A World Englishes Study of Korean University Students: Effects of Pedagogy on Language Attitudes

Patrick Rousseau
SIT Graduate Institute

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A World Englishes Study of Korean University Students: Effects of Pedagogy on Language Attitudes

Patrick Rousseau

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Arts in TESOL degree at the SIT Graduate Institute, Brattleboro, Vermont.

November 1, 2012

IPP Advisor: Susan Barduhn
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Date: November 1, 2012
Abstract

I examine the impact of raising awareness of World English varieties on the language attitudes of Korean university students. This study triangulated direct attitudinal measurements through the use of a 6-point Likert scale survey with indirect attitudinal measurements by employing a verbal guise test. The verbal guise test used recordings of representative speakers from six varieties of English: American, Chinese, Japanese, British, Saudi, and Korean English. Attitudinal measurements were taken pre and post a series of four 1½-hour practical English classes designed to raise awareness of world varieties, along with global trends in language use that highlight the importance of English as a lingua franca. A two tailed t test for a repeated measures design was performed to determine which changes in pre and post measurements were statistically significant, along with using $r^2$ to determine the effect size of the measurements. Statistically significant positive changes in attitude were detected towards the Chinese, Japanese, British, and Korean speakers. Attitudinal change for the Saudi speaker was not statistically significant. A statistically significant negative change of attitude was detected toward the American speaker. Both the Saudi and American varieties were coincidently omitted from the awareness raising classes. Changes in two responses of the survey were statistically significant. Participants agreed more that they will use English to communicate with non-native speakers, and agreed less with feeling nervous to communicate with native speakers. This study has important pedagogical implications since it indicates that awareness raising classroom activities can positively affect students’ attitudes towards World Englishes.
A WORLD ENGLISHES STUDY OF KOREAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS: EFFECTS OF PEDAGOGY ON LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) Descriptors

Attitude Change
Classroom Research
Consciousness Raising
English Language Learners
English (Second Language)
Korean
Language Attitudes
Native Speakers
Non English Speaking
Second Language Instruction
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1 Introduction

1.1 Awakening

After five years of teaching English in Korea, I pursued graduate studies to further develop my teaching. Summer of 2010 was my first semester at SIT Graduate Institute’s Summer Masters of Arts in Teaching (SMAT). Beverly Burkett, our professor of Approaches to Teaching Second Languages, introduced David Graddol’s influential report titled “English Next” (Graddol, 2006), bringing to light current trends in global English language use, through an analysis of economic and demographic data. Graddol’s report challenged the notion that the ownership of English is exclusive to native speaking countries and the complacency within monolingual native speaker societies that English is and will remain unchallenged as the global language. This raised questions regarding what variety of English is appropriate in my context.

Upon first encountering this question, I had only considered varieties according to purpose, such as business English, survival English, and technical English, or according to native speaker nations, such as American and British English. I was not aware of the existence of the hegemony of English. While I had not expected my students to reach native speaker norms, I had not deeply considered what they should strive for beyond the general notion that language is for communication. I was familiar with the term English as a lingua franca, but I never considered its implications in my context. Therefore, I decided to further study this issue to gain a better perspective of World Englishes along with its implications regarding my teaching and my students’ needs and learning.
Near the end of our Approaches course, Beverly allowed us to explore the complex relationships that existed within our contexts. She had concentric circles on the floor, each labeled by a different aspect of context starting with the self, and extending radially towards the global community. As we stood within each circle, we described the relationships, as we had perceived them, according to the labels. In an attempt to conceptualize my project, I borrowed Beverly’s concentric circles as shown in Figure 1.1.

There is a widespread belief that English is the global language, in which some view as a form of language ideology (Park J. S.-Y., 2009a). From this perspective, some feel that a nation
must be proficient in English in order to be successful and competitive in the global market. For most in Korea, the gold standard of English proficiency is that of the native speaker, mainly standard American English. This view, which is essentially unchallenged, has influenced government policy towards English education, in an attempt for children to start studying English at an earlier age. Many native teachers have been hired to enhance students’ communication skills and to provide them with “proper” models of pronunciation. A plethora of English educational programs such as private language institutes and English villages have mushroomed across the country to take advantage of this lucrative market, further fueling desires and anxieties to “perfect” one’s English.

English language learning is incredibly disparate in which students are pressured to achieve high scores in standardized testing which are necessary for academic and career pursuits, but are also “reminded” of their “poor” communication skills. This thus pushes them further by studying English in native speaker countries, or by spending exorbitant amounts of money in constructing English villages, in an attempt to recreate native speaker monolingual English environments at home.

Confucius’s notion of filial piety plays a very important role in Korean society. Therefore, parents’ expectations have a profound impact on the lives of their children, even well into adulthood. Some parents view “mastering” English as the key to their children’s success, thus further perpetuating its demand. Through my experience working in an upscale English kindergarten, some parents insisted that every aspect of their children’s work be corrected if it deviated from native speaker norms. They hence checked their children’s workbook to ensure that corrections were made. As these children grow older, there is little space for them to challenge the hegemony of English, let alone be aware of its existence.
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By looking back at Figure 1.1, there is a large discrepancy between the outer circle labeled “global” and its concentric circles. Although English is important on the international stage, measuring Korean students’ English against the yardstick of an idealized native speaker sets them up for failure at the outset. It is also not representative of how most Koreans use English, such as that of a lingua franca with other non-native speakers.

This project is an attempt to open up a space where Korean university students can become aware of the hegemony of English, and thus decide for themselves what model of English is most suitable for them.
2 Background

English education in Korea can be dated as far back as 1883, during the late Joseon dynasty, when the hermit kingdom opened its doors to the West. One of the first English schools trained interpreters in assisting the high court to communicate with western counterparts. However, during the Japanese occupation from 1910 to 1945, English all but disappeared and Japanese became the predominant second language.

The influence of American English in modern Korean society can be traced back to the liberation of southern Korea by American forces in 1945. Over the next three years, the American military presence had a profound influence in shaping the political and educational landscape of South Korean society. According to Eun-gyon Kim, “... the status of the English language was elevated and solidified as the language of the ruling class during this period and has since retained its prominent status in South Korean society” (Kim E.-g. , 2008, para. 3).

Education prospered during this period. Throughout the temporary US military occupation, the literacy rate increased from 28 percent to 58 percent, and the number of higher education institutions rose from 14 to 42. US leaders collaborating with the Korean educational elite attributed to the success of these reforms. They also promoted American English language education and social studies of American democracy to keep pro-communist sentiments at bay (Kim E.-g. , 2009a).

Several factors elevated US centric English to a high status that still exists to this day. First, the US military made English the official language until a South Korean interim government was establish in 1947. Second, the US military government placed English speaking conservative Christian Koreans, many who were educated in the US, in high positions. These
two factors pushed a demand to be educated in the US. Consequently, since the 1950s, about 89% of students studying abroad have chosen the US with many returning back to Korea to take on prominent and influential roles within the society. (Kim E.-g. , 2009b)

The 1986 Asian Games and 1988 Olympic Games further elevated the status of English. The government seized this moment to promote an ideology of Korea entering globalization, with the key to success being a nation competent in English. Although the games only lasted for two weeks, which is negligible contact to have any meaningful impact of English on an individual, it facilitated the adoption of this ideology into the Korean psyche (Park J. S.-Y., 2009, p. 38).

The push for globalization has had major implications on educational policy. The 6th National Curricula, introduced in 1995 for middle school and in 1996 for high school, shifted the focus of English education from a traditional grammar based syllabus focused on overt knowledge and accuracy to a syllabus with an emphasis on communication and fluency. In 1997, the 7th National Curricula moved English education four years earlier to the third grade, based on the notion that with learning a second language, the earlier the better (Park J. S.-Y., 2009a, p. 40).

More recently, the government implemented the TEE policy, where teachers must teach English in English as a response to address some of the failures in the national curriculum to develop communicative competence. This has come at a cost by placing a huge burden on non-native speaking (NNS) teachers to fundamentally change their pedagogical practices. It has also increased the anxiety of students who have not acquired sufficient English to effectively learn in an environment devoid of their mother tongue. Demanding English only in the classroom is controversial since it fails to recognize some benefits of using the native language (L1) in a second language (L2) classroom for reasons such as code switching and providing background
knowledge to support students’ comprehension (Park J. S.-Y., 2009, p.39-41; Seong, 2010).

Coinciding with the educational policies of the nineties, the government reformed *sooneung*, the Korean university entrance exam, with a shift from grammar to communicative competence. This has led some families to send their children to western English speaking countries in order to gain a competitive advantage over others. In extreme cases, children have received tongue surgery in the hopes that they can better attain “American” pronunciation. The focus on oral proficiency on the university entrance exam has created an obsession with attaining native like proficiency (Park J., 2009).

The economic burden of learning English is prevalent. Some middle class families pay over one million Korean won (approximately one thousand USD) a month for English immersion kindergartens with native English speaking teachers (NETs), most of whom hold bachelors degrees that are unrelated to education. From elementary to high school, children are sent to a plethora of private educational programs such as cram schools, private tutoring, and English camps. The cost of these programs reached 15 trillion won in 2005 (Park J., 2009).

The ideologies behind the shift in educational policies have increased anxiety in some parents in so much that they now believe Korean language will hinder their children’s English language development. Thus, they have adopted the beliefs of English only environments coupled with the critical period hypothesis, which states that learning languages is easier and more natural for pre-pubescent children (Gass & Selinker, 2001, p. 335). This has caused great sacrifice among some families where the father lives and works in Korea to support his family living overseas, such as the US or Canada, in the hope that their children will attain native like proficiency. Even within this extreme, some choose to live and school their children away from Korean communities fearing that Korean children speaking their native tongue amongst each
other will hinder their English development. In some cases, the desire to attain native like proficiency has come at the expense of first language development (Park J., 2009).

Attempts by the government to reduce the demand on private English education have been thus far unsuccessful. In the late 1990s, Korean universities used standardized English test scores such as TOEFL or TOEIC in their application process. However, in order to quell reliance on private language institutes to improve these scores, the government has made it illegal for universities to use TOEIC or TOEFL test scores in their acceptance criteria with a few exceptions, such as NNS applying for majors completely taught in English. English is now assessed through the National English Ability Test (NEAT), which is incorporated into the sooneung exam. Ironically, this has done little to subdue the demand for private institutes since they are now catering to improve NEAT test scores (Lee W.-y., 2012).

In an attempt to increase global rankings, some elite universities offer a greater percentage of their content courses in English. However, this has not been free of controversy. For example, Nam-pyo Suh, the president of Korea Advanced Institute of Technology (KAIST), Korea’s most prestigious technical university, implemented reforms such as “strengthening tenure requirements for professors, withdrawing tuition-free status from underperforming students and mandating nearly all classes to be taught in English.” (Lee S.-y., 2012, para. 8) With a subsequent string of student suicides along with one professor suicide, faculty called on the president to resign. The president has been defiant and stands by his measures (Lee S.-y., 2012).

Obsession with American English has also led to discrimination against non-Caucasian English teachers. One of my former students, who graduated from a TESOL certificate program, sent her application to a private language institute. Her application was rejected because she had
not lived in a western English speaking country (personal communication, June 21, 2012). In an article for the Yonghap News, contributing writer Lisa Schroeder provides numerous examples of racial discrimination against non-white teachers (Schroeder, 2011). She tells the story of HeeJ Kim, a Korean-Australian, who cannot land an English teaching job after applying to over 100 jobs. Jen, a Korean-American teacher of English was told not to speak Korean in school except to the principle. Hwang Yune-kyu, a recruiter of English teachers, estimates that 30 to 50 percent of schools are looking for Caucasian teachers, 10 to 20 percent are seeking ethnic Koreans from English speaking countries, and one percent are seeking a black teacher (Schroeder, 2011, para. 18). While these numbers are not scientifically obtained and are based on the views of one recruiter, they are congruent to what I have observed throughout my seven years of living and working in Korea. Schroeder states that hiring discrimination can also extend to native speakers (NS) with non-American accents.

The ideology that English is the key to globalization extends into the work place. Since the mid nineties, companies have used the TOEIC test to gauge the English ability of their applicants. This test is applied non-discriminately since white-collar jobs that require little to no use of English still require it (Park J. S.-Y., 2009, p. 42-43).

More recently, employers have been critical of the TOEIC test because although some employees have achieved high test scores, their English level is still considered inadequate. This is not surprising since attaining high scores is more a measure of test taking skills than one’s command of a language. Therefore employers have sought other ways to assess language ability such as conducting part of the job interview in English.

In spite of starting to learn English at a younger age, with countless money and time spent in private institutes or through tutoring, Koreans still view themselves as inadequate at
speaking English. This further fuels their anxiety causing them to spend more money and study harder. In the extreme, families split so that children, accompanied by their mothers, can learn English in Western countries while the fathers remain behind to finance this exorbitant cost hoping to attain something that is perceived as out of grasp (Park J. S.-Y., 2009a, pp. 37-51).

On the other hand, language purism also prevails in Korea, and is the counterbalance to the English obsession. During the end of the Japanese occupation, Korean language was removed from the education system in an attempt to strip Koreans of their identity and relegate them to second-class Japanese citizens. Hangul (the Korean alphabet) and the Korean language symbolized the resistance to the Japanese occupation. After the fall of the occupation, this symbolic resistance evolved into a median through government and media to purify the Korean language from outside influences. Language purification is described by Joseph Park as “guarding the purity of the Korean language” and “is often equated with protecting Korean culture and identity from external forces” (Park J. S.-Y., 2009, p. 53). Japanese influence on the Korean language was nearly abolished by the 1990s. The language purism movement has also attempted to remove vulgar, slang, English, and Sino-Korean vocabulary (Korean words of Chinese origin) from the language. There is also resistance to English and its influence on the language and society, such as in pop culture. The pressure to learn English, often at high economic and social costs, is concomitant to a sense of nationalism to preserve language, heritage, culture, and identity (Park J. S.-Y., 2009, p. 51-55).

Both social and economic costs to attain English have placed a great burden on Korean society. Ironically, most Koreans highly value American English and view it as a norm, but predominately use English as a lingua franca (ELF) to communicate with other non-native speakers. For example, most Koreans living and working in Korea use English to communicate
with NNS more than NS.

I question to what extent most Korean students of English are aware of why they are studying English and how they will use it in the future. Therefore, the purpose of my investigation is to determine how raising students’ awareness of ELF impacts their attitudes towards World Englishes, and thus have them think about studying English in a way that better reflects their context and reality.
3 Literature Review

3.1 Frameworks – Setting the Foundation

The study of World Englishes can be traced as far back as the 1960s (Kachru, 1997). The most common characterizations are English as a native language (ENL), English as a second language (ESL), and English as a foreign language (EFL). ENL is spoken as a first language among most of the population in countries such as the UK, the US, Canada, and New Zealand. ESL is spoken in countries (Singapore, India, etc.) where English plays an important role in society, such as in government, and usually coexists with other languages. EFL is spoken in countries where English is rarely used in daily life such as Korea, China, and Japan. As Kirkpatrick states, this model presumes there is one ‘native’ English that is superior to ESL and EFL (Kirkpatrick, 2007, pp. 27-28).

Kachru’s three-circle framework is the most influential model to date to characterize world varieties of Englishes (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 28). It is similar to the ENL/ESL/EFL classification with some key differences. This model consists of the inner, outer, and expanding circles. The inner circle represents the United Kingdom, along with its first diaspora. Some of these countries are the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. English is the predominant native tongue and plays a central role in these societies. The outer circle consists of the second diaspora out of the UK where English is typically one of a number of official languages. English is generally not a mother tongue but may be nativized and used as lingua franca intra-nationally. It also plays a formal role in the government. Some of these countries are India, Singapore, Pakistan, and Kenya. The expanding circle consists of countries learning English for international communication such as Japan, Korea, Nepal, China, and Saudi Arabia.
English has little to no role in the life of its citizens and is not an official language.

Kirkpatrick identifies two advantages of the three-circle model over the ENL/ESL/EFL classification. First, the three-circle model recognizes the pluralism of Englishes in which native speaker Englishes are comprised of different varieties. Secondly, this model does not place one variety superior to another variety (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 28).

*Figure 3.1: Kachru’s three-circle model of World Englishes (Kachru, 1992, p. 356 as reproduced in Jenkins, 2009, p. 19)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The “Expanding Circle”</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>1,088,200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>50,273,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>175,904,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>4,512,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>122,620,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>42,593,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>18,004,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>12,972,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>19,813,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>285,796,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>8,878,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The “Outer Circle”</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>107,755,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>13,754,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>810,805,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>22,919,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>16,965,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>112,258,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>109,434,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>58,723,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>2,641,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>16,808,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>23,988,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>7,384,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The “Inner Circle”</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>245,800,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>57,008,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>25,880,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>16,470,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>3,366,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In spite of its advantages, Kachru’s model has its critics. Jenkins states that the model classifies varieties based on geography and history, not on how the language is used. It also suggests a uniform linguistic environment throughout each circle (Jenkins, 2009, pp. 20-21). For example, it is difficult to classify a country such as South Africa because some are native monolingual speakers of English, a feature closely affiliated with the inner circle, while others use English as a lingua franca for intra-national communication, a feature closely affiliated with the outer circle. Kirkpatrick alleges the model underestimates the role of English in the expanding circle. For instance, English is playing an increasing role in formal education in countries like China and Korea. In China alone, there are more people learning English than the combined populations of the US, Canada, Australia, and the UK (Kirkpatrick, 2007, pp. 29-30). Another critique is that the model creates an unintended hierarchy by placing native English in the inner circle and thus perpetuates its hegemony. However, Kachru attributes this claim to a misinterpretation of the model (Park J. S.-Y., 2009b, p. 392).

As belonging to the expanding circle, English in Korea is predominantly used as a lingua franca for international communication. In this regard, it is ironic how much value Koreans place on the American model. However, the literature regarding formation of Englishes sheds some light. Kachru states there are three stages of development in the formation of an English variety (Kachru, 1992b, p. 56 as cited in Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 31).

1. **Non-recognition** – Within this early stage, the speakers of a localized variety are prejudiced against it and seek an imported (exonormative) model, typically from native speaking countries such as the US or the UK.

2. **Co-existence of local and imported varieties** – In this stage, the local and imported varieties are commonly used, however, the imported variety is still viewed as superior.
3. Recognition – The local variety becomes accepted as the norm (endonormative) and is the preferred model to teach.

Within this framework, Korea is within the first stage of development. This model assumes that English is widely used within the society, and hence may not accurately represent the expanding circle. However, prejudice against a Korean variety of English is prevalent and is reflected in the fear of the Korean language influence on English development as previously discussed.

The main reasons for choosing an exonormative over an endonormative model are three fold: first, native speaker models have a sense of legitimacy while local models do not; second, there is a lack of codification and standards of local models; third, native speaker models contain a plethora of readily available teaching and testing materials (Kirkpatrick, 2007, pp. 184-185).

3.2 Gatekeeping – Who is in control?

Exonormative models can perpetuate discrimination and hinder codification\(^1\) of local varieties through gatekeeping. Jenkins defines gatekeeping as “… informed by language ideology in that the gatekeepers of English (government institutions, examination boards, universities, publishers, the British Council, English Only and the like) in the main grant access to decision-making only to those whose orientation to English they approve of” (Jenkins, 2007, p. 239).

Gatekeeping benefits native speaking teachers and the ESL publishing industry in that it is predominately Anglo-American centric. However, the disadvantages of exonormative models

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\(^1\) Codification refers to the documentation of a language variety through publications such as dictionaries and grammar books.
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are far reaching as described by Kirkpatrick. They discriminate against teachers who cannot conform to these models or who lack the stereotypical physical appearance of an “English native speaker”. They have a negative impact on local teachers’ self-confidence, promote the hiring of inadequately trained NETs, instill a fear of an encroachment of NS cultural values, and promote a monolinguial teaching and learning environment (Kirkpatrick, 2007, pp. 184-189).

3.2.1 Materials – Or lack there of

In Korea, the vast amounts of teaching materials available and used are those from major American and British publishing firms written for the global context. They require a great deal of adaptation in order to make them relevant to Korea. These texts are filled with prescriptive grammar rules and pronunciation lessons based on idealized NS models, western cultural biases, along with conversation strategies and vocabulary lessons rooted in corpuses stemming from inner circle varieties.

For example, *Touchstone Full Contact*, a popular series published by Cambridge University Press, dedicates a section in each unit for conversation strategies. One of their strategies, “Describing individual habits”, is intended for students to practice the adverb “always” such as “He’s always working” to “talk about things people do a lot or more than is usual” and “at least” such as “Well, at least he’s not always throwing wild parties” to “point out the positive side of a situation.” These forms are clearly based on corpus linguistics from the inner circle as indicated in a side note “In conversation… **At least** is one of the top 500 words and expressions.” (McCarthy, McCarten, & Sandiford, 2008, pp. 6-7).

It is a stretch to consider the above example a conversation strategy. Conversation strategies can be classified within strategic competence, one of four competencies within Canal
and Swain’s communicative competence framework, and is defined by Hadley as:

*Strategic competence*, the final component of the framework, involves the use of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies to compensate for gaps in that language user’s knowledge of the code or for a breakdown in communication because of performance factors. Canale (1983a, 1983b) adds that strategic competence can also be used to enhance the rhetorical effectiveness of communication. This component is qualitatively different from the other three in that it emphasizes the use of effective strategies in negotiating meaning. Students at lower levels of proficiency can benefit from learning effective communication strategies such as paraphrasing through circumlocution or approximations, using gestures, and asking others to repeat or to speak more slowly (Hadley, 2001, pp. 6-7).

The “conversation strategy” would be more accurately classified as a grammar activity dealing with adverbs and lexical items. More importantly, these forms do little in helping students to communicate in a lingua franca environment.

There are some ESL textbooks published in Korea by Korean publishers. Many are authored by native speakers, who have lived and taught in Korea for many years, but are nonetheless influenced by an etic (or outsiders’) perspective of the culture that carries with it a western bias.

In the textbook titled *Small Group Discussion Topics for Korean Students*, a series of discussion questions follow articles relevant to Korean social, political, environmental, and cultural issues to help students develop communicative competence. While most questions are
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open, some are closed such as, “Why do many Koreans love imported goods so much? Why are they willing to pay more for an item that is made in foreign country rather than buy a similar item that was made in Korea? Tell why you think so” (Martire, 2008, p. 120). These types of questions may unintentionally perpetuate biases and stereotypes held by the author and editor. This is what Kathleen Graves calls “the hidden curriculum of textbooks” where “Textbooks represent a view of language, learning, and social context held by authors and editors” (Graves, 2000, p. 200).

On the other hand, recent English textbooks used in the public schools are authored and published by Koreans and are intended to help local teachers to teach English through communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches. In the elementary school textbooks, Korean folktales are the basis of many activities, such as role-plays, making them more culturally relevant.

3.2.2 Standardized Testing

Gatekeeping is also perpetuated through language testing such as TOEFL and IELTS, where there is too much comparison against NS norms, especially in more advanced levels of these tests. Not enough attention is placed on accommodation, such as asking for clarification, checking comprehension, and rephrasing, which is critical to overcome breakdowns in communication. Through washback, these tests also influence teaching with respect to NS norms (Jenkins, 2007).

As mentioned in the earlier section, Korea is a test taking culture and places great weight on their results. Standardized English tests such as TOEIC, TOEFL, and IELTS are important for Koreans to build their “spec”, which is Konglish (a type of loanword from English to
Korean) for specification. University students commonly use spec to refer to non-core items used to increase the appeal of their resumes (test scores, Microsoft Office certification, volunteer work, etc.).

In Korea’s highly competitive job-hunting market, it is common to hear of a thousand applicants applying for one job. Hence, a high score on an English test may make the difference between whether or not a resume is viewed. University students often retake these tests a number of times in a desperate effort to boost their score. This has created an industry of private institutes and books catering to help students’ test performance. This is one of the few areas where local teachers are favored over NETs because of their insight in test taking.

Jenkins states that gatekeeping becomes a source of linguistic insecurity by favoring NETs over local teachers and having local teachers feel linguistically inadequate because they measure themselves by the yardstick of an idealized NS model. The insecurities make both NETs and local teachers uncomfortable with changing a curriculum from something that they have become accustomed to. She states that teachers should be involved in the process of changing the curriculum to make it more ELF friendly so they can view it positively. She also notes how uninformed many native English teachers are towards their host country’s educational culture, in which they hope it changes more towards Western pedagogical approaches (Jenkins, 2007).

3.2.3 SLA Research

From Jenkins’s perspective, another less obvious “gatekeeper” is founded in what she terms as “mainstream SLA research” (Jenkins, 2007), which has been predominately performed in monolingual NS environments. She uses Selinker’s interlanguage theory to illustrate her point
by stating that terms such as interlanguage and fossilization provide fuel to justify the
gatekeepers’ perspectives, because the target is a NS variety, and anything less is deficient. She
also attributes this as one of the biggest hurdles to codifying Asian varieties of English (Jenkins,
2009, p. 92).

In an attempt to challenge the hegemony of English, researchers such as Jenkins and
Seidlhofer are engaged in what Park refers to as “the ELF research project.” The assumptions
behind this are that ELF can be treated as a distinct community and language variety and that
codification is necessary to validate Englishes in the periphery. Much of Jenkins’ work is based
on corpora of ELF text that has been carefully selected to contain minimal to no interactions with
native speakers. This is because she, along with other researchers, believes that in a pure ELF
environment, where the goal is mutual intelligibility for accomplishing a practical task such as an
exchange of information, native speaker formulaic structures such as idiomatic expressions are
ineffective and non-existent. Therefore the presence of native speakers may “contaminate” ELF
corpora. Through this research, Jenkins has identified a “Lingua Franca Core” which constitutes
phonological and grammatical features that are essential for communication in an ELF
environment (Park & Wee, 2011).

A number of concerns have been raised regarding this direction of research. Firstly, it
assumes the existence of an ELF speech community that conforms to a unified variety. Critics
contend that ELF is not a speech community but interactional situations of NNS speakers of
disparate L1 and cultural backgrounds. Secondly, creating ELF prescriptive norms may
ironically lead to a new type of dogma that could stymie the diverse varieties that it claims to
embrace. Thirdly, it inadvertently creates a dichotomy between NS and NNS by viewing the
presence of native speakers in ELF research as “contamination”. Fourthly, by attempting to
empower non-native varieties through codification, it may unintentionally have the opposite
effect by underpreparing these speakers. Lastly, researchers engaged in codifying core lingua
franca features stress the importance of using “expert speakers” as a source of data, which often
constitutes “educated” and “fluent” L2 speakers. In an attempt to weaken the hegemony of
native varieties, a class dichotomy may ensue (Park & Wee, 2011).

In order to address these concerns, researchers such as Joseph Park and Lionel Wee
propose a reconceptualization of ELF from a monolithic language variety to pragmatics (how
language is used) in the ELF context in which they term as a practice-based perspective. They
believe in ELF as any activity-type occurring within linguistic markets influenced by language
ideologies born out of social and political environments. This frees the need for an ELF
community and emphasizes linguistic and cultural accommodation (Park & Wee, 2011).

Although the field of World Englishes is full of competing perspectives, such as viewing
ELF as a variety versus an activity type, most of these researchers would agree with Jenkins’
argument that ELF speakers “can no longer be assumed to be deficient where their English use
departs from ENL” and “the ability to accommodate interlocutors with other first languages than
one’s own . . . is a far more important skill than the ability to imitate the English of a native

The controversy of non-native Englishes as being a deficit or a difference was
highlighted in the Kachru-Quirk debate from the early 1990s (Jenkins, 2009, pp. 67-70). Quirk
asserts that the acceptance of world varieties by what he terms as “liberation linguistics” is
lowering the standard of English, and thus denies learners of their full career and social
opportunities available only through Standardized English. He states that native languages are
internalized vastly differently than second languages. Thus, he contends that to ensure
international communication, Standard English should be enforced in education (Quirk, 1990).

Kachru relates Quirk’s position with what he terms as “deficit linguistics” (Kachru, 1991). He goes on to argue that Quirk’s position is based on a number of “false assumptions about the users and uses of English” such as “in the Outer and Expanding circles … English is essentially learnt to interact with the native speakers of the language” and “that English is essentially learnt as a tool to understand and teach the American or British cultural values” (Kachru, 1991, p. 219). Kachru concludes by stating that “‘deficit linguistics’ in one context may actually be a matter of ‘difference’ which is based on vital sociolinguistic realities of identity, creativity and linguistic and cultural contact” (Kachru, 1991, p. 221).

Mesthrie and Bhatt state that the Kachru-Quirk dichotomy represents an academic polarization wherein English in the real world lies somewhere in between. They conclude that “Ultimately the Kachru-Quirk controversy can only be resolved outside the ivory tower, by the attitudes and actions of parents, pupils, teachers, administrators and the like. Linguistic hegemony power can be contested, but it is seldom dismantled by reason alone” (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008 as cited in Jenkins, 2009, p. 70). Jenkins questions her readers in a similar vein:

Kachru (1992: 361) considers that the only solution to the current inappropriateness of English language teaching and testing around the world is for a ‘paradigm shift’ in which, for example, a clear distinction is made between the use of English in monolingual and multilingual societies, there is mutual exposure to the major native and non-native varieties of English, and while one variety may be the focus of teaching, emphasis is given to the ‘awareness and functional validity’ of the others. Think about the ways in which such a paradigm shift could be implemented, for example, how could awareness of
Both quotations embody the purpose of my study. As an educator outside of the ivory tower, I want to determine what impact teachers can have on the language attitudes of their students by raising their awareness of non-native English varieties in the classroom.
4 Previous Studies

4.1 Language attitudinal studies in the inner circle – A historical perspective

Language attitudinal studies can be divided into two groups: direct methods and indirect methods. Direct methods involve measuring language attitudes by having participants fill out a language attitude survey or questionnaire. These methods are considered direct because participants are aware of the purpose of the study due to the direct nature of the questions. An example of such a question could be, “Do you think British accented English is more elegant than Canadian accented English?” In contrast, indirect methods elicit participants’ language attitudes in a manner in which they may be unaware. For example, participants listen to an audio recording of various speakers and grade different aspects of the speech, usually on stereotypical traits such as intelligence and friendliness. This method is considered more indirect because it “is less sensitive to reflection and social desirability biases than are those reported in a questionnaire” (Cargile, Giles, Ryan, & Bradac, 1994, p. 213).

The earliest and most pivotal method of indirect measurements is Lambert’s 1960 study (Cargile, Giles, Ryan, & Bradac, 1994). In order to measure language attitudes of French and English speaking Canadians towards their speech communities, Lambert developed the matched guise test (MGT) by recording four bilinguals reading a prose in French, and then in English while pretending to be an entirely new individual. Participants listened to alternating French and English recordings with sufficient intervals in between while being unaware that they were actually listening to the same person twice. They then rated the recordings based on 14 stereotypical traits such as height, intelligence, ambition, and likability. The data was statistically analyzed. Both French and English participants rated the English recordings higher.
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More surprisingly, the French participants gave higher ratings to the English recordings than the French recordings on many traits (Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner, & Fillenbaum, 1960).

Although the matched guise test (MGT) has been touted as a “rigorous and elegant method for eliciting apparently private attitudes” (Giles, Billings, 2004, as cited in Reddington, 2008, p. 3), because it controls many variables such as voice and pitch, it has been criticized for viewing language attitudes simply as a response to stimuli (Cargile, Giles, Ryan, & Bradac, 1994).

Reddington provides a detailed review of language attitude research of native speakers towards native and non-native varieties starting from Lambert’s famous study (Reddington, 2008). She refers to research from the late nineties that demonstrate the limitations of the MGT. In Cargile and Giles’s 1997 study, they showed how not only the speech stimulus but also the context of the speech could affect attitude measurements. They subjected American undergraduate students to recordings of a single speaker reading passages with standard American and Japanese accented English. One passage was neutral while the other was aggressive towards American foreign policy. Participants with high level of solidarity tended to downgrade the Japanese accented speech only when the message was aggressive.

Reddington also reviewed Cargile’s 1997 study that shows how the speaker’s role identity affects attitudes. Recordings of “job interviews” read with American and Chinese accented English were played to one group of participants and were evaluated based on traits related to status and job suitability. There appeared to be no discernable difference in the ratings of both recorded accents. The study was repeated with another group of participants (same recordings and evaluation traits). This time they were told that the speech clips were English teachers reading students’ work. In this context, the Chinese accented recordings were evaluated
more negatively than the first (Reddington, 2008).

Other concerns towards the MGT are “requirement for a single speaker to produce different accents can lead to artificial-sounding speech samples” (Nesdale & Rooney, 1996, as cited in Reddington, 2008, p. 7) and “participants may not always be fooled by the ‘guise’ and may recognize that there is only one speaker” (Lindemann, 2003, as cited in Reddington, 2008, p. 7-8).

The verbal guise test (VGT) is nearly identical the MGT, except it relaxes the need of using a multilingual speaker to record two or more different accents under study. For example, if a researcher wants to measure participants’ attitudes towards Chinese, American, and Korean accented English, the MGT requires that he/she use one speaker to record all three accents as a means to keep voice characteristics consistent for all recorded languages. In contrast, the VGT allows for three different speakers to make the three different speech samples, thus resulting in recordings that sound more natural (Reddington, 2008). For this reason, the VGT is now more commonly used than the MGT.

The matched and verbal guise tests may have undue consequences in attempting to indirectly elicit language attitudes by encouraging “some raters to exhibit stereotyping behavior, while drawing resistance from others who are unwilling to make judgments based on a person’s voice (p 70)” (Munro, Derwing, and Sato, 2006 as cited in Reddington, 2008, pp. 15-16). This stresses the importance of not over relying on one source of measurement, since each method has its limitations and drawbacks.

4.2 Language Attitude Studies in the Expanding Circle

Most studies regarding Korean attitudes towards World Englishes involve triangulating
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Indirect language attitude measurements such as the verbal guise test with a more direct approach such as questionnaire and/or interviews (Kim J.; 2011; Kim Y., 2007; Jung, 2005; Breaux, 2011). Gibb performed the earliest studies of Korean attitudes towards English varieties in the late nineties (Kim Y., 2007). He employed direct methods for measuring attitudes such as questionnaires and interviews with one study in 1997 using university students in Seoul. In 1999 he compared attitudes of Korean university students with that of professionals studying at a language institute. He focused on three native varieties (American, British, and Australian) and his results were significantly favorable towards American English.

Young Soo Kim identified Shim as the earliest to employ a verbal guise test to Korean university students in 1995 (Kim Y., 2007). The results overwhelmingly favored American English. Shim did two follow up surveys using different respondents, one in 1997, which showed no change, and one in 1998, which show a growing acceptance towards non-native varieties of English. Shim stated that this was “evidence of changes in Koreans’ attitudes towards varieties of English” (Shim, 2002 as cited in Kim Y., 2007, p. 9); however Kim countered her claim because in her last study, “the respondents were TESOL graduate students who were already aware of varieties of English” (Kim Y., 2007, p. 9).

Young Soo Kim also identified Jung and Yook as having employed the verbal guise test in their research. Both studies involved Korean university students’ attitudes towards inner circle varieties of English. However, Jung also used pre-university students for comparative purposes. Their results differed. Jung found that both Korean pre-university and university students showed a strong preference for American English (Jung, 2005). On the other hand, Yoon’s results were mixed. Her participants favored British English traits related to status and competence, but they felt it was more important to learn American English (Kim Y., 2007, p. 9).
One limitation that Young Soo Kim identified in reviewing past studies was that most of the work was performed on university students, thus they were more likely to be affected by the attitudes of their parents. To address this, he studied 45 Korean working adults at a newspaper company. His three research questions related to whether or not his participants had a preference towards a specific variety, if they were accepting of non-native varieties, and of their awareness of different varieties of English. He focused on six varieties, two from each of Kachru’s circles: American and British, Hong Kong and Indian, and Korean-accented and Taiwanese accented English. Young Soo Kim employed a verbal guise test using a semantic differential scale of nine mainly stereotypical traits (intelligent, confident, fluent, clear, pleasant, familiar, gentle, trustworthy, and friendly). Participants guessed the varieties they heard and indicated whether or not they were suitable models of English. He triangulated the verbal guise test with a questionnaire regarding statements about learning goals along with attitudes towards NS and NNS models on a 7-point Likert scale. Young Soo Kim statistically analyzed the data and concluded that his participants did not discriminate between native and non-native varieties of English but interpreted their preference for learning American English as a model, not as a norm to adhere to. He also concluded that his participants were accepting of non-native varieties. Conversely, they had low awareness because they had difficulty identifying different varieties of English (Kim Y., 2007).

Breaux and JuHyun Kim performed further research using the verbal guise test (Breaux, 2011; Kim J., 2011). Breaux measured 50 Korean university students’ attitudes towards varieties of English including American, British, outer circle, and expanding circle variations. His

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2 A Likert scale is a common rating system used in questionnaires for behavioral sciences. A respondent circles a number on scale to indicate his/her level of agreement to a statement. An example of a 4-point Likert scale is: 1 – Strongly Disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Agree, and 4 – Strongly Agree.
students had a preference for inner circle varieties and thus differed from Young Soo Kim’s 2007 study of working adults. Breaux challenged the notion of a changing attitude in Korea towards English varieties and attributes it to a failure of World Englishes and ELF education. What Breaux considered a failure may be more accurately viewed as a lack of World Englishes and ELF education since it is largely non-existent in Korea. Also, as Young Soo Kim pointed out, students’ attitudes may be more influenced by their parents, and hence possibly accounting for the differences in his and Breaux’s study.

JuHyun Kim followed a similar methodology as Young Soo Kim’s 2007 study except she measured the attitudes of 194 high school students in Seoul. She concluded that her participants had little exposure to varieties outside American English and showed a preference for American English. Her students were aware of countries that use English as a native language but could not accurately identify dialects except for Korean accented English (Kim J., 2011).

Reddington describes research of NS language attitude studies going “beyond the matched-guise and verbal-guise techniques and speaker evaluation scales” (Reddington, 2008, p. 14) with Derwing et al.’s 2002 study of how accent and cross cultural training impacts comprehension and attitudes towards accented speech. Their study consisted of 65 Canadian social workers divided into two groups. The study group received training and the control group did not. Comprehension and attitudes were measured pre and post training through listening comprehension tests and questionnaires respectively. Both groups improved in listening comprehension but the study group exhibited the greatest gains in comprehension and confidence towards communicating with accented speakers. They also found “a strong positive effect on empathy toward and willingness to interact with NNSs” (Derwing et al., 2002, pp. 255-257, as cited in Reddington, 2008, p. 14).
Several studies have followed suit in the expanding circle (Jin, 2005; Choi, 2007). Jin measured Chinese university students’ attitudes towards non-native varieties of English before and after one lecture on World Englishes through a pre and post lecture questionnaire. He measured an increased tolerance towards Chinese English along with an increased favorability towards retaining a Chinese accent. He also measured a decreased sense of a native speaker norm such as British or American English as being the sole authority of English. However, this had no discernable effect in their preferences towards NS teachers.

Choi surveyed two groups of Korean students. The first group consisted of students enrolled in a two-year college program who were not familiar with World Englishes. The second group consisted of students enrolled in a four-year university program who had completed a course in World Englishes. She found that the college students had a greater preference towards American and British English while the university students had a greater tolerance towards non-native varieties. In contrast, college students who were less proficient in English preferred NNS teachers and university students who were more proficient preferred NS teachers. Similarly to Jin, Choi concluded that while an increased awareness towards World Englishes had a positive effect on attitudes towards non-native varieties, this did not influence preferences for NS or NNS teachers.

In an attempt to go beyond measuring snapshots of language attitudes and to determine what impact we as educators can have in raising our students’ awareness towards ELF, my research question is as follows: How does raising awareness of English as a lingua franca affect Korean university students’ attitudes towards World Englishes?

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3 Some researchers make a distinction between “China English” and “Chinese English”. The former refers to a standardized version of English in China while the latter refers to an incomprehensible English laden with L1 interference (Jin, 2005). I do not share this view since I believe it perpetuates unnecessary dichotomies.
5 Methodology

5.1 Informant Demographics

The study to determine the effects of raising awareness of English as a lingua franca on language attitudes towards World Englishes was performed on 125 university students enrolled in Practical English Level 1 classes, all of which were taught by me. Classes were heterogeneous in year (freshman to senior), gender, and major. There were 80 male and 45 female participants. The average age of respondents was 22 years old. The majority of students were Korean, along with three Chinese and one French student. The participants had studied English for an average of 9.5 years. They rated their English proficiency as 47% beginner, 48% intermediate, and 5% advanced. Twenty-four participants had studied English in a foreign country for an average of 3 years (See Figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1: Studying English abroad – Students and their host countries
5.2 World Englishes classes

The participants experienced a two-week period of English classes (totaling 6 contact hours) with an emphasis on World Englishes (See Appendix A). The lessons focused on reading, speaking, listening, and pronunciation. The reading and discussion lesson was based on an article from *The Observer* (Caulkin, 2005) and was chosen for two reasons. First, the article described the disadvantages of inner circle countries remaining monolingual. Therefore, I thought it could stimulate students to discuss why they are learning English and to think about whether or not they are advantaged as multilinguals. Second, the article referred to Korean Airlines choosing a French supplier over a British supplier of flight simulators due to the French being better able to accommodate in a lingua franca environment. I surmised that students would relate more to the article since it mentioned a South Korean company, and that they would also think about the importance of accommodation. In order to minimize my influence on participants’ discussions and thinking, the students generated their own discussion questions for the article. My role was as a facilitator by providing linguistic support upon request. Before these classes, students had practiced article discussions through activities from Pro Lingua’s *Discussion Strategies* textbook (Kehe & Kehe, 2001).

Listening lessons were based on authentic recordings of interviews of global varieties of Englishes taken from the Internet or CDs. The speakers of these varieties were Japanese, Iranian, Chinese, British, and Korean. To make the listening clips more accessible to beginner students, all recordings were converted to mp3 files and subsequently slowed down while maintaining pitch. I used software called the *Amazing Slow Downer OS X 3.4.1* to achieve this. Listening was recursive and students collaborated in small groups to answer main idea and detail questions.
and guess the speakers’ provenances.

One pronunciation lesson was based on minimal pairs of /v/ and /w/ phonemes since these sounds are difficult for many Korean speakers to hear and articulate (Lee J.-A., 2001), and are important for mutual comprehensibility in an English lingua franca environment (Jenkins 2002a, pp. 98-99, as cited in Jindapitak, 2010).

Students recycled conversation strategies throughout all lessons such as asking comprehension check questions and clarification questions to encourage accommodation. All lesson plans, along with reflections, are shown in Appendix A.

5.3 Instruments of measurement

As Edwards contends, “‘the most useful assessment of language attitudes would be one based upon some eclectic approach’ because each research instrument has merits and demerits.” (Edwards, 1982, p. 20 as cited in Kim Y., 2007, p. 8). Therefore a verbal guise test coupled with a survey consisting of open and closed questions were chosen to directly and indirectly elicit language attitudes. Measurements were taken before and after the World Englishes classes.

5.3.1 Verbal Guise Test (Indirect Method)

I chose recordings of speakers of six varieties for the verbal guise test. Five speakers originated from varieties representing the top five trading partners of Korea as shown in Figure 5.2. The sixth speaker originated from a Korean variety of English.
From a pragmatic perspective, Koreans are likely to encounter speakers of the five varieties in their professional working lives. I also chose a speaker of Korean English since it could provide insight on how Koreans view themselves in the global context.

5.3.1.1 Speech source and validity:

The sources for the speech samples were based on recordings of speakers reading a politically neutral text encompassing a wide range of English phonemes taken from the University of Kansas’s International Dialect of English Archive (IDEA).
For non-native samples, I chose those that were accented in which I deemed were not native, or native like. American and British samples represented Standard American and Received Pronunciation (RP) respectively. All samples had similar fluency and quality of recording. All decisions on selecting the samples were based on my discretion. Speaker profiles are shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Profiles of speakers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Hometown/province</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Sichuan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>British</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Shiki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Saudi Arabian</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>20’s</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>American</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Liberty, Kansas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.3.1.2 Construct Validity:

One of the main threats to validity in this type of study is verifying the authenticity of each sample in question. Some studies address construct validity by having three or more speakers of each variety of speech samples gauge whether or not the samples are representative, accent wise, of the speakers of these varieties (Jindapitak, 2010; Kim Y., 2007). I think this is unnecessary in my study for three reasons. First, what constitutes a representative accent of a speaker of a non-native variety of English? One’s linguistic history and languages in contact are but a few of many influential factors. For example, a Korean who has lived in a native speaking
country for a number of years would have a different accent than if they learned English in a monolingual environment in Korea. Their accent would likely sound more native like, which in itself is difficult to define since native accents are extremely diverse. However, an accent that is perceived more native like would probably garnish a more favorable perception than one that is heavily Korean accented. This poses a threat to validity; however, it is beyond the scope of this study to investigate perceptions regarding degrees of variability within a variety. My second argument is native and non-native speakers alike have difficulty identifying L1s of speakers in verbal guise tests whose varieties they are unfamiliar with (Reddington, 2008; Kim Y., 2007; Kim H., 2011; Jindapitak, 2010). At best, they are able to distinguish between native and non-native accents. Thirdly, what I am most concerned with is not an absolute measurement, but a differential measurement in attitude after incorporating awareness raising activities in World Englishes in a series of practical English classes. Thus, my construct satisfies the needs of this study.

5.3.1.3 Establishment of a bipolar scale:

My bipolar scale was based on past attitudinal studies pertaining to language varieties (Kim Y., 2007; Jung, 2005). The adjectives I chose can be classified under status (intelligent, confident, advantageous for getting a job), solidarity (friendly, trustworthy, familiar) and quality (fluent, comprehensible) (Zahn, 1985 as cited in Reddington, 2008; Sachiro, 2009). They can also be classified as stereotypical traits (intelligent, confident, advantageous for getting a job, friendly, and trustworthy) and non-stereotypical traits (comprehensible, fluent, and familiar). Similar to Kim’s study, participants also judged the speech sample as a good or bad model of English along with guessing the country of origin of the speaker.
Table 5.2: The bi-polar scale for the verbal guise test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unintelligent</td>
<td>Unintelligent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not comprehensible</td>
<td>Intelligent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Untrustworthy</td>
<td>Trustworthy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unconfident</td>
<td>Confident</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfriendly</td>
<td>Friendly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disadvantageous</td>
<td>Advantageous</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(for job seeking)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfamiliar</td>
<td>Familiar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not fluent</td>
<td>Fluent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad model of</td>
<td>Good model of</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I chose a rating scale of 1 to 6 without an intermediary number so that the participants were forced to choose a positive or negative rating.

5.3.2 Questionnaire (Direct method)

The questionnaire was divided into four parts. The first part consisted of demographics questions such as age, nationality, sex, class number, and last three digits of student numbers. This information was used to match the participants’ responses in the first and second administration of the questionnaire.

The second part of the questionnaire, titled Accent Impression, contained the bi-polar
scale rating for the verbal guise test.

Language history was collected in the third part with students answering questions such as how long they have studied English along with rating their English proficient as elementary, intermediate, or advanced.

The fourth part of the questionnaire was the World Englishes survey containing statements regarding language attitudes on a 6-point Likert scale to force a positive or negative selection. This survey was the direct means of eliciting language attitudes and was triangulated with the verbal guise test. The full questionnaire is shown in Appendix C.

5.4 Data collection:

The full questionnaire was supplied in Korean and English. To facilitate data collection, students completed the questionnaire through Survey Monkey, an online survey software and questionnaire tool. The survey was piloted by three bilingual Koreans to ensure the questionnaire’s wording, instructions, and Korean translations were clear, unambiguous, and accurate.

There was a minor translation error identified by one of the participants during the first administration of the questionnaire. Attention towards this error was brought to all participants and corrected for all subsequent administrations.

Students were told to complete the questionnaires individually. However, there was cross-referencing of some answers by some students, mainly to verify the spelling of country names.

Similar to other studies of this nature, the purpose of the questionnaire was withheld till after the completion of the final administering of the questionnaire as to not influence
participants’ responses (Jindapitak, 2010; Kim Y., 2007).

All 125 participants fully completed the verbal guise test. Eight students did no fully complete the World Englishes survey and were thus excluded from the direct attitudinal measurements.

5.5 Data analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to calculate the means and standard deviations. A two tailed t test for a repeated measures design was performed to determine which changes in pre and post measurements were statistically significant, along with using $r^2$ to determine the effect size of the measurements (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007). All calculations were performed on Apple Numbers ’09 spreadsheet, version 2.2.
6 Analysis and Results

This chapter summarizes the data collected from the pre and post verbal guise tests and World Englishes questionnaires. Much of the data is represented in bar graphs to help in visualizing the results.

Data was collected twice throughout the study, once before a two-week series of classes dedicated to raising awareness of World Englishes and ELF, and once following these classes. “Pre” is used to indicate measurements taken before the awareness raising classes. “Post” is used to denote measurements taken after these classes.

6.1 The Verbal Guise Test

This section deals with an analysis of the data collected during pre and post verbal guise tests, which corresponds to Part II – Accent Impression of the questionnaire (See Appendix A). It concludes with analyzing the differences between both tests to address indirect attitudinal measurements for my research question: How does raising awareness of English as a lingua franca affect Korean university students’ attitudes towards World Englishes?

6.1.1 Overall Mean (Average) Ratings of Six Speakers – Pre-VGT

Descriptive statistics for the mean of the overall ratings of the six speakers are shown graphically in Figure 6.1. Figure 6.2 shows the percentage of correct guesses for the country of origin of all speakers.
As shown in Figure 6.1, the American speaker had an overwhelmingly higher mean rating than all other speakers for all traits combined. The error bars on the graph represent standard deviations from their respective means (½ standard deviation above and below the mean). The difference in the American rating with respect to all other speakers is likely statistically significant because its mean and standard deviation clearly do not overlap with other speaker ratings. In other words, the cause of difference is unlikely due by natural variation.

Note 1: n=125 (where n represents the number of participants)

---

4 I cannot claim any differences in means to be statistically significant without doing a complex statistical analysis such as an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). I attempted to do this; however, my data violated a critical assumption (the assumption of sphericity) in which the model is based. Therefore, I am making inferences that are suitable for the purpose of this study.
(chance) within the data. Although the mean overall rating of the Saudi speaker is higher than the British speaker, it is likely not significantly different since their error bars extensively overlap. By looking only at the means, favorable ratings from highest to lowest are American, Saudi, British, Korean, Chinese, and Japanese.

*Figure 6.2: Correct Guesses of Speakers’ Provenance – Pre-VGT*

As shown in Figure 6.2, respondents most successfully guessed the American speaker’s provenance. I included guesses of Canada among this total since the differences between standard American and Canadian English are too subtle to detect. What is striking is that although participants gave the Saudi speaker the second most favorable rating (see Figure 6.1),
they were least able to identify the country of origin. From the raw data, most guesses were either inner circle countries such as USA, Canada, the UK, and Australia, or European countries such as Germany, France, the Netherlands, Italy, Sweden, and Denmark. This point is further addressed in section 7.1.1.

6.1.2 Mean of Individual Traits – Pre-VGT

Figures 6.3 and 6.4 illustrate the means of individual traits grouped in terms of stereotypical and non-stereotypical traits respectively.
The ratings for the stereotypical traits (see Figure 6.3) are similar to the overall mean ratings as shown in Figure 6.1, with a few differences. For confidence, the Chinese speaker is rated second highest. For friendliness, the British speaker is rated the fifth highest.

No correlation is detected in the stereotypical traits.
The ratings for the non-stereotypical traits (see Figure 6.4) are similar to the overall mean ratings as shown in Figure 6.1, with a few differences. For comprehensibility, the Korean speaker is rated second highest and the Chinese speaker has the lowest rating. For fluency, the British speaker is rated the second highest.
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A correlation is found in the non-stereotypical traits. Both good model and familiar are rated similarly for each speaker. What is striking is the relationship between comprehensible, fluent, and good model. Good model tends to be similar to the lowest of comprehensible and fluent ratings. In Figure 6.4, the ratings for all non-stereotypical traits for the Chinese, Japanese, Saudi, and American are similar. However, in the British rating, fluency was ranked notably higher than comprehensibility. Thus, good model was ranked similar to comprehensibility. In the Korean rating, comprehensibility was ranked notably higher than fluency. Thus, good model was ranked similar to fluency. The implications of this pattern is discussed in Section 7.1.2

6.1.3 Overall Mean (Average) Ratings of Six Speakers – Post-VGT

Descriptive statistics for the mean of the overall ratings of the six speakers are shown graphically in Figure 6.5. Figure 6.6 shows the percentage of correct guesses for the country of origin of all speakers. Figures 6.7 and 6.8 illustrate the means of individual traits grouped in terms of stereotypical and non-stereotypical traits respectively.
Figure 6.5: Overall mean ratings of six speakers – Post-VGT

Note 1: n=125 (where n represents the number of participants)

The overall mean ratings in the post-VGT are similar to that of the pre-VGT (see Figures 6.1 and 6.5). Once again, the rating of the American speaker seems statistically greater than all other speakers. It is clear from this bar graph that there is no statistical difference in the ratings of the British and Saudi speaker.
The correct guesses of the speakers’ provenance is similar to the pre-VGT (see Figures 6.2 and 6.6). By comparing both charts, there is a modest increase in correct guesses for the Chinese speaker by 1%. However, the British, Japanese, and Korean speakers all experienced a sizeable increase in correct guesses by 16%, 8%, and 16% respectively. The American speaker experienced a slight decrease in correct guesses by 4%. Similar to the pre-VGT, there were no correct guesses for the Saudi speaker.
6.1.4 Mean of Individual Traits – Post-VGT

Figure 6.7: Mean of Stereotypical Traits – Post-VGT

Note 1: n=125 (where n represents the number of participants)

The ratings for the stereotypical traits (see Figure 6.7) are similar to the overall mean ratings as shown in Figure 6.5, with a few differences. For confidence, the Chinese speaker is rated second highest and the Korean speaker is rated the same as the British and Saudi speakers.
For friendliness, the Korean speaker is rated the second highest.

Similar to the pre-VGT, no correlation is detected in the stereotypical traits.

Figure 6.8: Mean of Non-Stereotypical Traits – Post-VGT

Note 1: n=125 (where n represents the number of participants)

The ratings for the non-stereotypical traits (see Figure 6.8) are similar to the overall mean
ratings as shown in Figure 6.5, with a few differences. For comprehensibility, the Korean speaker is rated second highest. For fluency, the British speaker is rated notably higher than the Saudi speaker.

The correlation in the non-stereotypical traits found in the pre-VGT is also present here. The implications of this pattern is discussed in section 7.1.2

### 6.1.5 Statistical Difference in Attitude Change (Post versus Pre)

A two tailed t test for repeated measures was performed to determine if the differences between the pre and post measurements of VGTs for the overall mean ratings of all nine traits were statistically significant.

**Table 6.1: Two Tailed t Test Analysis of Post and Pre VGTs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>r²</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>0.508</td>
<td>0.905</td>
<td>6.346</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>Statistically significant (p&lt;.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>0.256</td>
<td>0.854</td>
<td>3.392</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>Statistically significant (p&lt;.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.734</td>
<td>2.577</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>Statistically significant (p&lt;.05)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.821</td>
<td>0.943</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Not statistical significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.861</td>
<td>4.931</td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>Statistically significant (p&lt;.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>-0.139</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>-2.203</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>Statistically significant (p&lt;.05)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 6.1, an increase in the overall mean ratings of Chinese, British, Japanese, and Korean speakers were shown to be statistically significant. The r² values indicate that the awareness raising classes had a medium effect on the ratings of the Chinese and Korean speakers, and a small effect on the ratings of the British and Japanese speakers. The difference
was not statistically significant for the Saudi speaker. In contrast, a decrease in ratings for the American speaker was found to be statistically significant by a small effect due to the awareness raising classes. See Appendix B for guidance in reading and interpreting Table 6.1.

6.2 The World Englishes Survey

This section deals with an analysis of the data collected in pre and post surveys, which corresponds to Part IV – World Englishes of the questionnaire (See Appendix C). This section concludes with analyzing the differences between both surveys to address direct attitudinal measurements for my research question: How does raising awareness of English as a lingua franca affect Korean university students’ attitudes towards World Englishes?

6.2.1 Ratings for statements with a 6 point Likert scale – Pre-Survey

Table 6.2: Mean Ratings of World Englishes Statements – Pre-Survey (N=117)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If English is used differently from American or British English, it must be wrong.</td>
<td>2.684</td>
<td>1.215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel ashamed of my Korean (or Chinese or French) accent and try to get rid of it when I speak English.</td>
<td>3.667</td>
<td>1.320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. English is important to enter a good school and to get a good job.</td>
<td>5.239</td>
<td>0.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I am learning English to communicate with native speakers of English.</td>
<td>4.410</td>
<td>1.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am learning English to communicate with non-native speakers of English.</td>
<td>3.556</td>
<td>1.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I feel nervous when I speak to native speakers in English.</td>
<td>4.402</td>
<td>1.371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I feel nervous when I speak to non-native speakers in English.</td>
<td>3.650</td>
<td>1.348</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Score: 1 – Strongly disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Slightly disagree, 4 – Slightly agree, 5 – Agree, 6 – Strongly agree)

The results in Table 6.2 illustrate the complex relationship my Korean students have with English. By rounding off the mean values to the nearest whole numbers, ratings that are 3.5 or
greater indicate agreement towards the statements while ratings less than 3.5 indicate
disagreement. Participants slightly disagreed with the ownership of English as being exclusive
to inner circle countries. They felt slightly ashamed of speaking with non-native accented
English. They agreed that English was important to them for both academic and career purposes. Although they expressed slight agreement in using English with native and non-native speakers, they expressed stronger agreement towards using English with native speakers. In a similar vein, participants expressed slight agreement in their anxieties in speaking with native and non-native speakers; however, they expressed stronger agreement towards being nervous communicating with native speakers.

6.2.2 Ratings for statements with a 6 point Likert scale – Post-Survey

Table 6.3: Mean Ratings of World Englishes Statements – Post-Survey (N=117)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.  If English is used differently from American or British English, it must be wrong.</td>
<td>2.675</td>
<td>1.312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.  I feel ashamed of my Korean (or Chinese or French) accent and try to get rid of it when I speak English.</td>
<td>3.658</td>
<td>1.261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.  English is important to enter a good school and to get a good job.</td>
<td>5.359</td>
<td>0.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.  I am learning English to communicate with native speakers of English.</td>
<td>4.436</td>
<td>0.941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.  I am learning English to communicate with non-native speakers of English.</td>
<td>4.179</td>
<td>1.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.  I feel nervous when I speak to native speakers in English.</td>
<td>4.214</td>
<td>1.351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.  I feel nervous when I speak to non-native speakers in English.</td>
<td>3.778</td>
<td>1.267</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Score: 1 – Strongly disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Slightly disagree, 4 – Slightly agree, 5 – Agree, 6 – Strongly agree)

The results and trends in Table 6.3 are similar to that taken during the pre-survey. What is of interest is to what degree the awareness raising classes had in their attitudes as measured in the questionnaires.
6.2.3 Statistical Difference in Attitude Change (Post versus Pre)

Table 6.4: Two Tailed t Test Analysis of Post and Pre World Englishes Surveys

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>r²</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Native Speaker model is the norm.</td>
<td>-0.009</td>
<td>1.316</td>
<td>-0.073</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>No statistical difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ashamed of non-native accent.</td>
<td>-0.009</td>
<td>1.441</td>
<td>-0.067</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>No statistical difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Importance of English (getting job, entering school)</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>1.627</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>No statistical difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Communicate with NS</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>0.995</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>No statistical difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Communicate with NNS</td>
<td>0.624</td>
<td>1.237</td>
<td>5.707</td>
<td>0.219</td>
<td>Statistically significant (p&lt;.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Anxiety communicating with NS</td>
<td>-0.188</td>
<td>0.900</td>
<td>-2.365</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>Statistically significant (p&lt;.05)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Anxiety communicating with NNS</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>1.221</td>
<td>1.187</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>No statistical difference</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$t(116), \alpha(.05) = \pm 1.98$  \hspace{1cm}  $t(116), \alpha(.01) = \pm 2.617$

As shown in Table 6.4, only two statements experienced differences in ratings that were statistically significant. The awareness raising classes had a medium effect in increasing students’ agreement towards using English to communicate with non-native speakers. These classes also had a small effect in reducing anxiety in communicating with native speakers. Refer to Appendix B for guidance in reading and interpreting the results in Table 6.4.
6.2.4 Teacher preferences – Pre and Post

As shown in Figure 6.9, there were no big differences between teacher preferences taken in pre and post surveys. Most participants indicated that their preference for native or non-native teachers depended on the circumstances. Some participants responded as such:

- It is better to learn standard language than dialect even Korean. I’d like to learn general pronunciation so that I could communicate with more people easily. If a non-native speak teacher has good pronunciation, it doesn’t matter.
- Verbal expressions and conversation with native speak teachers are preferred but in grammar and exams (TOIEC, TEPS) Korean teachers are preferred.
- I don't mind if a teacher is a native speaker or not. I just care about teaching ways of a teacher and teacher's passion.
- I could try to speak in English during the class with native teachers so it helps improving.
Korean teachers translate into Korean better.

• I have met many non-native teachers. They were good teachers. I don't care their accent and country. I care about their temperament as a teacher.

• If my English level is good enough to study with native teachers, that would be fine. Otherwise I'd feel uncomfortable.

The second largest choice was native teachers. Below are some participants’ responses:

• When I study with the native teacher I can learn about native accent and pronunciation.

• Native teacher makes students more relax and does not give any burden, and unlike non-native teacher, native teacher tries to communicate with students.

• I think that they teach more exactly and know about English and culture.

• (If I were taught by a non-native teacher) there will be lots of chance of speaking Korean (for me) in the class and it wouldn't helpful to my English learning.

• I want to get a job in America, and I just like a British accent.

Most of the responses favoring native teachers were due to favorability of native pronunciation.

A minority of respondents chose non-native teachers and these were some of their reasons:

• Non-native teachers can understand non-native students better.

• I think non-native teachers are easier to learn.

• I have a preference of Non-native teacher. Because non-native teacher is more understandable for me.

• I get nervous and feel strange with native teachers.
7 Discussions

A discussion ensues of both direct and indirect attitudinal measurements, along with study limitations.

7.1 The Verbal Guise Test

7.1.1 Overall ratings of all six traits

Participants overwhelmingly rated the American speaker as highest in the overall mean traits in pre and post VGTs (see Figures 6.1 and 6.5). This comes as no surprise since most Korean students are predominantly exposed to American English through pop culture such as mainstream Hollywood movies, American dramas, and pop music. Other sources of input originate from the classroom such as listening to American (or Canadian) NETs and being exposed to audio and video materials from ESL/EFL textbooks.

What is particularly striking is the Saudi speaker was rated comparable to that of the British speaker. Many studies involving university students showed favorability toward inner circle varieties (Breaux, 2011; Choi, 2007; Jindapitak, 2010; Kim J., 2011). Since Koreans have very little exposure to non-native English varieties, this seems to contradict a view that a sense of familiarity breeds acceptance, or, “the lack of awareness and exposure of varieties of English can lead negative attitudes towards it” (Kim J., 2011, p. 72). However, by looking at Figures 6.2 and 6.6 for pre and post VGTs respectively, nearly 0% of respondents correctly identified the nationality of the Saudi speaker. Many guessed either inner circle countries or European based countries for the speaker’s provenance.
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Since the speakers’ provenance was unlabeled, it is likely that the participants relied on linguistic (non-stereotypical) traits to base their favorability judgments of stereotypical traits. This is similar to a VGT study conducted by Nesdale and Rooney in which “listeners rely on accent strength to make status decisions” (Nesdale and Rooney, 1996, p. 10, as cited in Reddington, 2008, p. 10) when speaker provenance was unknown. It is important to note that Nesdale and Rooney’s participants were Australian children. Therefore direct comparisons of their study to this one should be done with caution.

7.1.2 Ratings of six individual traits

No correlation exists in the stereotypical traits in both pre and post VGTs (See Figures 6.3 and 6.7). The lack of pattern seems to indicate that the mechanisms used in assessing these traits may have been very different from one respondent to another.

The correlations in the non-stereotypical traits, as mentioned in sections 6.1.2 and 6.1.4, were striking. A speakers’ English was deemed a good model only if fluency and comprehensibility were rated high. In other words, the judgment of good model is only as strong as the lowest of fluency or comprehensibility judgments.

As shown in Figures 6.4 and 6.8, fluency was rated the lowest for the Korean speaker among the non-stereotypical traits; thus negatively affecting the judgment of good model. The passage used in the VGT took on average 2 minutes and 39 seconds to read. The Korean speaker was the longest at 2 minutes and 59 seconds. Most speakers started reading the text fluently, but decreased towards the end by pausing and repeating words. Notably, the Korean speaker near the end of the passage stopped, expressed that she did not know how to read a word, and then attempted to pronounce it before continuing. When this happened, I noticed many participants
revising their ratings of the bipolar scale. It is possible that the passage was too long to maintain consistent fluency for most speakers.

In contrast, comprehensibility was rated the lowest among non-stereotypical traits for the British speaker; thus negatively impacting the judgment of good model. Although British English is part of the inner circle varieties of English, Koreans typically are less exposed to this variety by comparison to American English. This is reflected in the results of the VGT where the British speaker was rated consistently lower than the American speaker. This sentiment has also been expressed by many of my students.

7.1.3 Differences in pre and post measurements

Participants rated the Chinese, British, Japanese, and Korean speakers more favorably in the post-VG (See Table 6.1). The change for the Saudi speaker was not statistically significant. However, students rated the American speaker more negatively in the post-VGT. This is something that I did not anticipate at the outset of the study.

During the awareness raising classes, students were exposed to speakers from four varieties of English included in the VGT with the exception of American English, due to time constraints, and Saudi English (See Classes 6 and 9 in Appendix A). These classes comprised of lessons where students recursively listened to authentic recordings of interviews or short presentations of Japanese, British, Iranian, Chinese, and Korean speakers and worked collaboratively in small groups to answer main idea and detailed questions. These recordings were different than the ones used in the VGT since I did not want to “train” my students for the VGT. By omitting an American speaker, this may have attributed to a lower rating in the post-VGT. However, the decrease in rating was minimal and the American speaker was still the most
I erroneously substituted an Iranian speaker instead of a Saudi speaker in the awareness raising classes. Saudis and Iranians share different L1s, since Arabic is the official language of Saudi Arabia (Central Intelligence Agency, 2012b) and Persian is the official language of Iran (Central Intelligence Agency, 2012a). This may have contributed to no statistical difference in the ratings of the Saudi speaker.

The Japanese speaker in the verbal guise test received the smallest increase in ratings that was statistically significant. Students listened to a Japanese speaker in Class 6 (see Appendix A); however, this was a make up class therefore about only half the students could attend. Thus, the small increase in rating for the Japanese speaker may be partially attributed to many students receiving no exposure to its variety during the awareness raising classes.

The impact of the awareness raising lessons on increasing the VGT ratings supports other studies that have shown the positive effects of World Englishes classes on students’ attitudes towards global varieties (Choi, 2007; Jin, 2005). This coincides with an experimental World Englishes course designed and conducted by Baik and Shim. Similar to this study, Baik and Shim mostly used authentic audio materials gathered from the Internet, but their students were exposed to over 18 varieties of English over a 15-week program. They did not formally measure their students’ attitudes pre and post course. Nonetheless, they deemed the course a success due to the positive reactions and active discussions that ensued during class (Baik & Shim, 2002).

7.2 World Englishes Questionnaire

A slight disagreement towards a native speaker model being the norm (see Tables 6.2 and 6.3) shows that the respondents have a relaxed perception of the ownership of English being
exclusive to inner circle countries. The slight agreement to being ashamed of having a non-native accent, along with anxieties of communicating in English with both native and non-native speakers reflects well documented angsts many Koreans suffer in attaining English (Park J., 2009; Park J. S.-Y., 2009; Lee S.-y., 2012; Lee W.-y., 2012).

What is striking is that the participants expressed their highest agreement with the importance of English for getting a good job or entering graduate school. This exceeded using English with both native and non-native speakers, thereby confirming the discrepancy that has been reported between the emphases of English in the business culture and its infrequent use in the workplace (Park J. S.-Y., 2009a, p. 43). It also coincides with the purpose of English study in Korea as being more geared towards achieving higher scores on standardized testing than for developing practical global communication skills (Ahn, 2012).

The awareness raising classes had the effect of increasing students’ agreement towards using English to communicate with non-native speakers. Although most students start studying English at an early age, they have very little opportunities to use it outside of the classroom, and thus view it similar to a subject course. Since university students experience English mainly for the purpose of standardized testing, this has left little room for students to ponder with whom and how they will use English in their future.

The awareness raising classes had a small effect in decreasing students’ anxieties in using English to communicate with native speakers. I surmise that by focusing on strategic competence, students may have felt less concerned with making grammar “mistakes”. Also, by being a NET, students may have become more familiar and comfortable with me as their teacher at week 10, when the post-World Englishes survey was conducted compared to that of week 5, when the pre-survey was conducted.
Teacher preference

As discussed in Section 4.2, an increase in awareness of World Englishes does not influence preference for NS or NNS teachers (Choi, 2007; Jin, 2005). Although teacher preferences essentially remained the same in pre and post surveys (see Figure 6.9), the responses paint a complex picture that is oft not considered in the discussion of World Englishes. For example, Kirkpatrick states advantages and disadvantages for exonormative and endonormative models of English with regard to native and non-native teachers and as summarized in Table 7.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native Speaker</td>
<td>• First hand knowledge of culture and language can prepare students who want to visit inner circle countries.</td>
<td>• High demand leading to hiring of inadequately trained NETS&lt;br&gt;• Makes students feel that English is unattainable if the goal is achieving NS norms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Native Speaker</td>
<td>• Have first hand experience in learning the language they are teaching.&lt;br&gt;• Familiar with educational, social, and cultural norms of their students and education system.</td>
<td>• Self-confidence and value are undermined in an exonormative model.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although Kirkpatrick’s points are true, they are incomplete and may serve to further a dichotomy between native and non-native teachers. As outlined in Section 6.2.4, a majority of respondents indicated that their preference for NS or NNS teacher depended on the circumstances. Some stated that NNS teachers were preferable for test preparation courses such as TOEIC or grammar, while NS teachers were preferable for conversation, speaking, and listening. Others contend that they have had positive and negative experiences with both NS and NNS teachers, and thus were more concerned with the teacher’s ability than anything else. The second largest group of respondents selected NS teachers as their preferred choice. Some of
their responses reflect the advantages shown in Table 7.1. Other responses reflect participants’ beliefs of inner circle countries as being the sole authority of English. A small percentage of respondents opted for NNS teachers for the reasons shown in Table 7.1. Therefore, widely held views by academics regarding the advantages and disadvantages of exonormative and endonormative models may not fully reflect the views of the communities of which they study.

7.4 Study Limitations

Results from VGTs should be taken with caution because they are susceptible to many factors such as the affective state of the participants, message of the text, and context (Reddington, 2008). While presenting VGT results, most studies I have reviewed (Jindapitak, 2010; Kim J., 2011; Kim Y., 2007) refer to participants’ judgments on varieties of English (i.e. American English) instead of the speakers (i.e. American speaker). This is misleading since as mentioned in Section 5.3.1.2, one speaker cannot be representative of the diversity that exists within a single variety of a language. At best, a VGT captures a snapshot of participants’ evaluations of recorded speech samples (not varieties of English) at a particular moment in time. Therefore, I have used nomenclature referring to ratings of speakers, and not varieties of English in referencing VGT results.

The varieties represented by speakers in the VGT did not fully match the varieties represented by speakers in the awareness raising classes. Most notably, speakers of American and Saudi English were not included in the awareness raising classes. This may have affected post-VGT ratings.

Another limitation is inconsistent attendance of students. Only respondents who completed both pre and post surveys where included in the study. However, some students could
not attend all awareness raising classes due to personal or academic reasons. Also, Class 6 had especially low attendance since it was a make up class. The inconsistent attendance may have had some impact on the survey results as discussed in Section 7.1.3.

The final limitation is related to teacher preference. Because I was the both the researcher and teacher of the respondents in the study, some students may have felt “pressured” to answer the teacher preference part of the questionnaire in favor of NS teachers, since that is who I am. Therefore, an ideal situation is where the teacher and researcher are independent, thus minimizing the influence of the researcher on the respondents.
8.1 Students’ attitudes towards World Englishes

Similar to other studies performed on university students in the outer circle (Breaux, 2011; Choi, 2007; Jindapitak, 2010; Jung, 2005), my students predominantly favored the American speaker, thus indicating a preference for American English. Yet, unlike these studies, participants did not necessarily favor inner circle speakers over others since the British and Saudi speakers were rated nearly the same. This may be partially attributed to the speakers being unlabeled in the VGT, and thus the participants had to rely more on linguistic properties such as fluency and comprehensibility than stereotypes of the speakers’ provenance. Although preference for the American speaker was present throughout, what is of greater interest is how awareness raising classes affected students’ attitudes towards all of the speakers in the study.

8.2 Research question: How does raising awareness of English as a lingua franca affect Korean university students’ attitudes towards World Englishes?

In summary, the awareness raising classes had a positive effect on the attitudes of students towards the British, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean speakers as measured through the VGT. No effect was measured in the Saudi speaker, and the American speaker received a negative attitude change. Of all the varieties represented by the speakers in the verbal guise test, American and Saudi English were absent in the awareness raising classes. Their exclusions may have contributed to the insignificant or negative changes in attitudes, which supports the view that “the lack of awareness and exposure of varieties of English can lead (to) negative attitudes towards it” (Kim J., 2011, p. 72). This provides further evidence that the included varieties of
World Englishes in the awareness raising classes contributed towards positive changes in attitudes regarding these varieties.

The awareness raising classes had other positive effects that were statistically significant. Through the World Englishes survey, students’ agreement of using English with non-native speakers increased. This may have been partially attributed to article readings and small group discussions related to English as a lingua franca. Students also exhibited a decrease in anxiety towards communicating with NS. Becoming more comfortable their native English teacher may have contributed to lowering their anxiety. Students’ anxieties towards communicating with NS may also be rooted in being self conscious of making “mistakes”. Since the classes were based on developing accommodation skills, non-standard forms were not “corrected” unless they interfered with communication, thereby making students less self-conscious and anxious.

In conclusion, raising students’ awareness of English as a lingua franca had an overall positive effect on students’ attitudes towards World Englishes, as measured by both direct and indirect means.

8.3 Pedagogic implications – Implementing the ‘paradigm shift’

Kachru believes that a ‘paradigm shift’ is needed to change English language teaching and testing to better reflect English use in multilingual societies (Kachru, 1992 p.361 as cited in Jenkins, 2009, p. 124). The following sections explore ways to implement this ‘paradigm shift’ through classroom activities for increasing awareness of World Englishes, focusing and fluency and comprehensibility, textbook reconsiderations, and teacher training.
8.3.1 Awareness activities of English varieties

Returning to Jenkins question on how to bring about awareness activities of English varieties in the classroom as a means to implement Kachru’s ‘paradigm shift’ (Jenkins, 2009, p. 124), the findings in this study are encouraging. The classroom activities used in this study were predominately based discussing articles regarding the use of English as a lingua franca, developing strategic competence to enhance students’ accommodation skills, and exposing students to authentic recordings of interviews and presentations from speakers representing an assortment of English varieties (see Appendix A).

Although these activities were successful in positively affecting most of my students’ attitudes towards World Englishes, results may differ depending on the context. For example, in Korea, most students have extensive grammar and vocabulary instruction by the time they become university students and are thus able to carry out a conversation at low intermediate level. However, several students had never studied English prior to my class, and subsequently did not have the fundamental language skills to successfully partake in these activities. In these cases, it is easy to see how students would benefit more from elementary level classes targeted at developing fundamental language skills in grammar and vocabulary that support learners’ realistic language goals. Conversely, classes dedicated to raising awareness of World Englishes can also be incorporated for students who have little to no exposure of English with the readings and discussions being carried out in the students’ L1 or other suitable language, thus providing a space for multilingualism in the English classroom.

8.3.2 Fluency, comprehensibility, and accommodation

I had initially regretted not editing the audio clips for the verbal guise test, especially
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during the end of the Korean speaker’s reading where respondents downgraded her ratings. However, only through this occurrence was I able to discover a correlation between a good model of English and fluency and comprehensibility. Sometimes it is the “accidents” that enable us to make discoveries.

The correlation of fluency and comprehensibility on the judgment of a good model of English (see section 7.1.2) has important pedagogical implications. In an environment such as Korea, where most students end up using English predominantly for international communication in a lingua franca situation, the goals of a curriculum should be aligned with developing skills to enhance fluency and comprehensibility. The reasons are twofold. First, these skills are of utmost important for successful communication. Second, it is likely that speakers will garnish favorable linguistic (not stereotypical) judgments only if both fluency and comprehensibility are perceived as positive.

Accommodation is another skill that is critical in an ELF environment to overcome gaps in communication. If students master conversation and discussion strategies such as checking for comprehension, asking for clarification, and rephrasing, it could help learners to shift away from anxieties associated with being self conscious of making “mistakes” and focus more on achieving successful communication. As discussed in section 7.2, increasing students’ strategic competence may decrease their performance anxieties of English use.

8.3.3 Textbook reconsiderations

As mentioned in section 3.1.2, many readily available textbooks used in Korea stem from the inner circle and contain a lot of content based on American or British norms that do not contribute to fluency, comprehensibility, or accommodation. Reflecting on my past teaching
experience, I have spent entire classes with objectives of having students master the complex syllabic rules for comparatives and superlatives, partly because I was teaching a lesson from my assigned textbook. Most students had had prior exposure to these rules but still produced non-standard forms such as “He is more prettier than her” or “Coffee is more hot than milk”. In the past I felt a sense of accomplishment if I helped students to master these skills. Now I feel that time was misused since these deviations have little impact on fluency or comprehensibility. Of more importance, class time may be the only opportunities for some students to use and practice English. Therefore, it is critical to use their limited time to develop language skills that will be most beneficial to students’ use of English outside of the classroom.

There are a number of advantages in using textbooks. They can help beginner teachers follow a routine (Woodward, 2001, p. 6). They are also helpful in outlining a syllabus with prescribed goals and objectives and providing teachers with a “basis for assessing students’ learning” (Graves, 2000, p. 174). However, many textbooks are designed to capture a large international market and may not be relevant or appropriate for a specific community of learners (Graves, 2000, p. 174). Furthermore, many NETs arrive in Korea with very little teaching experience (myself included) and / or pedagogic training. They do not posses the experience, knowledge, and confidence required (as I was not) for suitably adapting the textbook to better reflect students’ actual use of English outside of the classroom. These textbooks may also perpetuate insecurities in NNS teachers if they feel that they cannot attain the norms presented within these books.

Experienced and trained NNS teachers and NETs alike should be involved in writing textbooks geared for university practical English courses in Korea with an emphasis on ELF and raising awareness of World Englishes. A good textbook is by no means a substitute for
appropriate teacher training, however, it could benefit beginner and advanced (NS and NNS) teachers and their students. Beginner teachers could follow routines and activities that are ELF friendly. Advanced teachers would require less adaptation of the textbook material. NNS teachers could identify more with the content they are supposed to teach and use to assess their students. Last but not least, ELF friendly textbooks could potentially help both students and less experienced teachers to grow in awareness towards World Englishes, thus contributing to Kachru’s ‘paradigm shift’.

8.3.4 Teacher training

As my classmate Angela Richardson stated, “Unfortunately, many EFL/ESL teacher training programs focus heavily on methodology, curriculum design, second language acquisition research and assessment, and neglect to recognize the importance of culture in foreign language pedagogy” (Richardson, 2012, p. 1). World Englishes is part of culture since it reflects how English is adapted and used within or between societies. Neglecting variations of Englishes beyond the inner circle is neglecting cultural adaptations of English.

In order for a ‘paradigm shift’ to occur, it is important for teacher training programs geared for the outer and expanding circles to incorporate World Englishes into their curriculum so that teaching and testing reflects the actual use of English in their communities. Kirkpatrick outlines the goals of such a teacher-training program that could easily be adapted into the Korean context. The goals of his program are to develop teachers who:

- have a knowledge of the systems of English and how these differ from selected Asian languages;
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- are able to analyze the specific linguistic difficulties that speakers of the non-Indo-European languages can face in the learning of English and are able to adopt strategies to help their learners overcome these difficulties;
- recognize that English is represented by a range of varieties and that these include varieties that have developed in Asia;
- recognize that these different varieties of English comprise different but complete linguistic systems and represent different cultures;
- understand the importance for English language teachers to be bilingual and multicultural;
- understand the role(s) of English(es) in their teaching community and ensure that this understanding informs their practice; and
- are able to evaluate teaching methods and materials and are able to adapt their teaching styles and methods to suit the needs of different contexts and cultures (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 196).

8.4 Recommended research

Much of the research regarding World Englishes in the expanding circle is limited to measuring students’ attitudes towards English varieties. Although these studies are important in aiding us to better understand how groups of people think and feel about global varieties of English, it is also important to go “beyond the matched-guise and verbal-guise techniques and speaker evaluation scales” (Reddington, 2008, p. 14) to develop World Englishes pedagogy that is suitable for a given context and effective in increasing students’ awareness.

A longitudinal study would be particularly insightful where participants’ attitudes are
measured pre and post a practical English course sensitive to World Englishes, along with a one-
year follow up to determine if changes in attitude are transient or lasting.
I end this paper as I started it, with a connection to my education as SIT Graduate Institute. In Section 3.2.3, I cited Jenifer Jenkins’s perspective of how “mainstream SLA research” may serve as a gatekeeper of English, and thus perpetuate its hegemony. It got me thinking about two things: an article by Leo van Lier regarding the ecological approach (van Lier, 2000) that we discussed in our second language acquisition course with Elka Todva, and a plenary talk by Diane Larson-Freeman at the Sandanona Summer 2010 Student Conference titled “The emerging of emergence” (Larsen-Freeman, 2010) in which she described the development of chaos and complexity theory to languages.

In contrast to Selinker’s interlanguage theory, non-standard forms of English are not deficient, but are a result of evolutionary and organic processes of social interactions due to environmental affordances. This may be more inline with World Englishes research and theories attempting to validate non-native varieties of English. For example, a number of prominent academics tout the virtues of focusing on accommodation skills rather than mastering discrete linguistic skills (Jenkins, 2009; Park & Wee, 2011). A further exploration of post-modern second language acquisition theories such as the ecological approach and complexity theory in the realm of World Englishes may be a very fruitful endeavor.
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Makhmalbaf, M. (2010, January 15). Iranian Director In Exile. _Studio 360_. (K. Andersen, Interviewer) PRI. WNYC.


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*Enlishes*, 30 (3), 360-374.


Appendix A – Lesson plans and reflections

**Practical English 1 – Class 6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Lesson Stage</th>
<th>Procedure/Steps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 min</td>
<td>Prep</td>
<td>Have students sit into small groups and collect their name cards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 min</td>
<td>Warm up</td>
<td>Assign group roles to students. (Discussion Leader, Secretary, Presenter) Project pictures of Reiko’s materials on the overhead. Tell students that they will listen to a person talking about her career. Have students guess what she does from the pictures. Elicit responses and write them on the board.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 min</td>
<td>Listen for main ideas</td>
<td>Project the following questions on the overhead: 1. What is the person’s name? 2. What does she do? Replay twice so students can check their answers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 min</td>
<td>Listening for details</td>
<td>Project the following questions on the overhead: 1. Describe the material she is working with. 2. How does the material feel? 3. What did she make with that material? 4. What country do you think she is from? Replay twice if necessary so students can check their answers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 min</td>
<td>Post listening</td>
<td>Have students change group roles. Project the following questions on the overhead: 1. How do you think Reiko feels about her job? Why do you think so? 2. How important is material to you when you buy clothing? 3. How do you feel about art and design? (Clothes and fashion, electronic devices, interior design, furniture, cars, etc...) 4. What kind of career do you want to have after you graduate? Elicit from various groups to summarize a question of their choice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 min</td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>Do the attached pronunciation worksheets with students working in pairs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

5 The pronunciation worksheets were taken from Okanagan College International Education (English Pronunciation, 2007)
Reflection

Most classes seemed engaged with the audio clip. Through recursive listening, most students were able to glean more information. However, they were not able to correctly identify the nationality of the speaker. When it was revealed, many students were surprised. This is an indication of little exposure students have to global Englishes since they were unfamiliar with the accent. When I explained my rational for using diverse accents, students seemed to be open to doing the activity. Most classes also discussed the reaction questions actively.

The second class was very reticent throughout the listening tasks. Students did not give responses, even after called upon. Maybe the overall level of students was much lower than other classes, so they felt overwhelmed and didn’t want to speak. Some may have also been afraid of giving an erroneous answer. This also was a make up class so there were not many students (about 10). Maybe in a larger class, they would be more active. I will see how they react next week before I decide if I need to further address this issue.

The pronunciation activity was very easy for the vast majority of students. I should have used /v/ and /b/ as minimal pairs, since it is more often interchanged than /v/ and /w/.
I. Listen to the following words and repeat

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>vest</th>
<th>navel</th>
<th>west</th>
<th>wood</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vine</td>
<td>drive</td>
<td>once</td>
<td>wagon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>several</td>
<td>worry</td>
<td>narrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vivid</td>
<td>arrive</td>
<td>few</td>
<td>were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vote</td>
<td>carve</td>
<td>twelve</td>
<td>twine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. Listen to each minimal pair and circle the one that you hear.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>vest</th>
<th>west</th>
<th>vest</th>
<th>best</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>veil</td>
<td>wail</td>
<td>groove</td>
<td>grew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vine</td>
<td>wine</td>
<td>roving</td>
<td>rowing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viper</td>
<td>wiper</td>
<td>west</td>
<td>rest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vast</td>
<td>fast</td>
<td>wine</td>
<td>Rhine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very</td>
<td>berry</td>
<td>vine</td>
<td>fine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. You will hear the sentences below, but only one of the italicized words will be spoken. Circle the word that you hear.

1. My friends had a lot of wines/vines in their basement.
2. His poetry is becoming worse/verse.
3. Her story was disturbed by a wail/veil.
4. A wiper/viper was used in the experiment.
5. The cows were mooing/moving in the pasture.
6. The teacher used the wiser/visor of the two students.

IV. Tongue Twisters: Say the following sentences, paying attention to the sounds /v/ & /w/.

1. Wendell Vaccario wasted vine after vine.
2. Woolen vests for wailing wolves are worn in the vast woodlands.
3. Varied berries are wetted while Val and Walt whisper in vain.
4. Woodson's waistcoat is weirdly vented.
Information Gap Exercise

In this exercise, sit opposite your partner. Your partner will ask you which word goes into the empty boxes. You will pronounce the word in your box, and your partner will write down what you said. Then you ask your partner to pronounce the words in your missing boxes.

Possible questions:

"Can you tell me the word which is in D-2?"
"Could you repeat that, please?"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A1</th>
<th>B1</th>
<th>C1</th>
<th>D1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wine</td>
<td>vines</td>
<td>Walt’s vault</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A2</th>
<th>B2</th>
<th>C2</th>
<th>D2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wearing vests</td>
<td></td>
<td>growing groves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A3</th>
<th>B3</th>
<th>C3</th>
<th>D3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>voodoo woods</td>
<td></td>
<td>vales on whales</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A4</th>
<th>B4</th>
<th>C4</th>
<th>D4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>invested western wear</td>
<td></td>
<td>While being vile</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Information Gap Exercise

In this exercise, sit opposite your partner. Your partner will ask you which word goes into the empty boxes. You will pronounce the word in your box, and your partner will write down what you said. Then you ask your partner to pronounce the words in your missing boxes.

Possible questions:
"Can you tell me the word which is in D-2?"
"Could you repeat that, please?"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A1</th>
<th>B1</th>
<th>C1</th>
<th>D1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fine wines</td>
<td></td>
<td>Walt’s fault</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>C2</td>
<td>D2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wooing would</td>
<td></td>
<td>wails in vales</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>B3</td>
<td>C3</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>western vests</td>
<td></td>
<td>groves grow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>B4</td>
<td>C4</td>
<td>D4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a vile being</td>
<td></td>
<td>worn waistcoat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Practical English 1 – Class 7**

**Objective(s):** By the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

- **a.** express opinions, agree, and disagree in a polite manner using expressions such as “In my opinion”, “I agree”, and “I’m afraid I disagree”

- **b.** carry out a small group discussion about World Englishes statements for a minimum of 15 minutes using a variety of conversation strategies such as rejoinders and follow-up questions, comprehension check, asking for clarification, and expressing opinions.

- **c.** present a summary of group discussions by stating main ideas and various opinions to the class.

**Textbook:** Conversation Strategies by David Kehe and Peggy Dustin Kehe, Prolingua

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Lesson Stage*</th>
<th>Procedure/Steps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 min</td>
<td>Prep</td>
<td>Have students sit in groups of four and get their name cards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 min</td>
<td>Expressing Opinion Introduction (Present)</td>
<td>Do activity 20 from the textbook. Read the introduction on page 138 to the class and give two examples of expressing opinions, one in a polite way and one in an impolite way. Elicit from students the difference between both examples. Project expressions on the screen and have groups categorize them as statements, agreements, and disagreements. Go over with the class and chorally read to practice pronunciation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 min</td>
<td>Practice</td>
<td>Have students do 1 to 12 on page 79/80 then check answers with the class by having different pairs demonstrate. Then have pairs practice 13 to 18 but model an example beforehand. Have different pairs demonstrate to the class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 min</td>
<td>Produce</td>
<td>Have pairs do the information gap (Steps 1 and 2) on pages 81 and 82 then elicit pairs to model them and provide error correction when necessary. If time remains, have pairs do step three.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 min</td>
<td>WE Discussion</td>
<td>Put students into groups of 4 and have them discussion the questions. Tell groups that their objective is to carry out an active discussion for a minimum of 15 min. Hand out posters and have groups summarize their ideas on the poster. If time remains, have each group present their posters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 min</td>
<td>Homework</td>
<td>Hand out articles for homework. Students are to read and understand as much as they can. Write 2 factual and reaction questions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reflection

The conversation strategy was pretty straightforward and proceeded smoothly, especially because students are used to the format and structure of the Prolingua *Conversation Strategies* book. By far most groups exceeded 15 minutes of active group discussions regarding the World Englishes discussion questions. Because I don’t have an English only policy in the classroom, I noticed students code switching when trying to discuss ideas beyond their English capabilities. Some groups translated the questions in Korean to help their peers understand, and then proceeded to have a discussion in English. A student from my first class told me he found the topic very interesting. He said most Koreans have not been given an opportunity to discuss this issue when learning English and he was particularly interested in the results of the online survey they filled out the week before. In the third class, groups were eager to volunteer their answers about these questions. Usually students are afraid to speak out in the class so this was particularly unusual. I am not sure if it is because of the nature of the topic which would indicate that they found it pretty engaging, or if it is because of the class dynamic. This class in particular has students who are more active than the average class. Other classes exhibited the typical “fear” when called upon to summarize their group discussions.

I gleaned a wide range of opinions regarding students’ attitudes towards World Englishes. Some students expressed the typical discriminatory viewpoints towards non-native speakers regarding their accent and having them as teachers. Other students expressed the importance of being able to talk with non-native speakers due to the fact that they out number native speakers and that they will mostly likely need to communicate with them. Some students expressed a preference for native teachers because of their “proper accent”. Others expressed native teacher preference for speaking and listening but non-native teacher preference for grammar, standardized test preparation, or for basic level students. Other students expressed a preference towards non-native teachers because they can teach English in Korean, thus providing a more comfortable environment.

Most students expressed English was import for their careers, international communication, and job preparation. Some students expressed that English will be of little importance to them because their majors are not related to English (i.e. Korean literature) and they plan to work and live in Korea.

Some students expressed a preference to speak English with native speakers because they felt native speakers would better understand them since they would be able to fill in the “gaps” due to grammar or other types of language errors. Also they expressed that their unfamiliarity of the accents of non-native speakers made it difficult to comprehend. Some expressed a preference in communicating with non-native speakers because they are better able to accommodate their language to the students’ levels. Others expressed a discomfort for both native and non-native speakers because they felt they were judged on the basis of their English level.

Most students expressed that they preferred being taught their core classes in their native language because it’s much easier to understand their professors. A minority of students expressed a preference in English because their major contained many English words to begin
with, such as biology or math.

I heard a number of students express that using English differently than British or American English is not wrong but distinctive. Some expressed that what mattered the most was communication, not conformity to native speaker English.

Discussion questions

1. How important is English for you?

2. Who do you think you will mostly speak English with in your future career: native speakers (Canadians, Americans, British, etc…), or non-native speakers (Chinese, French, Thai, etc…)?

3. How do you feel about speaking English with a non-native speaker accent (i.e. Korean, Chinese, French)?

4. What is better for your university education, having your core classes (economics, engineering, biology, etc…) taught in your first language (Korean, Chinese, French), or having them taught in English by your professors?

5. How do you feel about English being taught by native teachers (Americans, Canadians, British) versus non-native speakers (Filipinos, Koreans, Chinese, French)?

6. If English is used differently than native speakers (British, American), is it wrong?

7. How do you feel about being taught English by native speakers? What about having English taught by non-native speakers?

8. Do you feel more comfortable speaking English with native speakers or non-native speakers?
English, language of lost chances – Student A
Adapted from an article written by Simon Caulkin for “The Observer, Sunday 24 July 2005”

London is a multicultural city where 300 languages are spoken. However, most native Britons can only speak English. In contrast, most people from other European countries can speak more than one language. For example, Luxembourgers are eight times as likely to speak another language than native Britons.

Is this important? The reason most people can speak multiple languages is the same reason most Britons are terrible at it. It is because most people need to learn English. English is the language of the Internet, of science, and of business. However, the victory of English is both exaggerated and has a downside. For example, only 6% of the world’s population is native English speakers and 75% don’t speak English at all. For monolinguisists, people who only speak one language, English is their only filter to the rest of the world.

----------------------------------------

English, language of lost chances – Student B

Continuing on to next part of the article, few people in the UK are studying second languages. According to CILT, the National Center for Languages, in 2001-2, only about 15,000 university students took courses in second languages. Of those students, 75 percent of them were women. That means that most British graduates have little to no foreign language skills when they enter the workforce. In some multinational companies, British managers often lose advancement opportunities because of their lack of language skills.

Being monolingual has an effect on the economy. CILT director Isabella Moore says, ‘you can buy in your own language, but you must sell in the language of your customer’. For example, in Anglophone countries (such as the US, Australia, and Ireland) the UK exports more than it imports. The contrary is true for non-Anglophone countries. For example, the UK imports more goods from Korea than it exports to Korea.
Let’s move on to the last part of this article. English speakers who are not able to speak other languages also affect English communication with non-native speakers. Native speakers often use idiomatic expressions (idioms) and other colorful language that do not accommodate or help communication with non-native speakers. This complex native English can be detrimental for international business. For example, CILT quotes the case of Korean Airlines, which chose a French supplier for its flight simulators because its international English was more comprehensible and clearer than that of the UK competitor.

The British government and its policies are partly to blame for the monolingualism of most native English. Nowadays, languages are no longer mandatory for students 14 years old and older. Many language programs have been dropped from the curriculum because they are seen as difficult, and they lower students’ grades.

We will end with the wise words of George Steiner, the famed American literary critic. He said that while you could see with one eye, two eyes gave you perspective. It's the same with language. Knowing more than one language will help us better understand the see the world around us.
### Practical English 1 – Class 8

**Objective(s):** By the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

- **a.** Write and answer two factual questions and write two reaction questions about an article.
- **b.** Ask comprehension check questions and answer clarification questions while reading an article to peers to repair breakdown in communication.
- **c.** Conduct an active discussion through conversation strategies such as rejoinders and follow up questions and conversation keepers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Lesson Stage*</th>
<th>Procedure/Steps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 min</td>
<td>Prep</td>
<td>Take attendance. Divide the class into three groups with respect to their assigned reading from the last class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 min</td>
<td>Discussion preparation</td>
<td>Project the following on the overhead:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-discussion (Pairs or Small Groups):</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. Read your article. Circle words or phrases you don’t understand. Ask your partners (or teacher for help).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Excuse me. I don’t understand (this)? Can you explain it to me?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Answer two factual questions about your article with your partner. Write two more factual questions with your partner and write their answers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Write two reaction questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Explain to students the difference between factual and reaction questions and check their comprehension through comprehension check questions. Facilitate if necessary while they complete the task.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 min</td>
<td>Article reading</td>
<td>Regroup students in triads that contain student A, B, and C. Project the following on the overhead:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. Student A, read your article to your partners. Ask once in a while and ask comprehension check questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Do you understand? Got it? Ok?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Students B and C, ask clarification questions if you don’t understand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Are you talking about ...?  *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>There where how many people?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Who reported the research?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Pardon me. I didn’t understand what you said.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Student A, answer clarification questions and repeat steps 1 and 2 until you are finished.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Students B, then students C read their articles as above.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Model the reading and then have students carry out the task.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>30 min</th>
<th>Article Discussion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Project the following on the overhead:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Student A, ask factual questions to your peers. If they can’t remember, help them with the answer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Repeat 1 with students B and C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Student A, ask the 1st discussion question. Carry out an active discussion, not a passive discussion. Use the following:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Rejoinders and follow-up questions. (I see. What kind of ...)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Conversation keepers. (I don’t know. What do you think?)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Asking the discussion leader’s opinion. (How about you?)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have groups create a poster representing ideas from their discussions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reflection

Since students were familiar with this format of article discussion, due to practicing it prior to the pre-survey using the Discussion Strategies book, my main role was as a facilitator. Therefore I provided feedback when they requested it, answered questions when necessary, and ensured groups complete activities in a timely manner. In order to minimize my influence on students’ discussions and thinking, the students created their own factual and reaction questions. Because the time between surveys is less than initially thought, the article only represents one perspective of World Englishes. The week following the post survey, I will have students jigsaw the Kachru/Quirk debate and express their views on worksheets. This information could also supplement the questions for my IPP. Since I am not sharing my perspective to students, I am very eager to see what impact, if any, these classes have on their attitudes towards ELF.

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6 I was not able to do this due to time constraints in the study.
### Practical English 1 – Class 9

**Objective(s):** By the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

- **a.** answer at least 12 out of 20 questions while listening to four clips representing different varieties of English in a recursive fashion.
- **b.** carry out an active small group discussion through conversation strategies such as rejoinders and follow up questions and clarification questions regarding their personal reactions to the listening clips.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Lesson Stage*</th>
<th>Procedure/Steps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prep</td>
<td>Take attendance. Divide the class into groups of four.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 min</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 15 min| Listening British English<sup>7</sup> | 1<sup>st</sup> Listening  
1. What is the main idea?  
a. English has three main varieties: American English, British English, and Australian English.  
b. Teachers should choose what variety of English to teach their students.  
c. It’s important for students to be aware that many varieties of English exist.  
2. What country is the speaker from?  
2<sup>nd</sup> Listening  
1. How are varieties of English different?  
2. What is one of the biggest problems affecting language learners and teachers?  
3. How can teaching only one variety of English confuse students? |
| 15 min| Listening Chinese English<sup>8</sup> | 1<sup>st</sup> Listening  
1. What is this person talking about?  
2. Where is she from?  
2<sup>nd</sup> Listening  
1. What type of school is she referring to?  
2. How did she feel when started at this school? Why?  
3. How have her feelings changed? Why? |
| 15 min| Listening Arabic English<sup>9</sup> | 1<sup>st</sup> Listening  
1. What is the person talking about?  
2. Where is he from?  
2<sup>nd</sup> Listening |

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<sup>7</sup> Audio extracted from YouTube (Crystal, 2005).
<sup>8</sup> Audio source from accompanying CD to World Englishes: Implications for International Communication and English Language Teaching (Kirkpatrick, 2007).
<sup>9</sup> Audio extracted from a Studio 360 Podcast (Makhmalbaf, 2010).
1. How old was he when he got involved in the revolution?
2. Why was he arrested?
3. What is his career today?

15 min
Listening
Korean
English

1<sup>st</sup> Listening
1. What is the main idea?
   a. The speaker is talking about her strong faith in God.
   b. The speaker is describing about a time she was very sick.
   c. The speaker is saying how she fell in love with her husband.
2. Where is she from?

2<sup>nd</sup> Listening
1. Why can’t she work?
2. What’s her name?
3. Who is Mark and how did Mark move her heart?

10 min
Discussion

Small group discussion. (Rejoinders and follow-up questions, Comprehension checks, Clarification questions)
Clip 1 – A British professor talking about the importance of teaching and learning varieties of English.
Clip 2 – A Chinese professional talking about her struggles learning English in secondary school.
Clip 3 – An Iranian filmmaker talking about his experience in the Islamic revolution in 1979.
Clip 4 – A Korean woman talking about how she fell in love with her American husband.
1. Which clip do you find most interesting and why?

Reflection

During the first two classes, after playing the final clip but before revealing the speaker’s provenance, I asked which students found the last clip to be the easiest to understand. Most students raised their hands. Then I revealed that the speaker was Korean.

For the last four classes, I changed my approach. Before revealing the last speaker’s identity, I asked which students thought clip 1 was easiest to comprehend. I elicited responses from some students to explain their reasoning. I then revealed the last speaker’s provenance. I continued similarly with clips 2, 3, and 4. Below are results from these classes:

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10 Audio extracted from a This American Life Podcast (Ha, 2011).
A WORLD ENGLISHES STUDY OF KOREAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS: EFFECTS OF PEDAGOGY ON LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class 1087</th>
<th>No. of students favoring clip</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clip 1 (British)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Greater exposure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 2 (Chinese)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 3 (Iranian)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Speaks slowly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 4 (Korean)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Comprehensible topic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class 1091</th>
<th>No. of students favoring clip</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clip 1 (British)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 2 (Chinese)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 3 (Iranian)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 4 (Korean)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Speech pace was slow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class 1072</th>
<th>No. of students favoring clip</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clip 1 (British)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Clear pronunciation, familiar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 2 (Chinese)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 3 (Iranian)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 4 (Korean)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Familiar, Korean</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class 1114</th>
<th>No. of students favoring clip</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clip 1 (British)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Appropriate speed. Pronunciation similar to ours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 2 (Chinese)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Too fast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 3 (Iranian)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Easy words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clip 4 (Korean)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Korean (Familiar), Easy words</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Comma Gets a Cure
Copyright 2000 Douglas N. Honorof, Jill McCullough & Barbara Somerville. All rights reserved.

Well, here's a story for you: Sarah Perry was a veterinary nurse who had been working daily at an old zoo in a deserted district of the territory, so she was very happy to start a new job at a superb private practice in North Square near the Duke Street Tower. That area was much nearer for her and more to her liking. Even so, on her first morning, she felt stressed. She ate a bowl of porridge, checked herself in the mirror and washed her face in a hurry. Then she put on a plain yellow dress and a fleece jacket, picked up her kit and headed for work.

When she got there, there was a woman with a goose waiting for her. The woman gave Sarah an official letter from the vet. The letter implied that the animal could be suffering from a rare form of foot and mouth disease, which was surprising, because normally you would only expect to see it in a dog or a goat. Sarah was sentimental, so this made her feel sorry for the beautiful bird.

Before long, that itchy goose began to strut around the office like a lunatic, which made an unsanitary mess. The goose's owner, Mary Harrison, kept calling, "Comma, Comma," which Sarah thought was an odd choice for a name. Comma was strong and huge, so it would take some force to trap her, but Sarah had a different idea. First she tried gently stroking the goose's lower back with her palm, then singing a tune to her. Finally, she administered ether. Her efforts were not futile. In no time, the goose began to tire, so Sarah was able to hold onto Comma and give her a relaxing bath.

Once Sarah had managed to bathe the goose, she wiped her off with a cloth and laid her on her right side. Then Sarah confirmed the vet's diagnosis. Almost immediately, she remembered an effective treatment that required her to measure out a lot of medicine. Sarah warned that this course of treatment might be expensive—either five or six times the cost of penicillin. I can't imagine paying so much, but Mrs. Harrison—a millionaire lawyer—thought it was a fair price for a cure.
Appendix C - Language Attitude Survey

Thank you for participating in this survey. The information collected will be used in my Master’s dissertation and will remain confidential and anonymous.

 설문 조사에 응해 주셔서 감사합니다. 수집된 정보는 석사 논문 작성에 사용될 것이며 기밀과 익명성이 유지될 것입니다.

Part I – Demographics:
1. Class No. (반 번호): ______________
2. Last three digits of your student number (학번 마지막 세자리 숫자): _________
3. Age (나이): _________
4. Sex: Male 남 ( ) / Female 여 ( )

Part II – Accent Impression:
Directions: Listen to the recording and select the number that corresponds to your impression of the speaker (1 means not at all, 6 means very much). Then guess the origin of the speaker’s country.

녹음된 내용을 잘 듣고 말하는 사람에 대한 인상과 일치하는 번호를 아래에서 선택하세요. 그리고나서 화자의 국적을 추측해보세요. (1-전혀아님, 6-매우그러함)

Speaker 1
5. Unintelligent (영리하지 못한) 1 2 3 4 5 6 Intelligent (영리한)
6. Incomprehensible (이해할 수 없는) 1 2 3 4 5 6 Comprehensible (이해할 수 있는)
7. Untrustworthy (신뢰할 수 없는) 1 2 3 4 5 6 Trustworthy (신뢰할 수 있는)
8. Unconfident (자신감 없는) 1 2 3 4 5 6 Confident (자신감 있는)
9. Unfriendly (친근하지 않은) 1 2 3 4 5 6 Friendly (친근한)
10. Disadvantageous for job seeking (구직에 불리한) 1 2 3 4 5 6 Advantageous for job seeking (구직에 유리한)
11. Sounds Unfamiliar (어색한) 1 2 3 4 5 6 Sounds Familiar (어색하지 않은)
12. Not fluent in English (영어가 서툰) 1 2 3 4 5 6 Fluent in English (영어가 유창한)
OF PEDAGOGY ON LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

13. Bad model of English (나쁜 영어의 예)  
   Good model of English (좋은 영어의 예)

14. Guess the country of the speaker (말하는 사람의 국적을 추측한다면):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker 2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unintelligent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(영리하지 못한)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incomprehensible</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(이해할 수 없는)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Untrustworthy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(신뢰할 수 없는)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unconfident</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(자신감 없는)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfriendly</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(친근하지 않은)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disadvantageous</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for job seeking</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(구직에 불리한)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sounds Unfamiliar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(어색한)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not fluent in</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English (영어가 서툰)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad model of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English (나쁜 영어의 예)</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. Intelligent (영리한)

16. Comprehensible (이해할 수 있는)

17. Trustworthy (신뢰할 수 있는)

18. Confident (자신감 있는)

19. Friendly (친근한)

20. Advantageous for job seeking (구직에 유리한)

21. Sounds Familiar (어색하지 않은)

22. Fluent in English (영어가 유창한)

23. Good model of English (좋은 영어의 예)

24. Guess the country of the speaker (말하는 사람의 국적을 추측한다면):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker 3</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unintelligent</td>
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<tr>
<td>(영리하지 못한)</td>
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<td>Incomprehensible</td>
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<td>(이해할 수 없는)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(신뢰할 수 없는)</td>
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<td>(자신감 없는)</td>
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<td>Unfriendly</td>
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<td>(친근하지 않은)</td>
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<td>Disadvantageous</td>
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<td>for job seeking</td>
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<tr>
<td>(구직에 불리한)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sounds Unfamiliar</td>
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<tr>
<td>(어색한)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Not fluent in</td>
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<tr>
<td>English (영어가 서툰)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bad model of</td>
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<tr>
<td>English (나쁜 영어의 예)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

25. Intelligent (영리한)

26. Comprehensible (이해할 수 있는)

27. Trustworthy (신뢰할 수 있는)

28. Confident (자신감 있는)
### OF PEDAGOGY ON LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

<p>| | | | | | | | | | | | | |</p>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>29. Unfriendly (친근하지 않은)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>Friendly (친근한)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>30. Disadvantageous for job seeking (구직에 불리한)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>Advantageous for job seeking (구직에 유리한)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>31. Sounds Unfamiliar (어색한)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Sounds Familiar (어색하지 않은)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>32. Not fluent in English (영어가 서툴다)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Fluent in English (영어가 유창한)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>33. Bad model of English (나쁜 영어의 예)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Good model of English (좋은 영어의 예)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>34. Guess the country of the speaker (말하는 사람의 국적을 추측한다면):</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Speaker 4</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>35. Unintelligent (영리하지 못한)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Intelligent (영리한)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>36. Incomprehensible (이해할 수 없는)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Comprehensible (이해할 수 있는)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>37. Untrustworthy (신뢰할 수 없는)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Trustworthy (신뢰할 수 있는)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>38. Unconfident (자신감 없는)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Confident (자신감 있는)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>39. Unfriendly (친근하지 않은)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>Friendly (친근한)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>40. Disadvantageous for job seeking (구직에 불리한)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>Advantageous for job seeking (구직에 유리한)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>41. Sounds Unfamiliar (어색한)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Sounds Familiar (어색하지 않은)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>42. Not fluent in English (영어가 서툴다)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Fluent in English (영어가 유창한)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>43. Bad model of English (나쁜 영어의 예)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Good model of English (좋은 영어의 예)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>44. Guess the country of the speaker (말하는 사람의 국적을 추측한다면):</strong></td>
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</table>
### OF PEDAGOGY ON LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

**Speaker 5**

| 45. Unintelligent (영리하지 못한) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Intelligent (영리한) |
| 46. Incomprehensible (이해할 수 없는) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Comprehensible (이해할 수 있는) |
| 47. Untrustworthy (신탐할 수 없는) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Trustworthy (신탐할 수 있는) |
| 48. Unconfident (자신감 없는) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Confident (자신감 있는) |
| 49. Unfriendly (친근하지 않은) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Friendly (친근한) |
| 50. Disadvantageous for job seeking (구직에 불리한) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Advantageous for job seeking (구직에 유리한) |
| 51. Sounds Unfamiliar (어색한) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Sounds Familiar (어색하지 않은) |
| 52. Not fluent in English (영어가 서툰) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Fluent in English (영어가 유창한) |
| 53. Bad model of English (나쁜 영어의 예) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Good model of English (좋은 영어의 예) |

54. Guess the country of the speaker (말하는 사람의 국적을 추측한다면):

**Speaker 6**

| 55. Unintelligent (영리하지 못한) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Intelligent (영리한) |
| 56. Incomprehensible (이해할 수 없는) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Comprehensible (이해할 수 있는) |
| 57. Untrustworthy (신탐할 수 없는) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Trustworthy (신탐할 수 있는) |
| 58. Unconfident (자신감 없는) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Confident (자신감 있는) |
| 59. Unfriendly (친근하지 않은) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Friendly (친근한) |
| 60. Disadvantageous for job seeking (구직에 불리한) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Advantageous for job seeking (구직에 유리한) |
| 61. Sounds Unfamiliar (어색한) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Sounds Familiar (어색하지 않은) |
A WORLD ENGLISHES STUDY OF KOREAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS: EFFECTS OF PEDAGOGY ON LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

62. Not fluent in English (영어가 서툴)
   1  2  3  4  5  6  Fluent in English (영어가 유창한)

63. Bad model of English (나쁜 영어의 예)
   1  2  3  4  5  6  Good model of English (좋은 영어의 예)

64. Guess the country of the speaker (말하는 사람의 국적을 추측한다):
__________________________________

Part III – Language History:

65. How many years have you been studying English? (include studying in a private language institute) 당신은 영어 공부를 몇 년 동안 했나요? (학원 등을 포함)

66. Have you ever studied English abroad? 해외에서 영어 공부를 한 적이 있나요?
   Yes 예 ( ) / No 아니오 ( )

67. If so, what country and for how long? 해외에서 영어 공부를 한 적이 있다면, 어느 나라에서 얼마나 동안 했나요?
   Country 나라 (______________) Years 년(____) / Months 개월 (____)

68. Your English proficiency 본인의 영어실력:
   beginning 초급 (__) / intermediate 중급 (__) / advanced 고급 (__)

Part IV – World Englishes

Directions: Select the number that corresponds with your agreement of each statement where 1 is strongly disagree and 6 is strongly agree.
아래의 설명에 대한 당신의 의견과 일치하는 번호를 선택하세요. (1-매우 불일치, 6-매우 일치)

Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly disagree</th>
<th>Slightly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>매우 불일치</td>
<td>불일치</td>
<td>악간 불일치</td>
<td>악간 일치</td>
<td>일치</td>
<td>매우 일치</td>
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69. If English is used differently from American or British English, it must be wrong.
영국식 영어나 미국식 영어와 다른 영어는 틀린 영어다.

70. I feel ashamed of my Korean (or Chinese or French) accent and try to get rid of it when I speak English.
한국식(또는 중국식) 발음이 창피해서 영어로 말할 때 되도록 이 발음을 쓰지 않으려고 노력한다.

71. English is important to enter a good school and to get a good job.
영어는 좋은 학교에 들어가고 좋은 직장을 얻기 위해 중요하다.
A WORLD ENGLISHES STUDY OF KOREAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS: EFFECTS

OF PEDAGOGY ON LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

72. I am learning English to communicate with native speakers of English.
    나는 영어 원어민과 의사소통을 하기 위해 영어 공부를 한다.  
    1 2 3 4 5 6

73. I am learning English to communicate with non-native speakers of English.
    나는 원어민이 아닌 사람과 의사소통을 하기 위해 영어를 공부한다.  
    1 2 3 4 5 6

74. I feel nervous when I speak to native speakers in English.
    나는 영어 원어민과 영어로 대화할 때 긴장한다.  
    1 2 3 4 5 6

75. I feel nervous when I speak to non-native speakers in English.
    나는 영어 원어민이 아닌 사람과 영어로 대화할 때 긴장한다.  
    1 2 3 4 5 6

76. Do you have a preference of non-native or native teacher when learning English?  
    영어를 배울 때 원어민 선생님과 원어민이 아닌 선생님 중 더 선호하는 쪽이 있으나요? 
    Yes 예 ( ) / No 아니오 ( ) / It depends (경우에 따라 다름)

77. Explain your reasoning. (이유를 설명하세요):

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

78. Other comments (optional):
    기타 의견 (선택사항)

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
Appendix D – Interpreting t test results

I describe how to interpret the results in Table 6.1 in Section 6.1.5. First, the mean difference is calculated by subtracting the overall mean rating of each speaker in the pre-VTG to the post-VTG. Let us isolate the Chinese speaker for further illustration. The overall mean ratings of the Chinese Speaker in the pre and post VGTs are 3.084 and 3.591 respectively (See Figures 2 and 7). Therefore the mean difference is 0.507 (give or take .001 due to rounding error). This is essentially the same value shown in Table 2. A positive difference signifies that the participants’ mean ratings increased favorably for the Chinese speaker.

At this stage, we do not know if the mean difference for the Chinese speaker is cause by natural variation (chance) in the data or by experiencing two weeks of classes aimed at raising awareness of World Englishes and ELF. We can use a two tailed t test to address this because we are only comparing only two means (pre and post).

Using the two tailed t test, we can calculate the t statistic for the Chinese speaker, which is 6.346 (see Table 2). We compare the t statistic with critical t values published in t Distribution tables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007, p. 703). Since I have 125 participants, the degrees of freedom denoted as df is 124. Therefore, my critical t values at a probability of 5% and 1% are 1.980 and 2.617 respectively (read from t Distribution table). Since my calculated t statistic is greater than 2.617, then I can claim the mean difference for the Chinese speaker is statistically significant at a 99% confidence level. This means that there is less than 1% probability that the mean difference is caused by chance.

The final step is to determine the effective size. Although a statistical difference exists, how strong is the effect of my awareness raising classes on this difference? We can do this by
calculating the percentage of variance accounted for by my classes as denoted by \( r^2 \). As shown in Table 2, \( r^2 \) for the Chinese speaker is 0.245. This means that 24.5% of the variance in the data was caused by the effect of my classes. This can be interpreted as my classes having a medium effect of positively increasing my students’ attitudes towards the Chinese speaker (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007, p. 288).