 74% of total students (26 of 35) spoke Persian language with their mothers.
2. English was generally spoken with fathers. 60% of total students (21 of 35) spoke English with their fathers. In other words, English was mostly spoken with fathers. The findings contradicts with the findings of the study of Persian heritage language learners in Sweden (Namei, 2008) which demonstrated that mother spoke Swedish with children more than fathers .
3. Considering that a number of students' participants had no siblings, 36% of total students (11 of 30) spoke English with their siblings.
4. English was frequently spoken with Iranian friends at Persian school. 83% of total students (29 of 35) spoke English at Persian school with their friends.
5. None of the students spoke English with their teacher at Persian school. However, 25% (9 of 35) students emphasized that they spoke Persian with their teachers.

#### **4.3.1.2 Students data discussion: language(s) availability and choice at home and at school**

Through a comprehensive reading of the transcription of student participants' focus group data and following an open coding process, the researcher generated as many codes related to the languages availability and choice as were justified by the data. Different codes were categorized and five patterns were developed regarding students' language(s) availability and choice:

1. Persian was the only language spoken.
2. English was the only language spoken.
3. Both Persian and English were spoken but speaking Persian language was more frequent (**Persian-English**).

4. Both English and Persian were spoken but speaking English language was more frequent (**English**-Persian).
5. Both languages were spoken more or less equally (Persian-English).

These five categories were identified by thorough scrutinizing of student focus group data. These five different categories, as evidence of language(s) availability and choice, will be summarised in the three sections below and will be discussed by providing students' quotes.

#### **4.3.1.2.1 Speaking Persian language only**

Students articulated different reasons for speaking Persian language. Their reasons together with a number of examples are provided here.

Persian language was spoken with mothers because of their lack of English language proficiency as a main reason. For example, S3 FG1 St3 said: *"I speak Persian with my mom because her English is not good."* (Some parents pretend that they don't know English and students have to speak Persian with them. Some believe it works.).

Mothers were very strict for speaking Persian language and therefore they forced their children to speak Persian language. For instance, S4 FG1 St4 stated: *"I speak English most of the time but my mom gets angry then I have to speak Persian too. So my mom wants me to speak Persian."*

Students' data showed that they spoke Persian language more with parents and teachers. They spoke Persian with their friends in the classroom because of the presence of their teacher. For example, S1 FG3 St1 asserted: *"we speak Persian with our teacher."* For instance, S1 FG1 St1, St2 & St3 said: *"We speak Persian in the classroom."*

Persian language was spoken with adults (and a number of Iranian friends) because of their lack of English language proficiency. Students were also inclined to speak Persian language with adults because of the compliments and satisfaction they receive. For example, S1 FG1 St2 said: *"I try to speak Persian with adults because they like it if I speak Persian with them."* (Extrinsic motivation results in students' willingness to speak Persian language. On the

other hand, extrinsic motivation (such as complement and rewards from others) results in positive attitudes about Persian language learning among students. Noels (2005, p. 288) asserted that intrinsic motivation was more strongly linked to positive attitudes. Therefore, it can be said that positive attitudes and speaking Persian language are reciprocal.

Persian language was also used as a secret code. For instance, S1 FG2 St1 said: “*If there is someone, I want to say something that I don’t want others to know, then I speak Persian.*”

Persian language considered to be a context-specific tool or secret language (Carreira & Kagan, 2011) for Persian learners to achieve their purpose.

#### **4.3.1.2.2 Speaking English language only**

Students articulated different reasons for speaking English language. Their reasons together with a number of examples are provided here.

Student data demonstrated that they were accustomed to speak English during the week and especially in their Australian schools. Moreover, for a number of students, they spoke more English than Persian at home with their parents and siblings. For example, S2 FG2 St3 & St4 said: “*No we (whole family) don’t speak Persian at home but we like to speak it.*” S2 FG1 St3 & St4: “*We speak English (my parents and my brother.)*” S4 FG1 St1 said: “*(I speak) English. More English and less Persian with my sister.*” S4 FG1 St4 asserted: “*I speak English with my brother. I speak a little Persian with him.*”

Student data suggested that English was spoken with Iranian friends especially during recess time at Persian school. For example, S1 FG1 St1 & St2 & St3 stated: “*we speak English during break time.*” S1 FG2 St1 said: “*We mostly speak English at school (Persian school).*” S3 FG1 St1, St2 & St3 asserted: “*we speak English with our Iranian friends.*” Therefore they were more at ease to speak and to express their emotion using English language. For instance, S1 FG3 St2 said: “*...it’s much easier to speak English.*” Moreover, students did not feel the need to speak Persian so they spoke English. For instance, S1 FG3 St1 said: “*... I came here people don’t know Persian so I should speak in English.*”

In addition to the reasons above, students provided other reasons for speaking English. In regard to certain topics, they felt more comfortable to speak in English. For instance, S2 FG1 St3 said: *"I for example like to speak Persian most of the time but when I talk to my friends about a topic for example about football it's easier to talk in English and I am more comfortable to talk in English."* The "Topic" spoken about, according to Fishman (2000, p. 90), can have influence on the language chosen. The other reason was that they were not confident about their Persian language ability and therefore they were not comfortable with it. For example, S2 FG1 St2 said: *"when I speak Persian in Persian school sometimes I think something is wrong and I am not speaking correctly. Sometimes I think what I am saying in Persian is not correct so I am not comfortable."* (Lack of confidence for Persian language speaking proficiency prevents students to speak the language.).

Their interlocutors' lack of Persian language proficiency prevented them to speak the language. For example, S2 FG1 St1 stated: *"I like to speak Persian in Persian school but I have to talk with some of them in English because they don't know Persian."*

#### **4.3.1.2.3 Speaking both languages**

Regarding speaking both languages, three different patterns were identified. First, Both Persian and English were spoken but Persian was dominant language at home. Students and family members sometimes spoke English too but Persian language was more frequent (**Persian-English**). Persian was mostly spoken at home and with mothers. English was sometimes spoken at home with fathers because they were more proficient in speaking English language than mothers. For example, S3 FG1 St3 said: *"My father knows English very well so I speak English with him. I speak Persian with my mom because her English is not good."* Fathers as well as other members of family required to improve their English language. For example, S1 FG1 St3 asserted: *"I talk with my father in English more than in Persian like S1 FG1 St2 because he (my father) needs to improve his English."* For instance, S1 FG1 St4 stated: *"We always speak Persian at home, but my mother and I sometimes speak*

*English with my little brother to teach him English.*” Fathers spoke in English when they taught their children Persian or English subjects because it was easier for students to understand in English. For example, S4 FG2 St2 said: *“When I study with my father we speak English because I understand it better. Even when I am studying Persian he speaks in English because sometimes I can’t understand it and he says it in English. My mom too.”* He speaks English with his father because he understands in English better than in Persian. Even for studying Persian they speak English as he understands it better. He speaks English with his mom too when he is studying. His mom gets angry when his sister speaks English with him. Second, both English and Persian were spoken at home and at school but speaking English language was more frequent (**English**-Persian). Most of the students demonstrated they spoke English at home and at school with their siblings and their friends. However, for a number of them, their mothers’ and their teachers’ insistence prevented them to speak English. For instance, S4 FG1 St4 stated: *“I speak English most of the time but my mom gets angry then I have to speak Persian too. So my mom wants me to speak Persian.”*

Finally, both languages were spoken more or less equally (Persian-English) at home and at school. A number of student participants’ data demonstrated that both English and Persian were spoken with parents and siblings as well as Iranian friends. For instance, S4 FG2 St4 said: *“I speak both Persian and English with my sister.”* S3 FG2 St4 stated: *“I speak Persian and English with my parents.”*

#### **4.3.1.3. Summary discussion: student data**

This discussion has analysed student data relating to language availability and choice for students and therefore five patterns were emerged from data. Table 4.3 below presents a mapping of a variety of the languages to case study students. The left-hand column displays a variety of languages and the right-hand column shows the reasons for language availability and choice.



**Table 4.3** Researcher's mapping of students' variety of languages availability and choice reported by students

Variety of the languages availability and choice for case study students	The reasons provided by case study students
Persian language	<p>-Students have to speak Persian language due to parents' (and especially mothers') insistence (interlocutor's position of power).</p> <p>-Students speak Persian language with their teachers in the classroom at Persian school (interlocutor's position of power).</p> <p>-Students speak Persian with adults to satisfy them and to receive their complement [extrinsic motivation (introjected regulation) by interlocutor]</p> <p>-Students speak Persian language because of their interlocutors' lack of English language proficiency [extrinsic motivation (identified regulation) by interlocutor]</p> <p>-Students speak Persian language as a secret code.</p>
English language	<p>- Students speak English language because they are used to speak English language.</p> <p>-Students speak English language because it is easier for them.</p> <p>-Students speak English in situations where there is no need to speak Persian language.</p>

Variety of the languages availability and choice for case study students	The reasons provided by case study students
	<p>-Students speak English language because of their lack of confidence of their Persian language proficiency especially in some topics.</p> <p>-Students speak English with their Iranian friends especially during recess time because of their interlocutors' lack of Persian language proficiency.</p> <p>-Students mostly speak English with their siblings.</p> <p>-students speak English at home because English is dominant language at home.</p>
Both Persian and English languages	<p>-Students speak Persian language with their mothers but they often speak English language with their fathers.</p> <p>-Students show that even though Persian is dominant language at home, English is spoken due to fathers' English language proficiency or to improve family members' English language.</p> <p>Students indicate that both languages are spoken equally at home.</p>

Having demonstrated the student participants' data about language availability and choice, the discussion summarises the arising themes described as follows. A number of case study students' choice of language is completely depending on their interlocutors' position of power. Parents, significantly mothers, and teachers are in the position of power and therefore students choose to speak Persian language with them. Interlocutors as extrinsic motivators provide the opportunity for the learners to choose the language. A number of case study students choose to speak Persian language because of rewards or compliments they receive from their interlocutors. This kind of extrinsic motivation has been labelled introjected regulation (Noels, 2005, p. 287). It is more internal motivation but it is inconsistent because once the incentives disappear, it is unlikely that the student will continue to exert effort to speak Persian language. The interlocutors' lack of English language proficiency is another extrinsic motivator for students to speak Persian language. However, it shows students' identified regulation and more self-determination (Noels, 2005, p. 287). The student continues to put effort to speak Persian language in order to communicate with others. Hence, the impact of interlocutor is highlighted so far.

Students' need, language competence and self-confidence are determinant for their language choice. A common statement among a number of case study students is the lack of need to speak or learn Persian language in an English language environment and indeed at home. In addition, while students' and interlocutors' English language competence provides the situation for students to speak it at ease, students' lack of confidence in speaking Persian language prevents them to speak in Persian language. Peer support is reflected in students' intention to speak English language in order to improve others' English language proficiency. It is apparent from data that students' language availability and choice greatly rely on their interlocutors and specifically on the social practices they are involved. The more language input and knowledge they receive from interlocutors through interaction and speaking opportunities, the more confident and competent they become.

The discussion of data continues to reflect parents' and teachers' data respectively in order to reach an integrated discussion.

#### **4.3.2. RQ1 Parent data: child's language(s) availability and choice at home and at school**

Following the same rationale and framework used for students' data collection and analysis regarding language(s) availability and choice at home and at school, parents' data analysis are as follows.

##### **4.3.2.1 Parent interview raw data: child's language(s) availability and choice at home and at school**

According to the transcribed texts of parents' individual interviews, Table 4.4 below demonstrates parents' raw data for child's language(s) availability and choice at home and at school.

**Table 4.4** Total number of parents who reported their child's language availability and choice

	Total number of parents who report that their child speaks Persian with	Total number of parents who report that their child speaks English with
Mothers	9/9	1/9
Fathers	6/9	3/9
Siblings	4/9	6/9
Friends	4/9	7/9
Teachers	9/9	0/9

The table illustrates that:

1. All parents suggested that their children spoke Persian language with them and only one mother demonstrated that her child spoke both English and Persian language with her.
2. While 66.6% of parents showed their children spoke Persian with their fathers, 33.3% showed that their children spoke English with their fathers.
3. 66.6% of parents indicated that their children spoke English with their siblings.
4. 77.7% of parents showed that their children spoke English with their Iranian friends.
5. All parents believed that their children spoke Persian language with their teachers at Persian school.

#### **4.3.2.2. Parent data discussion: child's language(s) availability and choice at home and at school**

The researcher generated as many codes related to the children's languages availability and choice as were justified by the data by a profound reading of the transcription of parents' individual interview data and following an open coding process.

Similar to students' data, five patterns were developed regarding children's language(s) availability and choice:

1. Persian was the only language spoken.
2. English was the only language spoken.
3. Both Persian and English were spoken but speaking Persian language was more frequent (**Persian**-English).
4. Both English and Persian were spoken but speaking English language was more frequent (**English**-Persian).
5. Both languages were spoken equally (Persian-English)

In the following sections, evidence of language(s) availability and choice from parents' data will be discussed by providing a number of parents' quotes.

#### **4.3.2.2.1 Parents perception: children speaking Persian only**

Parents' data suggested that their children spoke only Persian language with them and especially with mothers. For instance, S1 P1 said: *"They (his children) speak Persian with us."* S3 P1 asserted: *"We speak Persian. We only speak Persian."* S4 P1 stated: *"They (her children) speak Persian with me (their mother)."* Children spoke Persian language because their interlocutors' Persian language ability had impact on their decision to speak Persian. For example, S2 P1 said: *"If she knows that her Iranian friends can speak Persian she will speak Persian with them."* S1 P1 stated: *"she prefers to speak Persian with those who have been here for only one or two years, as she feels they might not understand English very well."* Speaking person language was also imposed on them and they had to speak Persian language with their parents and in their Persian classroom. For instance, S1 P1 said: *"We actually prefer that they speak Persian with us."* S3 P1: *"He has cousins, sometimes they speak English. We tell them they should speak Persian at home. I stress that they should speak Persian."* S1 P3 stated: *"She speaks more in Persian in the classroom."*

Children spoke Persian language to receive parents' approval and satisfaction. For example, S1 P3 asserted: *"If I am there (in the Persian school) they speak Persian with me as they want to show me that they are speaking Persian."* Children also spoke Persian with adults who spoke in Persian language. For instance, S2 P1 said: *"She speaks Persian with adults who speak Persian."*

Parents' data seemed to indicate that their children spoke Persian language as a secret code. It was in accordance with students' data. For example, S2 P2 asserted: *"... When someone who knows English is around and he does not know Persian they speak in Persian when they don't want others understand what they are talking about."*

#### **4.3.2.2.2 Parent perception: children speaking English only**

Parent perception seemed to indicate that their children spoke English with their siblings and their Iranian friends in Persian school, though outside the classroom. For example, S1 P4

stated: *"They (my son and my daughter) talk to each other in English."* S1 P5 said:

*"Unfortunately, they prefer to speak in English with their Iranian friends, even though they are Iranian. They used to speak in Persian with each other inside the classroom. But outside the classroom and in the school yard, they used to speak in English. I tried to find it and that was interesting to me."* Low levels of Persian language usage by children provoked parents' sense of loss and regret. Parents were also keen to know why their children refused to speak Persian language.

Children's interlocutor had impact on their choice of language. If their interlocutor was competent in English, children preferred to speak English because it was easier for them to speak, to understand and to express their emotions in English. As an example, parents' data approved that their children spoke English with their fathers as their English was better than Persian. For instance, S1 P3 said: *"... my husband mostly speaks English as he has been living in this country for a long time from his childhood and he is stronger in English than Persian, so it is easier for him to speak English."* S1 P1 asserted: *"They prefer to speak English with those who have a considerable knowledge of English because there are things they understand better in English. They are more capable of expressing their emotions in English."* In sum, the more competent they are in a language, the more inclined they are to speak the language. Children don't speak because they are not proficient in speaking Persian language. Children's actual goal for learning Persian language is to be able to communicate properly.

Students spoke English because of their less opportunity at home and outside to speak Persian language. For example, S1 P3 Said: *"... my husband mostly speaks English as he has been living in this country for a long time from his childhood and he is stronger in English than Persian, so it is easier for him to speak English. So we speak both languages. My children speak both languages, but mainly speak English. When they talk to me, they talk in English and sometimes both but I reply in Persian but my husband usually replies in English."*

#### 4.3.2.2.3 Parent perception: children speaking both languages

Parent data showed that in parents' perception, mothers spoke and replied in Persian even though their children mainly spoke English with them. For instance, S1 P3 said: *"When they talk to me, they talk in English and sometimes both but I reply in Persian."* S1 P4 stated: *"we talk with them in Persian and they answer us in English."* However, most of the students' data suggested that they only spoke Persian with their mothers.

#### 4.3.2.3 Summary discussion: parent data

This discussion has analysed parents' data relating to language availability and choice for students. Similar to students' data, five patterns emerged from parent data. Table 4.5 below presents a mapping of a variety of the languages to case study students reported by parents. The left-hand column displays a variety of languages and the right-hand column shows the reasons for language availability and choice identified by parents.

**Table 4.5** Mapping of students' variety of languages availability and choice as reported by parents

<b>Variety of the languages availability and choice for case study students reported by parents</b>	<b>The reasons provided by parents</b>
Persian language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Children have to speak Persian language due to parents' (and especially mothers' insistence. They are not free to choose their preferred language</li><li>-Children speak Persian language with their Iranian friends in the classroom at Persian school (teachers' position of power).</li><li>-Children speak Persian with adults to satisfy them and to receive their complement [extrinsic motivation (introjected</li></ul>



<b>Variety of the languages availability and choice for case study students reported by parents</b>	<b>The reasons provided by parents</b>
	<p>regulation) by interlocutor] (it is also mentioned by parents about their children attitudes and feelings)</p> <p>-Children speak Persian language because of their interlocutors' lack of English language proficiency [extrinsic motivation (identified regulation) by interlocutor]</p> <p>-Children speak Persian language as a secret code.</p>
English language	<p>- Children speak English language because they are used to speak it.</p> <p>-Students speak English language because it is easier for them due to their English language proficiency.</p> <p>-Students speak English with their Iranian friends especially during recess time. (Parents do not provide the reason for that but students' reason is their own and/or their interlocutors' lack of Persian language competence.)</p> <p>-Children mostly speak English with their siblings.</p> <p>-Children speak English at home because of bilingual context at home and dominance of English outside home resulting in their less opportunity to speak Persian language.</p>
Both Persian and English languages	<p>-Children speak Persian language with their mothers but they often speak English language with their fathers.</p>

<b>Variety of the languages availability and choice for case study students reported by parents</b>	<b>The reasons provided by parents</b>
	<p>-children speak both languages while Persian is dominant language at home. English is spoken due to fathers' English language proficiency.</p> <p>-Children speak Persian language with adults and English language with other children.</p>

Having demonstrated the parents' perceptions of language availability and choice, the discussion summarises the arising themes described as follows. A number of children's choice of language is comprehensively depending on their interlocutors' position of power. Parents, significantly mothers, and teachers are in the position of power and therefore children choose to speak Persian language with them. Interlocutors as extrinsic motivators also have influence on learners' language choice. Their interlocutors' lack of English language proficiency is another extrinsic motivation for students to speak Persian language.

Children's language competence is determinant for their language choice. Children's and their interlocutors' (such as their fathers and other children) English language competence provides the situation for students to speak it at ease.

It is apparent that students' language availability and choice greatly rely on their interlocutors and specifically on the social practices they are involved. Very similar to student data, parent data also suggested the more competent their children become in a language through input and interaction, the more inclined they become to speak the language. Unfortunately, according to parents' data, a number of parents show that they sometimes struggle to speak Persian language with their children.

The discussion of data continues to reflect teachers' data respectively in order to reach an integrated discussion.

#### **4.3.3. RQ1 Teacher data: teacher perception of students' language(s) availability and choice at home and at school**

Similar to students' and parents' data analysis regarding language(s) availability and choice at home and at school, teachers' data analysis is as follows.

##### **4.3.3.1. Teacher interview raw data: students' language(s) availability and choice at home and at school**

All of the 7 teachers (100%) asserted that students mainly spoke English at school. Three out of seven teachers (42.8%) proved that students spoke English because they were used to it, they were more competent in speaking English and it was easier for them to speak it. Two out of seven teachers (28.5%) noted lack of Persian language and especially Persian speaking proficiency as the reason for speaking English. Four out of seven teachers (57.1%) emphasized that they only spoke Persian in the class; however, they use English translation to explain concepts or word meaning. one out of seven teachers (14.2%) stated regretfully that a number of parents spoke English at home. Five out of seven teachers (71.4%) said that they forced students to speak Persian in the Persian class and school. Two out of seven teachers (28.5%) stated that students spoke both languages.

##### **4.3.3.2 Teachers data discussion: teachers' perceptions of students' language(s) availability and choice at home and at school**

Through a complete reading of transcribed texts of teachers' data and by applying open coding process, three categories were emerged regarding students' language availability and choice at home and at school. Students mostly spoke English language at school, according to parent data. A number of students spoke Persian language and some of them spoke both.

##### **4.3.3.2.1 Teachers' perceptions: students' speaking Persian only**

Teachers' data demonstrated teachers' perceptions that students spoke Persian language because of their teachers' insistence for speaking Persian. Teachers' data showed that a number of teachers were stricter than others by imposing Persian language. For example, S4 T1 said: *"...we force them to speak, read and write Persian at least once a week here at this school. They speak Persian with me."* *"...they knew that they should speak Persian here. We repeated this so much they now are used to speaking of Persian and it has become a routine."* *"...I stress that they should speak Persian. I need to remind them to speak Persian."* S1 T1 stated: *"... I try to force them to speak Persian. Overall they speak mixed Persian and English."* S3 T1 asserted: *"I'm trying to make them speak Persian as they speak English and it is easier for them. I pretend that I don't know anything in English and they have to speak Persian. I never speak English at any circumstances. By doing this I make them to speak Persian."* However, a teacher was trying to negotiate Persian language speaking with students. S4 T2 said: *"I tell them to try to speak Persian in order to learn it."*

#### **4.3.3.2.2 Teachers' perceptions: students' speaking English only**

Students spoke English most of the time because they were used to it as a result of exposure to English language outside, and in a number of cases, inside their home. For instance, S2 T1 said: *"They speak English. Because they are used to it and they are speaking English most of the time."* S1 T1 stated: *"They often speak in English. I think it is because they spend their whole week in an English-speaking environment at school.... Unfortunately they (parents) are Iranian but speak English with their children at home, so it is hard for them to learn Persian."* This extensive exposure to English language resulted in students' English language proficiency and therefore it was easier for them to speak English. For example, S3 T1 said: *"... they speak English and it is easier for them...."* Teachers' data showed that English language and especially speaking proficiency was the reason for students' speaking English. At the same time, students' lack of Persian language competence prevented them from speaking Persian.

#### 4.3.3.2.3 Teachers' perceptions: students' speaking both languages

Teachers' data showed that students spoke both languages interchangeably. For example, S1 T1 said: *"Overall they speak mixed Persian and English."* S2 T1 stated: *"They mostly speak English but I try to make them speak Persian. Still it's 50/50. It is impossible for them to speak only Persian in the class."* Teachers' data demonstrated that students used both Persian and English language and made different choices.

#### 4.3.3.3 Summary discussion: teacher data

This discussion has analysed teachers' data relating to language availability and choice for students and three patterns were emerged from data. Table 4.6 below presents a mapping of a variety of the languages to case study students reported by teachers. The left-hand column displays a variety of languages and the right-hand column shows the reasons for language availability and choice specified by teachers.

**Table 4.6** Researcher's mapping of students' variety of languages availability and choice reported by teachers

<b>Variety of the languages availability and choice for case study students reported by teachers</b>	<b>The reasons provided by teachers</b>
Persian language	-Students are forced to speak Persian language in the classroom at Persian school due to teachers' insistence. Teachers' data showed that their persistence for speaking Persian language formed a continuum, from imposition to negotiation. Students are not free to choose their preferred language.
English language	-Students speak English language because they are used to it.

<b>Variety of the languages availability and choice for case study students reported by teachers</b>	<b>The reasons provided by teachers</b>
	<p>-Students speak English language because it is easier for them due to their English language proficiency.</p> <p>-Students speak English at home because of bilingual context at home and English language environment outside home resulting in their less opportunity to speak Persian language.</p> <p>Teachers' data show that unfortunately a number of parents speak English language with their children at home.</p>
Both Persian and English languages	<p>-Students would love to speak Persian language; however, because of their lack of Persian language proficiency, they tend to speak English.</p>

Having illustrated the teachers' data about students' language availability and choice, the discussion summarises the emerging themes described as follows. On one hand, students' choice of language is, to a great extent, dependent on their interlocutors' (teachers') position of power. Teachers' insistence for children's speaking Persian, however, forms a continuum from imposition to negotiation. This, to some extent, results in parents' opinion about teachers' qualification and therefore parents try to move students from one school to another for better education. Teachers also promote extrinsic motivation for speaking Persian language. Though, this least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, called external regulation, encourages students to speak Persian language in order to avoid some negative consequences. It shows they are not free to choose their preferred language. On the other hand, students' choice of language is affected by their language proficiency. Students do not

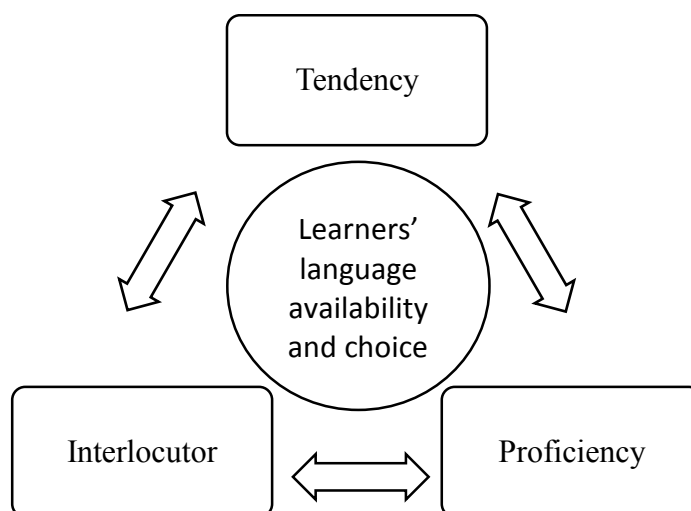
speak Persian language, mainly because of their lack of Persian language proficiency and opportunity to speak Persian language. Moreover, students speak both languages (sometimes by code-switching) in order for effective communication. The simultaneous coexistence of different languages in communication and dynamic bilingualism were found by García (2009). So far, the discussion of data reflected students' parents' and teachers' data separately. In an integrated discussion below, the data will be triangulated in order to reach a theory proposing Persian heritage language learners' language availability and choice.

#### **4.3.3.4 Triangulation of data**

In order to enhance the validity of findings of this research, both data triangulation and methodological triangulation were applied. The former conducted through several sampling by using a variety of participants such as students, parents and teachers for collecting data. The latter led by both students' focus group interviews and class observations. After conducting data analysis for each group of participants, triangulation of data determined the convergent findings for students' language(s) availability and choice at home and at school. Both language availability and choice highlight the importance of language input and interaction inherent in the sociocultural theories of language learning. The findings suggest that students' Tendency influences their language availability and choice. Although other studies have used the word 'Desire' in regard to language choice (Lo Bianco & Peyton, 2013), this thesis chooses to use the term 'Tendency' as more appropriate to this particular research context. The word 'Tendency' is defined as "a natural or prevailing disposition to move, proceed, or act in some direction or toward some point, end, or result". Students' tendency to choose a language to speak is mainly extrinsically-oriented. Students are not intrinsically motivated to choose Persian language to speak, due to their lack of Persian competence and confidence. Students' language availability and choice is extrinsically oriented by the interlocutors' language proficiency, and whether the opportunity was provided for students by their interlocutors. The opportunity can be imposed or negotiated by the

interlocutors. Yet, students are inclined to speak Persian language as a secret code. The findings seemed to indicate the impact of interlocutors on the frequency of speaking Persian. Interlocutors' (parents especially mothers and teachers) position of power, their role as extrinsic motivator and their language proficiency are influential on students' language availability and choice. Persian learners' proficiency is a robust indicator of their language availability and choice. Their interlocutors' language proficiency also has impact on their language availability and choice.

Consequently, the findings of this research point to the interrelationship between these three components: Tendency, Interlocutor, and Proficiency. These three basic principles, identified by the researcher, contribute to understanding what language is available for and is chosen by heritage language learner. The model, shown in Figure 4.1, can be used to development a framework to examine heritage language learners' language availability and choice at home and at school. Tendency involves creation of investment in speaking the language. However, both language Proficiency and Interlocutor can affect Tendency.



**Figure 4.1** Heritage learners' language availability and choice at home and school

The importance of language input and interaction is highlighted in this research. It demonstrates how formal teaching and informal transmission of language provide language knowledge, language use and consequently language proficiency. The model proposed can



shed light on understanding students' language availability and choice. Learner's and interlocutor's tendency to speak the language, their language proficiency and the opportunity given to the learner to choose and use the language, have impact on learner's language learning.

#### **4.3.4 RQ1 Participant data: watching Iranian movies/listening to Iranian music**

In order to investigate students' further access to language knowledge in formal setting (at school) and informal transmission of language (at home), they were asked about the opportunities provided for them to watch Iranian movies or listen to Iranian music. The answers provided by participants were recorded, translated and transcribed. The researcher's findings, obtained through in-depth analysis of data provided by each group of participants, are as follows.

##### **4.3.4.1 Student data discussion: watching Iranian movies/ listening to Iranian music**

Students' data suggested that 100% of those who answered the interview question, had access to Iranian movies and/or Iranian music in informal settings. This demonstrates parents' investment in providing these language resources through a variety of devices such as GL Box, satellite and so on for their children. For example, S2 FG1 St1 said: *"Yes, we watch Iranian movies a lot because we have a device and its name is GLBOX and it has all Iranian series and it has the new ones so we watch them ... and we listen to Iranian music."* However, students showed they were more eager to watch Iranian movies or series than to listen to Iranian music. For instance, S4 FG2 St4 said: *"I watch Iranian, Arabic and Australian movies all of them. Our satellite is always on and I watch them. We listen to Iranian music in our car but I prefer to sleep than listening to it ...."* Moreover, students' data showed that they were very interested in watching comic movies or TV series. For instance, S1 FG3 St3 stated: *"I like Iranian comic movies."* S4 FG2 St2 stated: *"We watch Iranian movies especially the comedian ones, because they are very funny."* Surprisingly, a very famous Iranian comic series (Ghahveh Talkh) popular at the time of interview, was specified by majority of

students. S1 FG1 St1 and S1 FG1 St2 said: *“Yes, I like Ghahveh Talkh very much.”* The role of literacy for entertainment purposes is shown, and that students keep up with media consumption in Iran.

Students’ data showed the frequency of watching Iranian movies or series. For a number of students, it was a routine every night or during school holidays. For example, S1 FG1 St4 said: *“We used to watch many Iranian movies during school holidays. We just recently got satellite ....”* S1 FG1 St1 asserted: *“Always. We watch Iranian series every night.”* S2 FG1 St2 asserted: *“Every night we do our duties and then we sit and we watch Iranian movies. My dad listens to Iranian music but I listen to English music more.”* By using “we”, students they showed they did not watch it alone and they were accompanied with other members of family. Parents’ role as students’ companion for watching movies is indicated. For example, S1 FG2 St3 said: *“I watch Iranian movies. I go to the cinema to watch Iranian movies. In cinema I watched Separation. When my parents watch Iranian series, I also join them.”*

To conclude, students’ data point to parents’ role as suppliers of further language resources such as Iranian movies and music. Furthermore, parents’ role transcends as provider and is highlighted as students’ companion for those activities. Students’ data also show that students are more interested to watch Iranian movies especially the comic ones as they are funny and more attractive than other movies or Iranian music.

#### **4.3.4.2 Parent data discussion: watching Iranian movies/ listening to Iranian music**

According to parents’ data, parents provided their children with further access to language resources such as Iranian movies and music. However, parents’ data also showed that their children love Iranian movies more. For instance, S1 P5 stated: *“He likes Iranian movies very much ... and he himself watches them.”* Parents’ data also showed that their children love comic movies. For example, S2 P2 said: *“My mom sends us cartoons translated in Persian from English, and they love them very much, the way they are translated makes them laugh as they are very funny, like Shrek and other cartoons with funny translation.”* Parents’ data also

showed that their Children like movies especially comic ones more than Iranian music.

Parents also accompanied their children to watch movies especially during school holidays.

For example, S1 P4 said: *“My kids love Iranian movies ... we often watch family movies on DVDs which are more suitable for family. We watch many Iranian films during school holidays. I can say we watched Iranian series two to three times a week. They don’t actually like and they don’t listen to Iranian music.”* S2 P2 asserted: *“Sometimes it happens that all of us sit and watch the movies and so they (her children) watch them as well.”*

Parents’ data also suggested that by attending an Iranian music concert, their children became more interested in Iranian music and they started listening to it. For example, S2 P2 said: *“He has recently got interested in Persian music. There was an Iranian concert on a while ago. My elder son told me that he wants to go for the concert and my younger one went there as well. He has been recently downloading Persian songs from the internet. He listens to them and sometimes sings them.”*

One parent responded that Iranian movies were used as a substitute for their children’s Persian language learning (language proficiency) while they had no access to other resources such as Persian schools or community members. S4 P1 said: *“We recently don’t watch Iranian movies very much. But we used to watch more when we were in New Zealand because there was no Persian school there and because our relationship with Iranian community was more limited and we did not know many Iranians there. Especially he liked some series a lot as we watched them together and he became interested in them. We used to download Iranian movies and series or borrow it from our friends and watch them. I think watching movies have helped him a lot improve his understanding and speaking of Persian especially when he was very young.”* This parent’s data added to the points revealed above by emphasizing that watching movies had a great impact on her child’s Persian language learning.

In sum, parent role is addressed as supplier of further language resources (such as Iranian movie and music). The influential role of their companionship with their children in language learning is highlighted in this research

. Providing such an opportunity by parents results in students' access to input (which is movies and especially comic ones) and interaction (parents' involvement by providing that opportunity and their company too.).

#### **4.3.4.3 Teachers data discussion: watching Iranian movies/ listening to Iranian music**

Students participate in Iranian music concerts, according to teacher data. Students informed their teacher that they, with their families, participated in the concerts. It demonstrated parents' investment by providing such an opportunity for their children. For example, S2 T1 said: *"I usually go to the Iranian concerts as they are advertised in Iranian newspapers. Students told me that they participated. Sometimes they asked me if I was there. They want to know if I was there."* Teacher data demonstrated that teachers are important role models of engagement with community and resources. Teachers' data also showed that comic movies were very popular among students. It was very interesting that S2 T1 talked about the same comic series (Ghahveh Talkh) that students (from another school) talked about it. For instance, S2 T1 asserted: *"For example Ghahveh Talkh series became very popular last year among students. They always told me that they were watching it."* Teachers' data also showed their awareness of the extra resources made available by parents through a variety of devices such as GLBOX. Moreover, because of students' enthusiasm for comic movies such as the one mentioned by them, they showed their interest to talk about it with their teacher or even to play it in their class. A shift to promotion of Task-Based Learning (TBL) in pedagogy and autonomous learning is suggested by Benson (2007). S2 T1 said: *"They kept asking me about new episodes and some other told me that they have GLBOX and they don't need to buy it ... they asked me about some parts."* Parents accompanied their children for watching (comic) movies, according to teacher data. S2 T1 stated: *"They told me they watched it with their*

*families.” Teachers’ data also showed that they considered watching movies as a fun for students. However, because of limitation of time and facilities as well as students’ different levels of proficiency, teachers were not able to include watching movies in their pedagogy. For example, S2 T2 said: “Unfortunately here we don’t have enough time and facilities, only 2.5 hours a week with four different levels so it’s not possible to do these things. Once I brought a laptop and we watched some 10 minutes movies but time is very limited.” S4 T2 asserted: “We only have our textbooks which we provide from Iran and other than that, we don’t have other facilities in our school. There is not anything else but their text books. For example we don’t have story books, facilities to watch movies or animations or supplementary learning materials. We only teach them through their books.”*

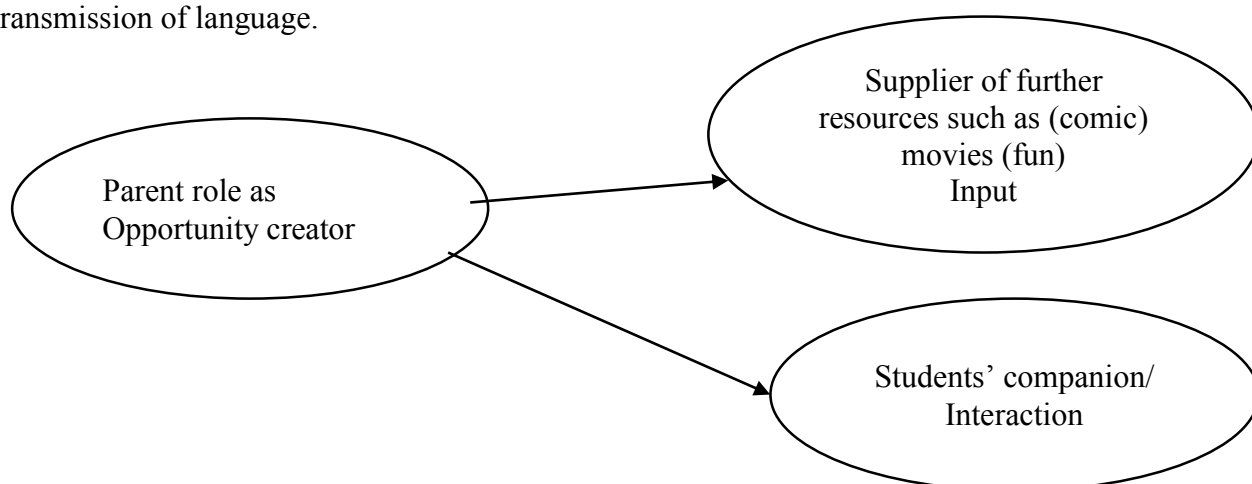
Very similar to students’ and parents’ data, teachers’ data emphasize parents’ role and investment in providing further language resources for students such as Iranian movies and Iranian music concerts. Parents provide an opportunity for students for further language knowledge and learning through input and interaction supplied by Iranian movies and music. However, despite teachers’ awareness of students’ desire to watch Iranian movies as a fun and its impact on their language learning, time and facility restrictions prevent them to include these kinds of language resources in their pedagogy.

#### **4.3.4.4 Triangulation of data**

Participants’ data reveals that because students show their interest for watching Iranian movies especially the comic ones, parents’ and teachers’ responsibility is to provide opportunities for students to have access to Persian language knowledge and input. This opportunity, according to “Interaction” theory and Second Language Acquisition (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Long, 1996) , is a form of interaction which is not necessarily a face-to-face interaction but an opportunity to provide language input for further language knowledge development through fun and entertainment (Moloney & Oguro, 2015). However, through data analysis, it has been revealed that this activity mostly happens in an informal setting

(home) by parents. Therefore, by reflecting students', parents' and teachers' data regarding access to further language

Resources such as Iranian movies and music, the integrated discussion of data reveals the ultimate findings as follows. Figure 4.2 summarises the role of informal teaching and transmission of language.



**Figure 4.2** Informal teaching and transmission of language

This model can be applied in formal setting (school) by teachers to help promote and develop pedagogy which enhance language knowledge through fun.

#### **4.3.5 RQ1 Participant data: frequency of visiting Iran**

Visiting country of origin has impact on heritage language learner's language proficiency and vice versa (Carreira & Kagan, 2011). Hinton (2001) emphasizes on trip to the homeland and its impact on family retention of heritage language. She, however, recognizes that it is probably impossible for some families in regard to their economic considerations and political problems in their homeland. She believes that bilingualism succeeds in families able to retain the close ties with their homelands. In her study of Asian-American children, she found that a visit to their homeland may give students a new motivation to learn their heritage language abandoned. In addition, visiting the country of origin provide the language learner with extensive language input and interaction.

In order to investigate parents' effort in providing the opportunity for Persian heritage language learners to visit their home country and gain language knowledge, students and their parents were asked interview question about students' frequency of visiting their country of origin, Iran, as their further access to language knowledge and language use. Even though teachers were not asked about the learners' frequency of visiting Iran, the teacher participants highlighted the impact of traveling to Iran on learners' language proficiency. Analysis of students' and parents' data and the findings are as follows.

#### **4.3.5.1 Student data discussion: frequency of visiting Iran**

Students' data demonstrated that 22 out of 35 students answered the interview question regarding their frequency of visiting Iran. Based on the students' variety of responses shown in Table 4.7, they were categorised to three groups. The first group (30%) visited Iran very frequently and every year. For instance, S1 FG2 St2 stated: *"We usually go to Iran every year."* The second group (35%) visited Iran every two to three years. For example, S4 FG2 St1 asserted: *"Not much, every two years. When I was a little kid we used to go very often, but not much recently."* And the third group (35%) had not visited Iran yet. For example, S4 FG2 St3 said: *"We don't usually go to Iran a lot"*. S3 FG1 St2 stated: *"I've never been in Iran since we came here. It is about five years."*

**Table 4.7** Total number of students and frequency of visiting Iran

<b>Frequency of visiting Iran</b>	<b>Total number of students visiting Iran</b>
Every year	6/22
2-3 years	7/22
Never visited Iran before	9/22

The findings suggested the frequency of visiting Iran (every one to three years) among more than half of the students (62.8%). Even though it was not possible for a number of students to visit Iran, their relatives came to Sydney to visit them. For example, S2 FG2 St2 said: *“We attempt to go but if we can't, our relatives come here. We go every three years. But we go as much as we can.”* The data seemed to indicate that they were able to retain close ties with their homeland. However, because of the students’ age, their frequency of visiting Iran were, to a great extent, subject to their parents’ effort. The impact of frequency of visiting Iran on ethnic identity (self-categorization and labelling)

#### **4.3.5.2 Parent data discussion: frequency of visiting Iran**

Students were different in terms of frequency of visiting Iran, according to parent data. Very similar to students’ data, parents’ data also suggested that a number of them visited Iran and took their children with them every year. For example, S1 P3 said: *“we go several times and each year to Iran.”* Parents’ data also showed that they visited Iran every two years, otherwise their relatives came to Sydney to visit them. Parents’ data showed their effort to keep their children in frequent contact with their relatives in Iran. For instance, S1 P5 asserted: *“I try to travel to Iran at least once every two years, but we often have visitors from Iran. My children are always enjoying the company of relatives. They are always in contact with them. They call them and they talk to them on phone. I always emphasize and I always remind him that he should call his grandparents and uncles in Iran.”* However, visiting Iran became less frequent for a number of parents despite their children’s willingness to travel to Iran. For instance, S1 P4 stated: *“My kids like to go to Iran very much, and we used to go every two years before, but we haven’t had a chance to travel to Iran since 5 years ago.”* Parent data, for instance S2 P2, also demonstrated that they had never visited Iran since they left Iran about 20 years ago.

The impact of visiting Iran, on students’ motivation for speaking Persian language (Hinton, 2000) and speaking competence, was highlighted in parents’ data. For example, S1 P3 said:



*“... if she wants she can speak in Persian because we go several times and each year to Iran. This has had a significant effect on her willingness to speak and her Persian speaking skill and has caused her to have a better speaking performance.”* S4 P1 asserted: *“When we get there (Iran) he knows he should speak Persian and he easily shifts to Persian language. During the trip he just speaks English with me and speaks Persian with others. He can easily use the words and expressions.”*

Parent data also revealed that the relationship between language proficiency and frequency of visiting Iran was reciprocal (Shirazi & Borjian, 2012). While visiting Iran had an impact on children’s language proficiency, on the other hand, children’s language proficiency and ability to communicate with their relatives in Iran was a reason for their willingness to travel to Iran. For instance, S1 P1 said: *“... My daughter and son love to visit Iran because they can easily communicate with their cousins and enjoy playing with them.”* Clément and Kruidenier (1983) found travel orientation as an effective orientation to second language acquisition.

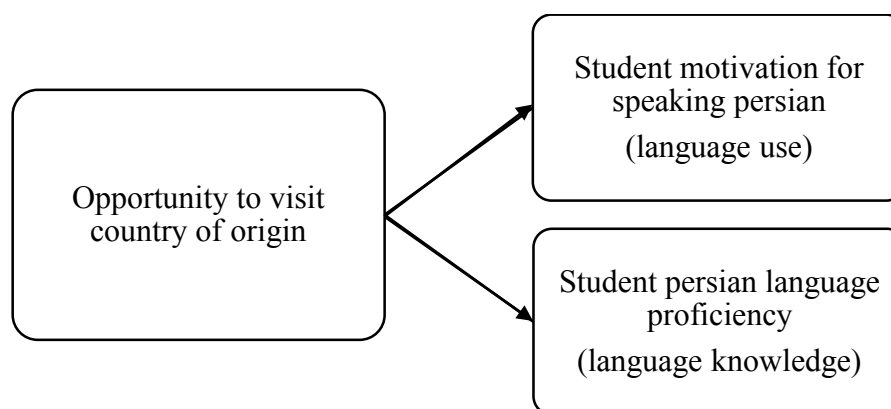
#### **4.3.5.3 Teacher data discussion: frequency of visiting Iran**

Teachers were not asked the question about their students’ frequency of visiting Iran; however, while they answered other questions, they commented on the positive impact of students’ visiting Iran on their Persian language learning. For instance, S4 T2 said: *“... those who frequently go to Iran are more willing to learn Persian language ...”*

#### **4.3.5.4 Triangulation of data**

Through an integrated analysis of students’, parents’ and teachers’ data, parent role is signified in providing the opportunity for students to maintain their contact with relatives in Iran. The frequency of visiting Iran or other opportunities such as their relatives’ visiting them in Sydney has a significant impact on students’ motivation for speaking Persian language as well as their Persian language proficiency. Therefore, through visiting Iran both students’ language use and language knowledge will be enhanced. Consequently, the relationship between visiting country of origin and students’ language availability and choice shows that

through providing the opportunity to visit the country of origin students' language use and language knowledge are enhanced. Figure 4.3 summarises this relationship which results in students' tendency to use the language and language proficiency.



**Figure 4.3** The relationship between visiting country of origin and heritage language proficiency

#### **4.3.5.5 Observation data discussion: Persian heritage learners' language availability and choice**

The data analysis of the field notes revealed the incidences of students' speaking English with each other and with their teachers in S1 CL1, CL2, CL3; S2 CL1; S3 CL1 and S4 CL2.

Sometimes students spoke both languages with their teachers. The exceptions were S2 CL2 and S4 CL1 in which students mainly spoke Persian. The S2 CL2 teacher was very strict by imposing an immersion Persian language environment on his students. The teacher only spoke in Persian language during the class time and he expected students to speak Persian language only. S4 CL1 teacher was not proficient in speaking English. Students in S4 CL1 only spoke Persian language with each other and the teacher. They even asked their questions in Persian language. However, it was observed that as soon as the recess time started, students talked to each other in English. Teachers spoke Persian with their students; however, in the S1 CL1, the teachers mostly explained the meaning of the words in English. In S1 CL2, teacher

asked S1 FG1 St4 to say the meaning of a word in Persian; however, the student was not able to say the meaning in Persian and the teacher asked him to say it in English.

Teachers should remind students to speak Persian language. One of the students in S4 CL1 said that even though she attended the Persian school, she spoke Arabic at home with her family.

It was observed that students and teacher in S1 CL1 talked about their trip to Iran and the places they visited in Iran (frequency of visiting Iran). Two students recently came back from Iran. The teacher asked them if they heard a joke in Iran. They were quite fluent in speaking and the teacher mentioned the impact of visiting Iran on students' Persian language learning and proficiency.

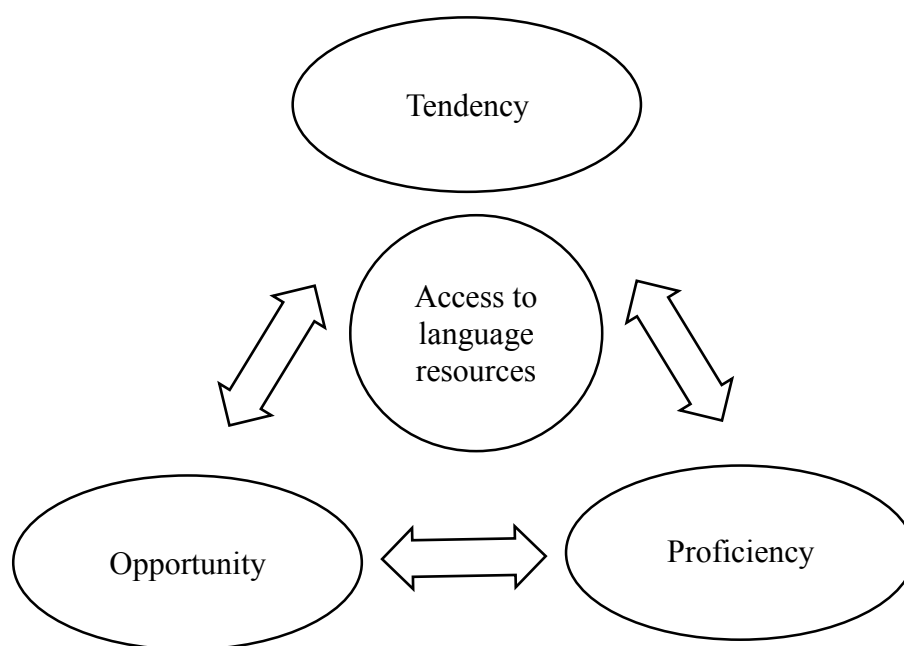
Students in S2 CL2 noted that they read Persian story books and watched Iranian movies during school holidays

#### **4.3.6 RQ1 Result: Persian heritage learners' language availability and choice**

As noted in chapter two, literature review and theoretical framework, interaction and input are the primary constructs of sociocultural theory and inform the study of Second Language Acquisition. The interaction implies input and the need to produce output which requires language knowledge. Furthermore, through language use in social activities a language user becomes a competent member of the community language. By exploring Persian heritage language learners' language availability and choice, the analysis of student, parent and teacher data and class observation data reveal how interaction and input affect language knowledge, language use and heritage language development.

Therefore, this discussion offers an answer to the first research question: What language resources and choices are available for Persian heritage language learners? It can be concluded that three factors affect language availability and choice for Persian heritage language learners: Tendency, Opportunity and Proficiency (TOP). The TOP theory emerged

from the analysis of data offers a framework to analysis heritage language availability and choice among heritage language learners. Figure 4.4 illustrates the TOP theory.



**Figure 4.4** TOP theory of access to language resources

Persian heritage language learner's Tendency for speaking Persian language is both intrinsic and extrinsic. In other words, tendency requires stimulating both individual and collective motivation to actively use the language. Learner's tendency to speak the language is influenced by learners' and their interlocutors' language proficiency. The opportunity, sought by the learner and provided for the learner by the interlocutor through using the language, also has impact on learner's tendency to choose the language and the language available for the learner. Therefore, Persian heritage language learners' interlocutors such as their teachers in formal setting as well as their parents and siblings in informal setting can provide the learner with comprehensible input and interaction through speaking Persian language (Long, 1996). Watching Iranian movies especially comic ones and frequency of visiting Iran are other opportunities to provide the learner with comprehensible input and interaction. Similarly, learner's tendency to have access to the instances of input and interaction through movies and visiting the country of origin is influenced by firstly the opportunity sought by learners and

provided by others and secondly learners' language proficiency. Therefore, the first research question "what language resources do Persian heritage language learners have access to?" are answered. The language resources available to heritage language learners depends on learners' tendency, learners' and others' language proficiency and the opportunity sought by the learner and provided for the learner by others to speak the language.

Consequently, the findings shed light on the implication of sociocultural theories in heritage language learning. The findings demonstrate how multiple events such as speaking the language in multiple settings such as home and school, learning language through entertaining activities such as watching movies and close ties to the country of origin can enhance interaction and input and develop language knowledge and language use. Both language knowledge and language use are key aspects of ethnic identity formation (Phinney & Ong, 2007), the concept that will be addressed in the next chapter. Chapter 5 will answer the second research question: "How is Persian heritage language learners' ethnic identity developed and achieved?"

## **Chapter 5: Findings 2: Persian heritage learners' ethnic identity development and achievement**

*“Learning another language is like becoming another person.”*

*Haruki Murakami*

## **5.1 Overview of chapter**

In this chapter, as noted at the beginning of Chapter 4, the sources of empirical data including students' focus group interviews, parents' and teachers' individual interviews, and class observations were used and the related data were analysed to answer the Research Question 2, "How is Persian heritage language learners' ethnic identity developed and achieved?"

Understanding the inter-relationship between language and ethnic identity has been investigated in depth in the field of Second Language Acquisition (Norton, 1997). The existing research demonstrates that ethnic identity has impact on second language development. Similarly, studies of ethnic identity point to its contribution to heritage language learning and development (Chinen & Tucker, 2005). Cho (2000) asserts that heritage language proficiency correlates positively with ethnic identity and affiliation with ethnic group.

This section of data analysis examines Persian heritage learners' ethnic identity achievement and development in this study. Discussion of Persian heritage language learners' ethnic identity explores the voices of learner, parents and teachers to reflect their individual accounts (Norton, 1997, p. 427).

Phinney and Ong (2007) developed a Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure-Revised (MEIM-R) using major components of group identity introduced by Ashmore et al. (2004). These components provide a basis for exploring different aspects of ethnic identity. These aspects include self-categorization and labelling, commitment and attachment, exploration, ethnic behaviours, in-group attitudes, values and beliefs, and so forth (Phinney & Ong, 2007, pp. 272-274). However, different components of ethnic identity may be of importance according to the nature and the questions addressed in a particular research. A researcher may take the initiative to choose and investigate those components most relevant to research questions of the project (Phinney & Ong, 2007, p. 278). For that reason, research participants were asked interview questions related to self-categorization and labelling, and ethnic identity exploration

and behaviour. The class observation field notes were also analysed in order to better understand students' ethnic identity achievement through their verbal and non-verbal behaviour observed in the class. Table 5.1 provides a visual presentation of the sequence of Chapter 5.

**Table 5.1** Structure of chapter 5: Ethnic identity achievement and development

<b>Section</b>	<b>Data and discussion</b>
5.1.1 RQ2 students' data: self-categorization and labelling as Iranian, Australian or both	5.1.1.1 focus group raw data: self-categorization and labelling
	5.1.1.2 student data discussion: self-categorization and labelling
	5.1.1.3 summary discussion: student data
5.1.2 RQ2 parent data: child's self-categorization and labelling as Iranian, Australian or both	5.1.2.1 parent data discussion: child's self-categorization and labelling
	5.1.2.2 summary discussion: parent data
	5.1.3.2 summary discussion: teacher data
	5.1.3.3 triangulation of data: students' self-categorization and labelling
5.1.4 RQ2 Student data: ethnic identity exploration and behaviour	5.1.4.1 Student data discussion: ethnic identity exploration and behaviour
	5.1.4.2 Summary discussion: student data
5.1.5 RQ2 Parent data: child's ethnic identity exploration and behaviour	5.1.5.1 Parent data discussion: child's ethnic identity exploration and behaviour
	5.1.5.2 Summary discussion: parent data
5.1.6 RQ2 Teacher data: students' ethnic identity exploration and behaviour	5.1.6.1 Teacher data discussion: students' ethnic identity exploration and behaviour
	5.1.6.2 Summary discussion: teacher data
	5.1.6.3 Triangulation of data: ethnic identity exploration and behaviour
	5.1.6.4 Observation data: Persian heritage language learners' ethnic identity development and achievement
5.1.7 RQ2 Result: Persian heritage language learners' ethnic identity development and achievement	

### **5.1.1 RQ2 Student data: self-categorization and labelling as Iranian, Australian or both**

Self-categorization and labelling, as one of the elements in Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measurement- Revised (MEIM-R) (Phinney & Ong, 2007), is one's identification as a



member of a particular group. In order to understand students' perception of their self-categorization and labelling, in a focus group, they were asked the question "Do you think of yourself as Iranian, Australian or both and why?"

#### 5.1.1.1 Focus group raw data: self-categorization and labelling

The analysis of data revealed that students of the four schools labelled themselves as Iranian, Australian or both (half-half). In regard to the order of a hyphenated identity, the emphasis was on one of the nationalities, Iranian or Australian. For instance, a number of students labelled themselves as both Australian and Iranian but with emphasis on Iranian (**Iranian-Australian**) or Australian (**Australian-Iranian**). Students provided different reasons for the labelling they gave to themselves.

Table 5.2 below demonstrates percentage of students labelling themselves as Australian, Iranian or both.

**Table 5.2** Students' self-categorization and labelling

Thematic code	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4	All schools	All schools %
Self-categorization and labelling						
Feels totally Iranian	3/11	2/8	2/8	0/8	7/35	20
Feels totally Australian	1/11	2/8	3/8	4/8	10/35	28.5
Feels <b>Iranian-Australian</b>	1/11	1/8	0/8	0/8	2/35	5.7
Feels <b>Australian-Iranian</b>	1/11	0/8	0/8	3/8	4/35	11.4
Feels both	4/11	2/8	3/8	1/8	10/35	28.5
No idea	1/11	1/8	0/8	0/8	2/35	5.7

The table shows that identity within the focus groups attending four schools was represented as diverse. 20 % of students labelled themselves as Iranian, 28.5% as Australian and 45.6% as both. Among those students who labelled themselves as both Iranian and Australian, 28.5% labelled themselves equally Iranian and Australian; however 5.7% labelled **Iranian-**Australian and 11.4% **Australian-**Iranian. 5.7% of students had no idea about their identity.

#### **5.1.1.2 Student data discussion: self-categorization and labelling**

Student participants' self-categorization and labelling was diverse (as shown above) and they provided a number of reasons for that. These reasons will be followed by some quotes from the student participants.

Students labelled themselves as *Iranian*, *Australian* or *both*. They introduced themselves as Iranian or Australian whenever they were with their Iranian friends or Australian ones. For instance, S1 FG1 St1 stated: "*When I'm with my foreign friends I feel more Australian. When I am with Iranian friends like S1 FG1 St2, I feel Iranian*". Peer group membership is part of group membership and it is strongly associated with schooling. This peer group membership is a foundation for children's identities (Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007). Social context (which is school in this case) is also deemed to have impact on identity. It shows that identity is inconsistent and situational in space (peer group) and personal relationship can influence identity (Oriyama, 2010, p. 77). Therefore, the results suggested that identity of these student participants was diverse and situational in space and time. Personal relations and socio-cultural context can influence learners' ethnolinguistic identity.

Identity is represented as situational and context based. People develop as they interact and observe the world around them (Norton, 2000). The interaction and observation includes environment (such as home, school) and space. For example, S1 FG1 St2 said: "*I think of myself more as an Iranian. When you come to our house you'll see everything is Iranian, so*

*traditional.*” S1 FG2 St3 asserted: “*When I am with my friend (Australian) and I go to the national festivals such as Anzac day and New Year, here I think I’m Australian. But when I go to Iranian parties with Iranian dance and Iranian music, I feel I’m Iranian.*” S3 FG1 St2 stated: “*I think both. I was Iranian when I was in Iran, now I’m Australian ... I am living here so I am Australian.* A study of Japanese heritage language learners in Australia by Moloney and Oguro (2012) suggests that identity construction occurs in social contexts.

Watching TV, listening to music, frequency of visiting Iran, eating Iranian food, attending Iranian or Australian cultural ceremonies, talking and knowledge about Iran were also indicators of learners’ identity. For instance, S1 FG1 St4 said: “*I think I’m Australian, because two third of what I do during the week is English. I always watch TV.*” S1 FG1 St2 asserted: “*I think of myself more as an Iranian ... I’d rather listen to Iranian music than English one.*” S1 FG1 St3 stated: “*I’m an Iranian because ... we still go to Iran every two years for 6 month.*” S2 FG1 St4 stated: “*I think of myself as an Australian because ... I haven’t visited Iran yet*”. S2 FG2 St1 said: “*(I feel I am Iranian) When we go Sizdehbedar or we have Iranian foods.*” S1 FG2 St3 asserted: “*When I am with my friend (Australian) and I go to the national festivals such as Anzac day and New Year, here I think I’m Australian. But when I go to Iranian parties with Iranian dance and Iranian music, I feel I’m Iranian.*” S3 FG2 St1 said: “*I am Australian because I don’t know much about Iran. We don’t talk about Iran.*”

Students represented their bilingualism as a positive marker of their identity. Language proficiency was another marker for identity representation. Students referred to living and schooling in Iran as an indicator of their identity. S3 FG1 St3 asserted: “*I am Australian because I was born here and I know English. My English is better than my Persian. I did not go to school in Iran.*” S4 FG1 St4 said: “*I feel both because I know both languages.*” S3 FG2 St3 asserted: “*I think I am both **because** I know both of them.*” S1 FG1 St3 said: “*I’m an Iranian because I was there for three or four years ....*” S3 FG1 St4 stated: “*I am Iranian*

*because ... I went to school there for one year.*” Language is identified as an indicator of ethnic identity and group membership (Giles & Byrne, 1982).

The findings showed Persian heritage language learners’ identity was strongly represented by referring to their place of birth. For instance, S1 FG1 St3 said: “... *I’m an Iranian because I was born in Iran.*” S1 FG3 St1 asserted: “*I say Iranian ... I am citizen of both countries, but I was born in Iran. So I think where I was born I should say I am from Iran.*” S2 FG1 St4 said: “*I think of myself as an Australian because I was born here...*” S4 FG2 St1 stated: “... *I was born in New Zealand. I am KIWI.*” S4 FG2 St2 asserted: “... *I was born in Australia. I am aussie (aussie aussie aussie, oi oi oi).*”

Iranian-inclusive identity was nurtured (encouraged) by attending Persian community schools. For example, S1 FG3 St2 said: “*(I am) Iranian in this school.*”

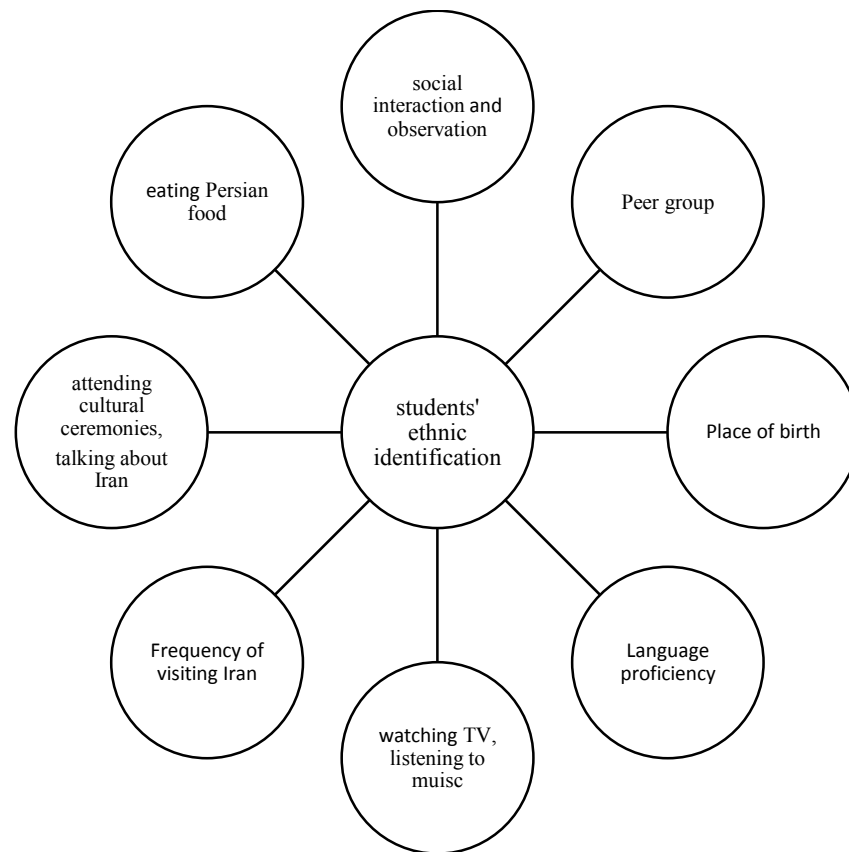
Students’ familial and parental background, recognized by students or imposed on them by others especially by parents, was also an indicator of students’ ethnic identity. For example, S2 FG2 St1 stated: “*My mother and my father are from Iran and I think of myself as Iranian.*” S1 FG2 St3 said: “*I say I’m Australian but my homeland is Iran.*” S4 FG1 St1 stated: “*My mom says you are Australian but your background is Iranian.*” Iranian identity was well magnified and supported by others too. For instance, S2 FG1 St3 asserted: “*I don’t know. But for example if I go to Iran for their point of view I am Australian because I was born in Australia. But from Australian point of view I’m an Iranian because I have Iranian parents.*”

However, confusion about identity exists for the students. In other words, the learner has “lack of awareness” and is in the first stage of ethnic identity formation model developed by Tse (1997). Also, parents and a number of students referred to what Dörnyei (2009c) introduces as the “ought-to” self. It refers to attributes that one believes one ought to possess. In this case, it is also attribution that a parent believes a child should possess. It is clear that children are strongly influenced at the age seven to fourteen by parental beliefs. During this age children are deeply influenced by home and family practices and values. For example, S1

FG1 St4 said: “... my mom says I am Iranian.” In this case, it seems that identity is being “imposed” rather than being “negotiated”.

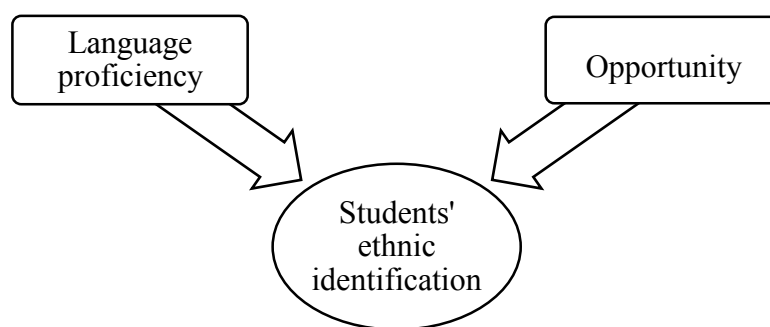
### 5.1.1.3 Summary discussion: student data

The discussion of data demonstrates that identity representation was diverse among student participants. The relationship between ethnic identity and national identity, which is another prominent group identity, has been debated for decades by scholars of acculturation. Ethnic identity can be fully understood in relation to national identity, which is Australian in this study (Phinney & Ong, 2007, p. 273). The study by Berry et al. (2006) indicated four distinct acculturation profiles for minority group members. In *Integration profile* both identities are strong and positively correlated. In *Ethnic profile*, ethnic identity is strong and national identity is weak. *National profile* is characterized by a strong national identity and weak ethnic identity. In *diffuse* profile, both identities are low (Phinney & Ong, 2007, p. 274). 20% of students labelled themselves as Iranian indicating “ethnic profile”; 28.5% as Australian indicating “national profile”. 45.6% of students represented hyphenated identity of Iranian-Australian indicating “integration profile”. In these hybrid or multiple expressions, 28.5% represent both Iranian and Australian identity equally, though, Australian identity is dominant (11.4% introduced themselves as **Australian**-Iranian and 5.7% as **Iranian**-Australian. 5.7% of students labelled themselves neither Australian nor Iranian indicating “diffuse profile”. Majority of students represented hyphenated identity (with more emphasis on Australian identity). Furthermore, Australian identity was more obvious than Iranian identity. Student data also seem to indicate the ethnic identity formation model developed by Tse (1997). The model shows four stages of ethnic identification: lack of awareness, ethnic ambivalence/evasion, ethnic emergence and ethnic identity incorporation. Persian heritage language learners provided different reasons for their identity achievement represented as one of the four profiles noted above. Figure 5.1 below summarises these reasons:



**Figure 5.1** Students' reasons for their ethnic identification

The elements shown in the diagram above can be summarised to two main categories. The components other than place of birth and language proficiency can be recapitulated to one main category called opportunity. Those components can be defined as opportunities that can assist in ethnic identity development and achievement. Place of birth is a category which will not be explored. Therefore, it can be concluded that ethnic identity can be mainly achieved through language proficiency and opportunity. Figure 5.2 shows the relationship between ethnic identity formation, language proficiency and opportunity. For instance, a study by Kim and Chao (2009) found that heritage language fluency is an important component of ethnic identity among second-generation Mexican but not second-generation Chinese heritage language learners.



**Figure 5.2** Students’ perceptions of their ethnic identification

### **5.1.2 RQ2 Parent data: child’s self-categorization and labelling as Iranian, Australian or both**

In order to understand parents’ perception of their children’s self-categorization and labelling, they were asked how their children represent their identities. It also revealed whether there was a discrepancy between parents’ perception and students’ identity achievement.

#### **5.1.2.1 Parent data discussion: child’s self-categorization and labelling**

Parents’ data analysis revealed that their children’s understanding of their background as Iranian was important for parents, whether this understanding was imposed on them by their parents or it was perceived by learners. For example, S1 P2 said: *“I always used to tell my daughter (S1 FG1 St2) to say proudly in your school that your parents are Iranian. You were born here but you are Iranian originally.”* S1 P1 said: *“... they know their background ...”* S2 P1 stated: *“... she knows and she says her cultural and religious background is different from other kids....”* S1 P5 asserted: *“...he should always remember that his parents and grandparents are Iranian ... He has an Iranian background... he should be proud of his background ....”*

Parents’ data demonstrated their belief that place of birth was an indicator of their children’s identity. For example S1 P5 said: *“... He sometimes says he is Australian as he was born here ....”* S2 P2 asserted: *“...he said he is Australian because he was born in Australia.”*

The language children spoke or chose to speak was an indicator of their identity. In other words, Language proficiency had impact on identity formation. For example, S1 P3 said: “...*she is more Australian. For example sometimes she asks me not to talk to her in Persian and just talk in English.*” S1 P5 stated: “... *even people here will make fun of you when they know that you are Iranian and you can't speak your language ....*” Lack of heritage language knowledge may result in mocking the heritage language learner (Carreira & Kagan, 2011).

Parents believed that their children's knowledge of culture and their inclination to talk or to research about Persian culture was a sign of their children's identity. For instance, S1 P4 said: “*She strongly believes she is Iranian ... it was her inclination to do her **presentation** about Iran and about its culture ....*” S1 P1 stated: “... *My children believe they are Iranian, about 60%. Especially my daughter, she is asking us why we have not told him about Avicenna. She says she wouldn't know him if her cousin had not introduced him to her. She is very eager to know about Iran ....*” His daughter also mentioned exactly this issue and she blamed her parents for her lack of knowledge about Iran. In other words, providing the opportunity for children by talking to them about Persian culture pave the path toward ethnic identity formation.

Parents' data also showed that they believed home environment and family had impact on their children's identity formation. It was addressed by students too and is congruent with “social interaction and observation (Norton, 2000). For example, S1 P2 said: “...*she (S1 FG1 St2) thinks she is Iranian. She has always been at home environment and in Iranian environment from her early childhood ... I think it totally depends on the family. If the child believes in what she/ he has at home and understand and feel it, instead of being imposed and prescribed to her/ him ....*” It was interesting that her child also mentioned home environment as an indicator of her identity.



Listening to Iranian music and watching Iranian movies was also revealed by parents to be influential on their children's perception of identity. Parents' data also showed that they provide facilities (such as GL Box) for kids to have access to music and movies. For example, S1 P2 stated: "... *I know my daughter thinks she's Iranian. Because I can understand it from her mobile that all her music are Iranian. She counts the days until the weekend when she can watch Iranian movies. First we got Iranian satellite and then I got GL box which has thousands of Iranian movies and series ....*" Parent role in providing the opportunity for their children to have access to the resources such as movies was addressed. For example S1 P2 asserted: "...*parents should show their interest and the importance (of learning Persian language) first ... I know everything depends on parents ....*" S1 P5 asserted: "... *he was watching historical Iranian films about Persepolis which he liked very much and he wanted to watch it again ... I am sure he feels that. I feel that there is a reason he watches a film two times ....*"

Parents believe that frequency of visiting Iran had also impact on children's identity formation. For instance, S2 P2 said: "... *he stated he is Australian ... he (younger child) has not seen Iran ... The older was 8 at that time, but he has been to Iran only once.*" S3 P1 stated: "*he thinks he is Australian ... he doesn't remember anything from Iran ....*"

Parents were aware of their children's hyphenated identity, according to parent data. For instance, S4 P1 said: "...*he says from his early childhood that he is Iranian and he says we are from Iran, he wants to be identified as a New Zealander because he was born in New Zealand. He thinks of himself as both Iranian and New Zealander.*"

Parents' data also demonstrated parents' effort to impose identity on their children. S1 P5 was an example of such an imposed identity. Although S1 P5 accepted that her son's (S1 FG1 St4) place of birth, Australia, was a sign of his identity according to his opinion, she continued: "...*but he should always remember that his parents and grandparents are Iranian. He has an*

*Iranian background though he was born in Australia.” Her point of view by saying: “... he should also respect me and my language”, “... I remind him that he should remember that his half is Iranian”, “he is Iranian and he should be proud of that” and “... he should be proud of his background”* was an example showing that his mother tried to impose her identity and her culture on him. However, her son introduced himself as an Australian. Therefore, the result does not appear to support the study by Phinney et al. (2001, p. 147) which found that “Parental cultural maintenance has influence on their children’s ethnic identity achievement and development.”

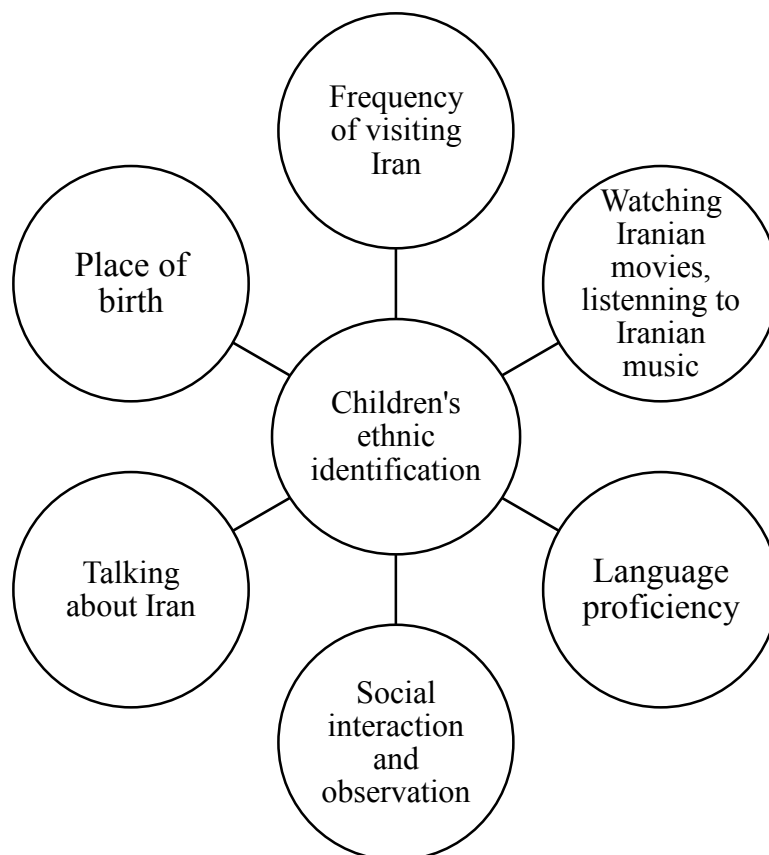
#### **5.1.2.2 Summary discussion: parent data**

The discussion of data seems to indicate that there were similarities as well as differences between children’s perception of their identity and parents’ understanding of their children’s perception.

The disparities were between S1 P1 and S1 FG3 St2, S1 P3 and S1 FG2 St2, S3 P1 and S3 FG2 St1. 33% of parents (three out of nine parents) had different perception of their children’s identity achievement. S1 P1 believed that his child was more Iranian than Australian but his child showed that she thought she was both. S1 P3 stated that her child recognized herself as Iranian but the student asserted that she was Australian. S3 P1 said that her child thought he was Iranian but he mentioned himself as Australian as he did not know about Iran as they did not talk about Iran at home. Moreover, categories such as eating Iranian food, peer group membership and attending cultural ceremonies , which were significant in students’ view, were not mentioned by parents as influential on children’s identity formation.

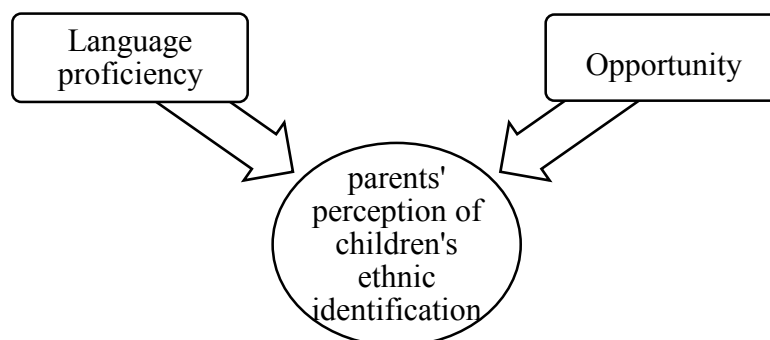
However, there were a number of categories effective on identity formation which were similar between parents’ and their children’s accounts. These comparable categories were place of birth, frequency of visiting Iran, social interaction and observation, language

proficiency, watching Iranian movies and listening to Iranian music. Figure 5.3 below demonstrates these classifications.



**Figure 5.3** Parent perception of what contributes to their children's ethnic identity

Similar to the figure developed for learners to summarise the categories influencing their identity development and achievement, Figure 5.4 summarises parents' perceptions of categories influencing their children's ethnic identity formation.



**Figure 5.4** Parent perception of what contributes to their children’s ethnic identity

### **5.1.3 RQ2 Teacher data: students’ self-categorization and labelling as Iranian, Australian or both**

In order to understand teachers’ perception of their students’ self-categorization and labelling, they were asked about how their students represented their identities. It also revealed whether there was an inconsistency between teachers’ perception and students’ identity achievement.

#### **5.1.3.1 Teacher data discussion: students’ self-categorization and labelling**

Teachers’ data demonstrated that 28.5% (two out of seven teachers) believed that all of the students thought of themselves as Iranian. For instance, S1 T1 said: *“Most of them know themselves Iranian. I have never heard any of them know him/herself Australian.”* S3 T1 asserted: *“most of them say they’re Iranian.”* However, students’ data revealed that only 27% students from S1 and 25% from S3 recognized themselves as Iranian. One teacher, S4 T2, stated that she never experienced such a situation in which her students talked about their identity during her teaching in the school. Teachers’ perception shaped by their professional role in a community school devoted to develop Persian language to strengthening identity as part of language learning. So, their impression may not be accurate. Another possible reason is because the school is a site dedicated to Persian identity and teachers are role models for endorsing Persian identity.

Teachers' data demonstrated that students represented hyphenated identity. For instance, S1 T2 said: "... *they know themselves half Iranian and half Australian ...*."

Teachers also commented that students' identity formation changed while they grew up. For example, S2 T1 said: "...*But totally children in primary school until the age of 10-12 they mostly pretend to be Australian and they don't want to be Iranian unfortunately. But it suddenly changes as soon as they reach puberty and they become teenagers. Something like miracle happens. At that time feeling of proud and nationalism appears in them ....*" S4 T2 asserted: "*for younger children their place of birth is an indicator of their identity. Especially if they were born in Australia they think of their identity as an Australian or any other country in which they are born. But for the older ones, their understanding of their originality and their mother tongue shapes their identity. They say we are Iranian residing in Australia.*"

Teacher data suggested that identity formation changes over time. Ethnic identity formation model developed by Tse (1997) suggested a predictable developmental path for ethnic identity formation. The model demonstrated that junior students had greater sense of ethnic identity. The research conducted by Chinen and Tucker (2005) suggested the similar finding.

From teachers' perception, place of birth was also recognized as an indicator of students' ethnic identity. For example, S4 T2 stated: "*for younger children, their place of birth is an indicator of their identity ...*."

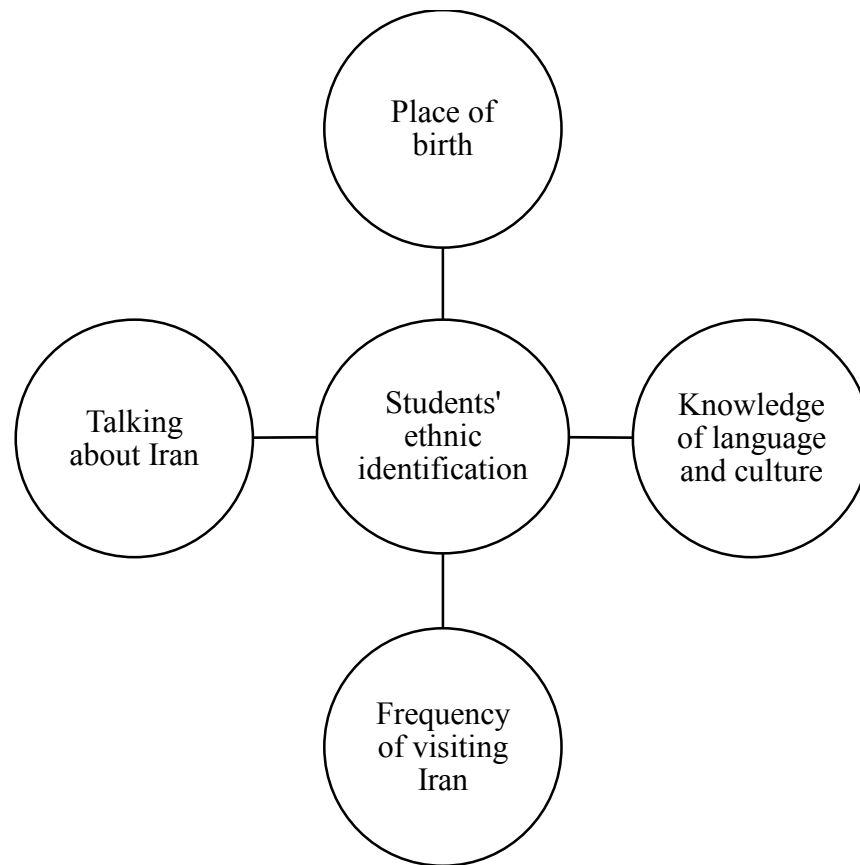
Teachers' data revealed that even though the students did not recognize themselves as either Iranian or Australian, their travelling to Iran and talking about their travel was influential on their intention to learn Persian language and their sense of passion and love towards Iran. For example, S1 T2 stated: "*Some of them ask: 'Why do we have to learn Persian? We do not want to go to Iran, so it will be forgotten.'*" S2 T1 said: "*we don't need Persian here as we are living in an English speaking country ....*" S2 T2 asserted: "... *Even though they don't say*

*I am Iranian or Australian, they always keep saying about Iran with love and passionate. They talk about their travel to Iran and the fun they had with their families in Iran ....”*

Teacher data demonstrated their belief that students’ identity achievement was linked to their knowledge and understanding of language and culture. This reflects their core role, belief and responsibility as a teacher. For example, S4 T1 said: “... *maybe it happened that they say as an Iranian they don’t know many things. I came across to this situation many times that for example they had no idea about an event. Or if I read some old scripts for them they can’t understand it so I need to explain for them in details. Sometimes I need to explain for them about festivals and ceremonies we come across during our lessons.*”

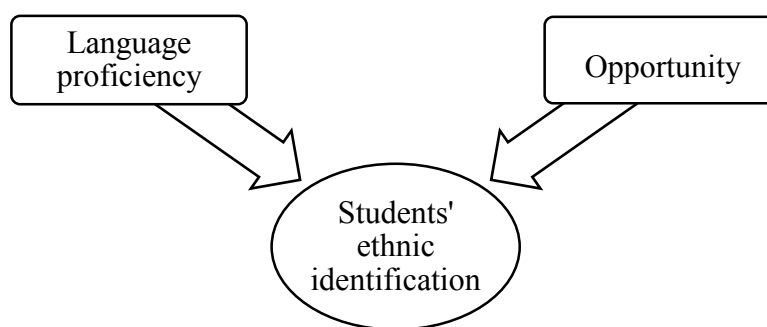
#### **5.1.3.2 Summary discussion: Teacher data**

Differences between teachers’ and students’ perception of students’ identity achievement was found through teacher data. One reason for this difference is the lack of identity practices and discussion among teachers and students evident in teachers’ data (S4 T1). Furthermore, teachers’ lack of knowledge about the importance and impact of identity formation on heritage language learning is evident. The data seemed to indicate teachers’ belief about the impact of place of birth, frequency of visiting Iran, talking about Iran, and knowledge about language and culture on students’ identity formation and achievement. Figure 5.5 below summarizes teacher data about students’ identity achievement.



**Figure 5.5** Teacher perception of what contributes to students’ ethnic identity achievement

Teachers’ knowledge and understanding of the categories influencing students’ identity formation is more limited compared to students’ and parents’ data. It appears that the teachers do not have a comprehensive knowledge of the categories that the researcher called “opportunity” such as watching Iranian movies, listening to Iranian music and social interaction realised by parents and students to have influence on students’ identity achievement and development. Therefore, similar to the process applied for students’ and parents’ data, the categories which are contributing to students’ ethnic identity achievement and are identified by teachers are summarised and illustrated in Figure 5.6 below.



**Figure 5.6** Teacher perception of what contributes to students' ethnic identity achievement

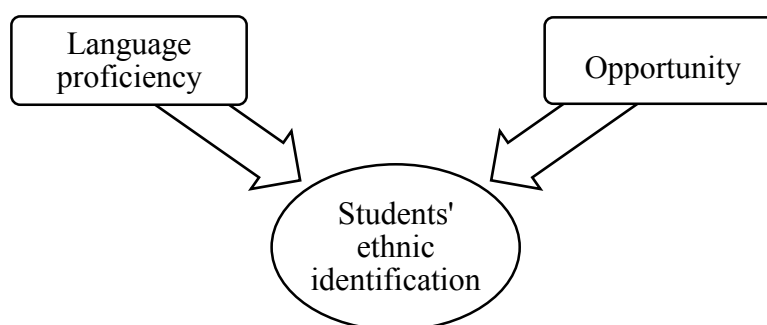
### 5.1.3.3 Triangulation of data: students' self-categorization and labelling

The data analysis reveals that Hyphenated identity is perceptible among participants' data. Although parents' and teachers' perception of learners' identity is identical in several cases, in other cases **discrepancy** between learners' identity perceptions and parents' and teachers' perception is noticeable. This discrepancy between parents' and their children's opinion was found by Wu (2005). Their nurture or professional responsibility leads them to offer or impose the elements of Iranian culture or identity. Therefore, child engagement with Iranian identity may be part of an intimate familial relationship or may be part of satisfying parents' emotional needs.

Participants' explanations of learners' ethnic identity achievement seemed to indicate both commonalities and disagreements. Place of birth, frequency of visiting Iran, talking about Iran and language proficiency are significant common indicators of ethnic identity throughout the whole participants' data. In addition, aspects such as social interaction and observation, watching Iranian movies and listening to Iranian music are identical reasons among learners and their parents for learners' ethnic identity achievement. Figure 5.7 shows that students' identity achievement can be attributed to two main categories: Opportunity and language proficiency. Language proficiency and ethnic identity achievement well-studied and the interrelationship between them is suggested (Cho, 2000; Phinney et al., 2001; Tse, 2000). The elements categorised as opportunity, including peer group (Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen,



2007; Oriyama, 2010), social interaction and environment (Norton, 2000), and eating food, watching movies and listening to music, frequency of visiting the country of origin (Hinton, 2001; Rohani et al., 2014), attending cultural ceremonies and talking about them, are also well-investigated.



**Figure 5.7** Factors influencing students’ ethnic identification

Both language proficiency and opportunity are two common categories distinguished by the research participants to have influence on students’ identity development and achievement. However, the research participants’ perception of opportunity was not the same. Parents and teachers were not aware of the opportunities uniquely realized by students. Therefore, broadening and deepening parents’ and teachers’ knowledge of those opportunities such as peer group, eating Persian food, watching Iranian movies, listening to Iranian music and social interactions, are essential towards students’ identity achievement and development.

#### **5.1.4 RQ2 Student data: ethnic identity exploration and behaviour**

Ethnic identity exploration is important to the process of ethnic identity formation. Ethnic identity exploration is seeking information and experiences appropriate to one’s ethnic identity. This exploration can involve a range of activities such as talking to people about cultural practices and food, and attending cultural events (Phinney & Ong, 2007).

Ethnic behaviours have also been considered and measured for ethnic identity formation. It consists of ethnic practices such as speaking the language and eating the food. Knowledge

and use of an ethnic language is a key aspect of ethnic identity, according to Phinney and Ong (2007). However, ethnic identity as an internal structure can exist without ethnic behaviour. This section of data analysis will focus on students' ethnic identity exploration and behaviour in order to understand what and how identity exploration activities and behaviour occur among them.

#### **5.1.4.1 Student data discussion: ethnic identity exploration and behaviour**

In order to investigate students' ethnic identity behaviour and exploration process, students were asked if they talked about Iranian cultural ceremonies and food, if they attended cultural ceremonies and they ate Persian food, and if they spoke Persian language. Speaking Persian language in different settings has been discussed in detail in Chapter 4. The other components of ethnic identity exploration and behaviour including talking about Iranian cultural ceremonies and food, attending cultural ceremonies and eating Persian food will be discussed here.

Student data showed that talking about Iranian cultural ceremonies and food depended on students' willingness to know about them. Whenever students were inclined to know about an issue, they accosted their parents and asked them about it. For example, S1 FG3 St1 said: *"sometimes I ask them (my parents) and then we sit and we talk about it and they tell me about it."* S1 FG3 St3 stated: *"I ask my father about Iran history and ...."* On the other hand, parents were blamed by their children for not providing cultural knowledge for them. S1 FG3 St2 experienced lack of acceptance by her family members which resulted in her embarrassment and lack of confidence (Ducar, 2012). Moreover, students' feelings of embarrassment and unease is rooted in lack of parental involvement. S1 FG3 St2 asserted: *"I once went to Iran. We went to Avicenna shrine. I went with my cousin. Then I asked him who Avicenna is? He was surprised that I did not know who Avicenna was. Later I told my mom why she didn't tell me who Avicenna was, I felt embarrassed."* This student's experience was narrated by her father as well. Her father, S1 P1, said: *"My children believe they are Iranian*

*... especially my daughter, she is asking us why we have not told her about Avicenna."*

Learner's frustration and conflicts with the heritage community may be related to more understanding of culture and individuals (Cho, 2000).

Student data demonstrated that majority of students talked about Iranian ceremonies and food with their parents. In addition, a number of students also practiced the rituals and prepared the food with their parents, relatives and friends. S2 FG1 St1 said: *"Yes, we talk about Iranian food or ceremonies and even we do it. We gather together with our friends and families and we listen to Iranian music. We make foods like Gohrmehsabzi, Gheymeh, Sholezard, Shirberenj."* S2 FG1 St4 stated: *"every Saturday we get together with our relatives and make Iranian foods."* S4 FG2 St2 and St3 said: *"We prepare Haftseen."* (Haftseen is prepared for Iranian New Year). S4 FG2 St4 asserted: *"yes we celebrate it (Iranian New Year celebration) in our school. Iranian food is regarded as a means for negotiation of identity, according to student data. For example, S4 FG2 St4 said: "I hate Iranian food and I am sick of Iranian food; I am tired of it; I have eaten so much Iranian food that I think I am Iranian". She explicitly related her choice of food to her negatively-expressed ethnic identity.*

A number of students also noted that even though their parents attended ceremonies, they were reluctant to attend the ceremonies. For example, S2 FG1 St3 said: *"I do not attend very much. My parents usually go to the Iranian ceremonies."*

#### **5.1.4.2 Summary discussion: student data**

Student data about ethnic identity exploration and behaviour as components of ethnic identity formation were discussed above. The analysis of data seems to indicate that talking about Iranian cultural ceremonies and food, attending cultural ceremonies and eating Persian food is mainly dependent on students' inclination to know about Iranian culture and parents' role in providing the incident to transfer the cultural knowledge to their children.

### **5.1.5 RQ2 Parent data: child's ethnic identity exploration and behaviour**

Similar to students' interview questions, parents were also asked about their children's ethnic identity exploration and behaviour in order to identify similarities and differences between parents' and their children's data.

#### **5.1.5.1 Parent data discussion: child ethnic identity exploration and behaviour**

Parents' data showed that parents talked about Iranian ceremonies and food with their children. They also accompanied their children by attending and celebrating the Iranian rituals and preparing Iranian food. However, the case was diverse among different families. For a number of parents, activities involving ethnic identity exploration and behaviour were more frequent and important. For example, S1 P5 said: *"Very often. A lot. A lot. We talk a lot about it (Iranian culture and food) ... Even for New Year celebration I ask him to help me and I explain for him everything."* S2 P1 asserted: *"I think food is very important. 80-90 percents of food we eat is Iranian. I think it makes her feel different from others. She knows of Iranian breakfast, lunch and dinner and they are different and these are the things that she thinks she is different. We teach her behaviours and culture such as respect by saying "hello" and she knows it. Home atmosphere is absolutely Iranian and she knows it."* S2 P1 said: *"She knows about great Persia and she knows that Iran was greater than this. We also talked to her about these things."* S2 P2 stated: *"we always talk to them about Norooz festival (Iranian New Year) and I cook Iranian food most of the times."*

A number of parents tried to either negotiate or impose Iranian identity on their children by providing Iranian food and celebrating Iranian cultural ceremonies such as Iranian New Year (Norooz). The example for negotiation of identity is the quote by S2 P1 noted above. In regard to imposition of identity, for instance, S1 P5 said: *"I make Iranian food, even if they don't like it. I also make the food they like, but I believe they should appreciate our food ... I do my best for New Year celebration and they know that It is very important for me and everything should be perfect."* S3 P1 said: *"we go for festivals and we talk about it. He (her*

*son) knows about Nowruz. When it is Christmas time, he asks us to buy Christmas trees and we say we are Iranian and we celebrate Norooz. So he agrees with us.”*

A number of parents emphasized that their children ethnic identity exploration and behaviour was reliant on parents’ role and participation in Iranian cultural events. For example, S2 P2 said: *“we sometimes attend Iranian ceremonies and they join us too. We don’t attend them too much but if we attend, they will come with us.”*

Parents’ data demonstrated that although parent put a lot of effort by making Iranian food, her child did not show interest in the food. For instance, S3 P1 said: *“I make all types of Iranian food. But he doesn’t like Iranian food. He does not like some of them.”*

#### **5.1.5.2 Summary discussion: parent data**

Parent data emphasizes parents’ role in their children’s ethnic identity exploration and behaviour. In regard to ethnic identity exploration, both parents’ role and students’ enthusiasm are highlighted. However, children’s ethnic identity behaviour is affected by parents’ endeavour to impose their Iranian identity on their children. Parents’ role and students’ willingness for ethnic identity exploration and behavior is suggested by parent data.

#### **5.1.6 RQ2 Teacher data: students’ ethnic identity exploration and behaviour**

Similar to students’ and parents’ interview questions, teachers were also asked about their students’ ethnic identity exploration and behaviour in order to identify similarities and differences between teachers’, parents’ and students’ data.

##### **5.1.6.1 Teacher data discussion: students’ ethnic identity exploration and behaviour**

Teachers’ data demonstrated that they taught Iranian culture and ceremonies as knowledge about the ceremonies and Persian culture was included in students’ course books. They also talked about them and even they practiced a number of them such as Norooz (Iranian New Year). By doing so, teachers believed that students became familiar with the ceremonies. For example, S2 T1 said: *“We have a lesson in our book about Norooz. I teach the lesson. We even celebrate Norooz. I tell the students to bring Haftseen items and I explain for them the*

*reason for using those items. And then we perform the ritual in front of the parents. Therefore they become familiar with the ceremony.”*

S4 T1 said: *“we have major celebrations like Norooz ... We talk about the origin of Norooz and it's a chance to know and celebrate Norooz as well as to talk about it ... If we don't celebrate them we still talk about them and explain them for children because they are in their books and we need to address them ....”*

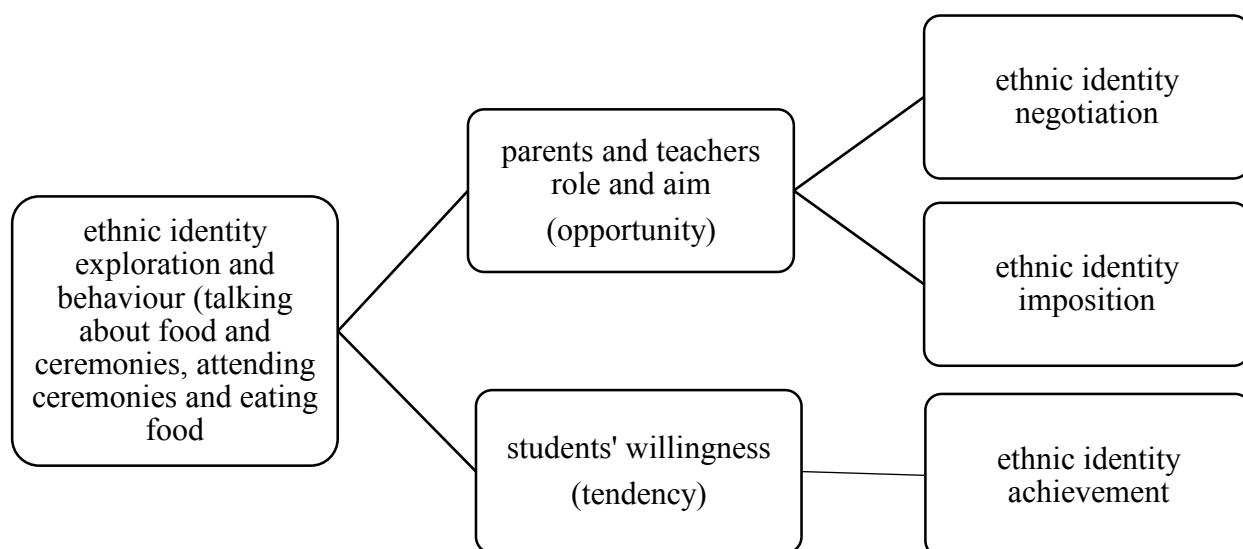
#### **5.1.6.2 Summary discussion: teacher data**

Iranian cultural ceremonies are taught and learnt by their students as they are addressed in students' course books. Teachers talk about those ceremonies and they explain them for their students. They also celebrate and practice the rituals with their students at their Persian schools. The results highlight teachers' role and the importance of cultural awareness gained through knowledge and practice.

#### **5.1.6.3 Triangulation of data: ethnic identity exploration and behaviour**

Examining student, parent and teacher data revealed that ethnic identity exploration and behaviour is practiced by activities such as talking about Iranian cultural ceremonies and food and/or practicing those ceremonies and eating Persian food. However, these incidents emphasizes both parents and teachers role and aim in conveying ethnic and cultural information and students' willingness to obtain that information. It can be concluded that parents' choice of food is regarded as a means for both negotiation and imposition of Iranian identity. Likewise, students' choice of food reflects their ethnic identity formation and achievement. The vitality of identity negotiation as a sign of family interaction and engagement is identified by De Fina (2012). In multilingual contexts where different language and identity ideologies challenge each other, negotiation of identities occurs in order to decide what language should be spoken. This points to what Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004, p. 3) suggest that the negotiation of identities in multilingual contexts can be through private decisions such as celebration of particular holidays, food choices and clothing.

Figure 5.8 below summarizes ethnic identity exploration and behavior and its relationship with ethnic identity formation.



**Figure 5.8** Factors influencing ethnic identity exploration and behaviour

#### **5.1.6.4 Observation data: Persian heritage language learners' ethnic identity development and achievement**

Class observation was conducted by the researcher as a non-participant observer in order to explore verbal and non-verbal behaviours among students demonstrating students' ethnic identity development and achievement. The researcher found evidences of self-categorization and labelling, ethnic identity exploration and ethnic identity behaviour.

While the researcher was observing S1 CL2, S1 FG1 St4 showed lack of interest and motivation and he was murmuring: *"Iran is not my country and Australia is my country."*

Then the teacher in CL2 began negotiation of identities by asking one of the students' place of birth. The teacher continued by recognizing place of birth as indicator of students' ethnic identity. However, the teacher imposed the identity on students when she said: *"... both Iran and Australia are our countries. Especially for those who were born here in Australia, Australia is their country."*

In S1 CL2, students talked about “Mother’s day” in Australia and in Iran. The teacher and students’ discussion continued by talking more about Iranian culture.

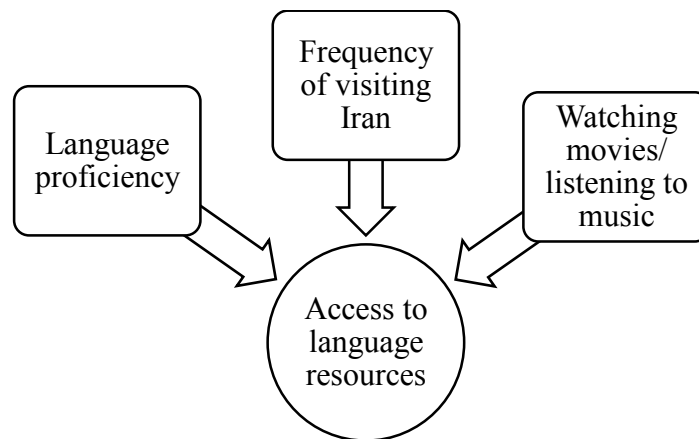
Students in S2 CL3 and S3 CL2 talked about Iranian names and their meanings. In S1 CL3 and S2 CL2 students talked about Iranian food. Two students just came back from Iran and they talked about a city in Iran they visited. They talked about the fruit they had in Iran and they talked about Iranian games. In S3 CL1, teacher talked about Iranian New Year celebration and another Iranian celebration.

#### **5.1.7 RQ2 Result: Persian heritage language learners’ ethnic identity development and achievement**

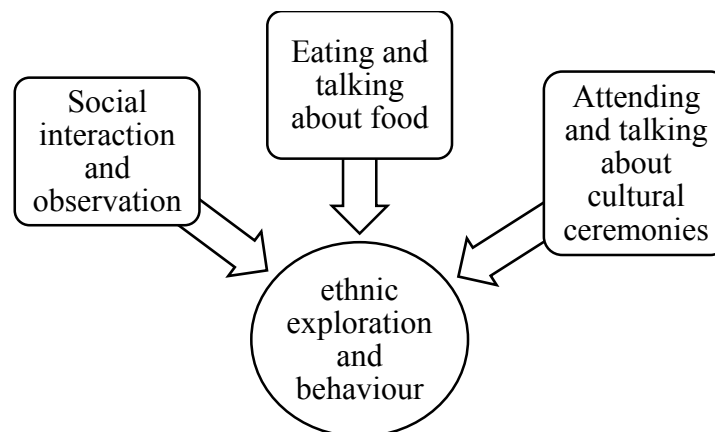
Chapter 5 has presented the participant data in order to understand how Persian heritage language learners’ ethnic identity is developed and achieved. Student, parent and teacher data reveal that these student’s ethnic identity is both negotiated and imposed through social activities. Except place of birth which is a robust indicator of ethnic identity, the other aspects including peer group, social interaction and observation, eating and talking about Persian food, attending and talking about Iranian cultural ceremonies, frequency of visiting Iran, watching Iranian movies and listening to Iranian music, and language proficiency are examples of learner’s participation in social practices. Learner’s ethnic identity is developed and achieved through social activities at home and at school. The findings shed light on the impact of social context and social impacts on ethnic identity development and achievement. Interestingly, the aspects titled above can be categorised in two main groups. Language proficiency, frequency of visiting Iran and watching Iranian movies and listening to Iranian music were explored as language resources to which learners have access. These aspects, as shown in Chapter 4, are related to the category called “access to language resources”. Social interaction and observation, talking about and eating Persian food, and talking about and attending cultural ceremonies are elements of ethnic identity exploration and behaviour and



can be grouped and called “ethnic identity exploration and behaviour.” Figure 5.9 and Figure 5.10 summarise and show these groups.

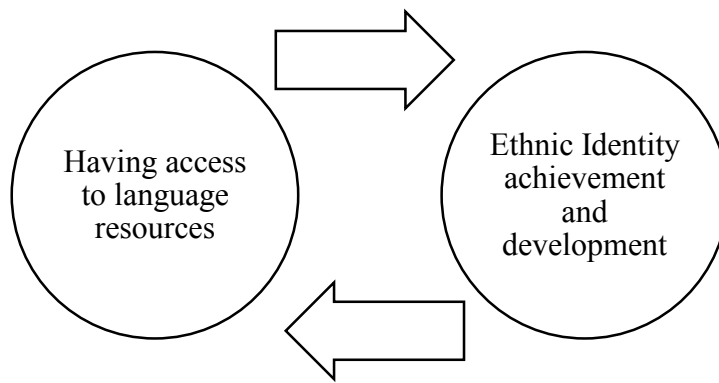


**Figure 5.9** The elements of the group “Access to language resources”



**Figure 5.10** The elements of the group “ethnic exploration and behaviour”

Therefore, the research findings suggest that Ethnic identity exploration is important to the process of ethnic identity formation (Phinney & Ong, 2007). Moreover, the relationship between having access to language resources and ethnic identity achievement is highlighted. Figure 5.11 below shows this relationship.



**Figure 5.11** The relationship between access to language resources and ethnic identity achievement

In sum, the results demonstrate that both access to language resources and ethnic identity formation are influenced by social context at formal and informal settings. The findings also seem to indicate that in addition to language and language proficiency, students' tendency and the opportunity provided for them by parents and teachers to explore about their ethnic identity are influential on learners' ethnic identity development and achievement. It appears that the TOP model introduced at the end of Chapter 4 has implications for ethnic identity formation too. Figure 5.12 shows the relationship between TOP model and ethnic identity development and achievement.

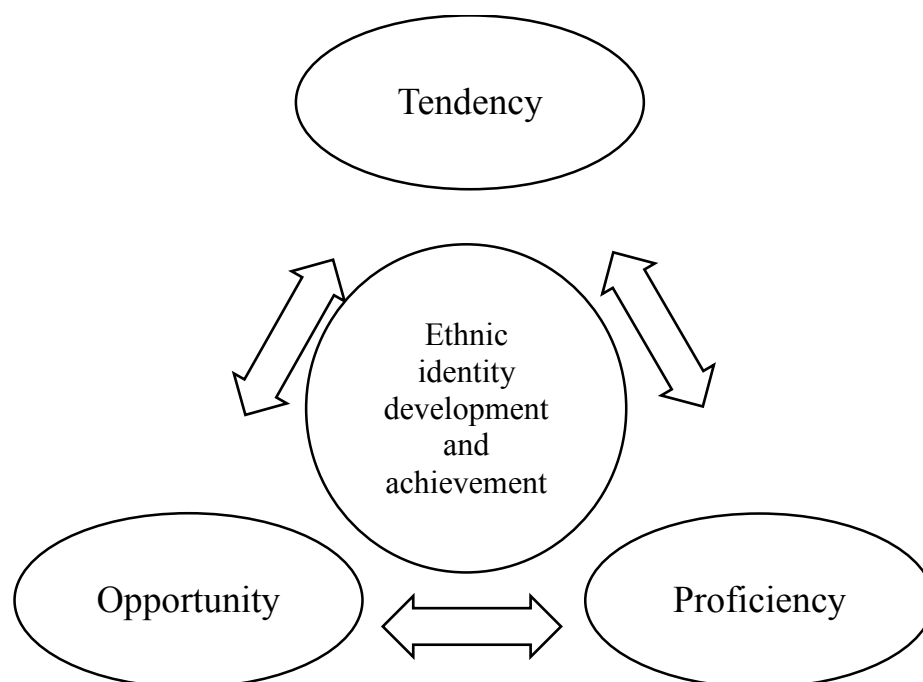


Figure 5.12 **The relationship between TOP model and ethnic identity development and achievement.**

So far, the impact of student tendency on both access to language resources and ethnic identity formation is suggested. The next chapter will answer the third Research Question: “What principal motivators have primary roles for language learning among Persian heritage language learners?”

## **Chapter 6: Findings 3: Persian heritage learners' principal motivators for language learning**

*Be Smart, Be Diverse, Be Bilingual*

## 6.1 Overview

In this chapter, as noted at the beginning of chapter four, the sources of empirical data including students' focus group interviews, parents' and teachers' individual interviews, and class observations were used and the related data were analysed in order to answer the research question 3: "what principal motivators have primary roles for language learning among Persian heritage language learners?"

The inter-relationship between motivation and language achievement has been established by substantial research in the field of second language learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dörnyei, 1990, 1994; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, 2013; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Motivation "is a very important, if not, the most important factor in language learning" according to Van Lier (1996, p. 98). Despite the critical role of motivation, empirical research investigating the impact of motivation on heritage language learning is scarce (Lynch, 2003; Van Deusen-Scholl, 2003).

This study seeks to understand Persian heritage language learners' motivation for learning Persian language by focusing on five categories significant in the studies of motivation and language learning. The research participant data and the discussion for each one of the categories has been provided. These categories include students' intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and amotivation; students' Persian language ability; students' attitudes towards their language ability; students' goal and students' needs for learning the language. At the end of the chapter, a conclusion of the entire Chapter 6 provides the answer for Research Question 3. A visual display of the structure of Chapter 6 is provided in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1** Structure of Chapter 6: Persian heritage language learners' principal motivators for language learning

<b>Section</b>	<b>Data and discussion</b>
6.1.1 RQ3 Student data: motivation (intrinsic/extrinsic, amotivation)	6.1.1.1 Student data discussion: intrinsic/extrinsic motivation
	6.1.1.2 Student data discussion: amotivation
	6.1.1.3 Summary discussion: student data
6.1.2 RQ3 Parent data: child's motivation (intrinsic/extrinsic, amotivation)	6.1.2.1 Parents data discussion: child's intrinsic/extrinsic motivation
	6.1.2.2 Parent data discussion: child's amotivation
	6.1.2.3 Summary discussion: parent data
6.1.3 RQ3 Teacher data: students' motivation (intrinsic/extrinsic, amotivation)	6.1.3.1 Teachers data discussion: students' intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and amotivation
	6.1.3.2 Summary discussion: teacher data
	6.1.3.3 Class observation discussion: Persian heritage language learners' principal motivators for language learning
	6.1.3.4 Triangulation of data: students' motivation (intrinsic/extrinsic, amotivation)
6.1.4 RQ3 Student data: students' Persian language ability	6.1.4.1 Student data discussion: speaking skill
	6.1.4.2 Student data discussion: listening skill
	6.1.4.3 Student data discussion: reading and writing skills
	6.1.4.4 Summary discussion: student data
6.1.5 RQ3 Parent data: child's Persian language ability	6.1.5.1 Parent data discussion: child's speaking skill
	6.1.5.2 Parent data discussion: child's listening skill
	6.1.5.3 Parent data discussion: child's reading and writing skills
	6.1.5.4 Summary discussion: parent data
6.1.6 RQ3 Teacher data: students' Persian language ability	6.1.6.1 Teacher data discussion: students' speaking skill
	6.1.6.2 Teacher data discussion: students' listening skill
	6.1.6.3 Teacher data discussion: students' reading and writing skills
	6.1.6.4 Summary discussion: teacher data
	6.1.6.5 class observation discussion: students' Persian language ability
	6.1.6.6 Triangulation of data: students' Persian language ability
6.1.7 RQ3 Student data: students' attitudes towards their Persian language ability	6.1.7.1 Student data discussion: students' attitudes
	6.1.7.2 Summary discussion: student data
6.1.8 RQ3 Parent data: child's attitudes towards their Persian language ability	6.1.8.1 Parent data discussion: child's attitudes
	6.1.8.2 Summary discussion: parent data

<b>Section</b>	<b>Data and discussion</b>
6.1.9 RQ3 Teacher data: students' attitudes towards their Persian language ability	6.1.9.1 Teacher data discussion: students' attitudes
	6.1.9.2 Summary discussion: teacher data
	6.1.9.3 Triangulation of data: students' attitudes towards Persian language ability
6.1.10 RQ3 Student data: students' goal for Persian language learning	6.1.10.1 Student data discussion: students' goal
	6.1.10.2 Summary discussion: student data
6.1.11 RQ3 Parent data: child's goal for learning Persian language identified by parents	6.1.11.1 Parent data discussion: child's goal identified by parents
	6.1.11.2 Summary discussion: parent data
6.1.12 RQ3 Teacher data: students' goal for Persian language learning identified by teachers	6.1.12.1 Teacher data discussion: students' goal
	6.1.12.2 Summary discussion: teacher data
	6.1.12.3 Triangulation of data: research participant beliefs about students' Persian language learning goals
6.1.13 RQ3 Student data: students' need for learning Persian language	6.1.13.1 Student data discussion: student need
	6.1.13.2 Summary discussion: student data
6.1.14 Parent data: child's need for learning Persian language	6.1.14.1 Parent data discussion: child's need
	6.1.14.2 Summary discussion: parent data
6.1.15 Teacher data: students' need for learning Persian language	6.1.15.1 Teacher data discussion: students' need
	6.1.15.2 Summary discussion: teacher data
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### **6.1.1 RQ3 Student data: motivation (intrinsic/extrinsic, amotivation)**

In order to investigate students' motivation for learning Persian language, students were asked interview questions in order to understand their intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, instrumental/integrative motivation and their amotivation. The first section of data analysis will provide the research participants' data about students' intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. Then, the research participants' data will be analysed in order to investigate students' amotivation. Students' integrative/instrumental motivation will be discussed through exploring students' goal for learning Persian language.

#### **6.1.1.1 Student data discussion: intrinsic/extrinsic motivation**

The students were asked if they, themselves, were interested to learn Persian language or if their parents motivated them to learn it. The analysis of data below used a number of specialized terms from motivation research literature provided in the chapter two of this thesis.

Student data showed that they were more extrinsically than intrinsically motivated to learn Persian language. Student data demonstrated that while 14.3% (five out of 35) of students showed their intrinsic motivation for learning Persian language without stating any reason for that, 85.7% (30 out of 35) of students illustrated their extrinsic motivation by providing several reasons. The three sub-types of extrinsic motivation were found in the student participant data. In Table 6.2 below, each sub-type with some examples from student participant data is illustrated.



**Table 6.2** Examples of student data illustrating different extrinsic motivation sub-types

<b>Extrinsic motivation sub-types</b>	<b>An example from student data</b>
<p>External regulation (Least self-determined form of motivation)</p>	<p>S1 FG1 St2 said: <i>“I was a kid and my mom made me to come.”</i></p> <p>S1 FG1 St4 said: <i>“My parents want me to learn Persian and they ask me to do Persian language for my high school; but sometimes I don’t like it very much.”</i></p> <p>S2 FG1 St2 stated: <i>“I think my parent like it very much for me to be here because they think it is very important and I like Australia more.”</i></p> <p>S2 FG1 St4 asserted: <i>“I like Australian school more but my parents tell me it is very good and important if you come here.”</i></p> <p>S3 FG1 St2 said: <i>“My parents want me to come here most.”</i></p> <p>S4 FG2 St4 stated: <i>“My mom says that I should come here but I don’t like it.”</i></p>
<p>Introjected regulation (More internal with existing external pressure)</p>	<p>S1 FG1 St1 stated: <i>“They used to make me learn, now they make me too but now I come eagerly and I like to keep on myself ... I see they’re spending their Saturday for me and bring me early in the morning ... They want to help me. So I think I should help them. I should love it and I should study Persian. So I have to be grateful to them and help them because they’re spending money on this. So, I should compensate as well.”</i></p> <p>S1 FG3 St1 said: <i>“I usually get tired because I come from Wollongong; it takes me one and a half hour. I like to learn Persian language too but my parent like it more.”</i></p>

Extrinsic motivation sub-types	An example from student data
Identified regulation (More self-determined form of motivation)	<p>S1 FG1 St2 asserted: <i>“It’s so important for my parents to help me to learn Persian. It is very important for me as well since it’s a beautiful language and its culture is great. And I’d like to know more about Iran. If I know Persian language it will be a lot easier.”</i></p> <p>S2 FG1 St1 stated: <i>“I like it very much to come to Iranian school because If I cannot be able to read and write in Persian people will call me illiterate and I don’t want people to say that I am illiterate. My parents like it but I like it more. Now that my mother comes here I like it very much too.”</i></p> <p>S2 FG1 St3 asserted: <i>“For example, First I started Persian school I didn’t like Iranian school very much and my parents always every week told me and repeated to me to go Persian school. They made me to come here. But when after a while when your Persian language starts to improve you start to like it and you always want to attend. Now that I can see that my Persian is improved and each week I learn several new words, I really like to come to Persian school each week.”</i></p>

Students' motivation for learning Persian language was influenced by students' age, according to their data. For example, S1 FG1 St1 asserted: *"First year, for example when I was a child and I came to the school I didn't like it and I had to come but now I, myself, understand how important it is."* S1 FG1 St2 asserted: *"... I was a kid and my mom made me to come. After a couple of years I now realize that she was right ... when we go to Iran I really enjoy and can have verbal communication with Iranian people and relatives."* S2 FG2 St1 said: *"Well, it's likely that when you are child and very young, you say I don't like but when I get older I'd be happy that I learnt Persian. I think knowing two languages is of great importance for universities as well."* S2 FG2 St2 asserted: *"When I was younger my mother tried several times to teach me but it didn't work and I did not want. But now, yes, I want it myself. Before my mother should force me to come to school but now I want it myself."* Later on in preadolescence and adolescence age (14+), heritage language learners move cognitively to independent critical thought and they move in a positive direction. Stronger sense of ethnic identity, favourable attitudes toward the heritage language and heritage language proficiency are reasons that an adolescence make a decision to continue or discontinue heritage language learning (Chinen & Tucker, 2005). It has been recognised that an age pattern in heritage language learning exists.

Student data revealed that students' existing language ability motivated them to learn more Persian language. For instance, S1 FG1 St1 asserted: *"... Because when you grow up you can communicate with different people and because you know two nationalities ...."* S4 FG2 St1 said: *"I don't like to come very much because my Persian is not very good."* S4 FG2 St2 asserted: *"I come here to learn something."* S4 FG1 St3 stated: *"If we didn't have homework I'd like to come, but homework is quite difficult for me."* S3 FG2 St4 said: *"I want to come to school to learn Persian very good and to learn to speak."*

Student data demonstrated other reasons such as time of schooling and the distance from the school as the reasons for their lack of motivation to attend Persian school. For example, S4

FG1 St3 stated: *"I don't want because it is on Saturdays."* S4 FG1 St4 asserted: *"because when you are two hours away from the school."* However, other reasons were discovered as motivators for them such as their friends and their peer group. For example, S1 FG1 St2 stated: *"...I remember that the first time I came to Persian school I didn't like this very much because I did not have a friend."* S4 FG1 St4 stated: *"Because my friends are here as I told them to come and so I want to continue."* S4 FG2 St2 said: *"I also come here because I know S4 FG1 St1 for nine years and I come here to see him."*

Student data illustrated that they were motivated to learn Persian language because of the possibility of coming back to Iran. For instance, S2 FG1 St1 stated: *"Yes, I like to continue it, especially in Iran because maybe we're going to back to Iran and I can continue it there ... So I continue it now."*

#### **6.1.1.2 Student data discussion: amotivation**

Amotivation is defined as a state of lacking any motivation to engage in an activity, characterized by a lack of perceived competence and/or a failure to value the activity or its outcomes. It is a situation in which a person has no purposeful reason for performing an activity. This situation can be contrasted with both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Therefore, inability to regulate behaviour results in not gaining the desired results and consequently the person would discontinue the activity (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 150).

In order to explore students' amotivation for learning Persian language, they were asked if they wish not to continue Persian language learning.

Student data demonstrated that students' amotivation for learning Persian language was apparent in a number of stages of their language learning. They provided different reasons for their amotivation. However, it should be emphasized that although amotivation was experienced by a number of students, they were still satisfied with learning Persian language overall.

Student data demonstrated the time of Persian school which was on Saturday mornings resulted in their amotivation to continue their language learning. For example, S1 FG1 St1 said: *“At the beginning I told myself I wish I didn’t go to Persian school and I could play Netball instead. But Now I am happy.”* S3 FG1 St1 stated: *“Because I want to do something else on Saturdays.”*

Students’ age had impact on their amotivation for learning Persian language, according to student data. As they got older, they became busier with their mainstream school and their Persian school became quite demanding for them. For example, S1 FG1 St2 stated: *“... this year I’m starting to say this (I wish I did not learn Persian). I am very busy because I’m going to high school ... Sometimes I feel it’s too hard then I say myself “never mind”. It is hard now but in the future it’ll pay back. It is good to learn Persian language.”* However, as they became more mature, they realized the fulfilment of learning Persian language. For instance, S2 FG2 St1 said: *“Well, it's likely that when you are child and very young, you say I don't like but when I get older I'd be happy that I learnt Persian ....”* S4 FG2 St1 asserted: *“When I was in the second year I did not want to come but as I started the third year I was quite happy to come.”*

Students’ lack of language proficiency at the very beginning stages of learning Persian language was revealed as another reason for students’ amotivation. For instance, S1 FG1 St3 said: *“... At the beginning I had too much conflict with my mom because I didn’t want to come and my lessons were too hard, but now I’m very happy that I have come.”* S3 FG1 St4 stated: *“Sometimes I have this idea (not to continue Persian language learning) but then I say to myself it’s OK. I improve.”* S4 FG2 St3 stated: *“I like it (to learn Persian language), but sometimes I don’t get good mark.”*

Student data showed that a number of students “never” experienced amotivation for learning Persian language. Instead, they were quite satisfied by learning the language. For example, S1

FG2 St3 said: *“Never. Thanks God we learnt it.”* S3 FG2 St4 stated: *“I never thought of not studying Persian and I want to work harder in order to learn it more.”*

Student data illustrated that students experienced lack of need to learn Persian language because of English language hegemony. For example, S1 FG3 St2 said: *“Because when you are out there, for example, when you speak English everybody understands you but when we speak Persian nobody understand us.”* Student data highlights the term “cultural capital” used by Bourdieu and Passeron (1977). The term means that a learner invests in a language with a hope that the learner will acquire access to language resources in return. In fact, it shows the relationship between motivation and access to language resources. It also demonstrates the relationship between Tendency and Opportunity.

Student data proved that teachers, peers and siblings had influence on their amotivation for learning Persian language. For example, S4 FG2 St1 and St3 said: *“I don’t want to come because of S4 FG2 St4.”* S4 FG2 St4 said: *“Yeah, (I don’t want to come) because of S4 T1. S4 FG2 St4 asserted: “I always keep saying that (I don’t want to learn Persian). When I was five years old I came here with my sister because it was good and I was happy (her sister doesn’t come any more as she has her HSC).”*

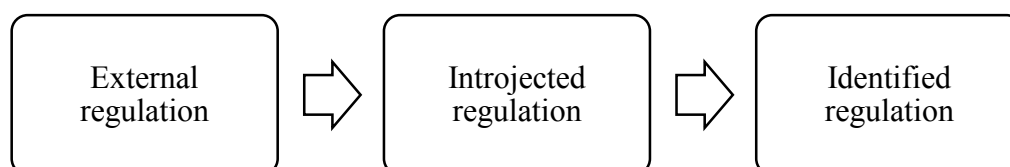
Students’ amotivation was the result of lack of fun for learning Persian language. A strong emotive/affective dimension to amotivation was revealed through student data. For instance, S4 FG2 St4 said: *“... Then after that I thought why I want to come here. It is not fun. Now I am trapped here.”*

It appeared in a number of cases that the Researcher’s role had possible impact on students’ response. For example, S4 FG1 St3 said: *“I don’t have problem. However, His friend told that each week the student (S4 FG1 St3) told he did not want to come to school.”*

#### **6.1.1.3 Summary discussion: student data**

Student data show that Persian heritage language learners in this study mainly asserted their extrinsic motivation for learning Persian language. The three sub types of extrinsic motivation

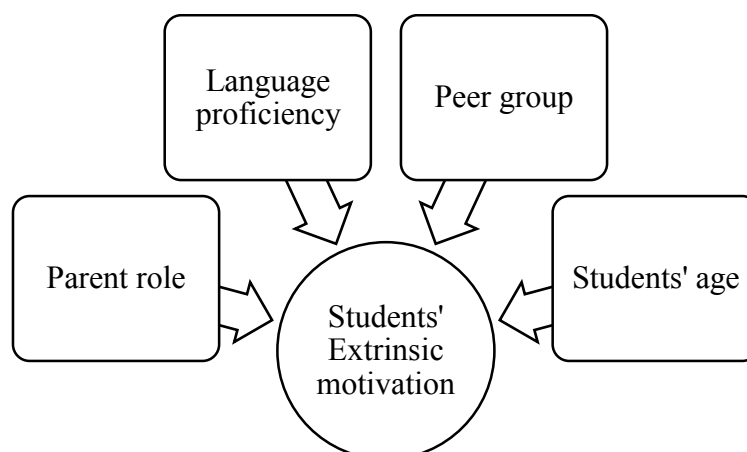
including external regulation, introjected regulation and identified regulation are found in the student data. However, student data show a pattern for their extrinsic motivation. Figure 6.1 illustrates a continuum for students' extrinsic motivation which is initially external regulation then becomes introjected regulation and finally is identified regulation.



**Figure 6.1** The development of extrinsic motivation among Persian language learners

From the student data, the themes including Parent role, teacher role, peer group, language proficiency and student age are found to be influential on students' extrinsic motivation.

Figure 6.2 shows the relationship between those themes and students' extrinsic motivation.



**Figure 6.2** Factors influencing students' extrinsic motivation according to student data

While a number of students assert that they never experienced amotivation, student data show that the same themes such as language proficiency, peer group, student age and teacher role negatively have influence on students' motivation. In addition to those themes, lack of fun, lack of perceived need for learning Persian language and time of Persian school are reasons for students' amotivation. Peer group has impact on the development of positive attitudes and

motivation to learn heritage language (Tse, 2001). However, this study shows peer networking has both positive and negative influences on heritage language motivation. It can be concluded that students' motivation is influenced by social activities they experience. Furthermore, while students are in younger age, they are less motivated and parents' role can enhance their motivation to start learning language. As they grow up and they become more competent and proficient in their Persian language, they become more interested to continue their language learning. Therefore they need parents' support and persistence while they are younger.

### **6.1.2 RQ3 Parent data: child's motivation (intrinsic/extrinsic, amotivation)**

Parent participants were asked about their children's intrinsic/extrinsic motivation by asking them if their children showed independent interest to attend the Persian school or if parents forced or encouraged them to attend the school. In regard to amotivation, even if parent participants were not asked the question directly, they addressed their children's amotivation.

#### **6.1.2.1 Parents data discussion: child's intrinsic/extrinsic motivation**

Parent data demonstrated the impact of parent role on their children's motivation especially when they are young. So, both parent role and their children's age are emphasized as influencing children's motivation for learning Persian language. For example, S1 P5 said: *"I think they are not aware of what they need to do when they are very young, and it is us, parents, who should motivate them ... it is parents who feel this need when kids are young and send them to school ... I believe that motivation is caused by parents when children are young, and as they get older, they begin to feel the need to learn their native language ... Parents have to force them till they get mature enough to feel the need ... but as they got older, 15 or 16 years of age, they stopped it, because they didn't like it and parents were not able to force them anymore."* S1 P2 said: *"She always came here with enthusiasm because as I told you before, I was more interested than her ... We should stay with them ...I said before, we (parents) have an important role. We could ignore. I always say that parents should take*



*the first steps. I think at the beginning its all parents responsibilities, and then when the child understands it you don't need to push him/her ... at first child should get everything from parents ... You as a parent have the responsibility to show these to your child"* S1 P3 said:

*"She likes it (Persian school) herself, too. But I'm a bit more eager than her in this regard."*

S1 P4 stated: *"... I have rarely seen that it is child that she or he is interested. Very often it is parents who encourage children. So I believe if parents underline the importance of learning Persian and create an environment to increase the motivation of the child, it will make a very big difference. I have hardly seen any child who is interested to go to Persian school and his parents are not involved ...."* S1 P5 asserted: *"Well, I should say that it has been 60% my role*

*and 40% his own interest so far But it seems to me that my son (S1 FG1 St4) is now more interested ... when he was younger. He did not resist at all and I think I was tough on him."*

S2 P1 said: *"In fact I made her to come and then she became interested because if you just say them to participate in the Persian school, they will refuse ... Now she wants it herself ...."*

S2 P2 stated: *"I should say that it is 70% my role and 30% his own interest. If I don't show my enthusiasm and if I have a different plan for Saturdays, he will accept not to go to school."*

S3 P1 asserted: *"we force him to come. He doesn't disagree with us. However he does not show enthusiasm for coming to school."* S4 P1 said: *"First we insisted and he resisted even if he likes to learn Persian language. Now he likes it and he likes to learn it ... he's satisfied and very happy that he's learned a second language and he can read and write easily. For example he says me that he can read this book ...."* These parents' data and the percentage evident in their data above suggested that students were motivated to learn Persian language even though their motivation was low.

In regard to parents' role, parent participants highlighted the importance of their physical attendance in the Persian school as a motivator for their children's language learning. For example, S1 P4 asserted: *"my daughter wants me to stay at school ... She asks me to come to*

*the classroom and help ... But this is much more motivating for her if I accompany her in the school.” S1 P2 said: “... We should stay with them ....”*

Parent data illustrated time of Persian school, which was on Saturday mornings, as another factor influencing children’s motivation. For instance, S1 P1 asserted: *“They (his children) need to rest on Saturdays ... she doesn't like to spend 4 hours on Saturday morning for Persian school.”* S4 P1 stated: *“He (her son) kept saying: “why should I come here to school again on weekend?”*

Parent data seemed to indicate the role and impact of peer group on their children’s motivation for learning Persian language. For instance, S1 P2 said: *“She always becomes happy to see her (Iranian) friends ... during holidays she prefers to see Iranian friends.”*

Community language schools provide the opportunity for language learners for socializing and interaction with other learners who share the same background (Shibata, 2000; Wang, 1999)

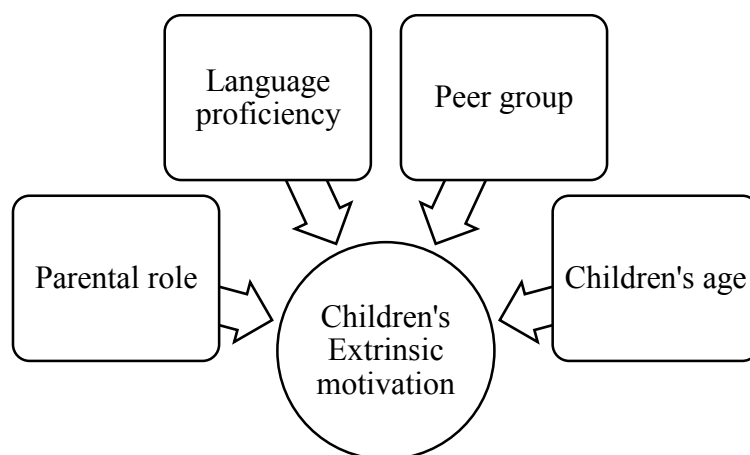
Parent data illustrated that children’s language proficiency influenced their Persian language learning. For instance, S1 P3 said: *“she sees her ability to speak and write in Persian, especially during our travel to Iran and it has had some positive effects on her.”*

#### **6.1.2.2 Parent data discussion: child’s amotivation**

Parent data, similar to student data, do not demonstrate students’ amotivation. For example, S1 P2 said: *“As I remember, my daughter (S1 FG1 St2) never said to me “I don't want to come to Iranian school or it's boring.”* However, they referred to students’ lack of motivation for learning Persian language by asserting these reasons. Parents believed that time of Persian school, lack of language proficiency and lack of need to learn Persian language were the reasons for their children’s amotivation for learning Persian language. S1 P3 said: *“... But recently she has been somehow reluctant to go to Persian school. Perhaps it is because she is in grade two now and the lessons are more difficult.”*

### 6.1.2.3 Summary discussion: parent data

Parent data, very similar to student data, seem to indicate that parent role, the themes such as language proficiency, peer group and children's age have impact on their children's language learning motivation. Figure 6.3 below demonstrates the relationship between those themes and children's extrinsic motivation for learning Persian language.



**Figure 6.3** Parent perception of children's extrinsic motivation according to parent data

Parent role, language proficiency, children's age, time of Persian school and lack of need for learning Persian language are influencing students' amotivation, according to parent data. However, parent data do not reveal peer group and lack of fun as they are addressed by their children.

### 6.1.3 RQ3 Teacher data: students' motivation (intrinsic/extrinsic, amotivation)

In order to investigate teachers' opinion about their students' intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, teachers were asked if their students, themselves, were motivated to learn Persian language. Although teacher participants were not asked directly about their beliefs about their students' amotivation, their responses emphasized their perceptions of reasons for students' amotivation.

### **6.1.3.1 Teachers data discussion: students' intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and amotivation**

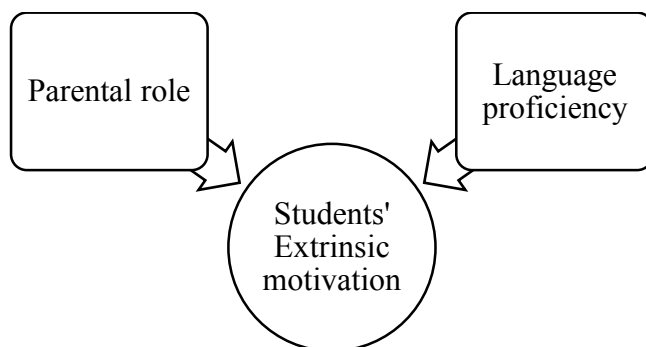
Students were motivated when they were praised for their language proficiency, according to teacher data. S1 T2 said: "... *I sometimes give all of them a small gift or we clap for them when they do well in writing ....*" S2 T1 asserted: "... *for example for writing or dictation (we give them a prize) ... I can see they are proud.*" S2 T2 asserted: "*we give them a sticker for encouragement ... if they have been hard worker or if they get good mark in dictation ....*"

Teacher data demonstrated parent role as extrinsic motivation for students to learn Persian language. For example, S3 T1 said: "*When there is encouragement by parents at the beginning, they will be soon interested and learn enthusiastically. As long as child is not ready it's bit difficult but as soon as he get used to it there would be no problem ... So encouragement is of great importance.*" S4 T2 asserted: "... *it is parents' goal to take their children to school. Their parents make them to come, they hardly want to come themselves .... Parents primarily generate the motivation, when I ask children whether they are interested in learning Persian or not, unfortunately I receive the answer of "no" that shows they are not interested.*" None of the teacher participants referred to students' intrinsic motivation for learning Persian language.

Teacher data also demonstrated that students' possibility of their return to Iran had impact on their motivation for learning Persian language. For instance, S4 T2 asserted: "... *especially those children who went to school in Iran and they came here for a short time and they want to come back to Iran to continue their studies there, they are more interested to learn Persian language.*"

### 6.1.3.2 Summary discussion: teacher data

Teacher data suggest the impact of language proficiency and parent role on students' motivation for learning Persian language. Figure 6.4 below summarizes teachers' belief about their students' motivation for learning Persian language.



**Figure 6.4** Teacher perception of students' extrinsic motivation according to teacher data

### 6.1.3.3 Class observation discussion: Persian heritage language learners' principal motivators for language learning

During class observation, students (S1 FG2 St1, S1 FG1 St4) in S1 CL1 and S1 CL2 demonstrated their lack of motivation by showing no interest in participation in the class activities. A number of students showed their lack of motivation by expressing their boredom and flipping their book pages.

Students in S4 CL1 and S1 CL3 were motivated and encouraged by their teachers' praise whenever the students finished a task properly. However, the teachers' responsibility was to insist on students doing their Persian language learning activities. In other words, it was totally extrinsic motivation to learn Persian language. In the observer's perception, lack of language proficiency and the perceived difficulty of tasks seemed to be another reason for students' lack of motivation.

The teacher in S2 CL2 was very strict about students' speaking Persian language in the class and students eagerly did their language learning activities.

#### **6.1.3.4 Triangulation of data: students' motivation (intrinsic/extrinsic, amotivation)**

According to student, parent and teacher data and based on the class observation, students are highly extrinsically, but not intrinsically motivated, to learn Persian language. Only 14.3% of students and none of the parent and teacher participants refer to intrinsic motivation for learning Persian language. 85.7% of students and all parent and teacher participants point to students' extrinsic motivation for learning Persian language. While language proficiency and parent role are the collective reasons cited by all participants for students' Persian language learning, other motives such as students' age and peer group are emphasized by students and their parents only and teachers are not aware of the other motives such as students' age and peer group. It should be pointed out that while peer group has positive impact on students' extrinsic motivation to attend the school for learning the language, it is a reason for students' amotivation as well. According to student data and class observation, teacher role has influence on student's extrinsic motivation. Teacher role and its impact on students' amotivation is revealed through student data too. Parents and teachers themselves were not aware of that. Teacher awareness and preparation can enhance students' positive attitudes towards the heritage language (Lee & Oxelson, 2006). It is obvious from student data that issues such as lack of fun, negative effects of peer group and time of schooling are not addressed by parents. In addition to these issues, lack of perceived need to learn Persian language is not highlighted by the teacher participants.

Parent and teacher need to be better-informed and educated about the issues that affect students' motivation for learning Persian language. The findings reveal that both Language proficiency and parental role as prevalent elements have influence on students' motivation. Therefore these elements will be investigated by examining student, parent and teacher data.

#### **6.1.4 RQ3 student data: students' Persian language ability**

This section offers an examination of students' perception and self-evaluation of their Persian language ability. In order for an individual to engage in an activity intrinsically and self-determined, a sense of competence is a fundamental need (Noels, 2005, p. 288). The study by Noels (2005) revealed that language competence level had impact on students' language use in different contexts, their identity development and achievement and their motivation for learning Persian language. Therefore, in order to understand students' language ability, the participants of this study were asked about students' proficiency in four language skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing.

##### **6.1.4.1 Student data discussion: speaking skill**

Student participants were asked about their Persian speaking ability. According to their self-evaluation, 54.3% (19 out of 35) students asserted that they could speak in Persian language fluently, 28.5% (10 out of 35) stated that they were more competent in English speaking than in Persian speaking, 14.3% (five out of 35) stated they could speak both English and Persian language and 2.9% (only one out of 35) could not evaluate his speaking ability.

Student data revealed that Persian language speaking ability was related to different reasons. Speaking Persian language from childhood was a reason for students' Persian speaking ability. For example, S1 FG1 St2 said: "... *I've spoken Persian from childhood, so I'm fluent.*" Among the different theories about how language develops, interactional theory focuses on the social interaction and its impact on children's acquisition of language skill, according to Bochner and Jones (2008).

Student data demonstrated that Persian language speaking proficiency was related to travelling to Iran. For example, S2 FG1 St1 said: "... *I think I am not very good because I haven't travelled much to Iran ....*" S2 FG1 St4 stated: "*My Persian speaking is not very good because I haven't travelled to Iran yet.*" S2 FG1 St3 asserted: "... *because I have never gone to Iran ... I think I cannot speak Persian very well ....*" In fact, those students who travel to

Iran are exposed to language input and through interaction with their extended family and greater range of media such as radio, television and even signs in the streets, their language ability improves. As it is illustrated in chapter 5, this extensive exposure to language knowledge and language use affect their identity formation as well.

Student data illustrated that students' language proficiency had impact on their Persian speaking skill. In fact, lack of language proficiency prevented them to speak in Persian language. For example, S2 FG1 St1 stated: *"I am not very good because I don't know what to say ...."* S2 FG1 St3 said: *"...I think I cannot speak Persian very well ... sometimes I don't know what word I should use."* S2 FG2 St1 asserted: *"I feel more confident when I study more."* Learner's The more study of Persian language, the more self-confident and less anxiety and negative effects such as embarrassment and less tendency to speak Persian language were experienced by the learners. When they were good, they got better, however, when they were poor, they became worse. The learner's lack of ability to use the heritage language correctly leads to a cognitive conflict manifested as embarrassment. This sense of embarrassment can have both negative and positive effects. Negative impact may result in extreme emotion of shame and a marker of "belonging uncertainty" (Walton & Cohen, 2007). In a number of cases, the embarrassment can result in motivation to learn the language desirably with producing highly positive results (Carreira & Kagan, 2011).

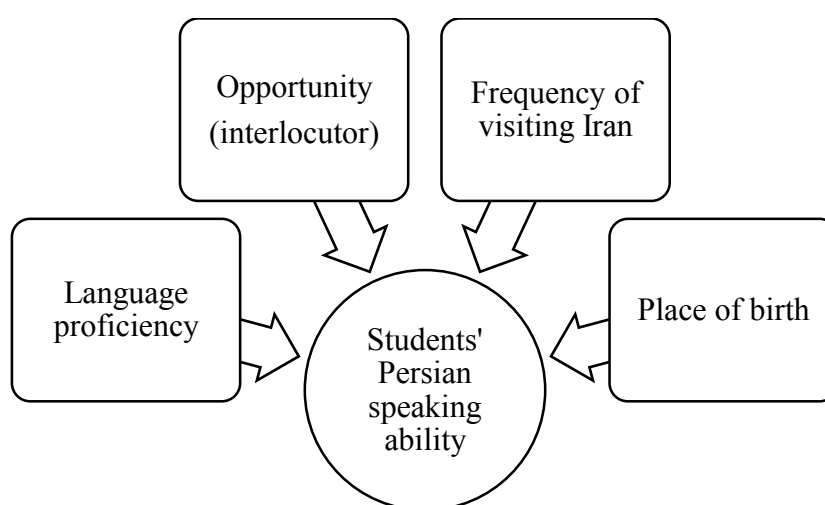
Student data revealed that students' interlocutor had impact on their speaking ability. For example, S2 FG1 St2 asserted: *"If somebody talks with me in Persian, I'm fine and I can speak with them easily."*

Student data showed they believed place of birth was an indicator of their ability to speak Persian language. For instance, S2 FG1 St3 said: *"(because) I was not born in Iran I think I cannot speak Persian very well ...."* S4 FG1 St2 stated that he spoke Persian language very well. His close friend, S4 FG1 St1, commented that S4 FG1 St2 was competent in Persian speaking because he was born in Iran.



Providing the opportunity to speak Persian language at home had impact on students' Persian speaking ability, according to student data. For instance, S2 FG1 St4 asserted: *"My Persian speaking is not very good because I speak English at home."* Through data analysis conducted for "language availability and choice", the student data suggested that his family including his parents and his brother spoke English at home.

Figure 6.5 below summarises what influences students' Persian speaking ability. Interaction, interlocutor's effect and opportunity as issues influencing learner's Persian language ability are categorised as "opportunity".



**Figure 6.5** Student belief about issues influencing students' Persian speaking skills

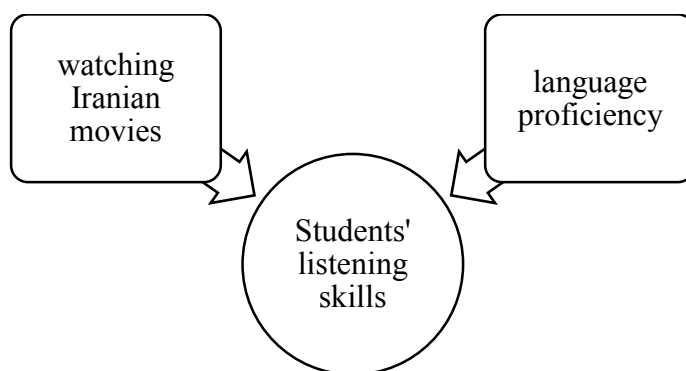
#### **6.1.4.2 Student data discussion: listening skill**

Student data revealed that all of student participants showed their ability to understand Persian language while listening to others. However, they recognised the situations in which they had difficulty in understanding Persian language. The main reason they realized and attributed to their Persian listening ability was their language proficiency. For instance, S1 FG1 St2 said: *"I understand most of the sentences but I have problems with others because I don't know their meanings. Some words are difficult but I'm trying to learn."* S1 FG1 St3 asserted: *"I understand but sometimes I can't figure out their meanings. I don't know their meanings and I become confused."* Learner's frustration and confusion related to heritage

language proficiency. S1 FG2 St1 stated: *“Those words I don’t know I don’t understand.”* S1 FG3 St1 said: *“My listening is good. When I don’t understand something I ask from my parents and then I understand.”* S3 FG2 St1 said: *“I watch Iranian movies but I don’t understand them. I understand Persian language.”*

Students’ Persian listening skills were influenced by watching Iranian movies. Watching Iranian movies was an indicator of their listening ability. For instance, S3 FG2 St4 said: *“Because I watch Iranian movies I can understand my listening is good.”* S3 FG2 St3 asserted: *“I also watch Iranian movies and I understand them as well.”*

Figure 6.6 below summaries student belief about the issues impacting their Persian listening skill.



**Figure 6.6** Student belief about the issues influencing students’ Persian listening skills

#### **6.1.4.3 Student data discussion: reading and writing skills**

Students were asked how they evaluated their reading and writing. Unfortunately the majority of students were not satisfied with their Persian reading and writing skills, especially their writing skill. Student data revealed that their Persian reading and writing skill hinged on their language knowledge and proficiency. The more they studied and learned Persian language, the more they were satisfied by their reading and writing ability. For example, S1 FG1 St2 said: *“Previous lessons are pretty easy but new ones are rather difficult.”* S1 FG2 St1 asserted: *“... Those words that I don’t know how to spell are difficult for me.”* S1 FG3 St1 stated: *“... The more I read the better my reading will be.”* S2 FG1 St3 asserted: *“... But*

*because I have not practised my reading and my writing for a period of time I have forgotten it a little bit.*” S2 FG1 St4 said: “... *when it comes to reading I have difficulties and I don't know how to read.*” S4 FG1 St1 stated: “*Those I know I can write.*” S4 FG1 St2 asserted: “*Those ones that I don't know they are pretty difficult.*”

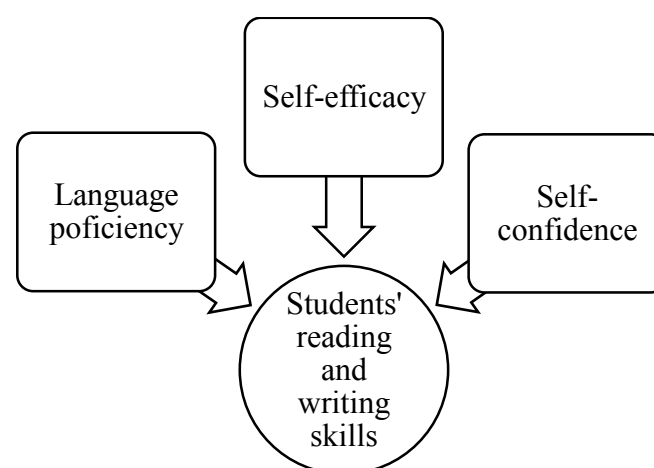
Student data demonstrated that they were not competent enough to read in Persian very fluently. Therefore, their language proficiency had impact on their self-efficacy and self-confidence. Self-efficacy represents an individual's judgment of his or her ability to perform a specific action (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 277). In fact, self-efficacy is concerned with perceived capability (Bandura, 2006). Teachers can and should help students to develop a sense of self-efficacy by providing meaningful, achievable and success-endavouring language tasks. For instance, S2 FG2 St2 said: “*I read slowly. I can't read very quickly but it's ok.*” S3 FG1 St4 stated: “*I can read but I cannot read very well.*” S4 FG1 St3 stated: “*I can't read very easily.*” Student data also revealed their lack of self-confidence about their Persian language reading. For example, S1 FG1 St2 said: “*I'm working hard (for my writing) but I can't get the result I want.*”

Student data also revealed that they rated their language proficiency for speaking, listening, reading and writing. According to students' belief, their listening ability was recognized as the most skilled language ability then speaking, reading and writing. While majority of students self-evaluated both listening and speaking skills as equal, three students noted that their listening skill was better than their speaking. For example, S2 FG1 St3 said: “*I believe my listening is far better than my speaking. I understand most of the conversations of my parents on the phone. I think for example it is easier for me to understand than to speak.*” S3 FG1 St4 asserted: “*My listening is far better than speaking.*” S2 FG2 St1 said: “*My listening is good but I have difficulty in speaking.*” For instance, S1 FG1 St1 said: “*My reading is worse than my speaking but is better than my writing.*” S1 FG1 St3 stated: “*My reading is weaker than my speaking.*” S3 FG2 St3 asserted: “*I can speak well but my reading is not*

good.” S1 FG1 St4 asserted: *“my reading is better than writing.”* S2 FG1 St2 stated: *“I think my writing is worse than my reading, it is a little bit worse but my reading is better.”* S3 FG2 St3 asserted: *“I can read but my writing is not very good.”* S1 FG1 St3 said: *“My writing is not good and it is difficult for me but my reading is better.”* However, not significantly, a number of students stated that their writing skill was better than their reading skill. For example, S2 FG1 St4 said: *“I think my writing is better because I get the score of 100 in dictation but when it comes to reading I have difficulties and I don’t know how to read.”* S2 FG2 St2 asserted: *“Writing is easier for me than reading.”* S4 FG2 St1 stated: *“My writing is better than my reading.”*

Student data illustrated that students experienced difficulty in their writing because of the Persian alphabet. For instance, S1 FG1 St1 said: *“Persian dictation is hard because it has a couple of T and Z letter. I become confused and that’s why I can’t learn it easily.”* S1 FG3 St2 asserted: *“For example I misplace different “h” sounds we have in Persian language.”* S3 FG2 St4 stated: *“I can write many things but I have problem with alphabets such as different “z” sounds or “s” sounds.”*

Figure 6.7 below summarises students’ perceptions of the issues influencing their reading and writing skills.



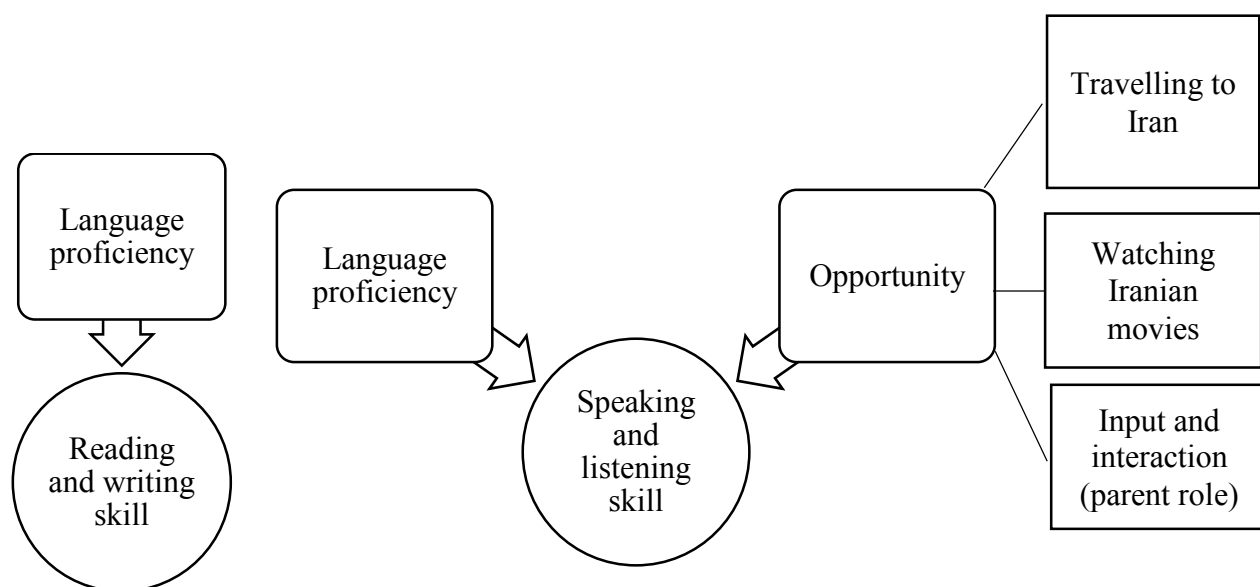
**Figure 6.7** Issues influencing students’ Persian reading and writing skills

#### **6.1.4.4 Summary discussion: student data**

Student data discussion of different language skills such as speaking, listening, reading and writing was presented separately. In conclusion, student data reveal that according to their self-evaluation of their language skills, they have diverse competence in listening, speaking, reading and writing respectively. Data also shows that students' existing language ability as a common feature affects all of four language skills and has influence on students' future potential language development. In fact, self-efficacy and self-confidence emerging from language proficiency can encourage students to improve those language skills. In other words, the more they are competent in language skills such as speaking, listening, reading and writing, the more they are inclined to get involved in those skills and to develop and improve them. Students' contribution, however, counts on the opportunities parents and teachers provide for these students. These opportunities obvious in students' data depend on the language skill in which they are involved. For instance, in terms of speaking skill, the opportunities which can be provided by parents are highlighted as instances including travelling to Iran and having access to Persian language (language knowledge) at home. In terms of listening skill, the opportunity needed to improve this skill can be obtained by watching Iranian movies. As it was highlighted in chapter four, language availability and choice, and chapter five, identity achievement and development, these opportunities such as traveling to Iran, language knowledge and watching Iranian movies have impact on students' ethnic identity formation. In other words, both speaking and listening skills have impact on students' ethnic identity achievement and development.

It can also be concluded that it is not surprising why listening and speaking are the first two skills in which students are more competent rather than reading and writing. It is through both speaking and listening skills as social interaction that students express their ethnic identity formation while reading and writing are not emphasized by students.

Figure 6.8 below demonstrates student data discussion about their overall language ability.



**Figure 6.8** Student belief about factors influencing students' Persian language ability

### 6.1.5 RQ3 Parent data: child's Persian language ability

Parent participants were also asked to evaluate their children's Persian language skills including their speaking, listening, reading and writing.

#### 6.1.5.1 Parent data discussion: child's speaking skill

Parent data suggested that the majority of parents expressed their children's speaking ability was very good compared to their other skills. Parents expressed that the reason was more **practice** is necessary for reading and writing skills. For instance, S1 P5 asserted: *"Obviously, her speaking and listening are better than other skills ... Her speaking and listening are better and for reading and writing she should practice more."* S1 P5 stated: *"his competence is 90%. Of course I practice a lot with him."* S4 P1 stated: *"His speaking is a hundred percent better than his reading and writing."*

Other parents, however, evaluated their children's speaking as average and above. Parents provided different reasons for their children's speaking ability. One reason for children's lack of speaking ability was because of the English language environment. Although their children spoke Persian language with their parents at home, the hegemony of English language prevented them to be fully skilled in Persian speaking. For example, S1 P1 said: *"... because*

*they are not living in a Persian speaking environment. It is all English, they are at school 6 to 7 hours a day and then 3 to 4 hours on computer or watching TV, so they are in an English speaking environment for at least 10 hours a day. They speak with us in Persian for only two or three hours a day using a limited vocabulary ....”*

Parent data illustrated that their children’s Persian speaking ability was affected by their Persian language proficiency. Limited input and exposure to language resources affected children’s speaking ability, according to parent data. For example, S1 P1 said: *“They speak with us in Persian for only two or three hours a day using a limited vocabulary of between 100 to 200 words which is not like what a native speaker hears from his/ her parents in Iran, nor is it similar to the broad vocabulary the children in Iran hear from all sorts of media or read in newspapers, magazines, etc. That's why they may not be able to fully understand or pronounce all the words Persian speakers use.”*

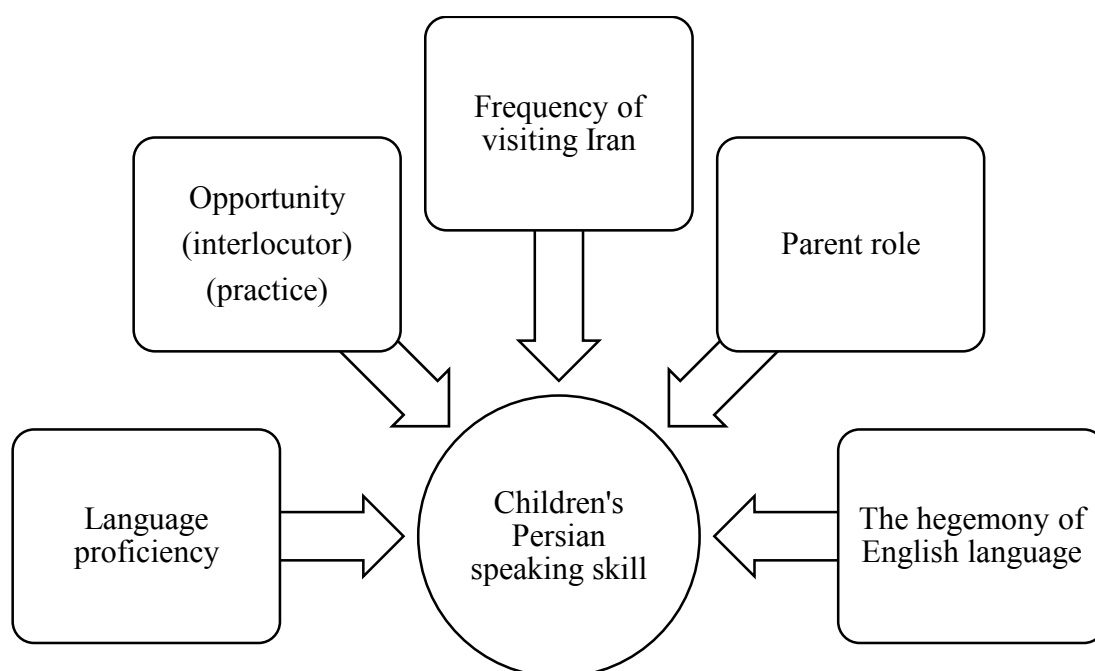
Parent data demonstrated that frequency of visiting Iran had positive impact on children’s speaking ability improvement and their motivation to speak in Persian. For instance, S1 P3 said: *“... But if she wants she can speak in Persian because we go several times and each year to Iran. This has had a significant effect on her willingness to speak and her Persian speaking skill and has caused her to have a better speaking performance.”* On the other hand, children’s language proficiency also had influence on their willingness to visit Iran, according to parent data. For instance, S1 P1 said: *“My daughter and son love to visit Iran because they can easily communicate with their cousins and enjoy playing with them”*

Parent role had significant impact on their children’s speaking ability, according to parent data. For instance, S1 P2 asserted: *“... I tried to prepare her from the beginning ....”* S1 P5 said: *“... I think I myself made him capable in Persian language ... I have helped him to practice Persian as much as possible at home ....”*

Parent data showed that the opportunity to speak Persian language with others had a great influence on their children’s Persian speaking. For example, S1 P5 stated *“His speaking is*

*actually very good, and is improving a lot, because he always speaks Persian.*” S1 P3 said: “... *she speaks totally in Persian with her Persian friends and our family friends ....*” S3 P1 asserted: “*At first his Persian language was not good at all. Now he has Iranian friends and he improves a lot ....*”

In conclusion, according to parent data, what influences their children’s Persian speaking ability is summarised in Figure 6.9 below. The theme “opportunity” includes the role of interlocutor and the impact of practice.



**Figure 6.9** Parent belief about what influences children’s Persian speaking skill

#### **6.1.5.2 Parent data discussion: child’s listening skill**

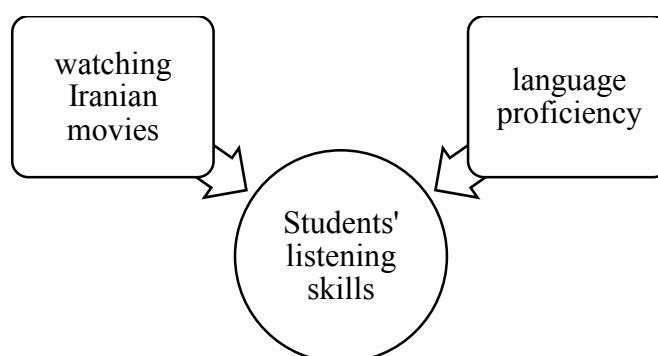
Learners’ Persian listening ability was the most developed skill among other abilities, though it was limited. For example, S1 P1 said: “*It is perfect. They completely understand.*” S1 P2 said: “*Obviously, her speaking and listening is better than other skills ....*” S1 P3 asserted: “... *it is better. She has actually had a much better progress at listening too ...*” S3 P1 said: “*Yes. It is good as well. He understands what we say him in Persian.*” S4 P1 stated: “*He understands Persian very well ....*” However, students’ vocabulary knowledge was limited, according to parent data. Parents believed that their children were not able to communicate as



a conversation became a bit complicated. It demonstrated that their children's language proficiency had impact on their listening skills. S1 P3 said: "... *She can understand the language except some difficult words. But she can understand every day conversation very well.*" S2 P1 said: "*Her listening is limited to what we say to her and she has difficulties in understanding what is said in the programs. Her vocabulary knowledge is limited.*" Heritage language learners' aural and oral proficiency is restricted to informal registers of speech; and their vocabulary and discourse devices are limited (Valdés & Geofrion-Vinci, 1998).

Watching Iranian movies and understanding them was a significant indicator of children's Persian listening ability, according to parent data. For example, S1 P4 stated: "*I think it's very good ... she understands Iranian movies very easily.*" S3 P1 stated: "*since we came here he has always been watching TV programs in English and Turkish language and we did not have Persian TV at home. Because of that his Persian language is not good.*" S2 P1 said: "*Her listening is not good because Persian language programs on radio and TV and even Persian children programs are unfamiliar for her.*"

Figure 6.10 below summarizes what influences students' Persian listening skill according to their parent data.



**Figure 6.10** Parent belief about factors influencing their children's Persian listening skill

### 6.1.5.3 Parent data discussion: child's reading and writing skills

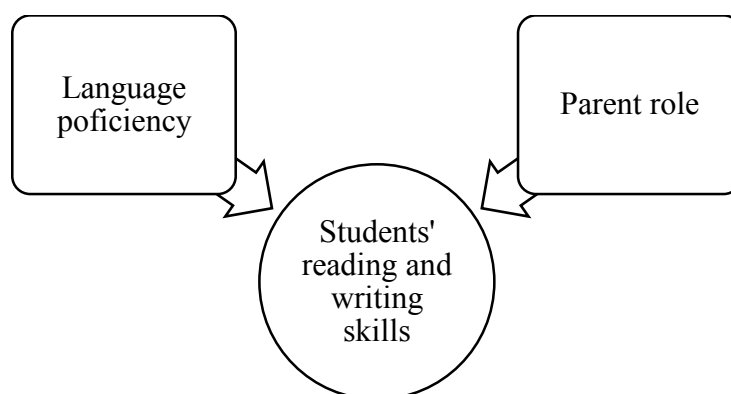
Parent data regarding their children's reading and writing ability demonstrated that their children's reading and writing ability was good too. While parent data pointed to different

reasons for their children's Persian reading and writing ability, their beliefs contradicted with student data. For example, S1 P5 asserted: "... *His writing is very good. He can also read his books very well, and is able to read ....*" However, her son, S1 FG1 St4 stated: "*My writing is not good but I can read some materials easily.*"

Parent data illustrated that their children's Persian reading and writing ability hinged on their practice and their language proficiency. This practice should be under parents' supervision and therefore parent role were emphasized by parents themselves. For example, S1 P2 said: "*for reading and writing she should practice more. I need to oblige myself to spend more time with her.*" S1 P3 asserted: "*She needs to read the lessons for us in order to be fluent in it then she can easily read it.*" S1 P5 asserted: "... *I have helped him to practice Persian as much as possible at home ....*"

Parent data showed that students' English language proficiency and Persian language proficiency were mutually related. For instance, S1 P1 said: "*I think my daughter can write because she can write it in English, and she is able to translate it into Persian. Those who are not able to write well in English, have problem in Persian writing too.*" S3 P2 stated: "*He started to learn Persian and now he reads and writes Persian well. He started making progress in English recently.*" The development of linguistic skills in the home language supports literacy in the majority language, according to Barac and Bialystok (2011), Benson (2004), Cummins (2000) and Eisenchlas, Schalley, and Guillemin (2013).

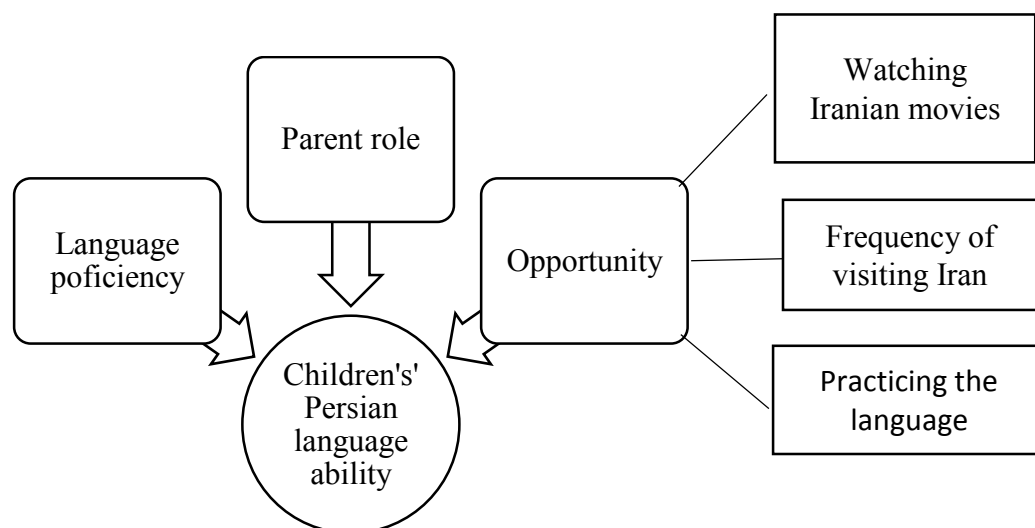
Figure 6.11 below summarises the issues which have impact on students' Persian reading and writing ability according to parent data.



**Figure 6.11** Parent belief about the issues influencing their children’s Persian reading and writing skills

#### **6.1.5.4 Summary discussion: parent data**

Students’ Persian language skills are rated from the most skilled to the least skilled as listening, speaking, reading and writing respectively, based on both parent and student data. Parent data demonstrate that parent role and language proficiency have influence on their children’s Persian language proficiency. Other factors such as watching Iranian movies, frequency of visiting Iran, practicing Persian language skills and interacting with their children such as speaking Persian language with them can be summarised as providing the opportunities. The opportunities emphasize parent role too. Therefore, Figure 6.12 below demonstrates what influences students’ overall language proficiency according to parent data.



**Figure 6.12** Parent belief about what influences their children’s overall Persian language proficiency

### 6.1.6 RQ3 Teacher data: students’ Persian language ability

In order to know more about students’ language proficiency, teachers were asked about their evaluation of their students’ Persian language proficiency. Teachers were asked about students’ language skills including speaking, listening, reading and writing separately.

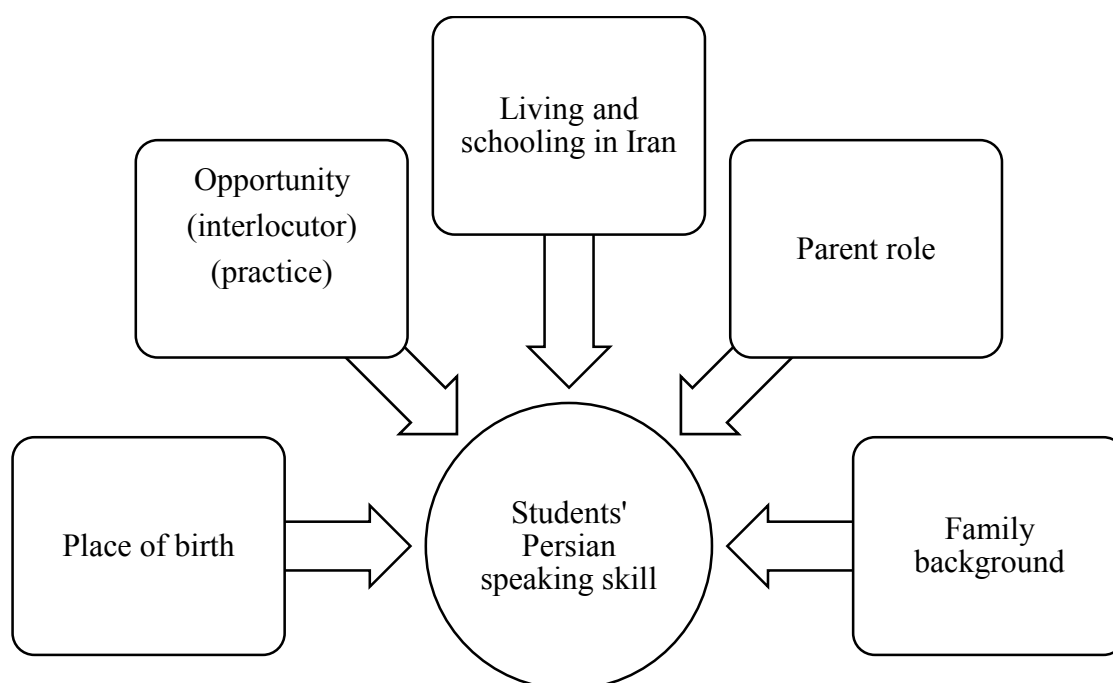
#### 6.1.6.1 Teacher data discussion: students’ speaking skill

In regard to students’ Persian speaking skill, teacher data demonstrated that only one teacher expressed that students’ Persian speaking was not good. S1 T2 said: *“They are not very strong in speaking ... they do much better in reading and writing than in speaking ....”* This teacher elaborated that: *“... Because when they learn how to read and write very well, they start to learn how to speak.”* In fact, the teacher believed that students’ Persian speaking ability was dependent on their reading and writing ability. However, other teachers including S1 T2 stated that students’ speaking ability was good and it relied on their parents’ role and their responsibility to provide the opportunity for them by speaking Persian with students at home. For instance, S3 T1 stated: *“... In general, their speaking is good ....”* S4 T2 asserted: *“Their speaking is good, better than other skills ....”* S1 T2 asserted: *“It actually depends on their families, and how much they practice with them at home. If one of the family members does*

*not speak Persian at home, the kids do not learn much.” S2 T2 said: “... Those children who speak Persian with their families have a better and faster progress ....” S3 T1 asserted: “It depends on their families. If families speak with them in Persian they easily learn speaking otherwise it would be more difficult ....”* Teacher data emphasized the significance of interaction and language input (Van Lier, 2000) and reinforced that the interaction implies the need to produce output.

Teacher data also showed that family background, place of birth, living in Iran and schooling in Iran had impact on students’ Persian language speaking ability. For instance, S2 T1 said: *“Those who have Iranian parents and Iranian background and those who were born and they have been there for a couple of years in Iran, their speaking ability is fabulous ... I mean if they were born in Iran and if they studied there for one or two years they are very competent ....”*

Figure 6.13 below summarises the elements that affect students’ Persian language speaking according to teacher data.

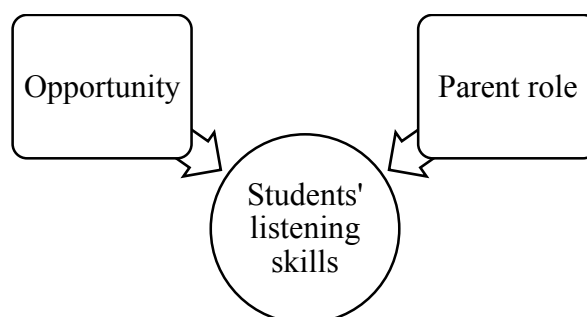


**Figure 6.13** Teacher perception about what influences students’ Persian language speaking skill

#### 6.1.6.2 Teacher data discussion: students' listening skill

Teacher data suggested that students' listening skill was good. For instance, S1 T1 said: *"It (listening) is good. They don't have problem."* S2 T1 stated: *"Their listening and understanding is good."* S4 T2 asserted: *"... their listening is good. They understand what I say to them."* A number of teachers provided the reasons for students' listening ability. In fact, students' listening ability was affected by their speaking. In other words, if they spoke Persian with their parents, their listening was improved as well. In fact, students' listening ability was related to parents' role as interlocutors who spoke Persian at home. Teacher data highlighted both language input and interaction, the foundations of sociocultural theory (Van Lier, 2000), on the learners' language learning. For instance, S1 T2 said: *"It all depends on their speaking skills. Those who have inadequate listening practice, are not very strong in speaking either. But since most parents speak Persian at home, their listening skills are stronger."*

Figure 6.14 below summarizes what influences students' Persian listening ability, according to teacher data.



**Figure 6.14** Teacher perception about factors influencing students' Persian listening skill

#### 6.1.6.3 Teacher data discussion: students' reading and writing skills

Teacher data showed that students' writing ability improvement hinged on their writing practice. For example, S4 T2 said: *"... in terms of writing they are relatively weaker than Iranian children. That's because they don't have continuous practice ...."*

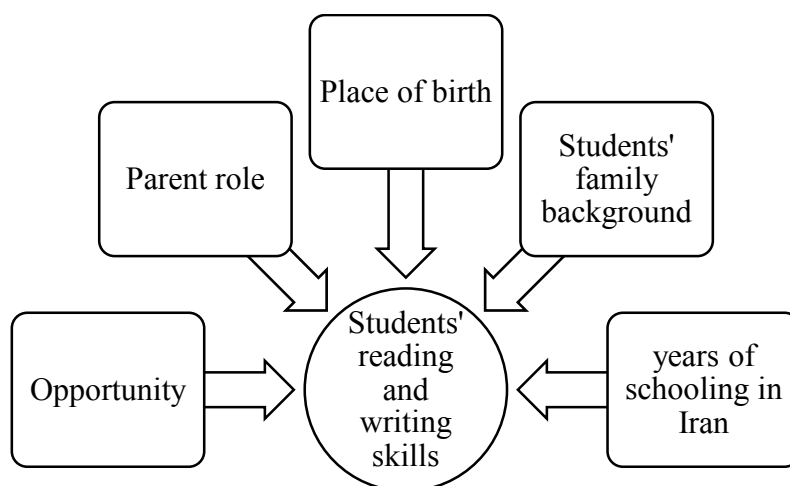
Teacher data demonstrated that place of birth, years of Persian schooling in Iran and students' family background had impact on students' Persian reading and writing competence. For

example, S2 T1 said: *“Those who were born in Iran and have Iranian background are doing well and are ok but those who were born here are obviously weaker.”* S4 T2 stated: *“... some has started their language learning in Iran and then came here so they have a good base, their writing and reading and speaking is also much better because they started learning Persian language in Iran ....”*

Teacher data revealed that parents’ role had impact on students’ Persian reading and writing ability. For instance, S3 T1 said: *“It depends on the parents.”* S4 T2 stated: *“... unfortunately their family didn't care too much about their children’s ability to speak Persian and speaking Persian at home. Their speaking is not good let alone their reading and their writing.”*

Teacher data revealed that as students started to go to the upper grades, their Persian reading and writing ability improved. In fact, the more they practiced, the more they became competent. In other words, their language proficiency had impact on their Persian reading and writing ability. For example, S4 T1 asserted: *“... When they start Second year their reading and writing and even their speaking improve and it becomes easier ....”*

Figure 6.15 below shows what influences students’ Persian reading and writing ability according to teacher data.



**Figure 6.15** Teacher perception of what influences students' Persian reading and writing skill

#### **6.1.6.4 Summary discussion: teacher data**

Teacher data analysis seemed to indicate that the main theme addressed by participant teachers was the diversity of students in terms of their language ability. In addition, because of lack of enough space and lack of teachers (and especially qualified teachers) to accommodate students with different language ability, teachers should have Persian classes in which students from different grades attend. Multi-level students as a major problem in the Persian classes results in limited language input and lack of well-structured courses to address students with different language abilities, according to Carreira and Kagan (2011);Kondo-Brown (2003) and Van Deusen-Scholl (2003). For example, S1 T1 said: “... *We have actually grouped the students based on their abilities as they have many differences ....*” S4 T1 stated: “... *every one of these children is different from the other one ....*” This difference, according to the teacher, is associated with parents' effort to speak Persian language at home and their support (Parent role). For instance, S1 T1 asserted: “*They are very different, some students do very well in Persian as their parents speak Persian with them at home ... others do not have much progress in Persian as their parents speak English at home.*” S1 T2 asserted: “... *the kids will do very well if their families support them ....*” There is a mutual relationship between speaking Persian language at home and students' Persian language proficiency.



By highlighting parent role, limited time of teaching and therefore limited language input, limited resources such as space and teachers, it seems that teachers try to demonstrate the limitations they encounter and their impact on their role and their responsibility.

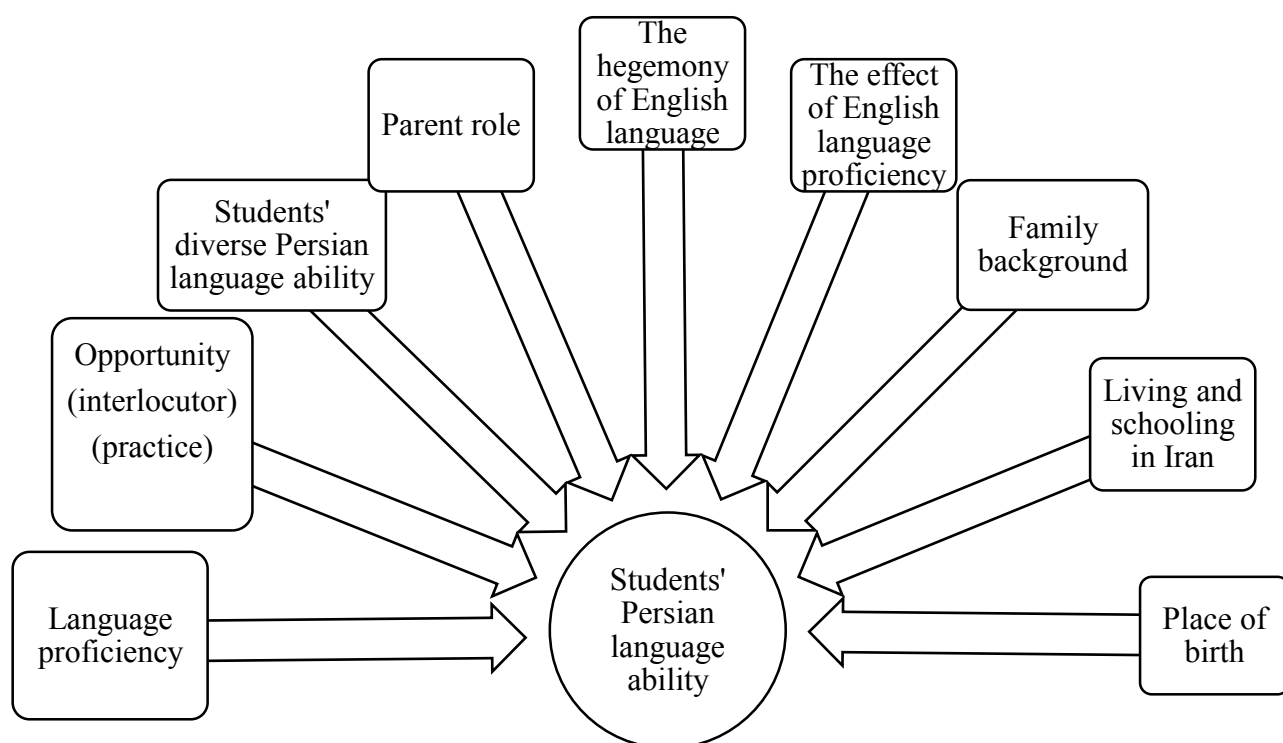
According to a teacher data, the diversity of students is related to the quality of Persian language learning. Those who had learnt Persian language properly from early stages, they did well. For instance, S1 T2 said: *“There are lots of differences. Those children who have learned Persian properly at the 1st grade, and know the letters very well, have a good progress ....”*

English language hegemony was another issue influencing students’ Persian language proficiency, according to teacher data. In addition to attending Australian school and the predominance of English language outside home, it is unfortunate for a number of language learners that English is the dominant language at home too. For example, S2 T2 said: *“... Children tend to speak English. I agree with them because they go to English school five days a week and obviously they speak and understand English better... they go to English school 5 days a week.”* S4 T2 asserted: *“... It is because most of these kids go to English schools and are involved there during the week. They just come here one day to this school so they should be better at English. Many of them speak English with their parents therefore English becomes a substitute language for other languages....”*

However, teacher data showed that students’ English language proficiency and Persian language proficiency were mutually related. For example, S3 T1 said: *“A child whose Persian is very good is also good at English class as well”*. The effort to maintain the home language supports the home language (Makin, Campbell, & Jones-Diaz, 1995) and those children, educated early in their home language, learn the majority language more proficiently (Swain, Lapkin, Rowen, & Hart, 1990). The reason is because language and cognition in the majority language is built on the first language. Therefore, first language skills development results in second language proficiency (Benson, 2004).

In conclusion, students rate their Persian language proficiency as speaking, listening, reading and writing respectively, according to teacher data. For instance, S4 T2 said: “*Their reading is better than writing. Their speaking is better than reading.*” S2 T2 stated: “... *(their) speaking and listening is strong because of speaking Persian at home with parents ....*”

Other issues such as family background, living and schooling in Iran and place of birth are also raised by teachers to have impact on students’ speaking, reading and writing ability. The elements affecting students’ Persian language ability, according to teacher data, are shown in Figure 6.16.



**Figure 6.16** Teacher perception of what influences students’ Persian language ability

Figure 6.16, which is demonstrating teachers’ perception, is more complex than Figure 6.8 and Figure 6.12 that show students’ belief and parents’ perception of what influences Persian language ability. The complexity of teachers’ perception illustrates that teachers have broader grasp of the aspects affecting students’ Persian language ability and it points to teachers’ professional knowledge and responsibility.

#### **6.1.6.5 Class observation discussion: students' Persian language ability**

The researcher, as a non-participant observer, observed a number of Persian language classes in order to understand about students' Persian language ability through students' verbal and non-verbal behaviour. The class observation suggests Persian language learners with different language abilities attend the class. The observation data show that a number of students are highly proficient in Persian language skills such as reading and writing. However, students with inadequate reading and writing abilities attend the same class. For instance, in S2 CL1 students from three different levels were attending the same class. The study by Shirazi and Borjani (2012) also demonstrated students attending the same class, were not separated by age and language proficiency.

The observation data demonstrate that students' lack of language proficiency especially in understanding the meanings of the words or passages oblige the teachers in the classes, most of the time, to explain the meanings in English for students. The observation data illustrate teachers' persistence on students' understanding of the meaning of the words and passages as students show their lack of understanding of the meanings and concepts. Effective linguistic explanations facilitates heritage language development and gives the learner a sense of control over the language (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

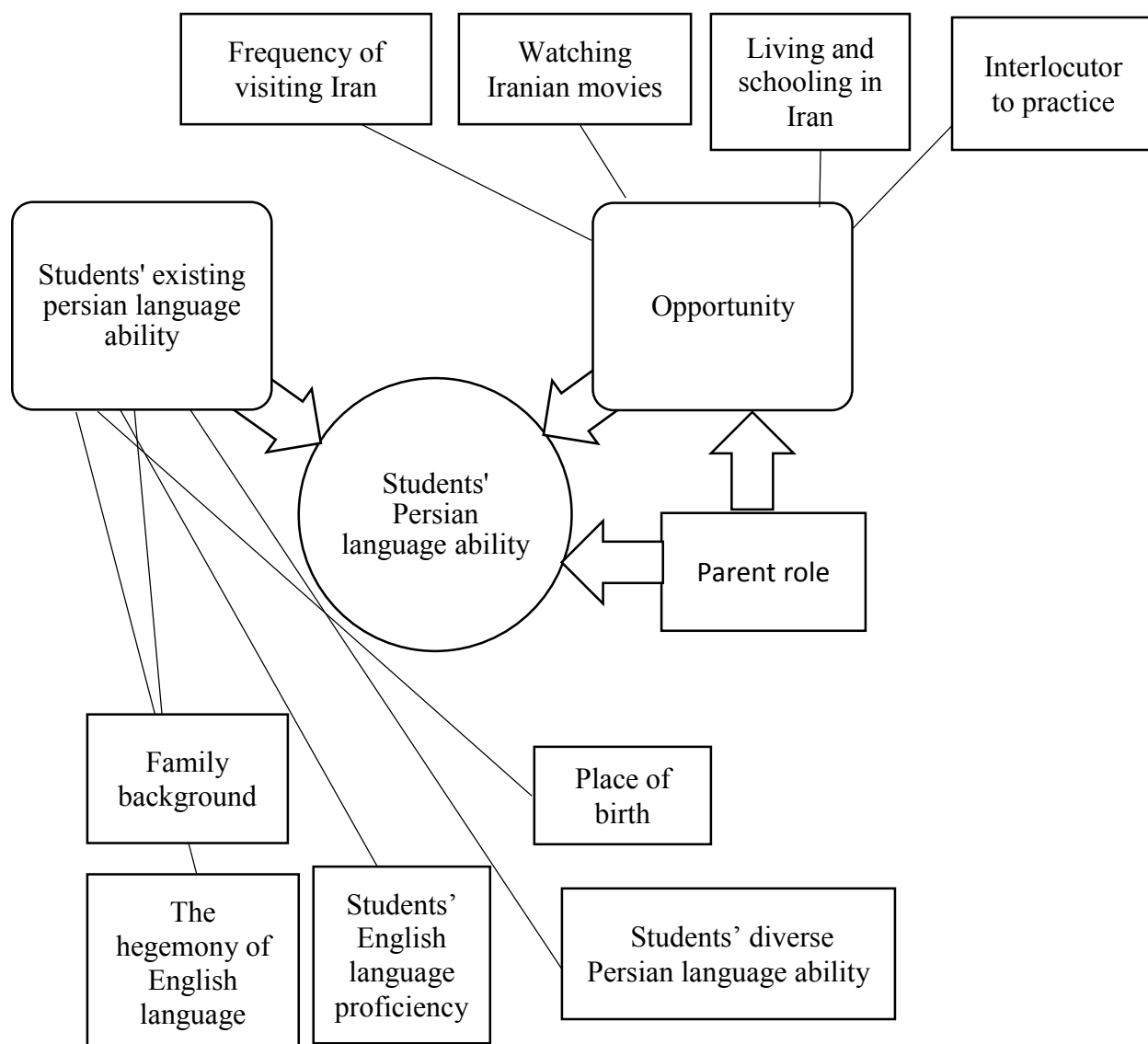
#### **6.1.6.6 Triangulation of data: students' Persian language ability**

According to the data obtained from the participants of this study, student Persian language ability hinges on a number of issues. According to the research participant data, Persian language learners have relatively strong aural and oral skills but their literacy skills is limited (Carreira & Kagan, 2011).

The common issues related to students' Persian language ability, according to the research participants data, are students' existing language ability, parent role and opportunity. Each one of these issues consist of attributes. For instance, opportunity can be frequency of visiting Iran, watching Iranian movies, living and schooling in Iran. In addition, the opportunity can

be provided by the interlocutor through practicing Persian language with students. The parent role is to provide these opportunities for their children due to their age. These students' language ability are influenced by factors such as their family background, place of birth, the hegemony of English language, students' diverse Persian language ability, and students' English language proficiency. Family background and place of birth are unalterable. However, the effects of English language domination can be diminished by providing more Persian language input and more interaction in Persian language. Students' Persian language ability should be assessed and be used as the basis for their placement, curriculum design, development and material selection (Kagan, 2005).

Consequently, student's overall Persian language ability is reliant on three main issues: students' existing Persian language ability, opportunity and parent role. Figure 6.17 below shows these issues and their inherent characteristics.



**Figure 6.17** The research participants' perception of what influences students' Persian language ability

### 6.1.7 RQ3 Student data: students' attitudes towards their Persian language ability

The previous section demonstrated the issues which have impact on students' Persian language ability, according to the study participant data. This section will demonstrate findings about students' attitudes towards their Persian language ability by analysing the research participant data

### 6.1.7.1 Student data discussion: students' attitudes

Students were asked about their feelings and attitudes about their Persian language proficiency. Student data showed that they felt both happy and proud about their Persian language ability. Being and speaking Persian is a point of pride for Persian language learners and their parents, according to a study of Iranian community in New York (Shirazi & Borjian, 2012). A study of language maintenance among different groups of immigrants, including Persian heritage language learners in the United States found that Iranian participants expressed great pride for their Persian culture (Rohani et al., 2014). However, students related their positive attitudes to their Persian speaking ability by providing six reasons.

The first reason was students' bilingualism. A number of students were "proud" of being bilingual. The ability to move between languages is associated with positive statements of affect (Moloney, 2008), in students showing their satisfaction for owning two languages (Bennett, 1993). The term "proud" used by several students illustrating their attitudes towards Persian language ability, showed that they integrated with the language affectively (Pavlenko, 2012). For example, S1 FG1 St1 said: "... *I am proud that I can speak both two languages ....*" S1 FG2 St3 stated: "... *Basically I'm happy that I don't know just one language instead I know two languages ....*" S4 FG2 St1 asserted: "*I am proud of knowing Persian because I know two languages ....*" In addition to language learning, heritage language schools can create a sense of cultural and ethnic pride gained through heritage language learning (Wong, 1988; Wong & Lopez, 2000).

The second reason for students' satisfaction for their Persian language ability was their integrative motivation, their enthusiasm and their obligation to communicate with their relatives living in Iran. For example, S1 FG1 St2 asserted: "*I love it too as it's important to me as well, because I can talk with my families in Iran ....*" S4 FG2 St4 asserted: "... *because my grandma only knows Persian language.*" Student data showed that they were seeking the "power" through which they could have access to symbolic and material resources (Norton,

2000, p. 7). S1 FG1 St2 tried to use Persian language to gain the power in order to have access to symbolic resources, her family and relatives living in Iran. She emphasized: “*I should learn Persian because my family are Iranian.*”

The third reason was the ability and the satisfaction achieved by students through speaking Persian language during either their visit to Iran or their families’ stay in Australia. For example, S1 FG1 St3 asserted: “*I’d love to ... I try to speak Persian when I go to Iran ... I always speak Persian there.*” S1 FG1 St4 said: “*I’m glad sometimes ... because our families come here to visit us ....*”

The fourth reason for students’ satisfaction for Persian language ability was the compliments they received from others. For example, S1 FG3 St1 said: “*When we go to Iran, my cousin’s mother gives us dictation. He’s in the third grade. Sometimes I get a better score in dictation. He’s happy and says well done.*” S2 FG1 St1 asserted: “*I’m very happy because my little brother can’t read and write and I’m better than him.*”

The fifth reason for students’ happiness regarding their Persian language ability was students’ ability to teach Persian language to others such as their siblings and again the compliment they received. For example, S2 FG1 St2 asserted: “*I think when I know the Persian language very well I can teach it to my brother and then everyone says that I have taught him and it makes me happy.*” The ability to help others is one of the categories found by Carreira and Kagan (2011). The idea is now developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). It aims at improvement and expansion of all languages at all levels of instruction and proposes a program called Student Leadership for Literacy Program (SLLP).

The sixth reason was students’ self-efficacy which resulted in their sense of gratification in regard to their Persian language proficiency. For example, S2 FG1 St3 stated: “*(in my aunt’s house) I watch Iranian TV programs and series and when I can understand what they say or*

*when I can read Iranian newspapers I become happy.” S3 FG1 St1 asserted: “When I can read something I become very happy because I can already speak Persian.”*

Students’ sense of pleasure was related to their Persian language ability *to communicate with their Iranian peer group*. For example, S2 FG1 St4 said: *“I become happy because I have an Iranian friend in Australian school and I can talk with him so I become happy.”* Learning heritage language offers the learner the sense of intimacy (Carreira & Kagan, 2011).

Students’ positive attitudes and sense of pride was related to their instrumental motivation, their bilingualism and the compliment they received from others. For instance, S4 FG2 St2 said: *“I am proud of it, because when I go to university I have more chance because I get more percentage and because they say you have your second language ....”* S4 FG2 St3 stated: *“I am proud of that because I know two languages. I am happy. Because when I go to university they will ask me if I know Persian and I say yes. So they ask me what that person says and I say what she says.”* S4 FG2 St4 stated: *“When I go to university and they realize that I can speak two languages Persian and English. I get more points for that. But I say my English is better than my Persian.”*

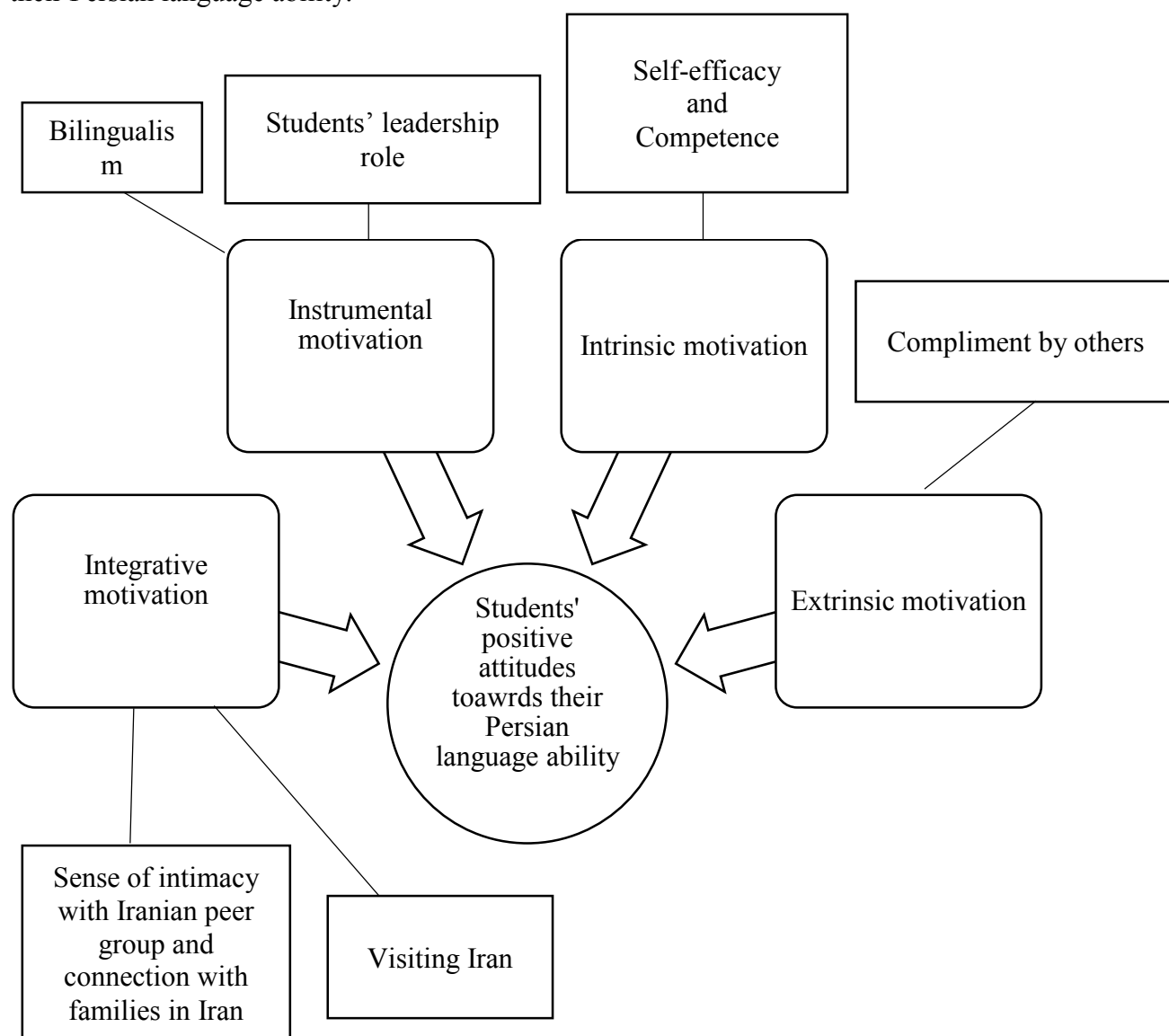
Although majority of students related their Persian language ability to their positive attitudes, negative attitude were also found in student data, even though it was not significant as only one student showed her negative attitude. For instance, while S4 FG2 St4 was satisfied by her bilingualism (noted above), she also showed her strong negative attitudes for coming to Persian school by saying that *“I’d rather to kill myself.”*

#### **6.1.7.2 Summary discussion: student data**

According to student participant data, Majority of students expressed their sense of happiness and pride in their Persian language ability by providing different reasons for their positive attitudes. The diverse reasons provided by the learners are categorised as intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and integrative/instrumental motivation. Figure 6.18 summarises those categories



and the related characteristics and their relationship with students' positive attitudes towards their Persian language ability.



**Figure 6.18** Students' reasons for their positive attitudes towards their Persian language ability

### 6.1.8 RQ3 Parent data: child's attitudes towards their Persian language ability

In order to understand parents' perception about their children's attitudes towards their Persian language ability, parents were asked to elaborate their children's attitudes in this regard. Parents were asked the question: "How is your child feeling when he/she has some ability in Persian language?"

#### 6.1.8.1 Parent data discussion: child's attitudes

Parent data showed that similar to student data, all parents believed that their children had a sense of happiness and pride in regard to their Persian language ability. These positive attitudes were expressed either directly by children or through their behaviour. For example, S3 P1 said: *"He becomes so happy when he can read or write something. He tells me that."* S1 P5 asserted: *"... He never says anything but I can see that he becomes happy."*

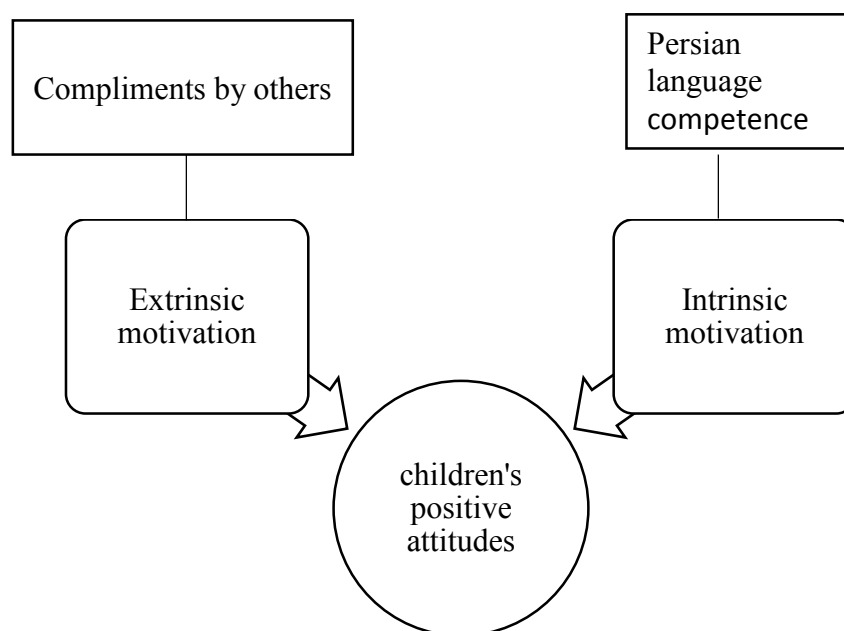
Students' sense of satisfaction and pride, according to parent data, had many reasons. The most noticeable reason was the compliment their children received from others. The compliment received from different members of community such as parents, grandparents (even though they were in Iran), teachers and community members resulted in both students' and parents' pride and happiness. For instance, S1 P2 asserted: *"... After (S1 FG1 St2) presentation everybody came and congratulated me for having such a daughter and the way she spoke Persian ...."* S1 P3 stated: *"... they (her children) skype with their grandparents in Iran and they say hello to them and they enjoy showing their writing to their grandparents because they give them a lot of compliment on their improvements, and they get very happy ...."* S1 P4 asserted: *"It makes her feel happy when she receives our compliment ...."* S1 P5 said: *"He gets very happy when his teachers praise him ...."* Parents' and grandparents' positive attitudes build up students' emotional and cultural motivation and proliferate students' interest in studying the language (Kagan, 2005). The feeling of relatedness, which means a person is accepted and valued by others (Noels, 2005, p. 288) equips the person with intrinsic motivation and self-determination.

Parent data also suggested that they believed their children were pleased and proud of themselves because of their Persian language ability. For example, S1 P1 said: *"I can really see this happiness in my children when they talk to our relatives on the phone. They really enjoy going to Iran and I am sure it is because their language is good ...."* S1 P3 asserted: *"... her ability to speak, write and read in Persian makes her feel good."* S1 P4 stated: *"...*

*her progress on her reading and writing makes her feel happy. She becomes very proud of herself ....*” S1 P5 said: “*...he enjoys it when he is capable of doing it (presentations in Persian language.*” For example, S2 P2 asserted: “*He wouldn't care before, but now he is very happy he is able to talk and to communicate with his cousin ...*” S4 P1 asserted: “*He's mainly pleased with his ability to read and write ....*” In fact, the more they became competent in Persian language, the more positive attitudes they gained (Chinen & Tucker, 2005; Tse, 1998)

#### **6.1.8.2 Summary discussion: parent data**

In sum, parent data demonstrate their children's positive attitudes towards learning Persian language and Persian language ability. The reasons evident in parent data are categorised as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Figure 6.19 below shows parents' perception of their children's positive attitudes towards their Persian language ability.



**Figure 6.19** Parents' beliefs about their children's positive attitudes towards Persian language ability

### **6.1.9 RQ3 Teacher data: students' attitudes towards their Persian language ability**

Teachers' belief about their students' attitudes towards their Persian language ability were sought by asking the question: "How do your students feel about their Persian language ability?"

#### **6.1.9.1 Teacher data discussion: students' attitudes**

Teacher data demonstrated that similar to students and parents, teachers also pointed to students' positive attitudes towards their Persian language ability by noting students' sense of happiness and pride. Teachers believed that students' happiness and positive attitudes were mainly related to students' existing Persian language ability. For example, S3 T1 asserted:

*"He becomes so happy and proud of himself when he sees his capabilities."* S4 T2 stated:

*"Once we were sitting in my brother-in-law's car in Iran. My daughter could read the name of a brand which was written on a tissue box. She did that spontaneously without being asked or being tested by others. She read that and she was so happy that she could read the name."*

Child's experiences and emotions show that experiencing the ability to read and write in home language is personalized by the learner (Baker, 2011). Again, the more students learnt Persian language, the more they gained positive attitudes. These positive attitudes encouraged them to study more in order to learn Persian language efficiently. Hence, teachers tried to even motivate students with extra-curricular activities and innovative teaching methodologies. For example, S1 T1 said: *"I can exactly see their happiness. I choose ways to encourage them to study harder. On the other hand, I get very excited when I see they can speak, read and write in Persian ... I also offer some extra-curricular activities apart from their homework to make them more motivated ... It is not just writing from their textbook and I try more than that ...."* S1 T2 asserted: *"They get very excited and I try to encourage them more. I have my own method for spelling test. I write a word on the board first and I let them learn it very well, and I ask them to practice it at home. Then, I give them a test next week, this way they all get a full mark, because they have learnt it very well. They are very happy and satisfied*

*and encouraged to study more ....*”S2 T1 stated: *“Everyone who is learning a new language is pleased by his/her improvement. I can see this happiness in the children.”*

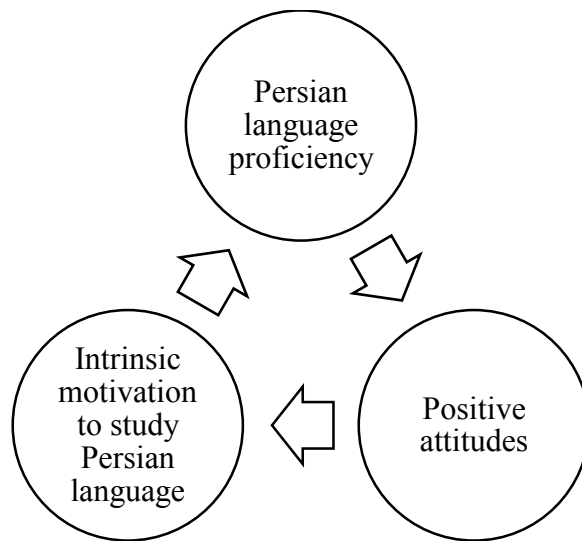
Teacher data also demonstrated that teachers’ happiness and compliment, affected students’ positive attitudes. For instance, S1 T1 said: *“... my happiness also makes them very happy.”*

Teacher data also showed that students’ positive attitudes emerged from their personal characteristics and their both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to learn Persian language. For instance, S2 T2 said: *“...It really depends on the child. If she/he is hard worker and passionate, they learn it quicker ....”* S3 T1 stated: *“I saw this happiness in those kids who are doing very well and those who are coming here willingly ... there is a child whose grandmother and his parents are encouraged him to come. He is so eager to learn the language and he loves Persian very much.”*

Teacher data suggested that students’ ability to communicate with Iranian people (integrative motivation) and the ability to obtain a pragmatic use of language (instrumental motivation) was another reason for their positive attitudes (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). For example, S4 T2 stated: *“... when we were in Iran my son went to sign up for football team with his cousins. He himself could fill his registration form in Persian language and could talk to people there and he was very happy for that.”* Data provided by this teacher about her child (S4 FG1 St1) showed that in addition to the student’s integrative and instrumental motivation, the student expressed his intrinsic motivation by demonstrating his autonomy, competence and relatedness, according to Noels (2005, pp. 287-288).

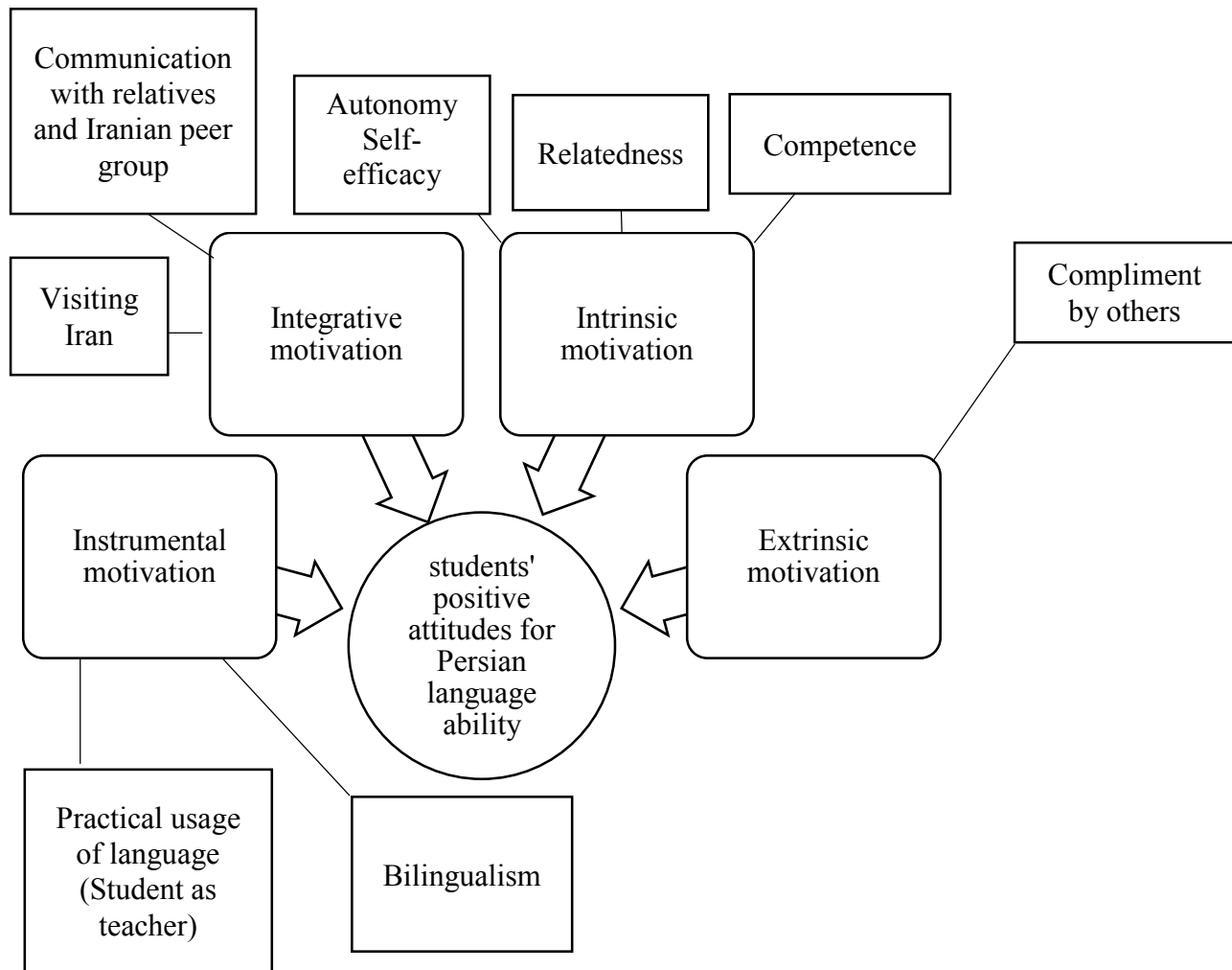
#### **6.1.9.2 Summary discussion: teacher data**

In conclusion, teacher data illustrate that students’ Persian language ability can enhance their positive attitudes towards Persian language learning and therefore, their positive attitudes can result in their intrinsic motivation to further study and learn Persian language. Figure 6.20 below shows the relationship between students’ positive attitudes, their Persian language ability and their intrinsic motivation to study Persian language, according to teacher data.



**Figure 6.20** Teacher perception of students’ positive attitudes about their Persian language learning and ability

**6.1.9.3 Triangulation of data: students’ attitudes towards Persian language ability** The research participant data including students’ parents’ and teachers’ data reveal that student positive attitudes towards Persian language learning rely on different aspects of motivation including their intrinsic, extrinsic, instrumental and integrative motivation. Figure 6.21 below summarises the factors that have influence on students’ positive attitudes according to the research participant data.



**Figure 6.21** Research participants' perception of what influences students' positive attitudes towards Persian language ability

As the findings show both intrinsic and extrinsic orientations based on Self-Determination Theory ((Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991), and integrative and instrumental orientations (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). In addition, teacher data show that how student's autonomy, relatedness and competence intrinsically motivate student to engage in an activity and results in positive attitudes (Noels, 2005). Therefore, it can be concluded that Persian heritage language learners' positive attitudes are linked to intrinsic motivation.

#### **6.1.10 RQ3 student data: students' goal for Persian language learning**

Early research on general human motivation focused on basic human needs. The concept of a 'need' has been replaced by a more specific construct known as a 'goal' in current studies of motivation. 'Goal' is seen as the engine to fire the action. In other words, in order for actions to take place, goals have to be set and pursued (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2001, p. 25).

Through this study, students, parents and teachers were asked about students' goals for learning Persian language. The aim was to understand the research participant perception of students' goal for learning Persian language. Furthermore, the aim was to find out if any discrepancy existed between the research participants. The following section, the research participant data discussion will be provided in detail.

##### **6.1.10.1 Student data discussion: student goal**

Student participants were asked to express why they were learning Persian language.

According to students' responses, a common response was that learning Persian language was important for students. For instance, S1 FG1 St2 asserted: "*It is very important for me.*"

However, this importance was not universal. It was realized that Four out of 35 students (S2 FG1 St2, S4 FG1 St2, S4 FG1 St3 and S4 FG2 St4) asserted explicitly that they did not like to learn Persian language. For example, S2 FG1 St2: "*I don't like Persian very much.*" S4 FG1 St3 stated: "*My parents tell me that I should learn my mother tongue. But I don't like it very much myself.*" Student data clearly showed that they were not intrinsically motivated to learn Persian language because they had been forced by their parents to learn the language.

The importance of learning Persian language was related to different goals specified by student participants. According to the student data, both integrative and instrumental motivation were represented in students' goals for learning Persian language. Gardner and Lambert (1972) introduced two classes of reasons for second language learning: integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. While integrative motivation is a desire to learn the second language in order to interact and identify with members of the L2 community,



instrumental motivation is a desire to learn the second language in order to achieve some pragmatic goals.

Student ability to communicate, interaction and connect with immediate families such as parents and relatives in Iran was found to be student goal for learning Persian language and demonstrated students' integrative motivation for learning Persian language. For example, S2 FG1 St1 stated: *"It's important for me because if I don't know Persian I won't be able to talk to my parents and when we go to Iran again I can't talk with my relative in Iran ...."* S1 FG3 St2 said: *"(I like to learn Persian) in order to be able to talk with my family ...."* S3 FG2 St1 stated: *"(I learn Persian) to understand what my parents say."* Students linked their integrative motivation to their connection with Iran through their travelling and visiting Iran or their family visiting them in Sydney. For example, S1 FG2 St3 asserted: *"Because I can talk to my relatives when we go to Iran."* S2 FG2 St4 stated: *"Because I want to go to Iran and I want to talk there and to speak Persian there so I learn Persian."* S4 FG2 St1 said: *"Because we go to Iran for holidays every two years and sometimes my aunt comes here."*

Travel to Iran and visiting families are examples of the opportunity creation in which use of Persian language is "natural, welcome and expected", according to COD (Capacity development, Opportunity, Desire) framework (Lo Bianco & Peyton, 2013, p. i).

Student data also suggested that through learning Persian language they would be able to find friends and talk to them in Persian language (Phinney et al., 2001). It also showed that in-group peer interaction had influence on ethnic language proficiency. Lei (2012, p. 62) stated that peer-mediated interactions has a significant role in the co-construction of linguistic competence. For example, S3 FG1 St3 asserted: *"Maybe I go to Iran so I can speak there or if I grow up I can speak with my Iranian friends."* S3 FG2 St4 said: *"If I go to Iran I can find friends to talk to them."* Learning heritage language provides the possibility to find friends (Carreira & Kagan, 2011).

The more connection, the more integrative motivation to learn Persian language and vice versa.

Students' Persian language learning provided the opportunity for them to be accepted and to be valued by the Iranian community. The fulfilment of this need known as relatedness, which is less well studied according to Noels (2005, p. 288), is essential for the students to integrate Persian language learning into their self-concept. For instance, S1 FG2 St4 said: *"Because when I go to Iran, if I can't talk Persian I have to go and sit somewhere."* S1 FG3 St1 said: *"It's a little embarrassing when you go to Iran if you don't know your mother language."*

Students' feeling of relatedness were associated with their Persian language ability and their ability to communicate properly in Persian language. Acquiring this ability was their goal for Persian language learning. In addition to communication ability, students' literacy skills improvement was identified as their goal for Persian language learning. Persian language ability could result in students' self-efficacy and self-confidence. In other words, the more competent they were, the more autonomous they became (Noels, 2005). For instance, S1 FG1 St1 asserted: *"... I can read, write and speak easily."* S2 FG1 St3 said: *"If sometime we go to Iran I will be able to communicate with my people in Iran and I want it to be easy for me."* S2 FG2 St1 stated: *"We usually travel to Iran and I want to read signs and board easily."* S3 FG2 St4 said: *"I want to talk to others like my family and my relatives properly."* S4 FG2 St1 stated: *"when we go to Iran during holidays, if I don't know Persian I would be able to read the signs."* S4 FG2 St3 asserted: *"Because sometimes we go to Iran and if my mom and my dad are not with me, I can read things."* S4 FG2 St4 stated: *"Because if I go to Iran and I am lost in a street so I will be able to read the name of street for my uncle so he can find me easily."* S3 FG1 St3: *"Because when I see a funny movie on GL Box I want to understand it."* Student data demonstrated that learning Persian language, as their mother tongue, provided the opportunity for them to increase their sense of belonging to Iran, their parents and their parents' background (Carreira & Kagan, 2011). S1 FG1 St2 asserted: *"I think I have to and*

*also like to learn my mother language.*” S1 FG3 St2 asserted: “... *because it is my mother tongue.*” S1 FG2 St1 stated: “*Because it’s in Iran.... Because it’s our language.*” S1 FG2 St2 said: “*It is important because my parents are Iranian. I need to understand and to write like them.*” S3 FG2 St2 asserted: “*I come here (Persian school) because my parents know Persian. So I know what they say.*” S3 FG1 St2 asserted: “*Sometimes I want to know what they (my parents) write in Persian on computer screen.*” S1 FG3 St3 stated: “*When you go to your country you can understand what they say.*”

In addition to integrative motivation, instrumental motivation was also identified by students as another reason for students’ Persian language learning. Students’ instrumental motivation specified by them were linked to different categories such as finding a job in the future such as a translator, knowing Persian language as an advantage for their HSC (Higher School Certificate given to students at the end of year 12). How a language learner understands possibilities for the future, and the learner’s desire for the future, leads to learner’s investment to learn a language (Norton, 2000). For instance, S1 FG1 St1 stated: “*It (learning Persian language) can help us for our HSC and it gives us more points. It helps us to find a better job and it helps us later at university.*” S1 FG1 St3: “*In general, it is necessary (knowing two languages) for life especially for our job.*” S1 FG3 St1 stated: “*It is an advantage when you want to do your HSC.*” S1 FG2 St3 asserted: “*When I go to university, I get point for languages.*” S2 FG2 St1: “*I think knowing two languages is of great importance for universities as well.*” S1 FG3 St3 said: “*you can get a better job because you have the opportunity.*” S2 FG1 St3 said: “*If people come here and it is hard for them to speak English, I can help them and I can translate for them.*” More significantly, student data showed that they were learning Persian language in order to become bilingual or to be recognized as a bilingual person in English and another language, not necessarily Persian language. For example, S3 FG1 St4 asserted: “*Because I think second language is of great importance.*” S1 FG1 St1 said: “... *Because we become bilingual and we know two languages ....*” S2 FG1 St2

stated: *"I think I'm interested in learning of two languages."* S2 FG2 St1 asserted: *"I want my Persian to be like my English. I want to learn Persian because when I grow up I know two languages and knowing two languages is very good."* S3 FG1 St4 said: *"When I go to high school I'll have a better opportunity and I improve. Then they say this person knows Persian and English so I can get a job."*

Student data revealed that students' instrumental motivation for learning Persian language was imposed on them by their parents. It refers to what Dörnyei (2009c) calls "Ought-to-self". "Ought-to-self refers to the representation of attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e. representation of someone else's sense of duties, obligations or moral responsibilities) and which therefore may bear little resemblance to one's own desires or wishes." (p.13). For example, S3 FG1 St2 said: *"Because my mom told me when I go to high school or university I must know two languages. So I am learning Persian."* S4 FG1 St1 stated: *"Because my mom tells me that we should know the language of our country."* S4 FG1 St2 asserted: *"Because my mother told me if I go to Persian school I will learn another language. She told me that I should know the language of my country. My parents also tell me that I need to learn it but I don't like it. My mom told me if I learn the language of my country, when I go there I can speak it and I can read it. Of course I don't like it myself especially because it is on Saturday. My mother forces me that I know my mother tongue."* S4 FG1 St3 said: *"My parents tell me that I should learn my mother tongue. But I don't like it very much myself."* S4 FG1 St4 stated: *"I like other kids should come here by force."*

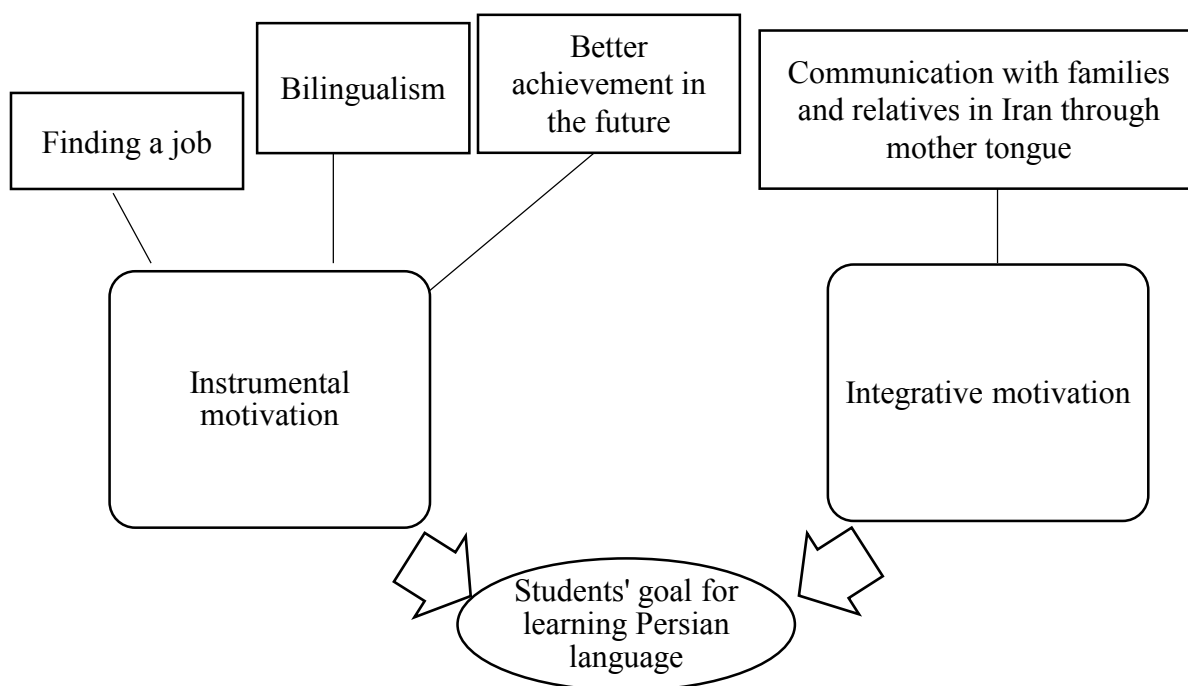
#### **6.1.10.2 Summary discussion: student data**

According to student data, it can be concluded that majority of students indicate their intrinsic motivation and the importance of learning Persian language. Students' goal for learning Persian language is generally emergent from both their integrative and instrumental motivation. However, students' integrative motivation for learning Persian language surpasses

their instrumental motivation. Furthermore, the data shows that their instrumental motivation is more likely shaped and affected by their parents.

Students' main goal for learning Persian is to be able to communicate with their immediate family, their relatives in Iran by visiting Iran, and their families visiting students here in Sydney. This goal highlights students' integrative motivation to learn Persian language with a highest level of ability in order for them to be accepted, valued and to be included while that connection occurs. Student data also show that their integrative motivation for learning Persian language is associated with their sense of belonging to Iran (Carreira & Kagan, 2011). Access to their parents and their parents' background through learning Persian language as their mother tongue and the official language in Iran emphasizes their sense of belonging. Students' instrumental motivation, which is imposed on them by their parents, includes their goal for language learning in order to find a job in the future such as being a translator. Achieving a better result for their HSC and later achievements at the university is students' another goal for learning Persian language. Moreover, being recognized as a bilingual person is another goal for Persian language learning identified by students.

Figure 6.22 below summarises students' belief about their Persian language learning.



**Figure 6.22** Students’ belief about their goal for learning Persian language

### **6.1.11 RQ3 parent data: child’s goal for learning Persian language identified by parents**

In order to know more about students’ goal for learning Persian language, parents were asked to reflect their perception of why their children were learning Persian language.

#### **6.1.11.1 Parent data discussion: child’s goal identified by parents**

Parent data demonstrated the importance of students’ learning Persian language to parents.

For instance, S1 P3, S1 P4 and S2 P2 said: *“It is very important for me.”* However, only one parent (S2 P1) stated that her child’s learning Persian language was not very important for the parent. In fact, her child, by herself, was very interested to learn Persian language. S2 P1 stated: *“If I consider her situation and her future in this country, I don’t insist on her that she must learn Persian. I am exactly opposite other parents who really insist on learning Persian. She’s very interested in Persian language learning. She herself likes to learn Persian because of identity reasons. Because she says she is Iranian and she wants to learn Persian. She likes it very much, and because of her insistence we brought her here.”* The student was an example of “ideal self” identified by Dörnyei (2009c, p. 13). “Ideal self” refers to the

representation of the attributes that one would ideally like to possess (i.e. representation of hopes, aspirations, or wishes). The student was intrinsically motivated to learn the language without feeling the pawn of external situation.

According to parent data, parents recognized different reasons for the importance of learning Persian language by their children. These reasons identified by parents together with a number of quotes as example are as follows:

Parent data showed that the main reason realized by parents were their children's bilingualism and its benefits for their children such as their brainpower. For example, S1 P1 said: *"It is an advantage to know a second language ... because each language has its power."* S1 P2 asserted: *"... if somebody knows 5 languages, he/she will be 5 persons ... when they learn other languages they get smarter."* S1 P4 stated: *"I encourage them to be bilingual."* S2 P1 asserted: *"Learning any language at the early ages can contribute to a child's intelligence development. Any language learning can also help to improve their linguistics abilities. They become smarter by knowing more than one language."* S3 P1 said: *"(by learning Persian) they become bilingual. I believe knowing a second language is an advantage and a skill. It is said that bilingual people have more active mind."* Cognitive benefits of learning Persian language were also emphasized by Iranian parents in New York (Shirazi & Borjjan, 2012). Cognitive and academic advantages obtained through bilingualism are well-established through a number of studies (Baker, 2011; Swain & Lapkin, 1991).

Parent data suggested that through learning Persian language, their children would be able to know Iran, its history, culture, literature and therefore they would gain cultural knowledge of heritage language. It is through heritage language that the heritage culture and traditions are reproduced and transmitted (Clyne, 1991; Fishman, 1991; Oriyama, 2011). Parents' belief was sometimes imposed on children by their parents, according to parent data. For example, S1 P2 said: *"I want her to know about Iran. I always tell my daughter (S1 FG1 St2) that she should learn about Iran."* S1 P3 asserted: *"It is very important for me they know the Persian*

*literature. If they learn Persian language, they will realize what a rich culture they have.” S3 P1 stated: “when he grows up, he maybe want to know about his country's history, literature, and culture so he will be able to do it by his studies by himself.”*

Another reason acknowledged by parents was their children's integrative motivation to learn Persian language. Students' learning Persian language assisted them to be able to communicate with their families in Iran through their visiting Iran or those relatives who came here to Sydney to visit the children. For instance, S2 P2 said: “... *all my family and relatives are in Iran, and my children will not be able to communicate with them if they do not know Persian.*” S1 P4 asserted: “*I also want them to be able to communicate with their relatives in Iran.*” S4 P1 stated: “*By learning Persian he (S4 FG2 St1) can speak with my family when we go to Iran.*” S1 P1 said: “... *they can communicate with our family and relatives back in Iran, and maintain their relationship with them when they go to Iran. If they are not able to communicate with them they will gradually lose contact.*” Parent data showed how Persian language competence facilitated their children's sense of autonomy and relatedness to their families in Iran. The three elements including competence, autonomy and relatedness are components of intrinsic motivation, according to Noels (2005, pp. 287-288). Having these three elements is essential for the students to integrate their Persian language learning into their self-concept. For example, S3 P1 stated: “*We want him to learn Persian because it's possible that we go back to Iran and he will not be able to read books or newspaper and he will not be able to know the name of streets. Maybe when he comes back to Iran he can understand what other Iranian say but because he can't read and write, it will not be enough. Maybe he wants to do something and he will not be able to do that.*” S3 P1 believed that the goals for learning Persian language learning should be identified and imposed by parents first (extrinsic motivation). Then, after acquiring competence, autonomy and relatedness (intrinsic motivation components) were acquired by the learner, Persian language learning would be integrated into students' self-concept.



Students' high level of Persian language ability and fluency in reading, writing and speaking was another goal identified by parents. Parents' belief about their children's Persian language ability in all four skills demonstrated parents' Iranian background as parents. Iranian culture is adult oriented and parents make major decisions for their children as they are priorities with most families. Education is highly praised amongst Iranians and children are pressured to succeed academically. Mothers and recently fathers spent lots of time with their children till children finish their education. Children are expected to respect parents and to follow parents' guidelines (Price, 2001). For example, S1 P3 said: *"(by learning Persian language) they gain the ability to read and write in two languages and become more fluent. It is very important that they learn to easily read Persian poetry and appreciate it and understand it."* S4 P1 stated: *"Reading and writing in Persian is of great importance for us. It's highly unlikely that we come back to Iran to live there. However I still like him to be able to read Persian books and write in Persian."*

Students' learning Persian language as their mother tongue was important too, according to parent data. Parent data illustrated their emotions towards Persian language as their children's mother tongue. For instance, S1 P4 said: *"(learning) Persian is very important because it is my language."* S3 P1 asserted: *"his (her son's) mother tongue is Persian."*

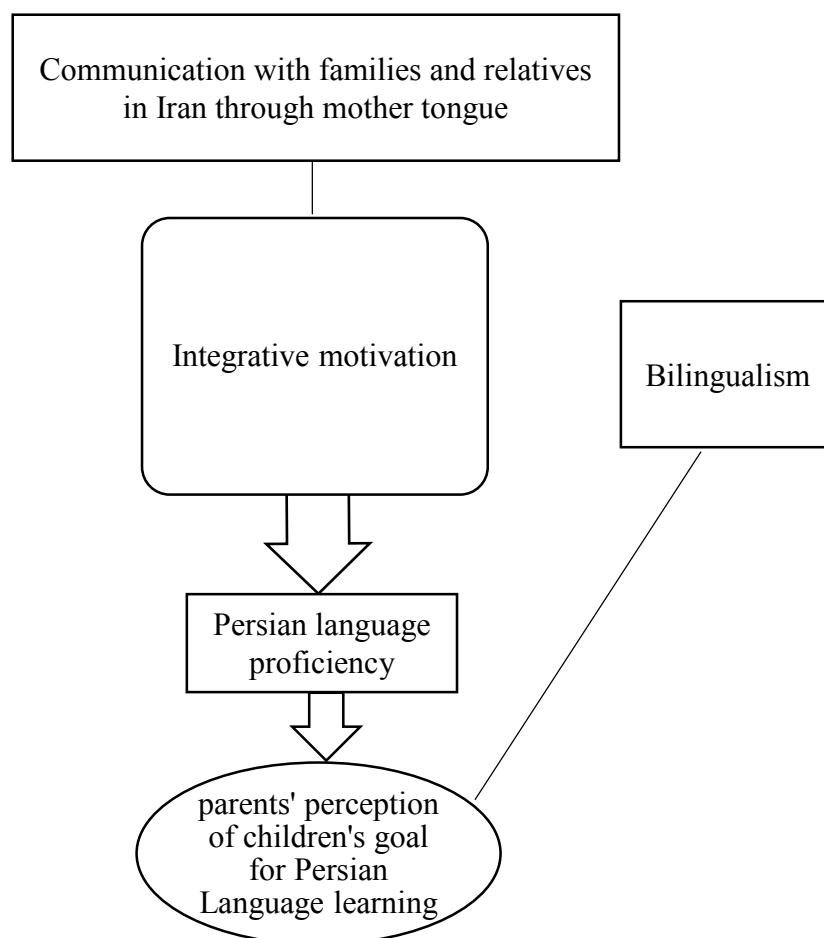
#### **6.1.11.2 Summary discussion: parent data**

Parent data reveal that their children's goal of learning Persian language is very similar to their children's goals. One similar reason is the advantage of becoming bilingual by learning Persian language. Both student and parent data seem to indicate that being bilingual in English and another language (not necessarily Persian language) will be beneficial for the student. However, by learning Persian language as students' mother tongue and acquiring the ability to communicate with their families in Iran through students' visiting Iran, they enhance their integrative motivation. Persian language ability is another reason showing the importance of learning Persian language, according to parent data. Through Persian language

ability, autonomy and relatedness, students' intrinsic motivation for learning Persian language will increase.

Comparing parent and student data, however, demonstrates the differences between their beliefs. While parent data shows that by learning Persian language their children will gain knowledge about Iran, its culture and its literature, (except S1 FG1 St2) student data rarely illustrate the linkage between Persian language learning and acquiring those knowledge. Moreover, even though student data reveal their instrumental motivation for learning Persian language mainly imposed on them by their parents, none of the parents refer to instrumental motivation.

Figure 6.23 below summarises parents' perception of children's goal for Persian Language learning.



**Figure 6.23** Parent belief about the goal of learning Persian language by their children

### **6.1.12 RQ3 teacher data: students' goal for Persian language learning identified by teachers**

Similar to students and parents, teachers were also asked the interview question about the importance of learning Persian language by their students. Teacher data were investigated in order to understand their beliefs about students' goal for learning Persian language. As it was noted in the methodology chapter, five out of seven teachers were students' parents as well. Therefore, these teachers answered the interview questions in parent role.

#### **6.1.12.1 Teacher data discussion: students' goal**

Teacher data demonstrated that students' learning Persian language was important for teachers. The significance of learning Persian language was because of students' bilingualism. Teacher data suggested that Persian language as students' mother tongue was important to be learned by Persian language learners. Teachers' belief reflected their both professional goal as well as their emotional perspective as parent-teachers. S3 T1 said: *"second language is of great importance for everybody as when you know another language you are another person. It is very important if that language is one's mother tongue."* S4 T1 said: *"... I always wanted my children to know a second language...."* S4 T1 asserted: *"It is important for me that my children know my language."* S4 T2 said: *"... because it's her mother tongue."*

Learning Persian language provided the opportunity for students to know and to understand Persian language and culture. The majority of stakeholders believe that heritage language schools provide the opportunity for the learner to know their language and culture (Liu, 2010). In fact, students' Persian identity and culture development occurred through learning the language. For instance, S3 T1 asserted: *"One's culture is in that language and one knows the language, one knows and understands the culture."* Home culture can be transmitted through home language literacy (Clyne, 1991; Fishman, 1991; Oriyama, 2011).

Teacher data showed that by learning Persian language, students were able to communicate, to express their feelings and understand their relatives when they visited them in Iran. The

language, in which a learner speaks, forms the learner's identity and failure to speak the language properly may interrupt learner's ethnic identity and cultural affiliation (Bialystok, 2001). For example, S4 T1 said: *"... because we're far from our family I want them to be able to make connection with other members of family whom they visit whenever they go to Iran and during our trips to Iran which happens maybe every year or every several years ... when they speak to my family, they do not have any problem."* S3 T1 stated: *"If a child can't speak the language when the child visits his/her families and relatives in Iran he/she can't express his/her feelings."* S2 T4 asserted: *"When she goes to Iran, I want her to be able to speak to her relatives easily."* According to the teachers' data, the significance of students' learning Persian language was linked to their speaking skill.

Teacher data illustrated that the importance of learning Persian language was recognized by students; however, it was reliant on support from family too. S3 T1 said: *"I think children are eager to learn Persian but they need encouragement."*

According to teacher data, students' learning Persian language was important for them because they realized their background and they cared about it. Community language school provides the opportunity for the learner to know his/her background (Long, 1988). For example, S3 T1 said: *"my nephew cares about his background and his origin and he is willing to speak Persian with his grandfather."*

Teacher data showed that Persian language ability as a result of students' Persian language learning was important and the result made teachers happy and satisfied. For instance, S4 T1 asserted: *"It was always so important for me that my child could read, write and speak Persian."* S4 T1 said: *"I am happy for that (children's language learning) especially because during our last trip to Iran several month ago, I saw my children could read signs so I was so glad that I gained what I intended... my goal is that they reach to the level that they can read and write and speak their mother language like us."* S4 T2 asserted: *"My main goal, considering my child is also studying in this school, is to improve her ability in reading and*

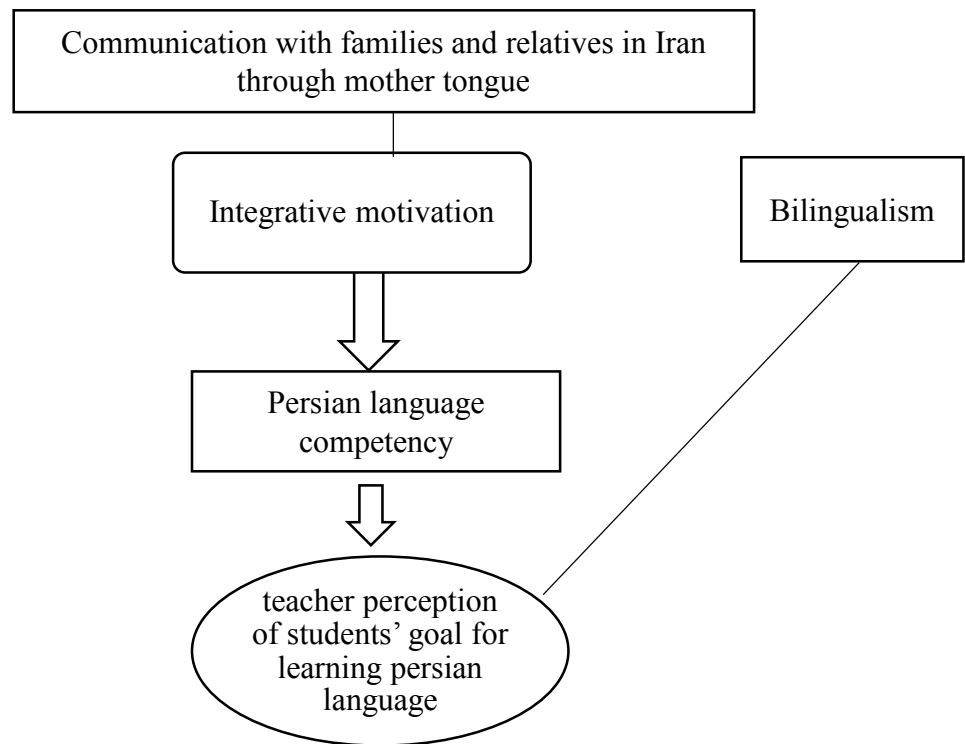
*writing and her progress to higher levels.” S4 T2 stated: “I don’t want her to be like an illiterate person. I’d like her to be literate and to use Persian language as an educated person. I want her to be able to find an address, to read and to grab information or to help others.”*

Teacher data illustrated that a teacher reflected her affective reasoning as a reason for her children’s Persian language learning. For instance, S4 T1 said: *“If my children grow up and they cannot speak, read or write in Persian, I will be embarrassed and ashamed of myself and I will feel guilty and responsible because as a teacher who had the possibility I should teach them Persian language and provide the opportunity for them to learn Persian language.”* The sense of shame and embarrassment motivates teacher, who is a parent as well, to make effort in teaching the heritage language (Carreira & Kagan, 2011).

#### **6.1.12.2 Summary discussion: teacher data**

In conclusion, teacher data demonstrates that the significance of students’ Persian language learning hinges on their integrative motivation. According to teacher data, students should learn Persian language because it is students’ mother tongue. By learning Persian language, students will be recognized as bilinguals who know both Persian and English language.

Knowing Persian language will enable students to communicate with their families and relatives when they go to Iran. Figure 6.24 below summarises teacher perception of students’ goal for learning Persian language.



**Figure 6.24** Teacher perception of students' goal for learning Persian language

According to teacher data, in addition to speaking, improving students' other language skills such as reading and writing is necessary in order to be accepted as a well-educated person.

This belief expressed by teachers reminds us that the majority of teachers are parents and they share the same goals as parents' goals. It also shows that teachers in the role of parent-teachers express their cultural beliefs which were shaped through teachers' education in Iran. Therefore, it emphasizes their educational values and beliefs (Price, 2001).

Teacher professional knowledge of students is among the list of professional knowledge defined for Australian teachers by Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL). Teachers should consider that these learners are students who attend Australian school five days a week and they are immersed in Australian educational culture. Only for one day and on Saturday, these students attend Persian school. In the Persian school, they will be in contact with Iranian educational culture which is different to the Australian educational culture. This study, similar to any study of heritage language, recognises the dominance of

English language and the dominance of the educational culture of the host country.

Furthermore, it has been observed that, in heritage language programs, the expectations of parents and teachers reflect their ethnic identity needs which are shaped by their own educational background and it applies to possible longer term plans for their kids. Thus, their goals may differ from the goals and needs of students which have been shaped by their lives in Australia. Furthermore, it reflects the difference between the generation (parents and teachers) who were educated through Iranian educational culture and the generation (students) who are being educated in an Australian context.

#### **6.1.12.3 Triangulation of data: research participant beliefs about students' Persian language learning goals**

The research participant data suggest that the students' main goal for learning Persian language is to be able to communicate with their immediate families as well as their relatives in Iran. The opportunities such as speaking Persian language at home and visiting Iran are integral in students' responses and they reflect students' integrative motivation for learning Persian language. The ability to communicate effectively demonstrates students' autonomy, competence and relatedness, components of intrinsic motivation. Having these three elements is essential for the students to integrate their Persian language learning into their self-concept, according to Noels (2005, pp. 287-288). In fact, students' integrative motivation results in their intrinsic motivation to learn Persian language. While the research participants' emphasis is on students' speaking ability as a tool to achieve that goal, literacy skills such as reading and writing is highlighted too. Therefore, a holistic Persian language competence is targeted as students' Persian language learning goal.

Finding a job, future success at the university level and gaining better results for their Higher School Certificate (HSC) reveal the student participant instrumental motivation for learning Persian language. This instrumental motivation is apparently imposed on students by their parents, according to the student data. However, none of the parent participants echo the

instrumental motivation as their children goal for learning Persian language. It seems that the instrumental motivation is used as a discourse with children but not with the researcher.

While bilingualism, especially mother tongue learning besides English language learning, is a goal emphasised by all research participants, learning about Persian culture and literature, however, is highlighted by parents and teachers only. Persian culture and history can be obtained through reading Persian literature (Shirazi & Borjian, 2012)

#### **6.1.13 RQ3 Student data: students' Persian language skills needed**

The discussion of goal and need and their relation to motivation has been well-studied in second language acquisition (Dörnyei, 2003). The four types of extrinsic motivation including External regulation, Introjected Regulation, Identified regulation and Integrated regulation are shown on a continuum from the least self-determined to the most developed form of extrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1991). The integrated regulation which is the most developed and advanced form of extrinsic motivation occurs when the learners' needs is completely fulfilled through the language program and available tasks. In fact, language learning program should supply tasks innovatively and based on students' needs, motivation and proficiency level (Eisenchlas et al., 2013)

In order to understand students' Persian language needs, the research participant were asked the interview question: "which one of the four Persian language skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing is more important to learn and why?" By asking this question, students' needs to learn different Persian language skills were recognized. The research participants including students', parents' and teachers' perception were investigated in order to understand students' need, by understanding the similarities as well as differences among their perspectives.

##### **6.1.13.1 Student data discussion: student need**

According to student data, students revealed the language skills which were important for students to learn by providing different reasons. From the total number of 35 students, only



one student (S4 FG1 St4) believed that all the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing were equally needed. However, the majority of students emphasized that both speaking and listening skills were the two Persian language abilities student need to learn. For example, S1 FG1 St1 said: *“For me speaking is the most vital one ....”* S1 FG2 St3 asserted: *“Speaking and listening.”* By providing different reasons, students featured both speaking and listening skills *as their needs to achieve their goal of communication* with their families and relatives here in Sydney and in Iran. For instance, S1 FG1 St1 stated: *“if you want to communicate with your family you should be able to speak very well in order to be understood.”* This communication which happened during students’ travel to Iran, could result in better understanding and a good feeling, based on student data. Positive attitudes towards language learning emerges from language proficiency and self-efficacy (Chinen & Tucker, 2005). For example, S1 FG1 St2 said: *“if you want to communicate with your family when you go to Iran, you should be able to speak very well in order to be understood.”* S2 FG2 St1 stated: *“if you can’t speak then you will be silent.”* Furthermore, students related their speaking and listening ability to their instrumental motivation and goal for learning Persian language. For example, S1 FG1 St3 said: *“Speaking is the most important one then listening. It’s important when I grow up and I want to find my job or when someone comes from Iran and he can’t speak English.”* Through learning heritage language, the learner gain the ability to help others (Carreira & Kagan, 2011).

Through listening, students were able to learn Persian language, especially the words that they did not know. For instance, S1 FG1 St4 asserted: *“Listening is the most important one. Because, I can learn the words that they say.”* The data emphasizes on the role interaction and language input on heritage language learning and highlights the sociocultural aspect of heritage language learning (Van Lier, 1996).

In addition to speaking and listening, Persian language understanding and comprehension was another ability highlighted by students. Students’ Persian language understanding could be

achieved through listening to what others told them. S1 FG2 St1 stated: *“Speaking and listening and understanding. I believe listening is the most important one because when you understand better you can write more.”* S1 FG2 St3: *“Speaking and listening. All of them are vital but understanding comes first.”* According to student data, the emphasis is on “focus on form” which means the learner’s attention should be directed towards language use, meaning and communication (Long, 2000).

Student data demonstrated that in addition to learning speaking and listening, learning other skills such as reading and writing were also emphasized by students. For example, S2 FG2 St2 said: *“Each one of them (four skills) has a usage. But I think speaking and understanding what other says and listening are more important. But reading and writing are also important. And even reading is more important than writing.”* Home-language-literacy programs should be supported in order to improve overall literacy outcomes for Australian home-language speakers (Eisenclas et al., 2013). However, student data showed that even though they recognized the importance of reading and writing, they realized their real need based on their situation and the context in which they were living and educating and therefore they emphasized on speaking. For instance, S2 FG2 St4 said: *“I think reading and writing is important but regarding our situation, speaking is more important.”*

#### **6.1.13.2 Summary discussion: student data**

Student data show that students’ need for learning Persian language is, to a great extent, related to their goals. As it is shown in the goal section above, students’ goal for learning Persian language is shown as both integrative and instrumental motivation. In order for students to achieve their goal, they realize their needs. Therefore, students realize learning speaking and listening ability as their basic need in order to achieve their goal which is communicating and contacting their families and relatives (integrative motivation). In addition, through learning speaking, listening, reading and writing, they will achieve their

goal which is to find a better job, such as a translator, and future achievements (instrumental motivation).

#### **6.1.14 RQ3 Parent data: child's Persian language skill needed**

Parent participants were also asked the interview question in order to understand their perception of "which one of the four Persian language skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing is more important and why?"

##### **6.1.14.1 Parent data discussion: child's need**

Parent data demonstrated that knowing all the four language skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing was an ideal situation for student as a bilingual person. For instance, S1 P2 said: *"If they have all of them (four language skills), it is perfect."* S1 P3 stated: *"I think a child needs to have all the four skills to be considered bilingual."* However, according to majority of parent belief, speaking, listening and understanding, and then reading and writing were students' needs for learning Persian language respectively. For instance, S1 P2 stated: *"Even though they do not know how to read and write, they must be able to understand and speak."* S3 P1 asserted: *"I believe all of them are important and I want him to learn all of them. But if he can speak it is fine."* S1 P3 said: *"speaking is more important and then reading and writing."* With the exception of one parent who emphasized on reading and writing. S2 P1 stated: *"The most important skill for me is reading and writing because she can learn how to listen and speak at home. Because, we speak Persian at home and it seems those two skills are being learnt at home."*

Parent data suggested that, similar to student, communication and being able to connect with families and relatives, during their travel to Iran, was the goal of Persian language learning and therefore both speaking and listening skills were realized as students' substantial language learning needs in order to achieve that goal (integrative motivation). For instance, S1 P1 said: *"by knowing speaking, they (his children) can communicate with their family and relatives back in Iran, and maintain their relationship with them when they go to Iran."*

Furthermore, reminiscent of student data, students' better communication resulted in their better understanding and therefore better feeling expressed by students, according to parent data. For instance, S1 P1 asserted: *"If they are not able to communicate with their cousins, they cannot understand each other and they do not enjoy playing together."* S1 P2 stated: *"(by understanding and speaking) they (students) make emotional connections. Imagine a child who can't read and write but he/she can say a few words for example, 'I love you' or 'I miss you' to his grandmother."*

Parent data illustrated that parent belief about their children's genuine need for learning Persian language was realized according their situation because students were living here; therefore, they realized both speaking and listening as their children's need for learning Persian language. For instance, S2 P2 said: *"I think listening and speaking are more important for them to know in this country... they (both speaking and listening) are more beneficial for my kids who are living here."* S4 P1 asserted: *"Speaking is important. It's highly unlikely that we come back to Iran to live there. However I still like him to be able to read Persian books and write in Persian."*

#### **6.1.14.2 Summary discussion: parent data**

Parent data show that very similar to student data, parents also realize all the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing are respectively important. However, considering that students are living here, both speaking and listening skills are their genuine language needs. Both speaking and listening abilities are needed in order to be able to communicate with families. By improving speaking and listening skills as key factors to fulfil their communication, students will achieve their integrative motivation as their goal. Even though student data highlights that both speaking and listening skills are the skills required to achieve their instrumental motivation, none of the parents refer to instrumental motivation.

From parent data, it can be concluded that parents are aware of the significance of speaking and listening as their children's needs to achieve their Persian language learning goals.

However, parent role and effort in providing the opportunities to fulfil their child's need is debatable.

#### **6.1.15 RQ3 Teacher data: students' Persian language skills needed**

Teacher participants were also asked the interview question in order to understand their perception of "which one of the four Persian language skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing is more important and why?"

##### **6.1.15.1 Teacher data discussion: students' need**

Teacher data demonstrated that teachers have different understandings about their students' needs for learning Persian language. Moreover, students' needs were dependent on student's Persian language ability level. While for a number of students, capable of speaking Persian language, reading and writing abilities was a priority, the significance of reading and writing abilities was not considerable for those students who were not able to speak Persian language properly. It was an indication of a need for differentiation in learning Persian language for different students with different needs. Teaching multilevel classrooms implies training teachers in multiple strategies and classroom structures that provide support for all students (Berry & Williams, 1992; Hess, 2001). Heritage language learners and their needs are different and instructional choices to meet their needs is essential (Carreira, 2004; Carreira & Kagan, 2011, p. 58). For instance, S4 T1 stated: *"It depends on the group to which a child belongs ... those who have Persian background and their speaking is good, we can get directly into the reading and writing phase without any problem."* S2 T2 said: *"I have different levels in my class. Some of my students can speak Persian and understand me. I teach reading and writing to them and their progress are excellent and they already speak Persian at home. The other group don't know speaking and listening but they are practicing*

*writing. For example, they write the word water in Persian language but they have no idea about it. I need to write the word “water” next to its Persian so they recognize it.”*

While majority of teachers believed that both speaking and listening ability was the most important need for students, other teachers emphasized on students’ reading and writing need. For example, S2 T2 said: *“first speaking and listening, then reading and writing.”* S1 T2 asserted: *“I think reading should be improved first, then listening and then speaking. If they can read well, they will be able to write well; and if they listen and understand well, they can speak well.”*

According to teacher data, speaking skill was so important that other language abilities such as listening, reading and writing could be achieved by learning speaking ability, according to teacher data. Gibbons (1998a) emphasizes on creating a classroom in which students are able to “talk to learn). For instance, S2 T1 stated: *“Speaking is more important especially for those who are born here and they have no basics.”* S1 T1 said: *“I focus on speaking skill because it is the most important one ... I am one hundred percent sure if speaking skills is improved in children, they will automatically learn other skills.”* However, S1 T1 asserted that because of lack of enough time at Persian school, the speaking ability should be learnt at home by parents through Persian language practice at home.

Through listening, students were able to learn Persian language, especially the words that they did not know, according to teacher data. For instance, S4 T1 asserted: *“... listening is quite important because through listening they learn words.”*

Teachers recognized speaking and listening as students’ need for learning Persian language because students should be able to communicate with their families. Reading and writing were skills which should be learnt after students were capable of proper speaking. However, the focus of Persian language learning was on reading and writing instead, according to the study participant data. For instance, S2 T2 said: *“... in terms of communication, speaking and listening are the most important ones. Reading and writing are literacy but speaking and*

*listening are communicative tools. Writing is very important to some children like my child (S2 FG1 St1). She knows how to speak and she needs to know reading and writing.”*

Teacher data suggested that in addition to the four language skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing, understanding and comprehension were significant needs for Persian heritage language learners. Teacher data showed that even though students were able to read and write a word properly, they were unable to understand the meaning of the word. For instance, S1 T1 stated: *“I think writing is just a type of drawing except if they fully understand the meaning of the word and its usage.”* S2 T2 said: *“... they write a word in Persian language but they have no idea about it ... They know spelling and their dictation is good but they don't understand the concept.”* S4 T2 asserted: *“Understanding is the most important one. Sometimes they read a sentence correctly but they don't understand the meaning or they write something but don't know the meaning.”*

#### **6.1.15.2 Summary discussion: teacher data**

The teacher data illustrate that Persian heritage language learners are a diverse group and therefore their needs for learning Persian language are different too. Moreover, Persian teachers' perception of their Persian language learners' need is different. Teacher data suggest that, except for one teacher, other teachers' belief about students' need is the same as students' belief, that is, speaking ability is the most important skill and teachers are aware of their students' need. Students should be able to speak Persian language in order to communicate with their families and relatives. However, teachers do not accept the responsibility to teach students the speaking skill because of the time constraint at school. They also believe that teaching speaking skills is the responsibility of parents at home. Heritage language success involves a shared responsibility between school parents and broader community (Hayashi, 2006).

Teachers' lack of responsibility can be the result of not following a proper curriculum which identifies the duties of a professional teacher. According to Australian Institute for Teaching

and School Leadership (AITSL), it is teachers' professional responsibility to identify students' learning needs. This involves understanding of students' lives in Australia and it may be in conflict with teachers' feeling of responsibility to achieve Iranian curriculum goals as well as parents' goals. Teacher awareness and preparation is the key factor in quality language teaching (Lee & Oxelson, 2006).

Teacher data also show that their students have different needs because they have different level of Persian language ability. This diversity results in having different students with different levels of proficiency and therefore different needs in a Persian classroom. A teacher should teach different students with diverse needs and abilities in a classroom.

Understanding and comprehension is another issue raised by teachers. A profound understanding and extensive comprehension of what students read and write is recognised as students' need for learning Persian language by teachers.

#### **6.1.15.3 Triangulation of data: students' need for learning Persian language**

The research participant data show that students', parents' and teachers' perception of Persian language skills needed by learners' is similar. The overarching perception is that students' needs are different based on their diverse Persian language ability. However, according to the research participants, speaking and listening skills are the two significant needs of Persian heritage language learners to achieve their language learning goals. Students' genuine need is the ability to communicate with their immediate families and their relatives in Iran when they visit Iran. Successful communication equip students with self-efficacy, self-confidence and leads to positive attitudes and feelings. In other words, students' both integrative motivation will be accomplished by obtaining their speaking and listening abilities. In addition to communication ability, students will be able to learn new words while acquiring listening skills.

Reading and writing skills are also distinguished as the necessary skills after speaking and listening. However, students and parents, and NOT teachers, emphasize that educational

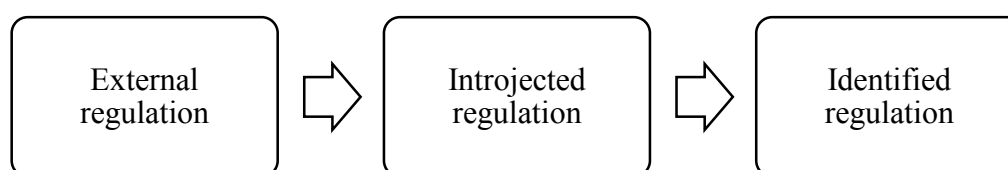


context, which is Australia in this study, has impact on students' language needs. The fact that students are living outside Iran diminishes the necessity of learning reading and writing. It is teachers' responsibility to diagnose the genuine need of their students. However, it seems that teachers and parents as teachers, have sustained the feeling of responsibility towards the goals of educational culture of Iran considering that the emphasis is on reading and writing in Iranian educational system. It is recommended that teachers should adopt the educational culture of the host country (which is Australia for this study) for effective heritage language learning. Moreover, Persian language comprehension and understanding is considered as the students' need by all research participants.

## **6.2. Conclusion: Persian heritage language learners' principal motivator for language learning**

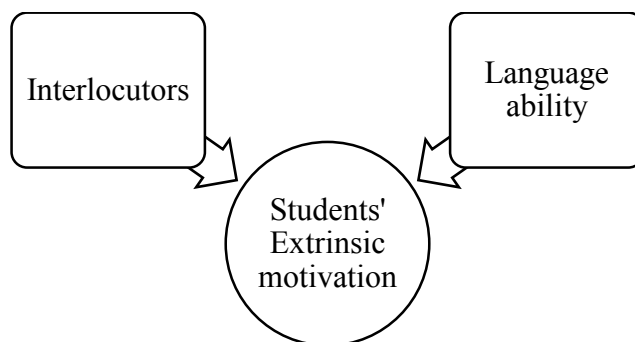
This chapter sought to answer the Research Question 3, "What principal motivators have primary roles for language learning among Persian heritage language learners?" Hence, the research participants were asked about student's motivation, students' Persian language ability, students' attitudes towards their language ability, students' goals and students' needs for learning Persian language.

In terms of motivation, the findings seem to indicate that Persian heritage language learners are extrinsically motivated to learn Persian language. Even though the researcher did not conduct a comparative analysis across time, the research participants' data suggest that Persian heritage language learners' extrinsic motivation changes across time. The learners' change of extrinsic motivation is shown in Figure 6.25.



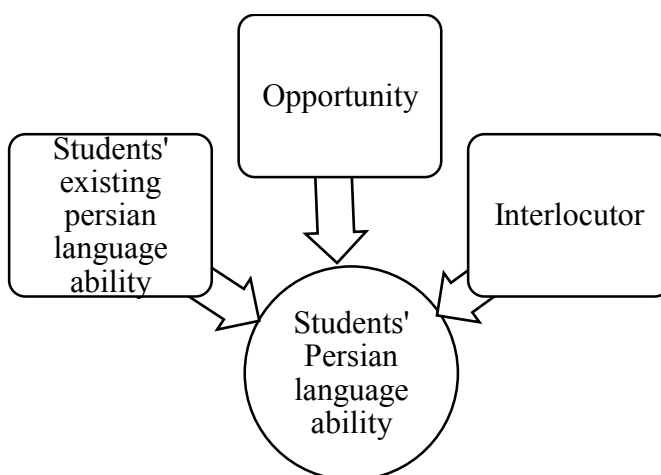
**Figure 6.25** Persian heritage language learners' extrinsic motivation advancement

Parents, grandparents, teachers and peer group have a significant impact on the learners' extrinsic motivation. In addition, language ability is a determinant for the learners' extrinsic motivation. Figure 6.26 shows the elements that have impact on students' extrinsic motivation.



**Figure 6.26** The elements that have impact on students' extrinsic motivation

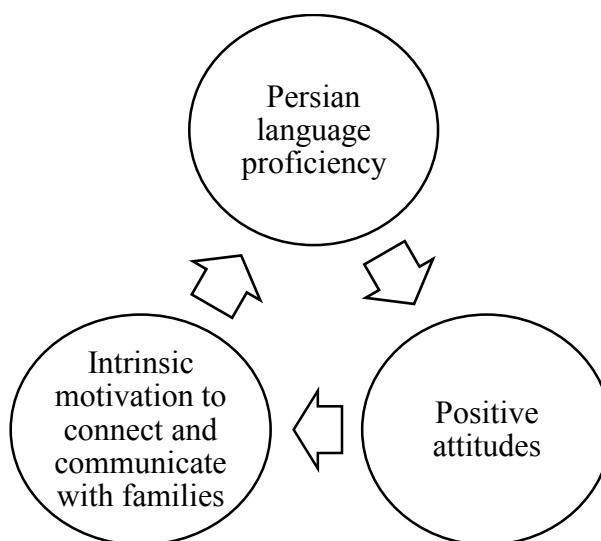
Students' language ability in all the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing depends on their interlocutors, the opportunities provided for the learner and students' existing Persian language proficiency. In fact, the more competent they become in the language, the more effort they put into language ability. Figure 6.27 shows this relationship.



**Figure 6.27** The foundations of students' Persian language ability

Students' attitudes towards their language proficiency is investigated and the results suggest that students' positive attitude is related to intrinsic/extrinsic and integrative/instrumental motivation. Students' extrinsic motivation was addressed before. Students' instrumental

motivation, however, was imposed on them by their parents. Learners' both intrinsic and integrative motivations were related to their ability to connect and communicate with their families and relatives. Figure 6.28 demonstrates the elements that have influence on Persian language learners' positive attitudes.

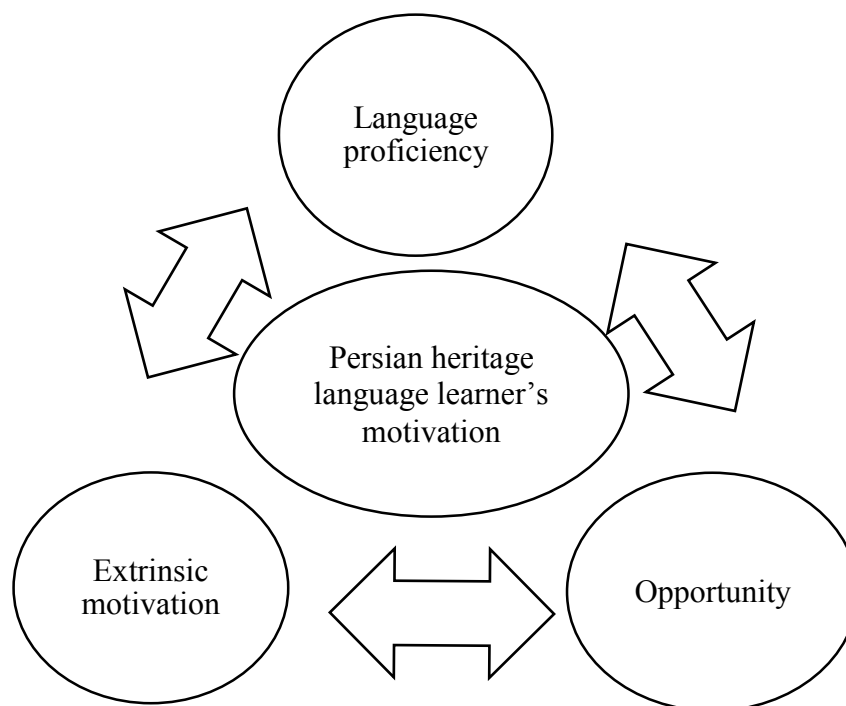


**Figure 6. 28** The elements influencing learners' positive attitudes towards language learning

The last two sections of the chapter presented the results of investigating students' goals and needs for learning Persian language. The learners' main goal is the ability to communicate and connect with their families, which highlights students' integrative motivation. Speaking and listening are recognised as the two language skills and abilities. Students need these language abilities in order to achieve their goal which is communication with their families. Students' goal demonstrate their integrative motivation and therefore it can be concluded that students' language ability as their need is required to achieve their goal which is their integrative motivation. Integrative orientation is an indicator of intergroup contact and ethnic identity, according to Noels (2001).

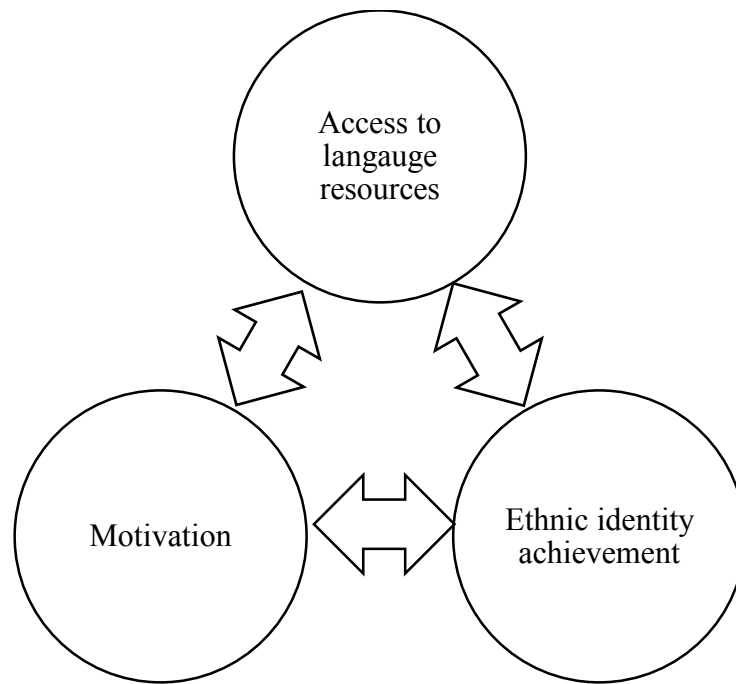
Finally, it can be concluded that Persian heritage language learners are both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated to learn Persian language. On one hand, the learners' extrinsic motivation is influenced by both their interlocutors and the learners' language proficiency. Furthermore, students' language ability is influenced by the opportunities provided by their

interlocutors. Figure 6.29 shows the relationship between extrinsic motivation, proficiency and opportunity.



**Figure 6.29** The relationship between extrinsic motivation, opportunity and Language proficiency

On the other hand, the learners are intrinsically motivated to learn Persian language because of their integrative motivation and their ethnic identity. Therefore, students' motivation is, on one hand, related to their ethnic identity and, on the other hand, their access to Persian language resources. Figure 6.30 demonstrates how access to language resources, ethnic identity achievement and motivation are related to each other for better language learning.



**Figure 6.30** The relationship between access to language resources, ethnic identity achievement and motivation

The last two sections of this chapter explored Persian heritage language learners' goal and needs for learning Persian language. Now the question is whether the students' needs and goals are considered for pedagogical purposes. Therefore, in order to find out about the relevance and suitability of Persian language learning programs, the research participants were asked to evaluate Persian language learning program and give their suggestions for better heritage language learning. Persian language program evaluation and suggestions will be the focus of the next chapter, which is Chapter 7.

## **Chapter 7: findings 4: Persian language program evaluation and suggestion**

*“One language sets you in a corridor for life. Two languages open every door  
along the way.”*

*Frank Smith*

## 7.1 Overview

Chapter 7 presents the findings of Persian language program evaluation and suggestion by using the sources of empirical data including students' focus group interviews, parents' and teachers' individual interviews, and class observations. The analysis of the related data was used to understand how students' needs and goals are met by Persian language learning programs. Research participants were asked to evaluate Persian language learning program (especially the program of the school in which the student participant attended) by assessing the suitability of Persian language resources, the time of the school, teaching methods and teacher qualification. These aspects, as the results of the researcher pilot study (Mokhatebi Ardakani & Moloney, 2010) noted in the Chapter 1, were found in need of profound investigation. Therefore, student, parent and teacher data and the discussion of the data will be presented respectively below.

## 7.2. Student data discussion: Persian language program evaluation and suggestion

The most significant issue addressed by students was that they compared Persian language program with what was happening in Iran or in other schools. For instance, S1 FG1 St1 said: *"Lessons are less than what is taught in Iran."* S1 FG1 St4 asserted: *"I was used to study more when I was in the other school (S4). I mean, there were more diversity in our books like science, math and history."* S2 FG1 St1 stated: *"I like the books we have but they are not enough because when I was in Iran in the first grade, there were many difficult books but here, they are easier even though I am in the second grade and it is easier than grade one."*

This comparison illustrated ad hoc curriculum in different schools in Sydney. It seemed that lack of unified curriculum was possible reason for students' movement between schools in order to have access to better language learning program. The comparison also highlighted the challenging nature of a number of Persian language learning programs.

Student data showed teachers' attempt to supply materials by writing the books for students. However, it showed that the books were not written according to what students needed to learn. For example, S2 FG2 St1 asserted: *"My teacher made the books. But if they make poems for children so that children like it then it would be better."* In heritage language classes where language proficiency and language learning goals are varied, instructions require to consider learners' needs (Carreira & Kagan, 2011).

Student data suggested that focusing on reading and writing was quite boring for students. They did not enjoy the reading and writing activities. For instance, S3 FG1 St3 stated: *"It is difficult as I should write five lines. Dictation is difficult for me too. Sometimes I need to write 20 sentences."* S4 FG2 St2 said: *"We have reading book and writing book. If in reading book the lesson has two pages, in writing book we need to write several pages for that lesson. We should write a lot."* S4 FG2 St3 asserted: *"We should write a lot of pages in our writing book."* As noted in chapter 6, Persian heritage language learners' goal is to be able to communicate with their families. Therefore, speaking and listening were recognised as the language skills needed to achieve their goals. Goal-relevant materials and curricula are needed in order to improve heritage language education (Lee & Kim, 2008). In fact, students were seeking extra-curricular activities and subjects that were more enjoyable and engaging. For instance, S1 FG1 St2 stated: *"just writing Persian all the time can be boring sometimes. If other subjects like science and math can be added, it make the class more enjoyable."* S2 FG1 St2 asserted: *"... it (learning Persian language) is difficult. It bothers us. It would be a lot easier if we could do painting or make something or play that is more interesting for all of us."* However, while a number of students were interested in studying subjects such as science and math, others expressed that they hated doing math in the Persian school. For example, S4 FG2 St1 said: *"I like math."* S4 FG2 St2, however, asserted: *"I hate math. I hate math and Persian writing book. I should write them in my notebook."* Student data showed that they were interested to play games especially Iranian games. Through games they could learn



Persian language which was more fun and enjoyable for them. For example, S3 FG2 St1 said: *“we like games very much.”* S1 FG1 St1 stated: *“I’m not saying we play foreign games but Iranian games, all of us enjoy as well as learn new things. They are both fun and helpful.”* Students were interested in reading story books in Persian language, according to student data.

Student believed that speaking Persian language at home was helpful in learning Persian language. In fact, the opportunity to speak Persian language at home with parents and siblings were recognised as the chance of learning Persian language. S1 FG3 St1 said: *“Talking with your parents at home can be helpful. I always speak Persian with my mom but I sometimes speak English with my dad, because my mom wants me to speak Persian with her so that I don’t forget it.”* Political arrangements, relations of power, language ideologies and interlocutors’ perception of their identities are determinant of language choice (Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004). Providing this opportunity was recognised as parents’, and not the school, responsibility. S1 FG3 St2 asserted: *“(it helps you to learn Persian language better) If your parents ask you something and you can answer them in Persian.”*

Student data also illustrated that reading Persian books at home and watching Persian drama or documentaries were considered as the opportunity for students to learn Persian language. For example, S1 FG3 St3 said: *“We should try to Study books at home and to watch TV drama or documentary movies.”*

Student data seemed to indicate that both parents’ role and students’ attempt were essential in order for the students to learn Persian language. Shared responsibilities can result in successful heritage language learning (Hayashi, 2006). S2 FG1 St1 stated: *“Our parents should help us when we are at home. And we should work hard when we come to Persian school.”* S2 FG1 St3 asserted: *“for example my mom buys Iranian newspaper every day and keeps telling me that my Persian will improve if I read a few pages every day. She says me even though I don’t have homework, I can read short stories and it can help me.”*

Student data showed that students were more interested to be taught more about Iran, Iranian culture and Iranian literature. Relevant materials and instruction can provide success in heritage language learning (Lee & Kim, 2008). For instance, S2 FG1 St3 said: *“I myself don’t like these books (books from Iran). I’m interested in books that are about cities in Iran, about Shah and about Iranian poets. I like those books more because they are about Iran. Because the resources we have are not about Iran.”* The students’ suggestions added that the material should be supplied based on what students really liked. Student data illustrated students’ both agreement and disagreement about the books supplied from Iran. For instance, S2 FG2 St2 said: *“I believe books from Iran are pretty much better.”*

Earlier in this section, S1 FG1 St4 asserted: *“I was used to study more when I was in the other school (S4). I mean, there were more diversity in our books like science, math and history.”*

However, Students from S4 complained that books other than math and Persian reading were not taught by teachers. For instance, S4 FG2 St1 said: *“We have other books such as Quran and Science and we just do math and Persian language. Even though we have other books but we don’t use them.”* S4 FG2 St4 stated: *“My parents pay for other lessons but we don’t learn them and it is waste of money.”* Moving between schools in search of a better heritage language learning was evident from student data.

### **7.2.1 Summary discussion: student data**

The adequacy of Persian language learning programs for students to achieve their goals and needs was explored by asking students to evaluate Persian language learning programs and to provide their suggestions for better Persian language learning. Therefore, student data show that they evaluated the programs by focusing predominantly on language learning resources. They have different opinions for the selection of subjects (such as math, science, history and so on). The subjects selected by each school, without any coordination between schools, result in ad hoc curriculum and lack of a unified curriculum among schools. The ad hoc curriculum also results in students’ moving between schools in search of a better Persian language

curriculum and education. Students are looking for challenging resources replete with fun and amusement. Persian language programs mainly focus on reading and writing. These activities are boring and therefore activities which are lack of challenge hinder students' intrinsic motivation for learning Persian language. According to Ryan and Deci (2000, p. 56), an intrinsically motivated person is "a person moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards." In addition to students' lack of interest for reading and writing activities only, both reading and writing skills are not considered by students as their need to achieve their goal of learning Persian language; because, their main goal is their integrative motivation; to gain the ability to communicate with their families.

So far, the data point to the reason for students' lack of motivation, high rate of attrition and moving between different Persian schools. Students' amotivation can be the result of lack of engagement and challenging nature of Persian language programs. Students' attrition can be attributed to the fact that students' real needs and goals are not met by Persian language programs. Ad hoc curriculum and lack of a unified curriculum among four Persian schools appears to result in students' and parents' search for better Persian language learning by moving between those schools. High rate of attrition can be diminished by responding to motivated language learners with challenging courses and modified programs that consider language learners' needs (Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2009).

Students' suggestion for better Persian language learning is to include resources that have more fun such as story books, TV programs (Hinton, 2001) and Iranian games. Wu (2005) and Mucherah (2008) found that family life including language use at home, exposure to native media, interacting with other native speakers and the time spent for children of immigrant background had impact on heritage language maintenance. Speaking Persian language is also considered efficient for learning Persian language. Student participants' suggestions highlights parent involvement and its significance on heritage language learning

(Kim, 2006; Kondo-Brown, 2006a). Different subjects (such as math, science, history and so on) to be included and more challenging resources are recommended by students. Even though students do not consider the time of schooling in their evaluation, they did address it while they were answering other questions.

### **7.3. Parent data discussion: Persian language program evaluation and suggestion**

Parents were asked to evaluate the Persian language program (especially the program of the school which their children attended).

The significant problem identified by parents was the duration and the day that Persian schools operated. The schools were operating on Saturdays for about three hours. For example, S1 P1 said: *“The main problem is the school time, its duration and the day which is Saturday.”* According to parent data, the time was not enough and in addition to that, Saturday was their children’s weekend. For instance, S1 P2 said: *“I think time is not enough.”* S1 P1 stated: *“Children do not like to go to school on Saturday mornings.”* S1 P4 asserted: *“The time of the classes is very important and it is a big problem.”* Therefore, a number of parents suggested the time of the schooling to be extended. For instance, S1 P1 said: *“My suggestion is to add two hours to school time, which is not a big problem for families as they are already devoting their whole day.”* S1 P5 asserted: *“I think they should extend the time of the classes ....”* Parents expect that their voices should be heard. However, according to parent data, the aspects such as students’ (Persian) background as an asset, providing the opportunity for students to speak Persian language at home and providing further educational resources at home by parents, could compensate for the inadequacy of time at Persian school. Background factors correlate with heritage language competency, according to Carreira and Kagan (2011). S1 P1 asserted: *“I think three hours is a short time and it is not enough. However, if they have (Iranian) background or they know the letters and they speak Persian at home, it is enough. It is not enough, unless parents provide further*

*educational resources at home.*” Furthermore, a number of students had compulsory sport classes as part of their Australian school curriculum and students should quit Persian school for several school terms in order to attend their sport classes. For example, S1 P3 asserted: “... *unfortunately I think I can’t bring her to her Persian school next year as she will have to attend her sport classes on Saturdays. Because Saturday sports are very serious for some schools.*” S2 P2 stated: “*The time of the classes is good for me, but for some other families, it is not very suitable as their kids go to sports on Saturday mornings.*” The time of Persian school as an issue was recognized by students when students were asked about their motivation for attending Persian school. However, in regard to Persian language program evaluation, this aspect was not noted by students.

Parent data demonstrated that parents had different opinions about the resources used in Persian schools. Regarding Persian language resources used in Iran for Persian native speakers, while a number of parents recommended and acknowledged the effectiveness of these resources for students attending Persian community schools in Sydney, the other parents had disagreeing idea. For example, S2 P2 stated: “*I think the educational resources are good.*” S1 P1 said: “... *selection of resources is another problem. It is obvious that there are different views in regards to resources, some believe that textbooks used in Iran are suitable here, while others believe that children should use textbooks which are for here. I prefer textbooks provided in Iran because a group of professional people developed them ... each school uses their preferred resources and some of them has written and developed their own resources.*” S1 P4 asserted: “*Of course the textbooks in Iran have been written based on years of practice and experience. These books are developed to teach an official language of a country not as an extra or second language.*” Parent data highlighted the difficulty of understanding concepts developed in the Persian language resources prepared in Iran as heritage language learners raised here were not familiar with those concepts. In providing material for heritage language teaching, the learner’s personal connections to the context and

material is a key principal of language learning (Carreira, 2004). For example, S1 P4 stated: *"I think we should use these resources (prepared in Iran) but not concentrate on issues which are difficult for children to understand."* Parent data showed that Persian language resources should aim at teaching Persian culture instead of insisting on teaching reading and writing only. Learning grammar and vocabulary was also recommended by parents. In fact, a language curriculum based on Australian educational culture were advised by parents. For example, S1 P2 stated: *"Educational resources are not enough in terms of culture and so on; it's not just for learning reading and writing per se. we are here to introduce Iran and our country to them."* S1 P2 said: *"... they should learn grammar and words too."* S1 P5 stated: *"I have noticed that the students need to improve their grammar at this school."* S1 P4 asserted: *"... our children are familiar with education system here in Australia ... they are not willing to do homework and other stuff like too much writing similar to Iranian schooling system."* Parent data suggested that Persian language resources were not suitable for children. They were not interesting enough and lack of fun and amusement was the factor impacting students' language learning progress. Therefore, parents' concern encouraged them to search for other resources. For example, S1 P3 stated: *"the resources should be more interesting to the child ... I think the textbooks and the lessons are not very relevant for them ... I know some books that are very appealing, as they contain some interesting short stories each of which increases students' knowledge and attracts them. I used to read those stories for them every night ... Now because she knows that there are other books that are more interesting, she has become disappointed ... It (learning Persian) is not really fun here."* S1 P4 asserted: *"story books should also be considered as a major support for students learning ... Reading story books to kids is both fascinating and fun, and very helpful in learning the language."* S4 P1 said: *"He reads those books which are interesting for him."*

The ad hoc curriculum used in the same Persian school as well as other Persian schools, according to parent data. S1 P1 said: *"In regards to resources, I believe teachers should agree*

*upon certain resources and stick to them. If it is not possible across other Persian schools, at least, this school should do that. Because as soon as the school principal and school administration changes, everything changes. They sometimes stick to textbooks from Iran, another time they use the materials they have developed themselves. Sometimes they follow other schools curriculum. They should at least agree on one thing and they should not confuse children.”* The ad hoc curriculum resulted in comparison and therefore competition between schools instead of coordination between them. Parents tried to move their children between schools in order for their better Persian language education. For example, S1 P5 asserted: *“I have noticed that the students need to improve their grammar at this school. Students were provided with better education at S4 and the students knew grammar very well, though they had less teachers compared to this school. I think their teaching was better than here.”*

Therefore, Lack of suitability of the resources might force parents to teach their children at home using the resources that they preferred. The irrelevant resources (Lee & Kim, 2008) resulted in parents’ decision not to send their children to the school. For example, S1 P3 asserted: *“I know some other resources which are more appealing and can substitute the current ones. Perhaps if the resources are not changed, I start to teach her at home using the specific resources I have. Although I like her to attend this school, especially as she has some friends here, I will have to do this if the present resources won’t change.”* Parents expect their voices to be heard by the school authorities. A beneficial collaboration between community language schools and the community, especially parents, is recommended by FECCA (2011). Teachers’ attempts to develop a curriculum based on students’ needs were approved by parent data. However, this ad hoc curriculum resulted in students’ movement between schools, according to parent data. Teacher supply and teacher training ensures qualified teachers and continued quality teaching (Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2009). For example, S1 P4 said: *“At my daughter’s previous school they had written a textbook, because they believed these children have not been in Iran and they should study subjects which they are more familiar with and*

*are more related to the environment in which they are living. This is based on the opinion that the textbooks in Iran include some issues and concepts such as war and revolution which are not perceptible for the students here.” S1 P5 asserted: “They provided better education at the previous school in which my son attended before.”*

Financial problems leading to less teacher employment and lack of trained teachers were also addressed by parents. Lack of funding and support for teaching languages and training language teachers results in non-achievable bilingualism in language learners (Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2009). For instance, S1 P1 said: “... *there are also financial problems. Teachers do their best and they do it voluntarily, but I believe they should be trained more. This school should try to employ professional teachers.*” The importance of qualified teacher and teacher training was emphasized by S1 P3: “*The year one teacher who taught my daughter last year and is teaching my younger daughter now is a very good and qualified teacher. I am very satisfied with her. She is very good and I see how they are quickly and efficiently learning the language. She is up-to-date and she uses the new teaching methods ... my daughter’s other teacher was very strict and she did not let them to use English or write in English ... I think it had bad effects on her.* S1 P4 said: “*Definitely it is true that teachers should have some training on the educational system in Australia to implement it in their Persian classroom as our children are familiar with education system here in Australia. Teachers should become up to date according to new system.*” Immigrant teachers with teaching qualifications from overseas and the teachers who were born overseas need to have access to teacher education program. However, these programs need to be sensitive to teachers’ preferred teaching styles by negotiating teaching and learning strategies (Cruickshank, 2004d). S1 P5 asserted: “*It is very important that the teachers have proper training and teaching experience to be able to use the existing resources and apply them in their classroom. We need experienced teachers to know how to use the resources ... They should update their teachers. The teachers should work harder and have teaching plans ... Some teachers just let the kids have fun and enjoy*



*their times in the classroom without proper learning. Unfortunately, they allow people to teach here before making sure they have teaching experiences. First we need to train teachers.”*

Parent data demonstrated that Persian language programs should follow the curriculum of the host country as students were familiar with the education system in the host country (which is Australia in the case of this research). For instance, S1 P3 said: “... *Because they are familiar with the education system here in which learning is not compulsory (unlike in Iran). They have fun here (in Australian school) but it cannot be seen in Persian school here. Learning is interesting in their Australian school here.*” S4 P1 said: “*I didn’t take a detailed look at this school but in comparison to their English schools here, children would like to do their homework with fun and play and activities rather than by just sitting and writing and memorizing. I think the way they learn English here through fun and activities is more practical in their learning. In fact they’re not aware of learning, it happens unconsciously, so if the same method is used here, I think children will show more interests in learning.*”

Parent role were also identified as an important element affecting students’ Persian language learning. For instance, S1 P2 said: “*The other problem is lack of parent involvement. Parents do not oblige themselves and therefore they should not expect their children learn Persian language. We should always remind them. They really don’t engage in the school activities and they just attend some festivals.*” Providing further educational resources was identified as Parents’ role. For example, S1 P4 stated: “*Parents may tell stories for kids and read story books for them; everything is depending on the lifestyle parents follow at home. If we routinely read stories for them and play with them in their plays, they will learn their lessons and they will enjoy it. Reading story books to kids is both fascinating and fun, and very helpful in learning the language. Games which go along with our culture are also very effective.*” The significance of family and community support for heritage language development and survival is emphasized by Kaplan and Baldauf (1997).

However, parent data showed that while parents were interested to be involved at school activities, they were not heard and they were neglected by school authorities and it was resulted in lack of parents' involvement. Teacher-parent coordination was recommended by parents. For example, S1 P5 said: *"They should allow more parents involvement. Parents should be able to make suggestions and assist in any way they can. They should be heard ... On the other hand, teachers should work in coordination with parents."*

Parent data demonstrated that learning Persian language should not be limited to learning the language. Teaching Persian culture should be part of learning the language. For instance, S1 P2 asserted: *"... I believe they (language resources) are not enough in terms of culture and so on; it's not just for learning reading and writing per se. we are here to introduce Iran and our country to them."* However, it is suggested by Fillmore (2000) that family is responsible for providing the learner with the sense of belonging to language and culture.

Parent data suggested that students should undertake the need for Persian language learning and their motivation should be boosted. Students' both need and motivation for learning Persian language should be encouraged and supported by their parents. In fact, parents' role were highlighted in this regard. Parents' data showed that both need and motivation could be enhanced by introducing Persian culture and language through reading poems and story books and then children would become interested in and would experience the need to learn Persian language and culture. For instance, S2 P1 asserted: *"I think it's my job at first to show her that language is like treasure and a lot of good things are there. I need to show her the beauties of language. Then it will make her become interested. If I just say this is just a language (and we have experienced that), she will say why she should learn it, she can use English to know about science and history etc. I need to make a connection between what she reads and our culture and history. Then she will enjoy learning them."* The learners' needs and interests should be considered (Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2009).

### **7.3.1. Summary discussion: parent data**

Parent data demonstrate parents' different points of view regarding the time of schooling and Persian language learning resources. In terms of Persian language learning resources, the ad hoc curriculum and lack of unified curriculum between Persian community schools results in parents' confusion. In search of better language learning, students move between schools in order to find a better Persian language learning program. While a number of parents agree to follow the curriculum and use the books from Iran, others think differently. This diversity of parents' opinion were found in the study of Iranian community in New York (Shirazi & Borjian, 2012). They suggested a student-centred curriculum which contains appropriate teaching material for Persian heritage language learners. Therefore, while acknowledging the importance of Persian language resources, parents suggest that they are seeking to introduce a modified curriculum for Persian heritage language learning. Parents' rational for a modified curriculum relies on the fact that because Persian heritage language learners are studying Persian language in a context different from Iran and they are surrounded by Australian educational context, they need a modified curriculum which matches their current educational situation. Curricular modification to accommodate the needs and interests of heritage language learners is emphasized (Xiao, 2006). Modifications involve combinations of altered content knowledge, conceptual difficulty, educational goals, and instructional method. For instance, teaching grammar and vocabulary is emphasized by parents. Modified language programs which target language learners' need reduce attrition rate (Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2009).

Similar to students' opinion, parent data show Persian language resources are not interesting and short stories are recommended by parents to be included in language teaching. Focusing on reading and writing as the only method of teaching Persian language is also criticized by parents. Therefore parental role is highlighted and parents are responsible to provide the opportunity for their children to speak Persian language at home, to read short stories for them

and to involve in school activities. However, lack of parental involvement is because their voices are not heard by school authorities. In multilingual contexts oral practices are more valued than literacy practices due to lack of parental literacy support (Cruickshank, 2004a). The need for teacher training and employing qualified teachers is also emphasized by parents. Parents should be informed by school authorities that Australian government provides the facility for teachers of languages to be trained and qualified (Cruickshank, 2004d).

#### **7.4. Teacher data discussion: Persian language program evaluation and suggestion**

Teacher data showed that teachers from the same school addressed the problems they encountered differently and from their point of view. In teacher data, the first and the most important problem noted was parents' lack of collaboration, involvement and support and parent role. For example, S1 T1 said: *"... the most important issue is parent's cooperation with school and teachers. Children will have a better progress if parents cooperate more."* S1 T2 stated: *"I think the families have the most important role, because children can gain a lot of improvement with their encouragement, help and support."* S2 T1 asserted: *"Parent do not have enough time to help their children if they work. If parents help them, that would be excellent. If they practice at home they will quickly improve. I think parents' role is very important."*

Teacher data highlighted Parents' cooperation and support in regard to their children's Persian language learning and especially in relation to students' motivation for attending Persian school. For instance, S1 T1 said: *"... my only humble request is that parents increase their cooperation at home to support students' development ..."* S3 T1 asserted: *"Much support and encouragement must be provided by parents. Number of students should increase and parents should involve and support the schools."*

In terms of the time of schooling, different teachers had different opinions. While a number of teachers expressed that the duration of Persian school was enough, others asserted that the

time of schooling should be increased. For instance, S1 T1 said: *“they (students) cannot afford to study more hours as they get exhausted and it will have an adverse effect on their learning.”* S1 T2 asserted: *“It will be better if the time of the classes can be increased.”* S2 T1 stated: *“The only problem is our limited time. One day a week is not enough at all.”* S4 T1 stated: *“... We extremely have limited time ....”*

Regarding the Persian language resources, different opinions were obtained from teachers. A number of teachers stated their satisfaction with the resources. However, others believed that extra-curricular activities needed to improve students' Persian language learning. For example, S1 T1 stated: *“we almost have no more problem in terms of resources. We have provided all the textbooks that our students need.”* S2 T1 said: *“There are a lot of resources here.”* S1 T2 said: *“I think we should not limit ourselves to some certain books or resources; we should use a variety of them ....”* S2 T2 stated: *“we don't have enough resources available (contrary to S2 T1).”* It showed that teachers from the same school had different opinions about Persian language resources. Therefore, they implemented their teaching preferences and teachers' attempt to find out about new teaching methodology, further educational services and extra-curricular activities were identified through teacher data. By integrating personal voices into teaching programs, teachers nurture their self-esteem and they show their advocacy for heritage language learning and the learner (Potowski & Carreira, 2004). However, it can be an indication of lack of common training in appropriate methodology and lack of professional development as a community of practice amongst the teachers (Wenger, 1998). Moreover, according to Cruickshank (2004d), teacher preparation and education programs need to be sensitive to teachers' preferred teaching styles by negotiating teaching and learning strategies. For instance, S1 T1 said: *“I have also made some changes in my teaching plans to create more motivation and happiness in children, for example, I encourage them to do some extra- curricular activities and projects besides their studies, which are very interesting for them.”* S2 T2 said: *“I'm currently studying a book on encouragement and*

*teaching to children. I always do my best to learn new methods and to be up to date as everything is changing so quickly. I'm interested in new methods which are different to the old ones ... I find and copy new materials which are informative and amusing ... I try to include painting and other fun activities like making birthday cards and Persian games such as seven-stone or chair plays."* S1 T2 stated: *"I teach them the Persian grammar using an English grammar book, as they can understand it better."*

Teacher data suggested the actuality of ad hoc curriculum among different schools. For example, S3 T1 said: *"All books which are being used in this school, from kindergarten until year twelve, have been written by this school principal ...."* S4 T1 stated *"... The books we use here are the same as those are used in Iran for children who are studying there ...."* S4 T1 criticized the school course books: *"For those who live in Iran and study there they can understand the lessons of the books easily because all the events, words and expressions used in the books are those which are used in daily activities, in newspapers, in magazines, in families and in the society. They hear about them and talk about them and therefore they are familiar with them. But for kids here who are far from these things, even the easiest words may seem meaningless."* Furthermore, teacher data seemed to indicate parent data (S1 P1) by showing that with any changes in school principal and school administrators, the school curriculum changed and it resulted in students' and parents' confusion. For example, S1 T1 asserted: *"The new principal has provided some further educational services and new teaching systems."* Less commonly taught languages such as Persian are not benefiting from a unified curriculum that addresses their learners' needs (FECCA, 2011).

Teacher data showed that students had difficulty in understanding the meaning and concept of the words as they were unfamiliar for them due to living in a different context (Australian context). S4 T1 stated: *"... because words and concepts are difficult for them. They don't have these words and structures in their mind so it's difficult for them to realize. I mean these books are beyond our standards. But they also have the advantage of providing an*

*opportunity for children to be familiar with these words ....*” Level of literacy and cognitive competence need to be considered for the courses designed for heritage language learners (Oguro & Moloney, 2012).

Teacher data demonstrated that even though teachers were aware of the inappropriateness of the curriculum and the course books and they preferred other resources to be substituted, they still followed the improper curriculum and resources. For instance, S4 T1 asserted: “... *totally I can say that books are not suitable for kids here ....*” S4 T2 stated: “*I think textbooks should be easier for those students who are learning Persian outside Iran. Because they don't have any familiarity with Persian language and they just come here one day a week. Some of them never talk Persian at home and everything in their environment is just in English ....*”

Teachers expressed their opinion about the curriculum and the course books but they still used the books as resources for learning Persian language.

Lack of facilities such as library and facilities for watching movies was also reported by teachers. For instance, S2 T1 stated: “*Unfortunately we don't have enough facilities in Persian school such as a permanent library ....*” S2 T2 asserted: “*Unfortunately we don't have enough time and facilities ....*” S3 T1 said: “*Our facilities are limited, we only have classrooms, and we don't have much facilities and equipment.*” Extending and diversifying language and literacy practices based on global developments in technology result in active language learners negotiating and mediating language and culture (Cruickshank, 2004a).

In addition to having students with different levels of Persian language competency in the same class, limited time of schooling, lack of facilities and lack of having fun resulted in negative evaluation of Persian language programs from teachers. For instance, S2 T2 stated: “*... it's not possible with only 2.5 hours a week with four different levels. Once I brought a laptop and we watched some 10 minutes movies but time is very limited. Unfortunately we can't have fun.*”

Teacher data suggested that in order for students to improve their Persian language competency, teacher asked students to read story books and to present their understanding of the story to their classmate. This would help students improve their Persian language comprehension and their speaking skills. For instance, S1 T1 said: *“I also encourage them to read Persian stories and present it in the classroom, which helps improve their verbal language and their understanding of the story.”* S2 T1 asserted: *“We encourage students to borrow and study books and then summarize it in the classroom.”*

Teacher data, very similar to parent data (S1 P5), suggested that the authorities in the four schools were competing and not coordinating, with each other. For example, S3 T1 asserted: *“we only have classrooms, and we don't have much facilities and equipment. This is the same for other schools even though they claim they have special facilities like internet because I've been in some of schools.”* Teacher data pointed to the lack of coordination between schools. Similar to parent data, teacher data point to teachers' attempt in applying different resources and extra-curricular activities. For instance, S1 T2 stated: *“I use a variety of resources in my own classroom; books published in Iran, books published in Australia, information from the web, and many other resources. I sometimes collect information about a topic from the web, or assign the student to do so. The other method I use is providing the English meaning of every Persian word I teach them. This way they immediately learn the Persian word.”*

The need for a modified curriculum consistent with the curriculum of the host country (which is Australia in the case of this research) is suggested through teacher data. A curriculum which include fun and amusement resources was recommended by teachers. For example, S2 T1 said: *“Because we're living in this country, children adapt themselves to the local culture. Australian education system is different from what we have in Iran. Education methods should include fun and play and we should do something to make and keep children interested in learning of Persian.”*



#### **7.4.1 Summary discussion: teacher data**

Similar to parent data, teacher data demonstrate that teachers have different opinions about the time of Persian schools and Persian language learning resources. The diversity of teachers' opinion is observed across schools as well as within the same school. Therefore, while teachers also remind the ad hoc curriculum applied in Persian schools, this diversity of teachers' opinions provides problems for teachers' decision-making to develop a unified curriculum between Persian schools.

Teacher data show that teachers are aware of the inadequacy of the Persian language resources and inappropriate curriculum. Therefore, while a number of teachers disregard the inappropriateness of their teaching methodology and resources, other teachers attempt to provide the resources developed by them. However, the resources developed by teachers are inconsistent with students' needs and goals. Furthermore, a modified curriculum and resources corresponding the Australian educational context is recommended by teachers as well. Developing a modified curriculum can be problematic as teachers educated and trained in Iran may find it difficult to disregard the educational values they used to as their professional responsibilities. For example, focusing on reading and writing and literacy as an educational value in Iranian context, may not be appropriate for Persian heritage language learners educated through Australian educational context. The study of teacher preparation by Cruickshank (2004d) indicates that applying the teaching style preferred by teachers reinforces cultural inclusiveness which occurs through negotiation of teaching and learning strategies.

Parent role has significant role on students' Persian language learning, according to teacher data. Parents can enhance students' motivation for learning Persian language as well as students' need for learning the language. In other words, successful Persian language learning hinges on parent role and it has impact on students' Persian language learning.

## **7.5. Discussion of lessons observed: students' language learning**

### **environment and program evaluation**

The Persian language classes were mainly teacher-centered. In terms of language learning environment, visible differences were observed among the four schools. S1 was equipped with facilities such as TV, CDs, DVDs and Persian story books to be borrowed from the school library. Furthermore, each classroom had a map of Iran and writings (including class rules and regulations) in Persian language on the wall. S4 had Persian writings and Arabic alphabet on the boards and the walls. In S4 CL2, Persian grammar was written on the wall. Class rules were written in both English and Persian language. However, an incorrect Persian translation of the English word “responsible” was noted. This building of the school in which Persian classes took place, was used by Arabic and Dari language learners during the week in their mainstream schools (these two languages has similarities with Persian language in terms of alphabets). S2 and S3 were completely surrounded with English writing on the boards and walls. However, a small section of S2 was allocated to display Persian story books. Students were able to borrow the books from the library.

The spatial arrangement of the classes was also different. In some classes students were sitting in groups, but in other classes they were sitting individually and they were doing their tasks by themselves.

The main language learning activities observed in the classrooms were reading, writing and dictation activities. The speaking and listening activities were relatively short compared to reading and writing activities. For example, in S1 CL2 students talked about “Mother’s day” as a cultural event in Australia and Iran. It was the only speaking and listening activity they had during the class observation time. In S1 CL3, students started the class by talking about what happened during the week. However, the teacher constantly reminded students to speak in Persian language. Students talked about Iranian food and teacher explained a kind of Iranian food of which students were not aware. The conversation (speaking and listening

activity) was rather short and the class activities continued by reading and writing activities. In S1 CL3, a student was asked to read a passage aloud and then the teacher asked other students to talk about the passage. This short speaking activity required students to understand the passage in order to talk about it. This short speaking activity followed by highlighting some words from the passage to be learnt for dictation. Moreover, the passages were chosen randomly without paying attention to their content.

In S4 CL1, it was observed that students started to write and copy from their Persian books. This language learning activity was exactly noted by students as a boring language learning activity.

In terms of the resources, the teachers of the classes observed in S1 used a variety of resources including books from Iran, resources developed by the teachers and other resources available. The teacher in S2 CL2 used the books that he himself wrote for Persian heritage language learners. In S3 CL1, the teacher used the books that were written by the school principal for Persian heritage language learners and the books were written both in English and Persian language. Teachers in S4 only used the books from Iran.

## **7.6. Triangulation of data: the research participants' Persian language program evaluation and suggestion**

The research participants including students, parents and teachers were asked to evaluate Persian language learning programs and to provide their suggestions in order to improve Persian language learning among Persian heritage language learners. A number of Persian classes were observed by the researcher as a non-participant observer in order to know more about what is happening in the Persian classes.

The research participants' evaluation of Persian language programs comprises a number of main common issues. However, the participants' opinion in regard to those issues are different. Parent role, lack of coordination between four Persian schools is identified by parent and teacher participant. The time of schooling, evaluation of Persian language learning

resources, teacher qualification and existing ad hoc curriculum are addressed by the research participants.

The existing ad hoc curriculum, unsuitability of the resources which are boring and lack of engagement, applying Persian language resources which are not base on students' interests and needs, teachers' lack of qualification, the limitation of time and lack of parental involvement are issues stated by the research participant. The existing problems can be resolved by providing a unified curriculum and supplying relevant Persian language resources in accordance with students' needs and goals (FECCA, 2011). By proposing such a developed Persian language learning program, we can be expecting better heritage language learning among Persian heritage language learners.

Persian language learning activities are mostly emphasizing reading and writing, according to observation data. The ad hoc curriculum of different schools has been observed. The diversity of language resources used in different classes is indicated through class observation. A study of Iranian community in New York by Shirazi and Borjian (2012) points to the ad hoc community based Persian teaching programs. The study by Shirazi and Borjian (2012) also suggests teaching resources that are more interesting and engaging for Persian students and parents such as role plays and comical materials based on TV and radio programs provided from Iran.

The significance of parent role was identified through the researcher's pilot study findings (Mokhatebi Ardakani & Moloney, 2010). A study by Shirazi and Borjian (2012, p. 166) also highlighted Persian parent role as "active Facilitators and organizers in creating bilingual spaces of learning, play and interaction for their children. Moreover, parent role and its impact on Persian heritage language learners' language learning has been highly emphasized in this research so far. Therefore, Chapter 8 will demonstrate the result of the research participants' data about parent role and its significance in detail.



## **Chapter 8: Findings 5: The significance of parent role in Persian heritage language learning**

*“Language is the road map of a culture. It tells you where its people come from and where they are going.”*

*Rita Mae Brown*

## 8.1. Overview

Similar to chapters 4 to 7, this chapter presents the findings from the analysis of empirical data including students' focus group interviews, parents' and teachers' individual interviews. The analysis of the related data was used to explore parent role and its significance for language learning of Persian heritage language learners.

The significance of parent role and their support for learning heritage language is emphasized in the current research. The findings show that parents can provide different opportunities through which successful heritage language learning takes place. Parent support and their role are emphasized through different studies (Hayashi, 2006; Kagan, 2005; Kim, 2006; Kondo-Brown, 2006a; Luning & Yamauchi, 2010; Man, 2006; Mokhatebi Ardakani & Moloney, 2010). In order to investigate parent role closely in this research, participants were asked to comment on parent role and its impact on Persian heritage language learning. Student, parent and teacher data discussion will be presented respectively followed by triangulation of the research participant data.

## 8.2 Student data discussion: Parent role

The importance of parent role and their involvement in students' language learning was highlighted in student data. While a number of students believed that Persian language learning process was constantly in need of parent role and involvement, other students highlighted parents' role merely for the early stages of language learning. For instance, S1 FG3 St2 said: *"Their role is significant. Actually there isn't any role for me just for them."* S2 FG2 St2 asserted: *"At the beginning, if my parents hadn't force me to come, I could never learn Persian. I wasn't able to speak Persian if they hadn't spoken with me"* S4 FG2 St1 stated: *"If my parents did not care about me they would leave me alone and I could not learn Persian language."*

Student data highlighted mother's role in learning Persian language. For instance, S2 FG2 St1 said: *"My mom likes it very much."* S4 FG2 St1 asserted: *"... my mom helps me with Persian,*

*she reads books for me but I love to read English books.*” S4 FG2 St3 said: *“My mom reads Persian books for me.”* S1 FG1 St4 said: *“... I ask my mom to help me if I want to practice dictation.”* S2 FG1 St1 asserted: *“Now that my mother comes here I like it very much too.”* A study of Chinese American families found that mother’s attitudes toward heritage language maintenance positively influences heritage language proficiency and use of adolescents (Luo & Wiseman, 2000; Tse, 2000).

Student data showed that students’ need for help determined parent role and therefore parent role was conditional on students’ need. For Instance, S2 FG2 St4 said: *“... if we have any question we ask our mother.”* S1 FG1 St2 stated: *“Sometimes I like to ask my parents for help for my essays and difficult homework.”* S1 FG1 St3 asserted: *“if I have an assignment like an essay, I ask my mom for help ....”* S1 FG1 St4 said: *“I ask mom for help for writing sometimes because I don’t know what is written in the writing book.”* S3 FG2 St4 asserted: *“If I don’t know something I go and I ask them to tell me.”*

Moreover, parents’ role was either to impose Persian language learning on their children or to negotiate it with their children. A study of Korean language learners in America showed that Korean language university students were forced to learn the language because it was their parent’s language. However, the learners who were forced to learn the language were unsuccessful language learners (Lee, 2002). The above quote from S2 FG2 St2 showed parents’ force, however; S1 FG3 St3 stated: *“They don’t push me. But they say if you go there it is good for you and if you don’t want we don’t force you”*. It showed that parents negotiated the significance of learning Persian language with their children.



### **8.2.1 Summary discussion: Student data**

The significant role of parents in learning Persian language is suggested by student data. Parents impose or negotiate the importance of learning Persian language with their children. From students' perspective, mothers' role is more identified than fathers' role by their involvement in their children's Persian language learning. However, parent role is conditional and is determined by their children's request for help. In student perception, parents are helper if help is required, although students acknowledge the emotional relationship involved.

### **8.3. Parent data discussion: Parent role**

As mentioned in Methodology Chapter, nine parents including one male and eight females were interviewed individually. The nine parent participants had Iranian background. Parents were also asked to comment on their role and its significance on their children's Persian language learning.

Parent data showed the significance of parents' role as taking initiatives, especially in the early stages of Persian language learning. For instance, S1 P1 said: *"I certainly help them especially my son who is younger and has just started ... but my daughter is more independent."* S1 P2 stated: *"I mean we (parents) should start and help them."* Parents' data also highlighted their role in motivating and encouraging their children to learn Persian language. For example, S1 P3 stated: *"We have a significant role ... Parents' effort and encouragement is very important as it is very difficult for kids and they are not motivated enough to learn the language."* S1 P4 stated: *"when they are very young they need parents' involvement ... Maybe when they become older they become motivated to do it by themselves but at this age, as far as I know without parents' involvement it seems impossible."* S2 P2 said: *"I think parents play the most significant role (90%) when their children are very young ... Parents should plan to take children to Persian school, till they gradually get motivated."*

Parent data illustrated that mothers' role is more significant than fathers' role. For instance, S1 P2 said: *"I believe that culture is transmitted from mother. Fathers have roles but it is mothers' role to convey the culture."*

Parents' data demonstrated that their role was dependent on their children's request for help. In other words, their role is conditional. If children asked their parents to help them, they would help them. Otherwise, parents were not involved in their children's Persian language learning. For instance, S1 P1 asserted: *"... my daughter doesn't always need help, she will ask me or her mum if she doesn't understand something ...."* S1 P2 stated: *"... if she doesn't know a grammar she comes and asks me ...."* S1 P3 said: *"I help her if it is hard for her or whenever she needs help."* S1 P5 stated: *"... I just help him when he really needs help ...."* S2 P1 stated: *"... I'll help him if she asks me ...."*

Parent data showed that their children needed a continuous support from their parents. This ongoing support caused their children to learn Persian language more efficiently. For instance, S1 P4 said: *"I can say we always need to be beside her and support her ... It's very helpful if parents promote Persian culture at home environment and practice it at home."* S1 P2 stated: *"... my nephews came to this school many years ago but they gave up because their parents were very busy."* S1 P2 asserted: *"I need to oblige myself to spend more time, with her. I'm busy with housework now, and she's going to get a lot better if I help her."*

### **8.3.1 Summary discussion: parent data**

Parent data, very similar to student data, identifies parent role and its impact on students' Persian language learning especially in the early stages of language learning. However, parent role and support is only contingent on their children's need for help in learning Persian language and it is not a constant support. Therefore, while mothers' role is more emphasized than fathers' role (Wu, 2005), parents' consistent, and not conditional, support at home and at school is more encouraged. The study by Shirazi and Borjian (2012, p. 161) suggested the lack of consistency of parent and community efforts. Spending more time at home to support

and supervise children's language learning and promote Persian culture, providing the opportunity for their children to attend Persian school and their physical attendance at school are key issues towards Persian heritage language learners' success.

#### **8.4 Teacher data discussion: parent role**

The issue of parent role was also highlighted throughout teachers' data, even though their perspectives about parent role were found through other interview questions. Teacher data highlighted parents' fundamental role in supporting their children, providing the opportunity for their children to attend Persian school and motivating their children from the early stages of Persian language learning. For example, S2 T2 stated: *"In my opinion, even though a child is eager to learn, he/she is still a child. Children can't come and sign up here alone. It is parents who should support them and bring them to school."* S4 T1 asserted: *"I hardly ever see any parents who really care if their children drop out or fail. Sometimes instead of pushing their child to attend the school they easily accept their child's excuses and they give up and they don't bring their child to school. Or if they bring their child to the school, they hardly encourage them or provide support for their children or for teachers. They hardly supervise their children for doing their homework."* Parent role was recognized as more important than teacher role, as Persian heritage language learners spent most of their time at home with their parents during the week and they attended Persian school for only three hours a week. For instance, S4 T1 said: *"... parents' role is more significant than my role as a teacher. Unfortunately not all parents struggle to help children learn Persian and they don't spend enough time to help them with their Persian homework. Children come here only on Saturdays and for three hours."*

#### **8.4.1 Summary discussion: teacher data**

The impact of parents' role on their children's Persian language learning is heightened through discussion of the issues underlined in their answers to the interview question. Continuing support for their children such as providing the opportunity for their children to attend the Persian school, motivating and encouraging their children for learning Persian language and spending enough time to supervise their children while they are learning the language are the issues highlighted by teachers. Moreover, parents should support students as well as teachers. Teacher data also suggests the low levels of understanding of language acquisition in Australian community, including diaspora groups (Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2009).

#### **8.5. Triangulation of data: Parent role**

Similar to other studies, noted above, which explored parent role in heritage language learning, the research participants including students, parents and teachers identify the impact of parent role on Persian heritage language learning. Parents especially mothers are pioneers in the early stages of heritage language learning. While mothers' role is more significant than fathers' role, parent role is substantial by providing a consistent support for their children from the early stages of their Persian language learning process. Parents' ongoing support includes providing the opportunity for their children to attend the Persian school, to support their teachers, to spend enough time to assist and supervise their children with their Persian language learning at home during the week, and to continuously encourage and motivate their children to learn Persian language. The continuous and persistent support from parents is highlighted as a key issue in success among Persian heritage language learners.



## **Chapter 9: Discussion and conclusion**

## **9.1 Overview**

This final chapter of the research project presents a brief overview of the research purpose, the research literature and the methodology. Then, a summary discussion of the results of the study and conclusions derived from this research project will be provided. The study implications, strength and limitations and the suggestions as to possible further areas of research will conclude this chapter.

## **9.2. Overview of the research purpose, the research literature and methodology**

This research aimed at understanding what influences language learning of Persian heritage language learners attending four Persian community language school in Sydney. Using a qualitative case study, the research sought to answer the three Research Questions:

Research Question 1: What language resources do Persian heritage language learners have access to?

Research Question 2: How is learners' ethnic identity developed and achieved?

Research Question 3: What principal motivators have primary roles for language learning among these learners?

The issues highlighted in the Research Questions including “access to language resources”, “ethnic identity” and “motivation” are well-studied in the field of second language acquisition. These issues are mainly situated in the sociocultural theories of language learning.

Sociocultural theories focus on social nature of learning and from this perspective learning is a social process in which participants engage and have access to language learning activities in diverse environments. In the existing research on heritage language learning, there is limited research which explicitly implements a sociocultural theory and social constructivist approach (He, 2010).

As noted in Chapter 2, the impact of both identity and motivation on second language learning is well-established. Through extensive studies of second language learning, it is suggested that both identity and motivation are socially mediated and therefore both constructs require to be investigated in a social context. However, corresponding research in the field of heritage language remains understudied (Lynch, 2003). Hence, the purpose of this research was to explore both ethnic identity and motivation as the decisive aspects for heritage language learning and maintenance. Potowski (2012, p. 194) suggested that the advancement of the field of identity studies requires qualitative scholarship. Moreover, in order to study the role of ethnic identity in positive intergroup attitudes, Phinney et al. (2007, p. 483) used qualitative method because “qualitative methods provide an advantage in addressing research questions that have not been widely studied.” Furthermore, qualitative analyses provide a rich body of information that adds to the understanding of the phenomena being investigated (Phinney et al., 2007). In order to fully understand attitudes and motivation of heritage language learners, incorporation of more qualitative and mixed method approaches as well as socioculturally informed perspectives for investigation of attitudes and motivation is required (Ducar, 2012). The current study used qualitative approach in order to investigate Persian heritage language learning by focusing on the influence of social context on language availability, ethnic identity and motivation of primary school Persian heritage language learners attending four Persian community schools in Sydney.

### **9.3. Heritage language learning from a sociocultural perspective and pedagogical implications**

Learning is about mediated participation (Vygotsky, 1987) and mediation is the central construct of sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). As noted above in Chapter 2, the sociocultural theory approaches language as emerging from social and cultural activities. Therefore, the process of language learning is not acquiring language system and structures only. Instead, language learning relies on learners’ participation in social activities. Hence,



interaction and input as the primary constructs of sociocultural theory, inform the study of second language acquisition. The degree of access to input and interaction has impact on second language learning process. Very similar to second language learners, heritage language learners' access to language resources have influence on their language learning process. However, these language learners do not experience the same degree of access to the heritage language resources within the home environment and at community language schools as their native-like counterparts do in the country of origin.

So far, heritage language research has hardly addressed the complex social and cultural influences on heritage language learning process. Limited studies found that heritage language learner's participation in social practice and continuous adaptation to language activities has impact on heritage language development. Heritage language learners contribute to use the heritage language if their interlocutors who socialize them, use the heritage language (He, 2010). This interaction, as the element of sociocultural theory, through language practices occurring at home and at community language school has a significant impact on heritage language acquisition and cultural development and increases heritage language ability both formally and functionally (He, 2008, p. 204). In addition to interaction, language input, as another construct of sociocultural theory, equips the learner linguistically and culturally to imitate both the verbal behaviour and cultural values (Park, 2008).

Communicative fluency and grammatical accuracy of heritage language learners improved through interaction with others, according to Kaufman (2005). Heritage language learners interact linguistically with different interlocutors such as parents, teachers, siblings, peers and community members and the interaction affects heritage language learning. A study by Man (2006) found that parents, peers and media play a significant role in heritage language program success. Therefore, in order to evaluate the process of language learning, the language learner is not the only focus of the analysis, and a researcher needs to evaluate a complicated and multidirectional interactional processes and social environment which

change over time and space for the learner. This is because, not only learner's language competencies and allegiances develop but also language choice and ideology of the interlocutors changes over time and space. In other words, sociocultural approach highlight co-constructed and collaborative nature of heritage language learning temporally and spatially.

This research project seems to indicate the simultaneous coexistence of both English and Persian language. Persian language is a context-specific tool or secret language for Persian learners to achieve their purpose (Carreira & Kagan, 2011). "Topic" also can have influence on the language chosen by the heritage language learner and selection of the topic can influence the heritage language process (Fishman, 2000). The research also shows dynamic bilingualism on the part of Iranian Australians in Sydney. Different reasons apply to this condition of bilingualism.

Firstly, this bilingualism is related to learners' and interlocutors' tendencies, ideologies and language practices. Inconsistent and diverse ideologies among those involved in heritage language learning affects heritage language maintenance. Different language ideologies by multiple participants result in multiple, conflicting and contested expert guidance in heritage language learning (He, 2010). Moreover, heritage language development changes over time with the change of heritage language learners' and their interlocutors' tendency, language proficiency and the opportunities obtained through social networks. An example of the opportunity is the frequency of visiting country of origin, which a study by Shirazi and Borjian (2012) found that had a significant influence on Persian heritage language learners' access to language and motivation to learn the language in New York.

Secondly, growing up in an English-speaking country and being educated through the medium of English usually means that English becomes the dominant language in social interactions with peers and siblings and it commonly becomes the language in which students think and learn (Oguro & Moloney, 2012). This research also found that Persian heritage

language learners shift to English language because of strong hegemonic force of English language in the learners' education and daily life. Moreover, learners' Persian language low proficiency is because of lack of relevant Persian language input and distance from the country of origin. Heritage language learners who used primarily Persian language at home outperformed comparing to those learners who did not. This finding is consistent with the study of Chinese heritage language learners conducted by Jia and Bayley (2008). This study found that the presence of one Persian-speaking parent or grandparent has substantial influence on self-accessed use and choice of Persian language.

Overall, it is a shared responsibility and tendency of parents, teachers and broader community to provide a high level of exposure to heritage language. This exposure to heritage language can be obtained through opportunities provided for heritage language learners. Speaking Persian language, greater exposure to heritage language media such as watching movie and TV and listening to music, and frequency of visiting the country of origin result in high proficiency in heritage language learning (Carreira, 2012). The more competent a heritage language learner is, the more tendency the learner has to speak the language (Lo Bianco & Peyton, 2013). While the community language school has impact on heritage language learning, the vitality of family, community, environment and resources available outside home should be recognised for heritage language development (Baker, 2011). From a pedagogically point of view, teachers should create an "immersion" Persian language environment in which speaking Persian language is the lingua franca of communication, understanding and learning.

As noted in Chapter 4, the TOP model hypothesises that access to heritage language resources hinges on Tendency, Opportunity and Proficiency of heritage language learners and their interlocutors. The three elements of TOP theory are consistent with COD theory developed by Lo Bianco and Peyton (2013). According to COD theory, three conditions are necessary for language vitality and revitalization: Capacity development, Opportunity and Desire.

“Capacity development” refers to the level of proficiency in the language; “Opportunity creation” refers to the development of domains in which use of the language is natural, welcome and expected and “Desire” is the creation of investment in learning the language. Similar to the current study, Lo Bianco and Peyton (2013) also emphasizes on both formal teaching and informal transmission of the language.

The findings of “access to language resources” have implications for the teaching of Persian language in both formal and informal transmission of the language. Heritage language learners are seeking opportunities to use and have knowledge of the language through speaking the language, watching comic movies and frequent visit of the country of origin. It is recommended that parents, teachers and community members provide the opportunities for heritage language learners to use the language. As the research findings show, these learners are more interested in watching comic movies than listening to music. Moreover, visiting their country of origin is an opportunity for the learners to gain language knowledge and use language to communicate with their relatives. Both language knowledge and language use obtained through these social activities are the key aspects of ethnic identity formation (Phinney & Ong, 2007). This research suggests that access to a broad heritage language resources increases the learners’ sense of themselves (Norton & Toohey, 2002, p. 122).

## **9.4. Ethnic identity and pedagogical implications for heritage language learning**

Contemporary studies of identity and second language learning have significantly changed and identity is not considered as a fixed characteristic. It is emerged and constructed through social interaction and observation (Norton, 2000; Norton & Toohey, 2011). “Identities are the result of and maintained through social interaction (Bhabha, 1994, p. 64) and therefore a social constructivist approach is required to investigate the construction of multiple yet compatible or congruent identities, blended or blurred identities in multilingual, multicultural, immigrant cultures (He, 2010, p. 73).

Identity options are available in multilingual contexts where different language and identity ideologies challenge each other. He (2004) asserts that identity accounts for variations in language use. Therefore, negotiation of identities occurs in order to decide what language should be spoken. Through negotiation of identities, a number of identities are more valued and therefore individuals may resist to the identities that are imposed on them. Specific identities are validated and approved through language ideologies. Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004, p. 3) suggest that the negotiation of identities in multilingual contexts can be through private decisions such as celebration of particular holidays, food choices and clothing.

This research tried to explore Persian heritage language learners’ self-categorization from the perspective of the communities to which they wish to belong. Moreover, the research endeavored to understand how Persian heritage language learners’ identities are achieved and developed through social activities which highlight ethnic identity exploration and behaviour. Those activities included talking about and attending Iranian cultural ceremonies, and talking about and eating Iranian food.

Exploring learners’ self-categorization, the research found multiple identities among Persian heritage language learners. For majority of these learners, place of birth was an indicator of their ethnic identity. Moreover, the findings showed that Persian heritage language learners

who were born in Iran, were more competent in Persian language and outperformed their Australian-born counterparts. The four distinct acculturation profiles (Phinney & Ong, 2007), demonstrating ethnic identity achievement, were found for Persian heritage language learners. Both Iranian and Australian identities were strong and positively correlated in the *Integration profile*. In *Ethnic profile*, Iranian as ethnic identity was strong and Australian as national identity is weak. *National profile* is characterized by a strong national identity, which is Australian, and weak ethnic identity. In diffuse profile, both identities are low. The ethnic identity unawareness, a stage of the ethnic identity model developed by Tse (1997), were found for Persian heritage language learners. Majority of the student participants who asserted they felt both Iranian- Australian, showed varying degrees of allegiances to one or the other nationality.

The findings showed that when heritage language learners were young, they resisted attending the community school and they revealed weaker sense of ethnic identity. This unwillingness at young age can be related to learners' lack of maturity and lack of desire to connect with their background. This finding is in accordance with "The Rootedness Hypothesis" developed for Chinese heritage language learners (He, 2006, pp. 19-20). However, after learners come of age, they hold on heritage language.

Similar to previous studies of heritage language and ethnic identity (Chinen & Tucker, 2005; Cho, 2000; Oh & Fuligni, 2010; Tse, 1998, 2000; Wei, 1994), the current research found that heritage language proficiency correlated positively with a sense of ethnic identity.

The result of the study revealed that identity is a dynamic attribute dependent on the ongoing interaction between heritage language learner and social world (He, 2006). Through ongoing interactions with the social world around, a heritage language learner develops and achieves his/her identity. Interestingly, the research found that in addition to heritage language proficiency, watching movies and listening to music of native language had influence on students' ethnic identity formation. Therefore, the interrelationship between access to

language resources and ethnic identity formation is indicated in the findings. The more access to language resources, the more identity achievement and development occurs for heritage language learners. This highlights the importance of analysis of communities involved in heritage language learning such as home and community language schools.

Heritage language learners attending the classrooms represent different affective issues such as who they are and how they fit into the social environment surrounding them. Therefore, considering the conflict that heritage language learners experience, the issue of identity is central in guiding class materials and activities (Carreira & Chik, 2014a). The pedagogical approach should resolve the issue of identity by engaging students in activities and discussions about how they see themselves and who they want to be (McCarthy & Moje, 2002). In addition, teachers should offer heritage language learners the opportunity to explore identity constructions and representations. Fishman (1980, p. 237) asserts that community schools should teach learner about their ethnic identity and the school function is “identity-forming and identity-providing” for heritage language learners.

Consequently, the research findings suggest the mutual relationship between access to language resources and ethnic identity formation. Similar to studies of heritage language learning, the current research found that identity formation and participation in the language community increases integrative motivation for learning heritage language (Beaudrie & Ducar, 2005; Oh & Au, 2005). This finding suggests that while learners’ sense of themselves is formed and developed, their desires for their future are reassessed and increased (Norton & Toohey, 2002, p. 122)

## **9.5. Motivation and pedagogical implications for heritage language learning**

Heritage language learners' motivation for studying their heritage language is a guiding principal for material selection and curriculum design (Kagan, 2005). Among Persian heritage language learners, motivation for preserving a sense of connectedness to families and relatives was significant. In other words, integrative motivation was the driving force for the learners' intrinsic motivation. The research findings show that the existing language courses in the community-based Persian language schools are not meeting Persian heritage language learners' needs to achieve the goal of communicating with families. The student participants stated that the absence of societal recognition of the importance in maintaining their heritage language was the most significant factor in their lack of motivation to maintain their heritage language. Moreover, the research findings revealed student instrumental motivation for learning Persian language, though it was imposed on them by their parents. To find a better job, to gain better results for their Higher School Certificate (HSC) and to succeed later in the university level were highlighted by students. The finding points to The Benefit Hypothesis which shows the positive correlation between heritage language development and predicted benefits and rewards (He, 2006). However, the fact is these goals are, to some extent, unrealistic. Unfortunately there is no Persian language syllabus for students from year 7-10, according to New South Wales Board Of Studies (BOS). Most commonly taught languages listed in BOS website such as Arabic, Chinese, French, Japanese and Italian have been provided by languages syllabus. However, lack of language syllabus exists for less commonly taught languages such as Persian language. Furthermore, the possibility for learners to further their Persian language study at the university level is rare as Persian language courses are not available for students at the university level. Moreover, students' lack of Persian language proficiency and self-efficacy make it impossible for them to think and dream a proper job in the future and because of that finding job in the future is their parents' perception imposed on



them. Therefore, Persian heritage language learners' possibilities for the future are not obvious for them.

As the findings show, student integrative motivation to learn Persian language may result in their intrinsic motivation to learn the language. The ability to communicate with immediate family and friends and relatives in the country of origin and therefore being part of the heritage language community, is one of the main goals and reasons identified by heritage language learners for studying their language. This goal suggests The Interaction Hypothesis which refers to learners' willingness to communicate successfully with families, to understand comic movies and to travel to country of origin (He, 2006). Therefore heritage language teaching and curriculum must be designed so that it satisfies the goal of communication with families. This goal was significant in the research participant responses. A goal-oriented curriculum for heritage language learners is recommended by Carreira and Kagan (2011). Students' lack of opportunities for experiencing the integrative motivation such as visiting Iran, engaging in social activities, the opportunity to use and speak the language at home and at school will result in their loss of intrinsic motivation. Additional opportunities to have access to language resources and language use increases students' motivation for learning heritage language. The research findings suggest that access to a wide range of language resources increases the desire for future (Norton & Toohey, 2002, p. 122).

Providing these opportunities suggest parent and teacher role and engagement and this reveals the importance of incorporating social milieu in heritage language studies (Beaudrie et al., 2009). Moreover, teachers require to know different needs of heritage language learners and not to try to impose existing language learning instruction on the learners. Relevance, according to Lee and Kim (2008), is a principal factor in deciding what to include in the language curriculum and it is based on the learner's need. Goal-relevant language resources and curricula are needed in order to improve heritage language learning. As noted in Chapter 2, the significance of parent role is highlighted in studies of heritage language learning.

## **9.6. Parental role, heritage language learning and pedagogical implications**

Fishman (1991) suggests parental involvement and their effort to take responsibility of their children's bilingualism. Fishman (2001) states that heritage language may not be maintained through formal study of the language only. Australian Institute for Teaching and school leadership, AITSL (2015), highly recommends parents' involvement in learning an opportunity for the parents/carers to share in the child's learning. It is also an opportunity to gather feedback from parents/carers on all aspects of the program in order to continually review and grow the program and it facilitates parents' engagement in child's language learning.

Parents' determination and decision for their children's Persian language learning have influence on children's language learning progress. For example, literacy and educational development is completely supported by those parents who are temporarily residing in Australia. However, literacy development may not be as significant for those parents who are living in Australia permanently. Parents' motivation as "more emotional than instrumental"; that is, their reasons for language learning have more to do with identity and culture than with the practical opportunities to use the language in the wider community, or as a future career option.

The research findings show that for a number of students the feeling of embarrassment and unease can be correlated to lack of parental involvement. Learner's frustration and conflicts with the heritage community may be resolved through more understanding of culture and gaining this understanding is highly dependent on parent role (Cho, 2000).

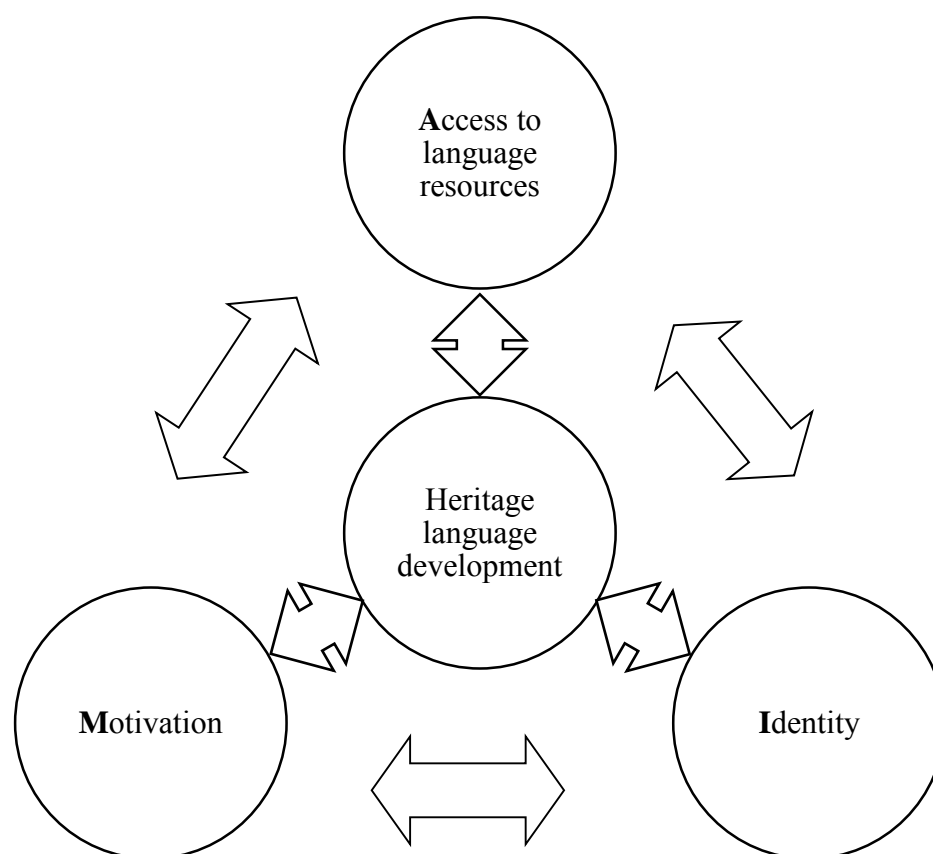
Parents' role as taking initiatives especially in the early stages of Persian language learning is influential on heritage language learning. This research highlights mother's role and its significance on heritage language learning maintenance and success. However, the research

findings show that parent, and especially mother role, is conditional. A consistent support from parents is emphasized by research participants.

The research findings show that even though parent role is emphasized in the development and maintenance of heritage language and parental involvement are encouraged by teachers, parents' voice are not heard by school authorities.

### **9.7. A theory of heritage language development**

So far, the issues addressed in the Research Questions including access to language resources, ethnic identity formation and motivation highlights the interrelationship between these elements and their relationship with heritage language development. The issues also reinforce their social construction and demonstrate that how the social context affect them. The findings of the research show that heritage language learning takes place in a three-dimensional framework with intersecting planes of language availability, identity and motivation. The research findings seem to indicate that access to a broad range of heritage language resources increases the learners' sense of themselves. The research findings also suggest that while learners' sense of themselves are formed and developed, their desires for future are recessed and increased. Furthermore, access to a wide range of language resources increases the desire for future, according to the research findings. The research findings contribute to the theory of language learning and identity (Norton & Toohey, 2002). Figure 9.1 illustrates the AIM theory of heritage language development, as developed in this thesis.



**Figure 9.1** The **AIM** theory of heritage language development

While Norton and Toohey (2002) stressed the notions of investment and identity, this thesis has focused more closely on the development of heritage language proficiency. The thesis found the TOP model (Tendency, Opportunity, Proficiency) was consistent throughout the analysis. Moreover, the TOP model was inherent and operating in each one of the three components of the model including access to language resources, identity and motivation. Figure 9.1, however, stresses the centrality and relationship of heritage language proficiency to each one of the three components.

On setting out in this research, the researcher expected that the three components of the model would impact heritage language development independently. However, it has become clear that the three components are always intertwined. In fact, it is the TOP model that creates their interrelationship, acting like a cohesive glue.

The AIM theory of heritage language development is based on the analysis of data collected in Persian heritage language context. The future research of other languages is required to test the theory in order to confirm, refute or modify it.

### **9.8. The research implications for heritage language curriculum**

Various formal and functional aspects of heritage language learning were documented through different empirical studies. These aspects are concerned with different subgroups of the learners ranging from developmental traits in learners with minimal proficiency in the language to maintenance issues in the case of highly proficient heritage language learners. Therefore, different instruction is needed for different heritage language learners. Learners' diversity suggests developing a modified and learner-centred/differentiated approach, rather than a uniform teaching is required, because as we know that, modified language programs which target the learners' need reduces attrition rate (Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2009).

Moreover, learners', parents' and teachers' beliefs about the heritage language to justify the pedagogical decisions have impact on the outcome of heritage language education (He, 2010, pp. 76-77). Successful heritage language learning is attached to the role of school systems and social institutions and it involves a shared responsibility between school, parents and broader community (Hayashi, 2006).

It should be considered that these students are being raised in the Australian educational system which is totally different from Iranian educational system. Lack of shared educational culture and beliefs between students, parents and teachers appears to influence their expectations. Interestingly however, a number of parents advised the need for language curriculum based on Australian educational culture.

Australian curriculum for languages should recognize less commonly taught languages, according to FECCA (2011). Moreover, Australian government should provide support in order to design curriculum for less commonly taught languages (Baldauf, 2005). The current research suggests that the curriculum should consider the identity needs of heritage language

learners, because, heritage language ability is central to ethnic identity (Beaudrie, 2009). It is important to know “how to foster an environment that promotes empowered [positive] identities within and outside heritage classroom”, according to Showstack (2012, p. 9). New paths for maintaining identity, language and culture can be obtained through transnationalism, with its accompanying travel and communications facilitated via internet (Romaine, 2011). The rapidly growing world of online communities through which close linguistic contact with communities is feasible needs more attention (Lynch, 2014). Using technology to mediate language and culture is recommended by Cruickshank (2004a). Community language programs are highly teacher dependent and the significance of teacher quality in Australian school contexts is emphasized (Lingard & Mills, 2003). Providing opportunities for teacher professional development and increasing teachers’ teaching knowledge and skills is suggested by Baldauf (2005) and Cruickshank (2004d). Teacher awareness and preparation is the key element in quality language teaching. Teachers need to have an understanding of differences between heritage language learners and native speakers of the language. Teacher awareness and preparation can enhance students’ positive attitudes towards the heritage language (Lee & Oxelson, 2006). Furthermore, classroom interactional practices shape the heritage language development trajectory. It should be considered that heritage language learners’ identity and linguistic needs differ from a second language learner and a native speaker of the language. In one hand, heritage language learner’s family background in the language and culture make the learner different from a second language learner. On the other hand, lack of sufficient exposure to the language and culture makes a heritage language learning different from a native speaker of the language. Therefore, heritage language learners have different identity and linguistic needs (Carreira, 2004). Promotion of Task-Based Learning (TBL) in pedagogy and independent, autonomous language learning such as watching comic movies and role play at home and at classroom is recommended by Benson (2007). The current research shows the necessity of multimodal

ways of teaching Persian language (García, 2009) through which parents and Persian program instructors pave the path for functional use of Persian language among Persian heritage language learners. A sound and engaging pedagogy should provide tasks based on motivating activities conducted outside and inside the class such as watching comic movies and playing games. Therefore teachers need to be trained in providing task-based pedagogy based on students' real life (Kagan & Dillon, 2009)

### **9.9. Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research**

This study was the first study of primary school Persian heritage language learners attending four Persian community schools in Sydney, Australia. There was no Persian language research available in Australian context as a background for the current study. By understanding that different heritage language studies dealt with diverse groups of heritage language learners, it makes it difficult for empirical studies to be comparable and replicable. However, the increasing number of very recent studies of Persian heritage language learning in different countries proves the concern of Persian community researchers in providing a better heritage language education for these learners.

As noted by a number of students, their motivation and their perception of their ethnic identity changed overtime. So, a further longitudinal research of Persian heritage language learners is recommended.

The research findings show that for majority of Persian heritage language learners, the ethnic identity is imposed on them by parents. Another study is needed to explore the impact of identity imposition on heritage language learning among the learners. Moreover, the impact of parents' force on students' success requires exploration.

The ethnic identity model developed by Tse (1997) and the empirical study by (Chinen & Tucker, 2005) found that ethnic identity changes over time. A longitudinal study to investigate the evolution of heritage language learners' identity, motivation and attitudes towards the heritage language is required (Ducar, 2012, p. 165).

Unfortunately the Persian heritage language program in Australia is not adequately benefiting from micro-and macro-level of language planning and policy. On the one hand, community support as micro-level initiatives (Hatoss, 2006; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997) is significant for heritage language learning and community organizations have a significant role in community language maintenance. On the other hand, formal governmental planning as macro-planning (Baldauf, 2005), provides the opportunity for heritage language learners to study their language in Australia. At the community level and non-government organizations, the Australian-Iranian Community Organization is the only such organization in Sydney, and the organization does not engage with coordination among the four Persian community language schools. Furthermore, there is no coordination among the organization, the four schools and Ministry of Education in Iran. Only one of the four schools operates under supervision of Ministry of Education in Iran. At the macro-planning, Persian as a less commonly taught language has no unified curriculum. This area needs more investigation.

A case study by Tse (2001) theorized that strong long-term motivations may not result in successful heritage language learning. A future research of Persian heritage language learners, who showed their motivation for learning Persian language may confirm or refute the theory. A detailed understanding of heritage learners' language proficiency emerged as important in this study. Accurate identification of language proficiency is the basis for students' placement in heritage language class and program development. This study used only students' self-assessment and self-report in order to evaluate their language proficiency. Further linguistic research is needed to investigate students' language proficiency to inform future initiatives. It is hoped that this thesis provides a research-based groundwork for better provision and support of heritage languages and their significance in Australian education and society.



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# Appendices



## Appendix A

### Letter to school principals

Date:

School:

Dear

I, Mojgan Mokhatebi Ardakani, a PhD candidate in Macquarie University, am pleased to invite your school to participate in a research project, which will be conducted under the supervision of Dr, Robyn Moloney at Macquarie University.

The aim of this study is to assess the quality of teaching and learning Persian Language in your school in order to enrich teaching and learning at your school. This project also seeks to examine diverse factors associated with improving the quality of language teaching and learning of heritage learners of Persian Language.

The purpose of this letter is to seek your approval for your school to participate in this project. This participation will entail the following:

Teachers will distribute and collect the information and consent forms from parents and students. They will conduct their regular Persian lesson at Saturday school, but the project researcher will observe the lesson and some notes will be taken through observation. They will also take part in one short (30 minutes) interview with project researcher. In this interview, they will be asked about their experience with teaching Persian Language. The interview will take place at a time convenient to them and it will be audiorecorded. The recording will be transcribed and studied.

A random sample of students will take part in a focus group interview of 30 minutes. The interview will be audiorecorded and the recordings will be transcribed and studied. I will make every effort to put them at their ease.

Students' parents will take part in one short (40 minutes) interview with the project researcher. In this interview they will be asked some questions about their child/ward experience in learning Persian language as his/her heritage language and their attitudes toward it. The interview will be audiorecorded and it will be transcribed and studied.

I, as the main researcher of this project, will visit the school about 5 times to collect data. Ethics approval is being obtained from Macquarie University. I attach, for your consideration, consent forms that I intend to use. The school, teachers, students and parents have confidentiality protected by the use of pseudonyms and no individual will be identified. I hope that you will be able to support this important research project, which will be important to strengthening teaching and learning of Persian Language. You may withdraw the school from the study without reason, and without adverse consequences. Your response will assist me in my planning process. I request that you respond by completing the attached pro forma and returning it to:



Mojgan Mokhatebi Ardakani  
Mojgan.mokhatebi-ardakani@students.mq.edu.au  
address: []  
mobile number: []

OR

Dr. Robyn Moloney  
[Robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au](mailto:Robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au)

Mobile number:[]

Fax number: 02 98508674

If you have further inquiries please don't hesitate to contact me or my supervisor Dr. Robyn Moloney.

I thank you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely,

Mojgan Mokhatebi Ardakani

Attachments:

Consent forms

Reply pro forma

Reply pro forma

To: Mojgan Mokhatebi Ardakani, PhD candidate, Macquarie University

I have read and understood the nature and demands of the research project being carried out, to investigate and improve the quality of teaching and learning Persian Language in our school in order to enrich teaching and learning of Persian Heritage Language.

I give my permission for (name of school) to participate.

Name of Principal:

Signature:

Date:



## **Appendix B**

### **Participation Advertisement**

My name is Mojgan Mokhatebi Ardakani. I am a PhD student in the Department of Education at Macquarie University. Dr. Robyn Moloney is my supervisor there.

The purpose of this study is to examine language teaching and learning of Persian heritage learners in Sydney.

I would like to invite you to participate in an interview with the researcher which is entirely voluntary. The interview takes no longer than 30 minutes. If you wish to participate in the interview, please provide your email or your contact number to the school principal in order to organize a time convenient for you to do the interview. All responses and information collected about you during the course of the study will be kept without any personal identifiers, making it completely anonymous.

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee (Human Research). If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Ethics Review Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email [ethics@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics@mq.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

I appreciate your participation in this study, as your participation is crucial to the success of the study and my dissertation.

Please do not hesitate to contact me at [] or my supervisor Dr. Robyn Moloney at [robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au](mailto:robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au)

Participant name:

Participant email:

Participant contact number:

## Appendix C

### Participation Advertisement in Persian language

اینجانب مژگان مخاطبی اردکانی، دانشجوی دکترای آموزش در Macquarie University هستم. و Dr. Robyn Moloney استاد راهنمای من میباشد.

هدف از انجام این تحقیق بررسی آموزش زبان فارسی دانش آموزان دوره ی ابتدایی در سیدنی و ارائه راهکار هایی جهت بهبود آموزش زبان فارسی برای آنان میباشد.

از شما والدین گرامی جهت شرکت در این تحقیق دعوت به عمل میاید. از شما جهت شرکت در مصاحبه دعوت

میشود. چنانچه تمایل به شرکت در این تحقیق دارید، لطفا نام و آدرس ایمیل خود را در پایان دعوتنامه قید بفرمایید. لازم به ذکر

میباشد که تمام اطلاعاتی که

پایان از شما ثبت میشود بدون ذکر مشخصات شما در نامه و مقالات اینجانب درج خواهد شد.

در صورتی که سوالی دارید شما میتوانید با Dr. Roby Moloney به آدرس ایمیل [robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au](mailto:robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au) یا با اینجانب با شماره تماس ۰۴۱۵۰۹۴۹۴۳ تماس بگیرید. با تشکر فراوان از همکاری شما در انجام این تحقیق.

نام شرکت کننده

شماره تماس شرکت کننده

ایمیل شرکت کننده





## Appendix D

### *Information and Consent Form: teachers' participation*

Name of Project: Curriculum for Persian heritage language learners in Persian community language and primary school programs in Sydney

You are invited to participate in a study of curriculum for Persian heritage language learners in Persian community language and primary school programs in Sydney.

The purpose of this study is to examine diverse factors associated with improving the quality of language teaching and learning of heritage learners of Persian Language. These factors include students' proficiency, students' needs, and students' motivation for studying their heritage language, family expectations and diversity of learners. For example, students' proficiency can be used as the basis for placement in courses and curriculum development and knowledge of students' linguistic biography is an essential tool in determining heritage proficiency. Also, heritage learners' motivation for studying their heritage language can serve as guiding principle for material selection and curriculum design.

The study is being conducted by Mrs. Mojgan Mokhatebi Ardakani, a PhD student in The Department of Education at Macquarie University in Sydney, mobile number: [] and email address: [mojgan.mokhatebi-ardakani@students.mq.edu.au](mailto:mojgan.mokhatebi-ardakani@students.mq.edu.au). This research is being conducted to meet the requirements of the degree of PhD at Macquarie University under the supervision of Dr. Robyn Moloney, contact number: 9850 8605, email address: [robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au](mailto:robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au) of the Department of Education at Macquarie University.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to:

- a) distribute and collect the information and consent forms from parents and students.
- b) conduct your regular Persian lesson and the project researcher will observe the lesson and take notes.
- c) take part in one short (40 minutes) interview with project researcher. In this interview, you will be asked about your experience with teaching Persian Language.

The interview will take place at a time convenient to you and it will be audiorecorded. The recording will be transcribed and studied.

I appreciate you may experience some distraction in being observed, or in reflecting on your teaching. Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. The project researcher will have access to data that will be presented in the PhD dissertation and later published in the refereed journals that are relevant to the topic. A summary of the results of the data will be made available to you on request. I will write a feedback report about the findings of the project and it will be sent to schools principals, teachers, all participants and parents.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You are not obliged to participate and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

I, (participant's name) \_\_\_\_\_, have read (or, where appropriate, have had read to me) and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.



Participant's Name:  
(block letters)

Participant's Signature:

Date:

Project researcher's Name:  
(block letters)

Project researcher's Signature:

Date:

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email [ethics@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics@mq.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

**(PROJECT RESEARCHER'S [OR PARTICIPANT'S] COPY)**



## Appendix E

### *Information and Consent Form: parents' participation*

Name of Project: Curriculum for Persian heritage language learners in Persian community languages and primary school programs in Sydney

You are invited to participate in a study titled "curriculum for Persian heritage language learners in Persian community language and primary school programs in Sydney".

The purpose of this study is to examine diverse factors associated with improving the quality of language teaching and learning of heritage learners of Persian language. These factors include students' proficiency, students' needs, and students' motivation for studying their heritage language, family expectations and diversity of learners. For example, students' proficiency can be used as the basis for placement in courses and curriculum development and knowledge of students' linguistic biography is an essential tool in determining heritage proficiency. Also, heritage learners' motivation for studying their heritage language can serve as guiding principle for material selection and curriculum design.

The study is being conducted by Mrs. Mojgan Mokhatebi Ardakani, a PhD student in The Department of Education at Macquarie University in Sydney, mobile number: [] and email address: [mojgan.mokhatebi-ardakani@students.mq.edu.au](mailto:mojgan.mokhatebi-ardakani@students.mq.edu.au). This research is being conducted to meet the requirements of the degree of PhD at Macquarie University under the supervision of Dr. Robyn Moloney, contact number: 9850 8605, email address: [robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au](mailto:robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au) of the Department of Education at Macquarie University.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to participate in a short interview (30-40 minutes) with the project researcher.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. The project researcher will have access to data that will be presented in the PhD dissertation and later published in the refereed journals that are relevant to the topic. A summary of the results of the data will be made available to you on request. I will write a feedback report about the findings of the project and it will be sent to schools principals, teachers, all learner participants and parents.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary: you are not obliged to participate and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

I, (participant's name) , have read (or, where appropriate, have had read to me) and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name:  
(block letters)

Participant's Signature:

Date:

Project researcher's Name:  
(block letters)



Project researcher's Signature:

Date:

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email [ethics@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics@mq.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

**(PROJECT RESEARCHER'S [OR PARTICIPANT'S] COPY)**

## Appendix F

### *Information and Consent Form: Parents' permission for child/ward to participate*

Name of Project: Curriculum for Persian heritage language learners in Persian community language and primary school programs in Sydney

You are invited to give consent for your child/ward to participate in a study of curriculum for Persian heritage language learners in Persian community language and primary school programs in Sydney. The purpose of this study is to examine diverse factors associated with improving the quality of language teaching and learning of heritage learners of Persian language.

The study is being conducted by Mrs. Mojgan Mokhatebi Ardakani, a PhD student in The Department of Education at Macquarie University in Sydney, mobile number: 0415094943 and email address: [mojgan.mokhatebi-ardakani@students.mq.edu.au](mailto:mojgan.mokhatebi-ardakani@students.mq.edu.au). This research is being conducted to meet the requirements of the degree of PhD at Macquarie University under the supervision of Dr. Robyn Moloney, contact number: 9850 8605, email address: [robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au](mailto:robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au) of the Department of Education at Macquarie University.

#### **What will your child/ward be asked to do?**

If you decide to give consent for your child/ward to participate, he/ she will be asked to:

- a) take part in one short (30 minutes) group interview with the project researcher. In this interview he/she will be asked some demographic as well as some biographical questions and his/her experience in learning Persian language as his/her heritage language. The interview will be audiorecorded and they will be transcribed and studied.
- b) participate in his/her regular Persian class and the lesson will be observed by the project researcher in order to take notes from the lesson. There will be no disruption to his/her normal lesson.

I appreciate students may experience some distraction or embarrassment in being observed, or in reflecting on their learning. I will make every effort to put them at their ease.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. The project researcher will have access to data that will be presented in the PhD dissertation and later published in the refereed journals that are relevant to the topic. A summary of the results of the data will be made available to you on request. The project researcher will write a feedback report about the findings of the project and it will be sent to school principal, teachers, all participants and parents.

Your child's Participation in this study is entirely voluntary: your child is not obliged to participate and if he/she decides to participate, he/ she is free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

I, (participant's name) \_\_\_\_\_, have read (or, where appropriate, have had read to me) and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I give consent for my child/ward to participate in this research, knowing that he/she can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.



Participant's Name:  
(block letters)

Participant's parent name:  
(block letter)

Participant's parent signature:

Date:

Project researcher's Name:  
(block letters)

Project researcher's Signature:

Date:

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your child/ward participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email [ethics@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics@mq.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

**(PROJECT RESEARCHER'S [OR PARTICIPANT'S] COPY)**



## Appendix G

### Student demographic information

1. Which school have you enrolled in? S1 ☐ S2 ☐ S3 ☐ S4 ☐
2. What is your gender? Male ☐ Female ☐
3. What is your age? 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 9 ☐ 10 ☐ 11 ☐ 12 ☐
4. What year are you enrolled in? Year 1 ☐ Year2 ☐ Year3 ☐ Year4 ☐ Year 5 ☐
5. Have you attend another Persian school before enrolling in this school? Yes ☐ No ☐  
If yes, Please name the school?
6. Do you live with your parents? Yes ☐ No ☐

### Biographical background

1. Where were you born? Australia ☐ Iran ☐ Other ☐
2. If you were not born in Australia, how old were you when you arrived in this country?
3. If you were not born in Australia, did you attend school in your country of birth? If yes, which country?
4. If you attend school in another country, how many years did you attend school there?
5. As a young child, did you first learn to read in English or in Persian Language? English ☐  
Persian ☐
6. Have you travelled to a country where Persian is predominantly spoken? Yes ☐ No ☐

## **Appendix H**

### **Students' semi-structured interview question**

#### *Languages availability and choice at home and at school*

1. What is the main language spoken at your home?
2. What language (English or Persian) do you prefer to speak at Persian school with your teacher and your friends? Why?
3. What language (English or Persian) do you prefer to speak at home with your parents? Why?
4. What language (English or Persian) do you prefer to speak at home with your siblings? Why?
5. What language (English or Persian) do you prefer to speak with your friends? Why?
6. Do you watch Iranian movies or listen to Iranian music?
7. How often do you go to Iran?

#### *Identity achievement and development*

1. Do you feel more Iranian, more Australian or half-half? When and how do you feel Iranian? When and how do you feel Australian?
2. Do you spend time to talk to your parents or your siblings about Iranian customs, culture, history, food to learn about them? Do you eat Iranian food?
3. Do you participate in Iranian cultural ceremonies or concerts?

#### *Motivation*

1. Which one, you or your parents, is more interested in your Persian language learning?
2. Do you enjoy learning Persian? Do you have fun?
3. Do you want to continue Persian language learning?
4. Do you wish not to learn Persian? Why?

#### *Language proficiency*

1. How would you describe your Persian language speaking ability?
2. How would you describe your Persian language listening ability?

3. How would you describe your Persian language reading ability?

4. How would you describe your Persian language writing ability?

Goal/need

1. Why are you learning Persian language?

2. Which one of the language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking) is more important for you?

Attitudes and feelings

1. How do you feel when you are proficient in Persian Language?

Persian language Program Evaluation

1. How would you describe the materials used in the Persian class?

2. Do you have any suggestions?

3. Are you enjoying your Persian language class? Do you have fun?

Parent role

What is the role of parents? Do you need help when you do your homework?

## **Appendix I**

### **Parents' semi-structured interview questions**

#### *Languages availability and choice at home and at school*

1. What is the main language spoken at your home?
2. What language do you speak to your child? What language does your child speak to you?
3. What language does your child speak to other people in different places such as Persian school?
4. Do you watch Iranian movies or listen to Iranian music with your child?
5. How often do you go to Iran?

#### *Identity achievement and development*

1. Does your child feel more Iranian, Australian or half-half? What does it mean to her/him?
2. Do you spend time to talk to your child about Iranian customs, culture, history, food and music? Do you eat Iranian food?
3. Do you and your child participate in Iranian cultural ceremonies?

#### *Motivation*

1. Which one, you or your child, is more interested in Persian language learning?
2. Does your child wish not to continue learning Persian language?
3. Does your child enjoy learning Persian language?

#### *Language proficiency*

1. How would you describe your child Persian language speaking ability?
2. How would you describe your child Persian language listening ability?
3. How would you describe your child Persian language reading ability?
4. How would you describe your child Persian language writing ability?

#### *Goal/need*

1. Why is your child learning Persian language?

2. Which language skills are more important to be learnt by your child?

### Attitudes

1. How do your child feel when he/she is proficient in Persian language?

### Persian language Program Evaluation

1. How would you evaluate the existing Persian language program?
2. What problems or difficulties have you encountered while you are involved in your child Persian language learning? Please elaborate these problems in terms of time, child effort, people, place and resources.
3. What are your suggestions to improve it?

### Parent role

1. What is the role of parents? Do you help him/her while doing his/her homework?

## **Appendix J**

### **Teachers' semi-structured interview questions**

Have you been a teacher in Iran? If yes, for how many years?

How many times and hours do you have Persian class?

#### *Languages availability and choice at home and at school*

1. What language do your students prefer to speak at school? Why?
2. What language do you talk with your students in the class? What language do your students talk at school?
3. What language do your students speak at home with their parents and their siblings?
4. Do you watch Iranian movies or listen to Iranian music with your students?

#### *Identity achievement and development*

1. Do your students feel more Iranian, Australian or half-half? What does it mean to them?
2. Do you spend time to talk to your students about Iranian customs, culture, history, food and music?
3. Do you and your students participate in Iranian cultural ceremonies?

#### *Motivation*

1. Which one, child or his/her parents, is more interested in Persian language learning?
2. Does your student wish not to continue learning Persian language?
3. Does your student enjoy learning Persian language?

#### *Language proficiency*

1. How does Persian language proficiency level vary in your class?
2. How would you describe your student speaking ability?
3. How would you describe your student listening ability?

4. How would you describe your student reading ability?
5. How would you describe your student writing ability?

#### Goal/need

1. Why are students learning Persian language?
2. Which language skills are more important to be learnt by your student?

#### Attitudes

Do your students feel happy when they can read or write or speak in Persian?

#### Persian language Program Evaluation

1. How would you evaluate the current Persian curriculum used in this school for Persian heritage learners?
2. What problems or difficulties have you encountered while you are involved in your students Persian language learning? Please elaborate these problems in terms of time, child effort, people (parents, teachers), place and resources.
3. What are your suggestions to improve it?

#### Parent role

1. What is the role of parents?

## **Appendix K**

### **Sample of classroom observation field notes**

Sample 1: Classroom observation Saturday 12 May 2012, school 1 Class 2 (S1 CL2), Year 2

Five girls and one boy are attending the class. Students are sitting in groups.

Students start to talk in English with each other.

First activity

Class starts with reading activities. One of the students starts to read the lesson in the book. Teacher starts to explain the meaning of some words. Students correct each other. Then teacher starts to read the lesson.

Teacher writes some words on the white board and she asks students to write the words and their meanings in their notebooks.

One of the students do not know the meaning of the word in Persian and the teacher asks him to write the English meaning of the word.

Teacher asks students to say the summary of the text they have read. Teacher checks that students understand and comprehend the text.

When teacher is talking to students, they show their lack of interest by flipping their book pages or looking through window.

A map of Iran is on the wall and students' names are written on the board in Persian language. Class rules and regulations on the wall are written in the Persian language.



### Second activity

Second activity is writing. The teacher writes a list of words in different columns. She asks a student to come to the board and matches the words in columns and write the words next to each other.

Whenever the students don't know the meanings in Persian, teacher says the word in English.

Students are bored and they show no interest. One student is sleepy.

### Third activity

Writing and making sentences is the third activity in the class. Teacher writes new words and she asks students to write a sentence with the new word. The activities in the class are teacher-centered.

Teacher elaborates that what we say and what we write may not be the same.

### Fourth activity

The fourth activity is writing and this time, students should fill the blank spaces in a sentence with the words.

The boy answers the question wrongly and he is reluctant to pay attention to what the teacher says. At the same time, the boy starts murmuring: "Iran is not my country and Australia is my country." Then the teacher starts to ask a student about the place that she was born. Teacher says that both Iran and Australia are our countries. She says that for those who were born in Australia, Australia is their country. The next day (13/05/12) is marked as Australian Mother's day. The teacher starts talking about this day here and Mother's day in Iran. Students start to talk about this day. A student says "I love you mom" but the teacher asks her to say the same sentence in English.

Sample 2: Classroom observation Saturday 1<sup>st</sup> September 2012, school 1 Class 3 (S1 CL3),  
Year 5 and Year 6

Five girls and one boy are attending the class. Students are sitting individually.

Teacher asks students to talk about what happened during the week. She encourages students to talk in Persian language. A student starts to talk about her experience in cooking. One of the students starts to talk about an Iranian food. Other students don't know about the food and teacher starts to talk about the food.

Teacher starts to check students' homework and their writings. After that, one of the students start to read a text from their textbook. The teacher emphasizes on the meaning of the words and she sometimes gives the meaning of the word in English.

The teacher leaves the class for a while and students start to talk in English with each other.

Students don't show their interest to answer when the teacher asks questions.

Teacher says a joke in Persian language but students don't understand it.

One of the students start to read a text and then the teacher asks her to explain the text that she has read. While students are reading the text, their teacher asks them to highlight a number of words that they are difficult to learn. By doing that, the teacher prepares students for dictation.

Then teacher gives students an English text and she asks them to translate the text into Persian language.

While the teacher is talking to a student in Persian, other students start to talk in English with each other.

## Appendix L

### An example of open coding, students' attitudes

#### S1 FG1 St1

I'm very happy when I speak a couple of sentences. I guess I am proud that I can speak both two languages. Persian is very important to me. I love to learn Persian in order to speak it fluently.

#### S1 FG1 St2

I love it too as it's important to me as well, because I can talk with my families in Iran but many children in Australia can't talk with their families because they don't know Persian. Most of my relatives are in the Iran and I want to have verbal communication with them. All my family live in Iran and I should learn Persian because my family are Iranian.

#### S1 FG1 St3

I'd love to but sometimes it's hard because I get used to English. I try to speak Persian when I go to Iran. When I speak Persian for some time, I get used to it as well because I always speak Persian there.

#### S1 FG1 St4

I'm glad sometimes, because we don't go to Iran a lot but our families come here to visit us. We don't spent much time in Iran but I'm trying to learn from our relatives who come here.

#### Brief explanation of Open Coding:

Each different colour is a code. The words “happy” and “proud”, which are the exact words articulated by the learners is an example of In Vivo coding. However, excerpts of data such as “talking to family”, “having verbal communication with them” are given a short phrase of “speaking with family”, which is an example of descriptive coding.

## Appendix M

Office of the Deputy Vice-Chancellor  
(Research)

Research Office  
Research Hub, Building C5C East  
Macquarie University  
NSW 2109 Australia  
T: +61 (2) 9850 4459  
<http://www.research.mq.edu.au/>  
u/ ABN 90 952 801 237



**MACQUARIE**  
University  
SYDNEY • AUSTRALIA

20 May 2011

Dear Dr Moloney,

**Reference No:** 5201100293

**Title:** *Evaluating and developing current curriculum design applied to Persian learners in Persian community language and primary school programs in Sydney*

Thank you for submitting the above application for ethical and scientific review. Your application was considered by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee (Faculty of Human Sciences Subcommittee).

I am pleased to advise that ethical and scientific approval has been granted for this project to be conducted at:

- Macquarie University

This research meets the requirements set out in the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* (2007 – Updated March 2014) (the *National Statement*).

This letter constitutes ethical and scientific approval only.

### **Standard Conditions of Approval:**

1. Continuing compliance with the requirements of the *National Statement*, which is available at the following website:

<http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/book/national-statement-ethical-conduct-human-research>

2. This approval is valid for five (5) years, subject to the submission of annual reports. Please submit your reports on the anniversary of the approval for this protocol.

3. All adverse events, including events which might affect the continued ethical and scientific acceptability of the project, must be reported to the HREC within 72 hours.

4. Proposed changes to the protocol must be submitted to the Committee for approval before implementation.

It is the responsibility of the Chief investigator to retain a copy of all documentation related to this project and to forward a copy of this approval letter to all personnel listed on the project. Should you have any queries regarding your project, please contact the Ethics Secretariat on 9850 4194 or by email [ethics.secretariat@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics.secretariat@mq.edu.au)

The HREC (Human Sciences and Humanities) Terms of Reference and Standard Operating Procedures are available from the Research Office website at:

[http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how\\_to\\_obtain\\_ethics\\_approval/human\\_research\\_ethics](http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how_to_obtain_ethics_approval/human_research_ethics)

The HREC (Human Sciences and Humanities) wishes you every success in your research.

Yours sincerely



**Dr Karolyn White**

Director, Research Ethics & Integrity,

Chair, Human Research Ethics Committee (Human Sciences and Humanities)

This HREC is constituted and operates in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council's (NHMRC) *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* (2007) and the *CPMP/ICH Note for Guidance on Good Clinical Practice*.