School of Education

Prosodic and Paralinguistic Features of Multiple English Varieties and the Attitudes and Performance of Korean Learners of English

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DECLARATION

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made.

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

The research presented and reported in this thesis was conducted in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) – updated March 2014. The proposed research study received human research ethics approval from the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (EC00262), Approval Number # EDU-165-14.

Signature:

Date:

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ABSTRACT

The role of English in the world has expanded alongside the growth of the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) industry. English's position in Korea is embedded in educational policy with the public often seeing the language as a tool for furthering social and economic development. As a result, the English language industry in Korea is informed by policy level decisions. Significantly though, the current situation of Korean learners of English (KLE) travelling abroad to study English holds the potential to develop Korea's English education industry in a manner more aligned with the global positioning of English.

This study drew on KLE who were attending a mid-tier Korean university, and had performed well in university-level English classes. 48 participants were recruited to address the primary objective of this study, which was to examine multiple English varieties through the lens of KLE to identify the roles of prosodic and paralinguistic features of English across these English varieties and how these features were perceived by the participants. In this domain, the study sought to identify language attitudes, perceptions of comprehensibility and levels of comprehension within the KLE, and how these interacted with one another. To achieve the objectives of the study, the research implemented a convergent mixed methods design located in a largely qualitative framework and phenomenological approach. Quantitative data targeted language attitudes through a 7-point semantic differential and receptive language performance through a comprehension assessment. Interviews were conducted in alignment with guiding prompts to provide thick, rich description. Data was analysed thematically, with the quantitative and qualitative components contributing to a more complete understanding of the phenomena investigated.

This study examined nine English speaker origins relevant to KLE: American, Australian, British, Canadian, Irish, Korean, New Zealand, Philippine and South African. Audio recordings of these English speakers were used to drive this research and acted as aural prompts where prosodic and paralinguistic features could be explored across the attitudinal and comprehension levels. Male and female speakers were used from each of the assessed English speaker origins. In total, 24 audio recordings were used in this study.

Overall findings of the research indicate that levels of familiarity and comfort that KLE have with an English variety interacts with attitude formation and holds a relationshhip with perceived comprehensibility. In addition, prosodic factors relating to voice tone, vocal clarity, rhythm, pausing, and filled pausing, together with paralinguistic features including talking to oneself and crying, all play roles in the interactions between language attitudes, perceived comprehensibility and listening comprehension. From these findings, there is an indication that increasing English awareness for KLE and teachers alike across multiple English varieties and aspects of prosody and paralinguistics can contribute to informing practice, pedagogy, policy and research. Furthermore, this study has underscored the necessity for focused prosodic and paralinguistic features research addressing their position within TESOL pedagogy with a view to enhancing English as lingua franca communication.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACE	Asian Corpus of English
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CAT	Communicative Accommodation Theory
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
ELF	English as a lingua franca
EPIK	English Program in Korea
GAE	General American English
GE	Global Englishes
KLE	Korean learners of English
KTE	Korean teachers of English
L1	First language speaker
L2	Second language speaker
LFC	Lingua Franca Core
MET	Multilingual English Teacher
MGT	Matched Guise Technique
NEC	National Educational Curriculum
NES	Native speaker of English
NEST	Native English speaking teacher
NNES	Non-native speaker of English
NNEST	Non-native English speaking teacher
NVC	Non-verbal communication
RP	Received Pronunciation
TEE	Teaching English through English
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
VGT	Verbal Guise Technique
VOICE	Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English
WE	World Englishes

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This thesis looks at Korean learners of English (KLE) and their encounters with multiple English varieties. Within this domain, an exploration of factors affecting language attitude formation and listening comprehension is undertaken with an emphasis placed on prosodic and paralinguistic features. The premise for the prosodic and paralinguistic focus is through observing their existence across English varieties, and while differences may occur, similarly discernible qualities across varieties are noticeable. Therefore, this study explores the extent to which these discernible qualities influence language attitudes and listening comprehension in KLE. To establish the framework for the study, this chapter provides an overview by contextualising the study, identifying the research aims and significance, and introducing the research methods.

1.1 English Education Policy, Practice, and Progression

English is globally positioned as the language of choice and necessity. It is suggested that the figures of 379 million first language speakers (L1) of English and 753 million second language speakers (L2) of English globally will continue to grow (Crystal, 1997; "English," 2019; Graddol, 2000). A key tenet driving this growth lays in the notion of global Englishes (GE), which encompasses the spread and pluralistic nature of English, as per the world Englishes (WE) paradigm, alongside its international position and use (Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2015, 2018). This latter point primarily refers to the role of English as a lingua franca (ELF), where English is considered a tool traversing linguistic boundaries as a component of multilingualism also attempting to lower cultural hurdles that may contribute to additional linguistic impingements (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b). In effect, GE and ELF attempt to transition the ownership of English away from the English L1 speaker by empowering *all* users of English within a multilingual framework.

Evidence of how ELF is used as a linguistic tool empowering its user can be seen across the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) region, where English

acts as the working language (Kirkpatrick, 2008, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2014; The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), 2017). This extends further when considering ASEAN+3, which encompasses the ten ASEAN nations plus China, Japan, and the Republic of Korea (hereafter Korea). In brief, English was selected to hold this role due to its global status, but also due to its 'distance' from the nations of the region. While there is history of English in Malaysia, the Philippines, and Singapore, the majority of the ASEAN+3 nations have no lasting ties with the language. As many of these nations do not have pre-existing ties with English, they are able to see English within a framework built upon the contemporary positioning of English, rather than the premise that English that was adopted through colonial impact, and this helps to facilitate the empowerment of the user as an 'owner-stakeholder' across this multilingual context.

In competition with this ownership shift however, is the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) industry. Much of the policy and practice within TESOL still revolves around the L1 speaker of English, which can be seen in job advertisements and published policy documents (English Program in Korea, n.d.-c; Jeon, 2009; Sperling, 2020). In effect, the competition between these two paradigms needs balance to empower users of English and to strengthen equity across policy and practice. Key points in enacting a balance are through reviewing how English education and its policies are positioned together with how English is currently encountered. This will allow for regional considerations, the function of English and its purpose to be explored. As these points are addressed, it is also essential to scrutinise factors that may affect the progression of balance.

In the case of English education's positioning, TESOL is an industry partially borne from the global strategies of the United Kingdom (hereafter UK) and United States of America (hereafter US) across the 20th century (Phillipson, 1992). In this respect, English has been marketed as a commodity for providing access and development opportunities to its learner (Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 2000; Phillipson, 1992). In the case of Korea, while English has been present on the peninsula since 1882, it was drive from the US in the mid-20th century that has influenced current policy and positioning (Choi, 2006). With the US influence on modern English education in Korea, an underpinning of Korea's English education is the reverence held for

American English (Choi, 2006; Lee, 2004). In more contemporary revisions of educational policy in Korea, there has been greater attention paid to the personal and professional access and development opportunities English may provide through its use, and with this, policy wording has transformed to include reference to the use of English in international contexts (Choi, 2006; Park & Kim, 2014). More specifically, the policy refers to English as a useful component of regional communication, which sits alongside the overarching principle of ELF, and gives rise to the potential for Korea's English education to be parallel to the global role of English.

The policy development and attention to promoting international communication through English in Korea, however, appears to be little more than a paper policy where other government policies coupled with continuing hiring practices still follow the previous directions. This is made clearer by evaluation of how English is currently encountered by KLE, with a major point of English contact for KLE being their teacher of English. It is current policy that English is taught in Korean schools from third grade (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2017). While the teachers KLE may encounter in these contexts could be Korean teachers of English (KTE), there are policy restrictions on other potential English teacher origins due to English language teacher visa issuance (E-2) prioritising seven nations: Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, the UK, and the US (English Program in Korea, n.d.-c; Jeon, 2009). Consequently, the policy voids the international context claims of the English education policy and reduces the potential for KLE to be empowered as English owners.

In spite of these restrictions, KLE still seek empowerment and are taking an international approach to their English education through their actions. One way KLE are taking action is through taking advantage of study abroad opportunities. Statistics in the area indicate how KLE are selecting destinations for English study outside of the seven nationalities they may encounter as English teachers within Korea. A notable destination where KLE study abroad – the Philippines – is also located within the ASEAN+3 (Bureau of Immigration, 2014; Ministry of Education, 2019; *Number of foreign students in the Philippines increases*, 2013; Satake, 2015; Strother, 2015; The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), 2017). In drawing awareness to the Philippines as an English education location for KLE, there

are multiple factors to illuminate. One factor relates to the differences in potential teacher origin evident between policy and practice. An additional factor relates to how broadening opportunities for KLE to encounter English can extend the international communicative purposes expressed in educational policy documentation while more fervently empowering KLE and their English ownership.

In terms of the regional considerations, attention turns to WE. Developments across the WE paradigm have been active throughout the years. Early WE models presented English within a hierarchical framework with American and British English as superordinates (McArthur, 1987, 1992; Strevens, 1992). Moving from these superordinate structures however, Kachru's (1992) often cited three circles model mirrors the diaspora of English. In this model, the more 'traditional' English using nations (e.g. the UK and the US) are centrally positioned as inner circle speakers. From here, the second concentric circle locates outer circle speakers consisting of nations with an English colonial influence (e.g. the Philippines and Singapore), and the circle furthest from the centre includes expanding circle speakers consisting of those associated with the 'new' speakers of English (e.g. Korea).

Kachru's model, however, maintains a focus on variety rather than speaker, which may not completely encompass English's current state. In this sense, Gupta (1997) proposed a framework of multilingualism and how English is acquired and used within a context. This proposal attempts to distance generalisations made against English varieties by focusing more on the individual. Despite this, it does not align with the educational context of KLE as closely as Kachru's model.

In evaluating Kachru's model and the relationship with KLE there are two key factors. The primary factor is that those seven nationalities prioritised as English teachers within Korea are considered inner circle speakers. The second is Korea's positioning within ASEAN+3 and how the English encountered by KLE across the region is packaged into both outer and expanding circles. When taken together, these two factors indicate that KLE may not receive the best value by *over-focusing* on a singular variety or diaspora of English, but rather, should work toward familiarisation with multiple English varieties, which extends the need for awareness and acceptance of pluricentric models of English.

Through KLE transitioning into pluricentric bases, emphasis is placed on the importance of competence in international communication, and in particular, its relevance to notions of ELF. With attention paid to English as a functional device across linguistic domains, globalisation has positioned English as the default lingua franca, and in doing so, has assisted in distributing ownership amongst its users (Blair, 2015; Sowden, 2012; Sung, 2015). In turn, the power attached to English has contributed in illustrating a key function of English for KLE. That is, how English is believed to enhance social mobility through its practical applications as a business and education tool (Jeon, 2009; Mikio, 2013; Park, 2009; Park & Kim, 2014; Shin, 2014); the essence of which often relies on effective international communication.

Despite these claims, there are factors influencing English's acceptance in international communication. A primary factor raised from the outset relates to language attitudes, and while English is pluricentric in nature, this does not remove attitudinal judgment from the equation. Language attitudes are ever-present and have a history of investigation in English studies (Baker, 1992; Bradac, 1990; Breckler, 1984; Cargile & Bradac, 2001; Cargile et al., 1994). Much research in this area has examined distance between higher prestige English varieties and lower prestige varieties, which is a tendency also identified in research focusing on TESOL contexts (Ball, 1983; Giles et al., 1981; Stewart et al., 1985). In sum, research suggests that varieties, such as General American English (GAE) in American English and Received Pronunciation (RP) in British English, are more positively perceived, including in research specific to Korea (Ahn, 2014; Fang, 2016; He & Li, 2009; Kaur & Raman, 2014; McKenzie, 2008; Pollard, 2011a, 2011b, 2016; Shim, 2002). In connecting with the previous studies concluding this preference however, it is important to remember that many have drawn on pre-existing attitudes toward an English variety, and have not explicitly drawn on attitudes formed against an *actual* representation of English. In other words, the attitudes expressed were possibly informed by any preconceptions the listener may have had through prior perceptions of an English variety and may not represent an attitude toward hearing that representation of English in a live exchange. This raises the need for research to be conducted that can move *behind* the attitude that may already exist and probe a responsive attitude to a representation of English that may be encountered in an international context.

Similarly, factors influencing the effectiveness of English in international communication are also in need of attention. In this area, intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability form the underpinning, which in very simple terms refers to levels of recognition and understanding (Smith & Nelson, 1985). A launchpad here is the foundation of ELF and how commonality has been a driver. One example of this is Modiano's (1999) WE-based work dividing English into five domains mirroring elements of Kachru's circles that also present a centralised 'Common Core' of shared features. While Modiano's model does not clearly identify the shared features, Jenkins' (2000) Lingua Franca Core (LFC) does, and does so with explicit reference to enabling communicative success across linguistic boundaries through identifying common features that help or hinder communication.

ELF has transformed from its initial incarnation, although its premise is fundamentally the same. ELF1 focused on the description of lexical, grammatical and phonogical features, part of which proposed the LFC and the identification of pronunciation features (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b). ELF2 moved into a focus on interaction and negotiation of meaning (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b). ELF3 has repositioned English in a multilingual framework (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b). In all representations, the overall goal has been successful communication where English plays a role, and this has extended to encompass regional explorations of ELF. A case to draw on here is Kirkpatrick's (2010a) research documenting language features present in effective communicative exchanges between ASEAN ELF users, a natural progression of which would be to extend the context to encompass ASEAN+3.

In assessing the overall connections between the pluricentric nature of English, ASEAN ELF, and notions of intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability, it is important to assess points of similarity and difference. In this respect, a factor noted in ELF and ASEAN ELF research relates to prosodic features. In brief, prosodic features encompass vocal aspects that include tone (pitch direction), pitch-range, pausing, loudness, tempo, and rhythm (Crystal, 1969), and it is possible to determine that despite the pluricentric nature of English, these features are present across all English representations as embedded characteristics. Extending this also draws in paralinguistic features, which, while not ever-present, do exist across

varieties of English, and include voice qualifiers (e.g. whisper, huskiness, etc.) and voice qualifications (e.g. giggle, cry, etc.) (Crystal, 1969). As a whole, research into prosody and paralinguistics has drawn attention to their potential for impacting the intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability of English (Boyle, 1984; Jenkins, 2000, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Klopfenstein, 2009; Renandya & Farrell, 2011; Romero-Trillo, 2012; Wang & Renandya, 2012). However, there is also an indication that these same prosodic and paralinguistic features hold roles relating to their potential to impact language attitude formation (Anderson-Hsieh et al., 1992; Brown, 1990; Dauer, 1993; Mennen, 2007; Street & Brady, 1982; Street et al., 1983; Szczepek Reed, 2012; Tatham & Morton, 2006; Wharton, 2009, 2012). When synthesised, the research points to similarities that may exist across prosodic and paralinguistic features, and their respective impacts. To push this a step further, it may be of interest to determine if these impacts across similarity points can extend to encompass pluricentric realisations of English and their acceptance. In particular, it is through deeper review of the prosodic and paralinguistic features across multiple English varieties of relevance to KLE that progression may be made in acceptance and balance across the paradigm, the background of which will be looked at in Chapter 3.

1.2 Research Aims and Objectives

This study targeted non-lexical characteristics of oral delivery across multiple English varieties and examined the extent to which these influenced language attitudes and English listening comprehension in KLE. Within this framework, the non-lexical characteristic focuses on prosodic and paralinguistic features across the English varieties most relevant to KLE. The varieties posited as the most relevant to the KLE are drawn from the nations of: Australia, Canada, Ireland, Korea, New Zealand, the Philippines, South Africa, the UK and the US (English Program in Korea, n.d.-c; Hi KOREA, 2020; Jeon, 2009; Ministry of Justice, n.d.-a, n.d.-b). This range of English speaker origins attempted to replicate the current Korean TESOL situation while also raising awareness of its origin-dependent prescriptive limitations contrasting with the pluricentric nature of English. To understand the interrelated factors here, Figure 1.1 represents the conceptual framework of the study by showing relationships of the ways in which prosodic and paralinguistic features of English exist across the pluricentricity of English, and further attends to how these features

may interact with language attitudes and English listening comprehension. From this basis, interconnections are underlined across these factors to frame how the study attempted to examine these relationships.

Figure 1.1

Conceptual Framework of the Prosodic and Paralinguistic Features within the Pluricentricity of English and their Roles in Language Attitudes and English Listening Comprehension
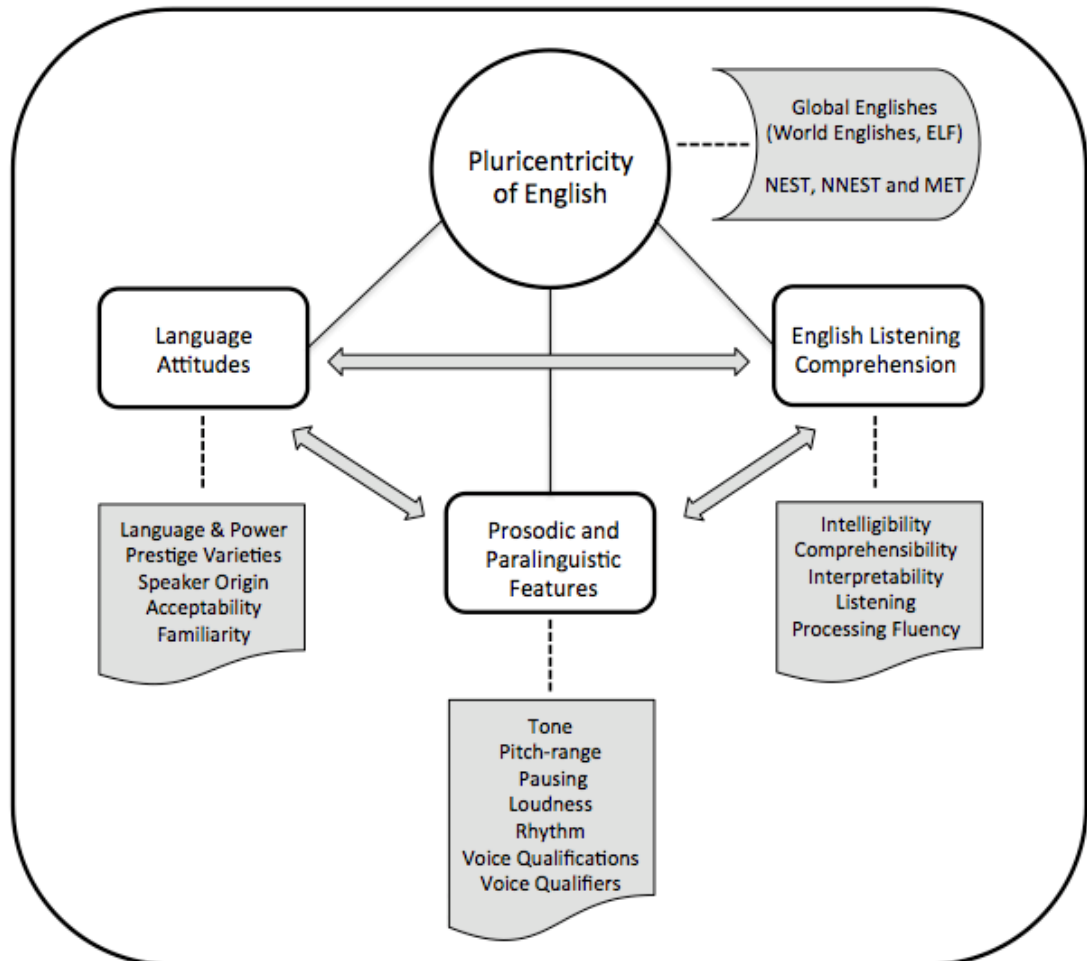
1.2.1 Research Questions

This study was located within the field of TESOL and the specific context of Korea. In this area, the topic of NEST vs. NNEST is drawn on through inspecting multiple varieties of English of relevance to KLE. Korea was selected due to its established TESOL industry, position within ASEAN+3, and standing as an English user in the global marketplace. From this foundation, the study sought to explore the broad positional base of English, its variations, and varieties in conjunction with the language attitudes present in KLE against the varieties examined. To this end, it was

important to move away from lexical and grammatical characteristics and attempt to draw on the extent to which features within speech on the oral level may contribute to attitude formation. Similarly, it was important to inspect the extent to which these same features might influence English listening comprehension.

From this base, the study was driven by the primary research objective:

> To examine the extent to which non-lexical characteristics of oral delivery across different English varieties influence the language attitudes of KLE, and the extent to which these non-lexical characteristics and language attitudes interact with KLE English listening comprehension.

Secondary guiding objectives were to inspect language attitudes of KLE and the extent to which these relate to educational practice and/or are influenced by KLE educational experience, and to identify opportunities for informing and enhancing GE and ELF research in the region.

To meet these objectives, the central research questions addressed were:

> RQ1   To what extent are language attitudes of KLE present in relation to English varieties?
>
> RQ2   To what extent do prosodic and paralinguistic features of English varieties interact with the language attitudes of KLE?
>
> RQ3   To what extent do prosodic and paralinguistic features of English varieties interact with the English listening comprehension of KLE?
>
> RQ4   To what extent is there a correlation between English variety, language attitudes, and English listening comprehension amongst KLE?

1.3 Significance of the Research

The significance of this research encompasses English education within Korea. The KLE and the Korean context are less studied than neighbouring ASEAN +3 countries. Coupling this, the study builds across levels of teaching and learning, educational policy, and the wider level of materials design and development. The points of significance raised across these levels also contribute to the originality of the study.

Of these overarching levels, five points are:

1. On the communicative level, the receptive communicative competence of KLE is analysed in the international context through positioning the necessity for an increased awareness of multiple English varieties. This draws on the pluricentric nature of English while promoting the overall goal of ELF communication through an emphasis on English varieties relevant to KLE, and extending into the ASEAN+3 domain. The underlying premise of this builds on proposals previously put forth in the area of GE (Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2015, 2018), where developing familiarity through exposure is key; however, this study contributes to the field in two ways. Firstly, the focus on KLE and the study's target of regional relevance as a starting point (i.e. ASEAN+3). Secondly, through *blind* exposure, where KLE are encountering *English as English* and not as a *named variety of English*, the opportunity exists for learners to attend to their language attitudes and listening performance through making their own connections across varieties, which is more representative of how English may be encountered outside of the language classroom.

2. On a similar level, a tighter focus on prosodic features influencing language attitudes and listening performance is developed through qualitative extension. Previous research has broadly examined learner perceptions of prosody and its influence on language attitudes and/or listening performance (Anderson-Hsieh et al., 1992; Klopfenstein, 2009; Mennen, 2007; Renandya & Farrell, 2011; Romero-Trillo, 2012; Street & Brady, 1982; Street et al., 1983; Szczepek Reed, 2012; Tatham & Morton, 2006; Wang & Renandya, 2012; Wharton, 2009, 2012). This study's approach was built around audio recordings and qualitative follow-ups to develop insights. The interview procedure allowed KLE to reflect on the recordings encountered and probed aspects of prosodic features believed to hold importance in attitude formation and/or listening performance. This is significant to the field through drawing attention to the levels in which KLE discern prosodic features and the extent to which they are deemed to influence language attitudes and/or listening performance, which holds importance across both learner training and teacher training levels. There is the opportunity to extend learner familiarity through exposure to a wider array of similar prosodic features highlighted, which sits

alongside the learner training discussed above. In this case however, the exposure focus is not on the broad training of GE, but rather, a narrower focus on negatively influential prosodic features, which allows for development in the area of decoding the stream of speech (Renandya & Jacobs, 2016), and becomes a transferrable skill for wider receptive competence. On the teacher training side of this equation, the insights given by KLE on what is impacting their language attitudes and/or listening performance allows for TESOL practitioners to reflect on their own classroom practice and accommodate their delivery accordingly. While this will not actively contribute to developing KLE listening performance, it may result in a more positive language attitude forming against the teacher, which may lead to increased classroom engagement.

3. Research indicates that the listening process is fronted by calibration and normalisation, where listeners require a brief period of time to adjust to the spoken language they are encountering to receive it more comprehensibly (Bross, 1992; Field, 2008; House, 2008; McLellan, 2017). This study accents the role of paralinguistic features in this process and draws attention to the potentially cyclical nature of calibration and normalisation. In considering current listening materials for TESOL, recordings are often devoid of discernible paralinguistic features, which reduces the opportunities for learner training in the area. In drawing attention to the importance of these features and their reported negative impacts on the listening process, this recognises the need for focused learner training in exposure to paralinguistic features and how to minimise their impacts.

4. Current educational policy and hiring practices in Korean English education prioritise nationality (English Program in Korea, n.d.-c; Hi KOREA, 2020; Jeon, 2009), and this study raises questions of these priorities. As perceived origins of the speakers in this study show, language attitudes and listening performance are not reliant on the actual origin of a speaker. Moreover, there is a perceived or *false* familiarity factor in play. Raising awareness across KLE, policy makers, and other stakeholders, such as school, university and provincial administrators, TESOL publishers, and government official and *jaebol* (e.g. Samsung) English language expectations alongside the extent to which actual teacher origin impacts language attitudes and listening

performance offers the potential for educational policy within Korea to become more informed. The significance here draws on how English teachers originating from one of seven nations are prioritised in English language teaching in Korea and extends into how including teachers from the ASEAN+3 region could be an equitable and sustainable development.

5. On the macro level touching the aforementioned four points is materials development. Currently, many TESOL materials in Korea focus on American English, which does not appear to equip KLE adequately when ruminating on comments made in this study. Therefore, this study posits how TESOL materials should transition away from its gatekeeper role toward more regionally relevant representations empowering English users. In the case of this study, the concept of false familiarity proffers that materials could firstly move from the inner circle bases to encompass ASEAN+3 bases, which could serve as a bridge toward developing educational policy. Secondly, the study emphasises how focused prosodic and paralinguistic feature awareness-raising activities are required for the development of KLE in enhancing listening performance. Thirdly, the study indicates that by compiling discernible features identified by KLE in conjunction with the features observed in ELF communication (Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010a), there is the potential for further ELF development across the region while also contributing to the documentation of successful ELF communicative features.

1.4 Overview of the Research Methods

This research drew on aspects of existing research frameworks and approaches. At the first level, a qualitative framework was employed as the foundation. This allowed for greater depth to be extracted for understanding the complexities behind problems (Creswell, 2007). The qualitative framework was also initiated due to the researcher's extensive contact with the participants, and the underpinning of the study itself, which relied on flexibility to be present in the interview schedule (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Richards, 2003). This flexibility was essential due to the phenomenological approach from which all else was built. The belief here was founded in the premise that phenomenology is the basis for qualitative research, and the approach from which a developed

understanding and interpretation of the phenomena researched can be extracted (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2003; van Manen, 1990).

However, as this study moved beyond the attitudinal side, where a qualitative framework could be deployed alone, to examining listening performance, quantitative measures were also required. The prime factors here were to reduce the researcher's influence in these areas and offer a more quantifiable measure of comprehension (Holliday, 2010; Smith & Nelson, 1985). In conjunction with this, previous studies highlighted the use of scales in language attitudes research (Kaur & Raman, 2014; McKenzie, 2006, 2010), and their inclusion here was considered an opportunity for increasing trustworthiness. Interestingly, these quantifiable measures allowed for deeper exploration of the phenomena researched through post-listening qualitative elaboration, which added a richer layer. Chapter 4 provides more detail on the rationale behind and the development of the instrumentation for this study.

This study focused on KLE located across two campuses of a mid-tier university in Korea. A key reason for selecting these sites was due to the demographic of the KLE located there. In other words, the university-aged participants of this study were considered more representative of typical KLE due to the lower perceived possibility of them having studied abroad in their earlier education. Recruitment of the participants from these sites was purposeful through considering educational experience, age, and English language proficiency. The number of participants recruited was guided by the literature by weighing the balance between quality and redundancy of data (Guetterman, 2015; Kvale, 1996; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Mason, 2010; Merriam, 1998; Morse, 2000; Morse, 2015; Oppenheim, 1992).

The data collected consisted of quantitative listening comprehension responses, semantic differential language attitude responses, and qualitative interview data. Given participant numbers, the quantitative data was analysed using non-parametric testing procedures deemed the equivalent of parametric tests employed for similar uses (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Lund Research Ltd, 2018a, 2018b; McKenzie, 2006, 2010). With respect to the interview data, this was transcribed and coded inductively to enhance data reduction (Berg & Lune, 2012; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2016). The three data sets produced through this study presented

variable aspects in solitude, that, when consolidated, complemented each other to provide a deeper and richer understanding of the phenomena researched. The data collection and analysis methods are unpacked further in Chapter 4.

In sum, the study was based in a largely qualitative framework founded in phenomenological principles. It utilised both quantitative and qualitative measures, with emphasis on how the instrument was able to drive data collection across multiple planes. In other words, the quantitative aspects of the study installed as triangulation devices also often appeared as supplementary interview prompts throughout the interviews, which aided in developing a clearer picture of the extent to which language attitudes and listening performance were influenced by prosodic and paralinguistic features discernible by KLE across multiple English varieties.

1.5 Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of the thesis. Areas of importance have been assessed from the literature, which culminated in the positioning of this research within a conceptual framework. The contextualisation of the study was presented through promoting the research objectives, the study's significance, and an abridged version of the research methods involved. This thesis will expand on these areas as follows:

Chapter 2 provides context for the study. It describes the development of English education in Korea, assesses the roles of NEST and NNEST, and discusses possible responses to the current situation.

Chapter 3 reviews relevant literature for the study. Literature encompassing GE, which connects with WE, the position of ELF, the pluricentricity and acceptability of English, and language attitudes in TESOL is first reviewed. Positioning of the study is developed through evaluating intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability concepts. Latter parts of the chapter focus on prosodic and paralinguistic features of English, and conclude by paying attention to the listening process.

Chapter 4 describes the research methodology for the study. The theoretical framework, which highlights the roles of the largely qualitative framework and

phenomenological approach, is presented. The chapter unpacked the instrument development, implementation, and procedure, which interlaces with the participant profile. Latter sections of the chapter describe data collection and analysis procedures, and draw attention to the ethical procedures and transparency of the study.

Chapter 5 presents the research findings related to language attitudes. Findings are presented thematically with quantitative data complementing qualitative responses.

Chapter 6 focuses on the findings of the research related to perceived comprehensibility and language comprehension. Quantitative data is presented relating to perceived comprehensibility and comprehension. The central section of the chapter explores quantitative correlations across language attitudes and comprehension. The latter part of the chapter presents qualitative data that is thematically organised.

Chapter 7 discusses the six key findings of this study alongside relevant literature. The findings have emerged from themes within the data and propose how prosodic and paralinguistic features of English hold roles in language attitude formation and listening performance.

Chapter 8 concludes the thesis. It revisits the research questions guiding the study and the key findings related to these questions. The thesis concludes with the presentation of recommendations and implications of the study, including suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

2.0 Introduction

This chapter positions the study through discussing the background across four areas. The chapter begins with the positioning of English in Korea and its educational policies and progressions. From here, aspects of the policies are unpacked in conjunction with theory connected with 'native' and 'non-native' English speaker teacher dichotomy together with notions of language and power, which opens questioning of the current policy's appropriacy. A final focus of the chapter looks at responses KLE and other stakeholders are implementing toward current English education practice in Korea, which facilitates an understanding of how English education can develop to meet current and future needs.

2.1 English's Standing and the Opportunities Presented

The standing of English in the world is often mentioned and in little dispute. "English is in the world and the world is in English", according to Pennycook (1995, p. 35). The consensus is that English's global spread is proliferating the world and will not lose traction (Crystal, 1997, 2001; Graddol, 2000; Pennycook, 1995). Together with the spread of English, the spread of TESOL follows, where research in the latter half of the 20th century has professed how the growth of TESOL will continue (Crystal, 1997). A factor appearing as a driver of this growth is the role of English in crossing linguistic boundaries in a constantly changing world (Crystal, 1997; Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Pennycook, 1995; Prime Minister's Office, 2008). The epitome of these border crossings in the Asian context is ASEAN+3, which groups China, Japan and Korea together with the members of ASEAN (Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam). In this context, English is the working language between these nations (Kirkpatrick, 2008, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2014; The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), 2017).

While much of the ASEAN+3 communication takes place on the official level, English communication beyond official capacity is deemed important through the

belief that English presents opportunity. Pennycook (1995, p. 40) believes that English is acting "as a gatekeeper to positions of prestige in society" where it has the ability to include or exclude those from professional, academic, or social position. Regionally, Jin and Cortazzi (2003) write that English learners in China believe that proficiency in English will provide professional and academic opportunities. In terms of the second '+3' member, Seargeant's (2009) research on English in Japan offers the perspective of a participant who spent three years in the UK. The participant commented that while English had been considered an important factor in professional promotion, it is no longer how professional graduates are judged, and that there is an 'English+1' situation arising, where it is expected that professional graduates have proficiency in English as standard, and proficiency in a second foreign language now carries the prestige factor. Granted, this is the view of a single participant, but thematically, the idea that English is of importance on the professional level, and for societal progression as a whole, is also prevalent in Korea.

Korea, as with other nations, believes that English provides a means for furthering societal status and assists in creating opportunity (Jeon, 2009; Mikio, 2013; Park, 2009; Park & Kim, 2014; Shin, 2014; Thatcher, 2008). According to Park (2006), opportunities in education, business and government are perceived as being connected with English ability, while Shin (2014) makes explicit reference to the academic opportunity English presents through the ability to enter an overseas university. Coupling this is how an overseas degree appears to be of higher value in Korean society than a Korea-based degree. Whether or not the degree itself, or the associated English proficiency that comes with it, is of higher value is a question for a later time. Either way, the belief that opportunity in Korea is provided by English aligns with the view raised by Pennycook (1995).

The opportunity presented by English to the *individual* is easily expanded to include the *whole*. According to Jeong (2004), the opportunity believed to arise through English is not just on the individual level, but can extend to assist the nation in further global development, effectively raising the status of Korea itself. However, beyond how Korea's status may be developed in the global context, how TESOL in Korea is affected in the paradigm should also be considered, which results in underlining how English in Korea is not a simple case of language education; it is a

case of English as a thriving business and economic organism (Jeon, 2009; Park, 2009).

Issues have arisen through English being seen as capable of increasing one's, and the nation's status. Most pertinent to this study is the case of English being 'imposed' upon learners from an early age (Park, 2009). Park (2009) and Thatcher (2008) point to cases of English immersion in Korea where parents are spending up to US$1000 per month for their five-year-old children to attend English kindergartens where a native English speaker is a teacher. An expense of this magnitude points back to the interpretation of English's economic connection in Korea, and also stresses parents' beliefs regarding the opportunities that may be created for their children in later years through English proficiency.

Further to the expenses associated with English immersion in Korea, and even if parents are willing to accept these expenses, what happens post-kindergarten is a question in need of inspection. Immersion schools in Korea are not the norm, and therefore, they become an extra-curricular activity in addition to the general schooling. This realisation leads to an analysis of Korea's educational policy and is where the English language policy of Korea can be pulled into the equation.

2.2 English Language Policy and English Education in Korea

This section explores the development of English education in Korea across its modern implementations. A starting point for this exploration is the US forces arrival in Korea in September 1945. From their arrival, the US maintained a controlling presence until August 15, 1948 (Kim, 2003). Their presence served to increase the status of English, and English was inadvertently promoted as the language of the 'ruling class' as a result (Kim, 2008, 2009). During this period, Korean education leaders worked with the US government to reform educational policy, which resulted in a US-influenced education system (Choi, 2006). Due to the US proposition that English was integral for Korea's development, English was introduced as the required foreign language in middle school and one of the required foreign languages in high school, which culminated in English becoming an element of the college entrance examination (Choi, 2006). From this base, and through Korea's aspiration of developing as a nation with its own identity, the First National Educational

Curriculum (NEC) was enacted in 1955 (Chang, 2009; Choi, 2006; Chung & Choi, 2016), which continued with English across middle and high school. In the first instance, it was typically studied for 3-5 hours per week, while in the latter, it was an elective for up to 5 hours per week (Choi, 2006). Again, due to the US influence on Korea during this period, a preference for American English was expressed (Choi, 2006; Chung & Choi, 2016; Lee, 2004).

Further progressions in English education policy within the Second NEC (1963), Third NEC (1973), Fourth NEC (1981) and Fifth NEC (1987) saw several important inclusions that have made way for the modern policy. The Second NEC included oral and aural English foci that also promoted English as a required high school subject (Chang, 2009; Choi, 2006; Chung & Choi, 2016; S. Kim, personal communication, December 29, 2003, cited in Lee, 2004). However, a return to grammar-based instruction eventuated with the Third NEC (Choi, 2006; Choi & Lee, 2007; Chung & Choi, 2016; Lee, 2004). Choi (2006, p. 16) argues that the Fourth NEC "was a period of qualitative development" for Korea's education, which was spurred on by the international development of the country. The focus was on being human-centred while also fostering creativity and autonomy (Choi, 2006; Lee, 2004). Choi (2006) and Lee (2004) also comment on how the Fourth NEC was the first time that English was permitted as an extracurricular activity at the elementary school level. Overall, the Fourth NEC appeared to draw connection with preparations for the 1988 Seoul Olympics, and the globalisation opportunities that were thought to enter Korea (Chung & Choi, 2016). Shortly before the Olympics, the Fifth NEC was enacted, which across its life emphasised the communicative aspects of English, and brought an English listening section into the College Scholastic Ability Test (수능, *Suneung*) (Chung & Choi, 2016). From the conclusion of this period, the subsequent NEC started paying more attention to globalisation, and these developments will be discussed in the following section.

2.2.1 'Living English' in Korea: The Sixth NEC (1992)
The Sixth NEC has possibly shaped English language policy the most and laid the foundations for today. The goals of the Sixth NEC were national development and globalisation, with key aims being competitive advances in science and technology,

and furthering international collaboration (Choi, 2006). To achieve these aims, the English education curriculum made the shift to communicative language teaching (CLT) with a notional-functional syllabus and pushed 'anti-grammar' teaching (Chang, 2009; Choi, 2006; Chung & Choi, 2016; Kwon, 2000). In sum, English education was adapted to encompass "four hours per week from first-year middle school to first-year high school, and 5-6 hours in second- and third-year high school" as an elective, while it would also become a "regular subject" from 1997 in elementary schools (Choi, 2006, p. 18). The directions of the Sixth NEC laid the groundwork for Korea to develop its English proficiency for international competitiveness, however, several issues were uncovered.

One issue often associated with the Sixth NEC is the ability of the local elementary school teachers to teach English effectively, as they were generalist homeroom teachers. According to Kwon (2000), even though English had been in the elementary school curriculum since the Fourth NEC as an elective subject, the majority of teachers were not prepared to teach English as a regular subject. In response, Kwon (2000) discusses how the Ministry of Education devised a 120-hour in-service teacher-training programme for roll out in 1996 in preparation for the 1997 start date of required English classes. The programme devoted 70% of its focus to improving English proficiency in the teachers, with the remaining allocation focusing on pedagogical aspects. Beyond the initial 120-hour programme, Kwon (2000) writes how an advanced course comprising of an additional 120-hours was also implemented.

In an attempt to support English education in the country, and from observing Japan's English education paradigm, Korea established the English Program in Korea (EPIK), which is an ongoing programme placing native English speaker teachers (NESTs) into public schools (Choi, 2006; Chung & Choi, 2016; English Program in Korea, n.d.-a; Kwon, 2000). EPIK was largely based on The Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme, which similarly placed NESTs into public schools across the country (Koike, 1985, cited in Choi, 2006; Dustimer & Gillett, 1999). A closer inspection of EPIK shows that its aims are to develop the communicative abilities of students while also building a cultural awareness in the age of globalisation (English Program in Korea, n.d.-a). The underpinning of the

programme lay with the recruitment of NESTs – which numbered 660 in 1996 and 856 in 1997 (Kwon, 2000) – and appears aligned with the belief that to effectively promote 'living English', the students needed to experience English from non-Korean teachers.

2.2.2 Current English Education Policies: From the Seventh NEC (1997) to the Revised NEC (2006-2015)

The Seventh NEC of 1997 built on the Sixth NEC by working towards national development and globalisation. However, greater emphasis was placed on the global aspect of English and how fostering "positive attitudes toward being a world citizen" were integral to national development (Choi, 2006, p. 19). Similar to the Sixth NEC, a focus on the development of oral proficiency in a revised CLT setting was maintained (Chang, 2009; Choi, 2006; Kwon, 2000). It was decided however, that to increase the effectiveness of the CLT promoted in the Sixth NEC, a more balanced approach between functional and structural components was needed (Choi, 2006; Kwon, 2000). Two additional changes to the curriculum associated with English education serve to increase engagement with the language. Firstly, multimedia-assisted and technology-enhanced learning were promoted (Choi, 2006; Ministry of Education, 1997). Secondly, English was introduced as a required subject from the third grade of elementary school (Choi, 2006; Chung & Choi, 2016; Kwon, 2000; Lee, 2004; Ministry of Education, 1997). This earlier English requirement aided in raising the importance of the language in the country.

With the increased exposure to English for Korean students, and the initial successes of EPIK, the Seventh NEC seemed to have a good foundation in place for addressing the goal of producing world citizens. However, the Asian Financial Crisis struck and the devaluation of the Korean Won resulted in many of the 850+ EPIK NESTs severing their contracts (Kim, 2006; Kwon, 2000; Mikio, 2013; Park & Kim, 2014). 1998 saw just 274 teachers hired through EPIK; the figure dropping to 262 in 1999 (Kwon, 2000). Despite the falling EPIK numbers, the belief that English would serve as a ladder to develop Korea and assist in its recovery gained additional traction.

As a result, English education in Korea continued to be pushed. In the early-2000s, the Korean Ministry of Education proposed that Teaching English through English

(TEE) should be introduced to achieve world citizenship capabilities (Jeong, 2004). Park (2009, p. 52) observed that the TEE proposal itself was also supported by "experts" in language education, with the case made that increasing the number of NESTs in Korea would supplement and assist local teachers of English, who, according to Choi and Lee (2008), were often underequipped for the task.

Jeong (2004) mentions that the suggestion of the World Trade Organisation in 2000, and the so-called Uruguay Round Agreement, was for Korea to broaden its educational horizon. This resulted in greater status for NESTs, especially those from Canada, the UK and the US. It is worth underlining that EPIK guidelines stipulate that NESTs must hold American, Australian, British, Canadian, Irish, New Zealand or South African nationality (English Program in Korea, n.d.-c; Jeon, 2009). EPIK's criteria is supported at the policy level with Korea streamlining the issuance of E-2 – foreign language teaching – visas for teaching English within EPIK to citizens of these seven nations (Hi KOREA, 2020).

The TEE goal seems to be supported by students' parents, who have already shown interest in English immersion education with the arguments of 'English-only' and the critical period supporting their beliefs (Park, 2009). This suggests that Korea is still influenced by native-speakerism, with the common belief that learning English from a 'native' is a requirement for linguistic success (Kirkpatrick, 2007; Sowden, 2012). This belief has also directed government policy towards a similar model under the guise of 'improving' English education in Korea.

In this area, the NEC has regularly been revisited to accommodate social change and has resulted in the Revised NEC. Revisions in 2006 drew on expanding real-life activities to develop English proficiency to promote a connected intercultural community, with an additional focus attending to developing an interest in English from elementary school (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2006). The main tenets of the 2006 revisions were reinforced across 2007 and 2008 through declarations that communicative ability in English was essential for Korean students (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2007; Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2008). An underpinning of this was how "students should be exposed to a variety of educational experiences which can

develop their fluency and accuracy" (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2007, p. 6). Overall, the revisions during the period sought to promote individual development and creativity, and this extended to promoting autonomy in the implementation of the curriculum in local schools (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2008). In addition, these revisions saw English as a tool for understanding foreign culture and for promoting Korean culture (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2006; Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2007; Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2008).

The Revised NEC of 2009 saw a marked shift in the attitudes of cultural promotion. The 2008 revisions maintained a Korea-centric focus by having high school education goals that included "improving the global image of Korean tradition and culture" (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2008, p. 5). However, the 2009 revision inherited a more global positioning by reframing this goal as the "ability and attitude to accept various cultures and values, and enjoy Korean culture" (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2009, p. 9). This was coupled with a shift from "develop[ing] a sense of global citizenship" (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2008, p. 5) to "cultivat[ing] … attitude[s] as a global citizen" (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2009, p. 9). To accompany these changes, the Revised NEC of 2009 also increased English education hours in third and fourth grade of elementary school to take effect from 2012 (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2009). The combination of these changes served to accentuate the increased importance of English to Korea.

The most recent revisions were published as part of the 2015 Revised NEC with additional importance attached to English. Firstly, English was written into first and second grades of elementary school for 1-hour per week to begin in 2017 (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2017; Ministry of Education, 2015). Secondly, in response to social change and needs internal and external to Korea, an emphasis has been placed on cultural harmony and appreciation of diversity (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2017; Ministry of Education, 2015). In effect, this change is acknowledging not just the globalised world and the role English holds, but also the changing landscape of Korea.

Despite the changes on paper however, hiring practices and visa procedures in Korea are still limited to NESTs. While the 2015 Revised NEC appears to indicate an awareness of the role English plays, the official focus on NESTs neglects the realities of communication in the globalised world, where the majority of English communication is said to take place between L2 users of the language (Crystal, 1997; Meierkord & Knapp, 2002). This pulls into question the level in which cultural diversity and appreciation can be integrated into the Korean classroom while also simulating an authentic environment.

The authenticity of English communication for KLE must be evaluated against English education policy in the country. As Auerbach (1995) and Seargeant (2009) write, English education must be aware of, and be authentic to, how the learners will use English in the future. That is to say, examination of the levels in which the language will be needed for professional life, travel opportunities, the changing demographics of their nation, or possible immigration to an English-speaking country is required. The factors to contemplate are diverse, but ultimately, the learner of English is often an "absent stakeholder" when they should be a primary stakeholder (Widin, 2010, pp. 60-61). The learner is the end-user of the language, and without accurate reflection of English use on the intra- and international levels, the policy makers are limiting English to a pre-approved selection of native varieties instead of providing a teaching model aligned with regional circumstances and demographic transitions (Seargeant, 2009).

The exploration between language education and the policy informing it requires constant monitoring (Pennycook, 1995; Tollefson, 1995). Donahue (1995) argues that language education should provide for class mobility. In other words, language education is a tool to promote inclusivity and development opportunities on personal, social, and professional levels, instead of acting as a barrier for strengthening dichotomies of inequality. Which, if considering the continued focus on native-speakerism in Korean English education policy and hiring practices, then a reassessment would appear to be required for fostering new relationships that sit on level ground (Holliday, 2006). A central tenet of a revised English education policy would aim for diversity to prepare English students for the reality of English on regional and global levels (Crystal, 2001).

In a regional sense, English has recently been described as a link for crossing borders and developing closer economic, political and cultural ties, which would further serve class mobility (Donahue, 1995; Park & Kim, 2014; Phillipson, 1992; Prime Minister's Office, 2008; MEXT, 2003, cited in Seargeant, 2009; Widin, 2010). This description joins the Revised NEC by transitioning away from English as a language of native speakers towards a language of 'intercultural' speakers through promoting cultural literacy development for global citizenship (Choi, 2006; Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2006, 2017; Ministry of Education, 2015; Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2007; Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2008, 2009; Park & Kim, 2014). Largely however, these have been paper-based transitions and the acknowledgement of English's pluricentricity coupled with the need to develop cultural literacies was the perfect opportunity for Korea to take a step that, as Crystal (2001, p. 61) contends, "No country has dared to do". Despite the organically presented opportunity, English education in Korea has thus far failed to fully embrace the notion of a globalised, multicultural speaker.

Similarly, even with contemporary acknowledgements and reform attempts by the Korean Ministry of Education, there still remain questions from within Korea regarding the quality of education available. Many Koreans view English education as failing to meet its objectives and they are showing their dissatisfaction by travelling abroad for language study (Choi, 2006; C. Lee, 2014; W.-y. Lee, 2014; Park, 2009; Thatcher, 2008). The numbers of Koreans studying abroad has the potential to have lasting impacts on Korea and its economy. Thatcher (2008), for instance, writes that the industry of Korean children studying abroad amounts to US$5 billion annually.

The study abroad industry and the dissatisfaction with English language education in Korea are open for discussion. The dissatisfaction may be in the percevied competence of local English teachers when positioned alongside notions of native-speakerism. However, intensive upskilling projects have been undertaken to prepare local teachers and to address concerns over the quality of English education (Kwon, 2000). In addition, as the curriculum has been revised, there have been ongoing discussions on how best to develop and support the competence of local teachers

(Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2010, 2011). Moreover, there is a stringent process for becoming a teacher in Korea. For instance, an elementary school teacher requires a BA in Primary Education, a high school teacher requires a BA or MEd in English Education, and a tertiary instructor requires an MA or PhD in an English-related discipline, with a preference for degrees obtained in English-speaking countries (Choi & Lee, 2007). Taken together, this indicates that there are attempts to develop a supportive education space built on professional local teachers.

In contrast, the dissatisfaction in Korea's English education space may equally be attributed to a deficiency in the recruitment process of NESTs. The case of NEST recruitment in Asia is often with nationality as a primary factor, and a pedagogical background unnecessary (Canagarajah, 1999; Jenkins, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2010a). A cursory glance at job listings on Dave's ESL Café reflects the necessity of nationality and native-speakerism (Sperling, 2020). In effect, the same pedagogical standard is not applied to NESTs recruited in Korea (English Program in Korea, n.d.-c; Hi KOREA, 2020; Jeon, 2009; Ministry of Justice, n.d.-a, n.d.-b). This has led Park and Kim (2014) to argue that the EPIK requirements need to harness a qualification-based hiring practice.

The history of English education in Korea draws attention to how NESTs, and American English speakers in particular, have been held in high esteem. However, putting the 'native is best' belief aside, the argument for hiring NESTs often parallels questions of English language proficiency in local teachers (Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Park, 2009). In addition to the proficiency question, the belief that a shortage of "adequately trained" local teachers of English also exists (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p. 148). This belief appears invalid when the recruitment of untrained and unqualified NESTs is a reality in Korea; this double standard assists in positioning the dichotomous relationship of NEST and non-native English speaker teacher (NNEST). This is an area of concern because, as Kim (2005, as cited in Choi & Lee, 2007, p. 2) posits, "the quality of education cannot exceed the quality of teachers", with Choi and Lee (2008) commenting in a later paper that ensuring sufficient supply of qualified teachers is a problem in Korea. Although, if access to qualified teachers is a problem, the policy informing recruitment practices should also be held accountable for the quality of those teachers.

2.3 (Non-)Native English Speaker Teachers (NEST and NNEST)

According to Davies (2003, p. 4), the first mention of a 'native' speaker came with Bloomfield in 1933, who wrote, "The first language a human being learns to speak is his native language; he is a native speaker of this language". From this comment, the literature has suggested that native speakers are those born and raised in a country where the language is spoken, and that through early exposure they have acquired a tacit understanding and control of the language (Cook, 1999; Davies, 2003; Graddol, 2000; Medgyes, 1992; Phillipson, 1992). In effect, this can be interpreted as saying that one is either born a native speaker or not. In terms of the 'not', this is where the dichotomy of the 'non-native' speaker begins.

Medgyes (1992) refers to the native and non-native dichotomy as the traditionalist and imperialist view, where the two shall never meet due to their omnipresent differences. However, through assessing the belief that a native speaker of English (NES) must be born into and/or raised in the language, problems emerge. For instance, Medgyes (1992) questions the example of India where English is widely spoken and used professionally and in education. A similar extrapolation can be attributed to the cases of the Philippines or Singapore. The example of these countries share ground as outer circle nations in the WE paradigm, which will be discussed in the following chapter. In brief though, their positioning within the outer circle leaves the inner circle to include the 'traditional' native speakers of English from countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the UK and the US.

In addition to the geographic location and upbringing of a person, appearance also appears to be a factor in determining if someone is a native speaker. Anecdotal evidence presented by Braine (2005) assesses *all* Caucasians as NES; this includes so-called non-native speakers of English (NNES) from countries such as Finland, Germany, Russia, and Sweden. On the other hand, the evidence continues by stressing that American-born Asians may not be considered as NES due to their ethnicity. Support for this phenomenon comes from both Amin (1999) and Thomas (1999), with Amin ethnically Pakistani, and Thomas Indian Singaporean. Amin identifies as a NES but has encountered confusion from her students when mentioning this, which, she believes, is possibly due to her non-Caucasian appearance. Similarly, Thomas, who, at the time of writing, was an English teacher

in the US, comments that visual appearance can be a challenge towards acceptance of the teacher. Her own students had mentioned to her that they were "disappointed" when she entered the class on the first day as they were hoping for a NEST, even though the students later felt she was a good teacher (Thomas, 1999, p. 8). Physical appearance joined with the notions of native and non-native may both influence the preferences and beliefs of students.

The preference of English variety often aligns with the preference for teacher nationality, which is researched with increasing frequency in Asia. Evans' (2010) research in China with 247 university students focused on the attitudes of students towards a number of English varieties. The results survey both American and British English in a positive light in the Chinese context. Similarly, Kaur and Raman (2014) conducted research with 36 pre-service teachers in Malaysia who were familiar with the concepts of NES and NNES. The categories under which they assessed English varieties consisted of correctness, acceptability, pleasantness, and familiarity. Across these, British English was consistently the top performer, with American English running a close second. Both of these studies signal British English as the variety of preference to American English, while other Englishes did not perform overly well. This preference is in contrast with the belief that British English is being superseded by American English globally (Bayard et al., 2001; He & Li, 2009; Sowden, 2012).

Whether American English is superseding British English or not is a moot point when these two English varieties epitomise the NES in the eyes of many. Continuing from Bayard et al.'s (2001), He and Li's (2009), and Sowden's (2012) beliefs, and aligned with the research of Evans (2010), and Kaur and Raman (2014), Kirkpatrick (2010a) comments that despite the development and codification of local English varieties across the ASEAN region, American or British English models are still preferred in teaching. Despite this, the legitimacy of these preferences in alignment with the developing nature of global English use requires discussion.

In the Korean context, a belief possibly related to NEC developments is that NEST is best, with American English the preference (Chang, 2005; Choi, 2006; Chung & Choi, 2016; Jeong, 2004; Lee, 2004; Park, 2009). Jeong (2004, p. 40) writes that Korea has 'English fever', and in particular, "American English fever". It can be

argued that American English holds the greatest weight in the global context due to political power, the entertainment industry, and popular culture (Crystal, 1997; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Sowden, 2012). The Korean government appears to support this belief through its hiring practices, and in effect, is furthering inequality between the NEST and NNEST (Jeon, 2009; Nelson, 2011; Phillipson, 1992).

Overall, this native-speakerist view sees the NEST as superior in the dichotomy (Jenkins, 2006; Jeon, 2009; Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Park, 2009). Furthermore, Kachru and Nelson (2001) suggest that inner circle NES look down on expanding circle NNES, or what Canagarajah (1999) terms 'the periphery'. The relationship takes an extra step where expanding circle speakers reportedly admire inner circle speakers. This view is in spite of the underlying lack of English ownership in the current global context (Cogo, 2012; Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 2000).

It appears that policy makers did not contemplate English ownership and global positioning when the nationality-based hiring restrictions for English teachers are unpacked. Within EPIK for instance, recent figures released report that 1324 NESTs were recruited in 2018 (English Program in Korea, n.d.-b). Furthermore, the number of foreign residents registered as residing in Korea while holding E-2 visas from inner circle nations numbered 12,336 in 2018 (Korea Immigration Service & Ministry of Justice, 2019). This is presented by nationality in Table 2.1.

The roles of these 12,336 registered foreign residents holding E-2 visas are difficult to determine. There is an understanding that many of these residents would be teaching in private language academies; however, there is also the possibility that many of these residents would be teaching in departments or language centres housed in universities. As identified though, 1324 of the 12,336 registered foreign residents holding E-2 visas were recruited by EPIK, and these teachers would be operating in accordance with the Revised NEC under instruction from their respective local school. Underpinning all of these residents' roles is their sojourn status, where the E-2 visa issued to nationals of these seven countries is for the purposes of teaching English (English Program in Korea, n.d.-c; Hi KOREA, 2020; Ministry of Justice, n.d.-a, n.d.-b). Awareness of the policies in place and the role of

NEST in Korea are integral for understanding the NEST's location within Korean TESOL. In understanding their location however, the recruitment practices in place require additional review.

Table 2.1

Registered Foreign Residents Holding E-2 Visas in 2018

Nation of Origin	Registered Foreign Residents holding an E-2 Visa (2018)
US	6886
Canada	1636
South Africa	1632
UK	1494
Australia	262
Ireland	249
New Zealand	177
TOTAL	**12336**

Note. Figures as reported by (Korea Immigration Service & Ministry of Justice, 2019).

Research suggests that across TESOL in general there is a predisposition for hiring NESTs without qualification other than their native community membership (Amin, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999; Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2010a; Widin, 2010). This is homage to the idealised view in which the NES is held (Davies, 2003). In this domain, Kirkpatrick (2010a) draws attention to the case of Thailand and their native speaker idolisation, where approximately 10,000 NEST were recruited to assist in English education in the country; the recruitment process was largely reported as non-vetted.

As mentioned, nationality is often the only qualification necessary for a NES to become a NEST. This comes in lieu of equitable opportunity being presented to highly qualified and experienced NNEST (Canagarajah, 1999; Kirkpatrick, 2010a). The prejudice of which, while starting at the policy level, filters through to university language departments, school principals, and students (Kirkpatrick, 2010a). The preference for the untrained NEST at the expense of the highly trained NNEST can also extend to linguistic abilities, where a monolingual NEST may be seen as the preference due to their ability to *only* expose students to English (Galloway, 2008; Kirkpatrick, 2010a).

The premise of English-only does not stop in recruitment, however. Galloway (2008) explored self-perceptions of NESTs in Japan, who reflected the beliefs shown in recruitment. The participants of her study alluded to their lack of Japanese as a motivator for their students to communicate in English, while they also claim to demonstrate a "perfect model of language" (p. 152). This notion of 'perfect' language will be discussed in more depth alongside ELF in Chapter 3.

In spite of the preference for NESTs and their positive self-perceptions, they have their limitations and NNESTs are beneficial for the classroom. Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2005) study of 76 university students showed the majority deemed NESTs as their preference for classes relating to speaking, pronunciation, culture, and vocabulary. The same participants showed a preference for NNESTs in the teaching of listening and reading skills. While this observation does make NNESTs partially redundant and only preferred for receptive skills acquisition, it can lead to questions of why.

If considering NESTs in terms of productive skills, then the assertion may be related to native speaker idolisation (Davies, 2003; Kachru & Nelson, 2001). The belief of the students may be that to acquire an 'accurate' version of production, they must be exposed to, as Galloway's participant posits, a "perfect model of language". However, this belief does not appear on par with the current global situation where ownership of the language has transitioned away from the NES. There is also the consideration that those students who state their preference for a NEST with respect to productive skills acquisition have only had the experience of the untrained, monolingual NEST. This would allow the conclusion that, due to the lack of training the untrained NEST has received, they are unable to effectively teach anything other than spoken language, and due to their monolingualism, they may be unable to fully assist students in a monocultural setting on other levels.

Likewise, if evaluating NNESTs in terms of receptive skills, then the assumption may also relate to the same native speaker claims (Davies, 2003; Kachru & Nelson, 2001). The belief here may be due to the marked pronunciation model of the NNEST when contrasted with a NEST in the realm of linguicism, and can tie in with perceptions of acceptability. The students may believe that, while the productive

models may not be 'perfect', the NNEST can capitalise on their training, experience, and multilingualism to assist students in their learning and uptake of written and aural passages. This deduction, however, promotes further questioning of the relevance of the NEST/NNEST dichotomy in the 21st century.

As English ownership is under scrutiny through ELF use becoming the norm, there is little need for the NEST/NNEST dichotomy to exist, let alone on levels relating to which skills are taught most effectively by which teacher. To combat this, the notion of the Multilingual English Teachers (MET) is promoted as the ideal in these changing times (Blair, 2015; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2010a, 2010b). In this area, Kirkpatrick argues that MET are able to adopt bilingual strategies in the classroom for maximising communication and learning. Furthermore, MET also serve as successful language learning models for students that can cross boundaries. For instance, MET who are also L1 speakers of English can exhibit effective language learning while simultaneously displaying an appreciation of the students' culture. This can serve to develop a greater appreciation of the communicative aspects of language, and English in the student, rather than solely focusing on the English aspect that may have often been exposed to as students in an English-only setting.

Similarly, local bilingual teachers should be promoted in a more positive light in the TESOL environment. As Widin (2010, p. 142) states, "Bilingual (or multilingual) language teachers are the norm in most countries in the world". Their status as a local MET, with the same culture as the learner, deep understanding of the difficulties they may encounter at each stage of development, and proficiency in English is to their benefit, and ultimately, is a display of their power over NESTs (Neilsen, 2004; Sowden, 2012). This belief combined with the notion that English is serving as a regional link, may extend power to the local MET. However, unless a multilingual model that appreciates the pluricentric nature of English is installed, the *status quo* will not lose speed (Kirkpatrick, 2010a). For as Kirkpatrick (2007, p. 188) argues:

> adopting a native speaker model and then hiring native speakers to model it simply serves to let the students know that the model can only be attained by people who look and sound very different from themselves

2.3.1 Language and Power

Language becomes international due to its political power and colonial strength, with examples of this evidenced through Latin with the Romans, Spanish across Central and South America, and English through its various diaspora (Crystal, 1997; Pennycook, 1995; Phillipson, 1992). There is little doubt that the spread of English is real; Conrad and Fishman (1977) observed English as holding official status in 21 countries some 40 years ago, and this figure has increased five-fold to exceed 100 when national and *de facto* national languages are considered ("English," 2019). English holds a position in the world that has never previously been seen.

The colonial growth of English was originally due to the UK and their global expansion, and while the colonial impact has lessened in the last 40 years, the notions attached to linguistic imperialism are still present in many domains. Phillipson (1992, p. 47) describes linguistic imperialism as being where "the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages". In other words, there is a belief from the 'owners' of English that 'their' language and culture is superior to the local language and culture of where they are attempting to colonise.

Many of these beliefs have developed over time through the diaspora of English. The first diaspora covers the British Isles migration to Australia, New Zealand, and North America, where English developed as the dominant language and with these regions developing into the native speaker varieties of English; the 'owners' or 'gatekeepers' of English. The second diaspora refers to the colonial legacy of English in regions such as East Africa and sub-continental Asia, where English developed alongside the local language, and as the language of the ruling class to serve as a colony *lingua franca* (Kachru & Nelson, 2001). In both instances, the power of the colonialists contributed to the inequality in status between the local and English.

Beyond the lasting impact that the diaspora of English has had on its global development, the political intentions that have contributed to English's spread and power also require contextualisation. The British Council had funding support of £6000 in 1935, however, due to the belief that increased English proficiency across a

country would warrant greater access, this funding figure rose to £386,000 by 1939 (Phillipson, 1992). The US joined the UK in this political battle for access to developing countries as part of their global strategy, and promoted English as "the mark of the educated man", which may be considered as the beginning of the modern linguicism that survives today (Enriquez & Marcelino, 1984, p. 3, as cited in Phillipson, 1992, p. 152).

As has been discussed, English is seen as a vehicle capable of providing educational and professional opportunities (Jeon, 2009; Mikio, 2013; Park, 2009; Park & Kim, 2014; Shin, 2014; Thatcher, 2008), and when combined with intelligence and modernity, allows a view of how the TESOL sector has developed into a global industry. English drives the international market through fear of being left behind in areas of economic and personal development (Crystal, 1997; Kubota & Ward, 2000; Phillipson, 1992). The positive aspect of English acquisition may be that the English learner is said to have greater access to domains that may not be easily accessed through their L1. However, there is often also cultural baggage coming via TESOL, or more specifically, via the teacher (Phillipson, 1992). This cultural attachment is considered to be a remnant of the belief that culture and language cannot be separated, which in turn, may serve to further aid the spread of Western culture under the guise of TESOL due to the status afforded the NEST (Phillipson, 1992).

In addition to the opportunity and status English is believed to offer, there exists hegemony where certain varieties are perceived as more prestigious than others. The two heavyweights of English are GAE of the US and RP of the UK, and these are two varieties often looked upon favourably (Ahn, 2014; Evans, 2010; Jeong, 2004; Lee & Lee, 2019; Lippi-Green, 1997; Park, 2009; Pollard, 2011a, 2011b, 2016; Si, 2019). Beyond the peak of the pyramid, other NES from the first diaspora, referred to as the inner circle varieties, also hold power within TESOL; however, Kachru and Nelson (2001) assert that NES tolerate each other's varieties, while they show disdain toward the second diaspora English varieties. According to Kachru and Nelson (2001), users of these second diaspora varieties, also referred to as outer circle varieties, reflect the NES attitudes of disdain by showing appreciation toward inner circle varieties. Recent research puts forth that this attitude of appreciation toward inner circle varieties also extends to expanding circle users (Evans, 2010; Lee

& Lee, 2019; Si, 2019). This hegemonic hierarchy is a black spot on English and TESOL given the global spread of the language and requires attention.

It is suggested that the hegemony in practice fails to respect the learner (Graddol, 2000; Jin & Cortazzi, 2003). There is inadequate regard of how the learner will use English, the contexts in which English will be used, and effectively, which English will meet these purposes most effectively (Auerbach, 1995; Graddol, 2000; Jin & Cortazzi, 2003; Seargeant, 2009). These ruminations ultimately relate to the owner status of the inner circle, and therefore, the Western world (Crystal, 1997; Kubota & Ward, 2000). However, the global standing of English leads to the question of when and how the ownership of English, particularly within TESOL, transfers from the West to be an entity inclusive of all English users. A possible solution is presented by Modiano (2005), who believes that to reduce the hegemonic practices and linguicism within TESOL, local identities should be promoted and given a greater voice. He continues by noting that promotion of local identities will serve to create a more democratic English and will serve the development of ELF, which is how English is used in this modern world.

2.4 Directions and Responses to English Education

For English to positively contribute to the community, the whole picture needs inspection. Elements of the picture include the policy and how the learners will need and use English (Auerbach, 1995; Jin & Cortazzi, 2003; Seargeant, 2009). Crystal (2001) posits that diversity should be central in educational policy formation and revision by transitioning diversity from the periphery to a more central role. Significantly though, this kind of transition may affect many countries by making them "uncomfortable", and is perhaps why "no country has dared do this" on a national level (Crystal, 2001, p. 61). Ultimately, the rationale behind closely incorporating the periphery into English education policy assesses the ways in which learners in the region use English.

As Widin (2010, pp. 60-61) contends, learners of English are "absent stakeholders" in TESOL. This means that while learners of English are stakeholders, their views and needs are not considered on the same level as other stakeholders. This behaviour is remiss as there is a serious need for all involved in TESOL to serve the learner;

without the learner, the industry does not exist. In this sense, it is evident that an understanding of how learners will use English in the future – for employment, education, immigration, or tourism – needs to be developed (Auerbach, 1995). Additionally, to proactively address these needs, materials used should be inline with learners' needs and more accurately represent regional use (Kirkpatrick, 2007; Widin, 2010).

The belief that diversity should be central in assisting replication of how learners will encounter English in their livelihoods has begun to be installed on a small scale through an acknowledgement of GE. For instance, Chukyo University has made efforts to incorporate the periphery. In recent years, the university has started employing well-trained teachers from outer circle nations, with teachers from the Bahamas, India, the Philippines, Singapore, and Zambia recruited (Sakai & D'Angelo, 2005). This approach is a sign of the modern belief that English is a language of the people, inclusive of the periphery, and not controlled by any country (Cogo, 2012; Crystal, 1997, 2001; Jenkins, 2000; Sowden, 2012).

Koreans also appear to share the view of English not being controlled by any country. The trend of sending children abroad to develop English proficiency has been reviewed in recent times (C. Lee, 2014; W.-y. Lee, 2014; Park, 2009; Thatcher, 2008). However, where Koreans are studying abroad is varied. In 2006, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources documented that approximately 24,000 Korean elementary school students were studying abroad in English-speaking nations (Park, 2009). The report observes that while the majority of students were studying in the US or Canada, there were also populations in the Philippines and Singapore. The fact that Koreans are travelling to the Philippines or Singapore – both outer circle nations – for study abroad demonstrates that boundaries can be flexed.

When looking at university-aged Koreans travelling abroad for study, a similar trend has continued in recent times. According to reports from the Ministry of Education (2019), the majority of Koreans undertaking study abroad in English-speaking nations travel to the US, with large populations also studying in Australia, Canada and the UK, and New Zealand. The remaining two E-2 visa approved nations –

Ireland and South Africa – receive fewer study abroad Koreans with figures comparable to those of the Philippines and Singapore in the 2019 report.

When surveying the Philippines and Singapore, the long-term view of university-aged Koreans studying abroad offers insight. Overall, the Philippines has reported a larger number of Korean study abroad students when compared with Singapore (Ministry of Education, 2019). Over the last ten years, the figures reported for the Philippines have typically exceeded 2500 students per year, whereas Singapore's maximum reporting figure over this period was 1068 (Ministry of Education, 2019). In addition, several press releases and news reports have indicated the high number of Koreans studying in the Philippines (Bureau of Immigration, 2014; *Number of foreign students in the Philippines increases*, 2013; Satake, 2015; Strother, 2015). These reports can be placed alongside annotations in earlier Korean Ministry of Education (2010) reports estimating that between 10,000 and 20,000 Koreans study English in the Philippines annually. Overall, these estimates would place the Philippines firmly within the same band as those E-2 nations serving as study abroad destinations, and this raises the question of the importance the Philippines holds in Korea's English education paradigm.

Through exploring study abroad trends to English-speaking destinations, the origins of the most pertinent English varieties to KLE are considered to be Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, the Philippines, South Africa, the UK and the US. However, with this information in mind, evaluating the level in which native-speakerism is present in Korean English education policy needs addressing. Overall, if KLE are travelling abroad to study English, and as is suggested, are as content with Philippine English teachers as they are with inner circle teachers, then this can help to direct policy revision. Currently, E-2 visas, EPIK, and most TESOL positions in Korea are primarily directed at the seven nations of Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, the UK and the US, despite the NEC proposal of supporting intercultural speaker development and global citizenship. In sum, this appears to be a remnant not acknowledging KLE and only serving to reinforce their "absent stakeholder" status (Widin, 2010, pp. 60-61).

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter has identified Korea's current English education context and how KLE respond to some of the issues identified. In the first instance, it has been noted that a clear directive embedded within Korea's English education policy is its international promotion. However, Korea's hiring practices and visa regulations do not appear to replicate this promotion. This concern was further captured through attention being paid to the notions of linguicism embedded within policy and practice that promote specified teacher origins. This chapter questioned the validity of the discrepancy between international promotion and restrictive hiring practices by drawing attention to trends of KLE studying abroad. Chapter 3 builds on these questions by reviewing literature surrounding the current state of English, its uses, its features, and their contributions to listening performance.

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

3.0 Introduction

The state of English in the world, its uses, its features, and their relationship with the listening process are critical to understanding the fibre of the situation addressed in this thesis and how they relate to Korea's English education and KLE. To assist with these understandings, this chapter reviews literature in three superordinate sections. The first section provides an overview of global Englishes (GE) by unpacking world Englishes (WE) and English as a lingua franca (ELF), and progresses into notions of pluricentricity and acceptability. The second section develops these notions by exploring language attitudes and moves into an analysis of recent studies across the region. The third superordinate section transitions into the notions of intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability. This section progresses into an examination of prosodic and paralinguistic features of English and their effects, which bridges into a final area inspecting the listening process.

3.1 Global Englishes (GE)

English is considered the language with the widest spread, and has undisputed global coverage (Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 2000; Kachru & Nelson, 2001; Pennycook, 1995). Through its spread, English has developed and transformed accordingly, and with this, various representative models have been proposed. Current thinking promotes the umbrella term of GE, which encompasses English strands across the WE and ELF paradigms (Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2015, 2018; Jenkins, 2015b). The following three sections examine models of WE that have led to and grounded GE, assess developments in ELF, and discuss the pluricentric nature of English in its current role and how they connect to the Korean context.

3.1.1 World Englishes (WE)

Models representing the spread of English have been presented numerous times over the course of the paradigm's development. An early representation put forth by Strevens (1992) sees English as a tree diagram where American and British English form larger branches before splitting into further subdivisions mirroring English's

spread. Along similar lines, McArthur's (1987) circle of World English positions World Standard English centrally while regions are unpacked outwardly into localised varieties. Both of these models express hierarchical levels in English's development. On a basal level, this hierarchical structure of English seems to be mirrored in earlier incarnations of Korea's NEC, where preference was shown for American English (Choi, 2006; Chung & Choi, 2016; Lee, 2004).

A slightly different platform promoted by Kachru (1992) presents English across three concentric circles: inner, outer, and expanding. In this model, which is the basis for much WE-related attitudinal research, the inner circle is seen as the 'traditional' user of the language; e.g. Australia, the UK and the US. With the spread of English, inner circle nations have also been described as the diaspora associated with the migration of the British Isles (Kachru & Nelson, 2001). This diaspora aligns with current policy and practice in Korea (English Program in Korea, n.d.-c; Hi KOREA, 2020; Jeon, 2009). The second tier of the model presents the outer circle, which relates to those nations that were influenced colonially, such as India, the Philippines, and Singapore, and accordingly, are associated with the second diaspora of English (Kachru & Nelson, 2001). Current study abroad trends for KLE indicate that these are the kinds of nations KLE interaction for English development is present (Bureau of Immigration, 2014; Ministry of Education, 2010, 2019; *Number of foreign students in the Philippines increases*, 2013; Satake, 2015; Strother, 2015). Finally, the expanding circle relates to the 'new' users of English, with China and Korea being examples. While Kachru's circles move away from a regionally delineated hierarchical structure into a diasporic structure, which draws attention to the positioning of English within a community, an issue is that not all varieties of English can be neatly packaged.

Of the varieties identified as the most pertinent to the Korean context, a closer look needs to be taken. As stated, TESOL in Korea is built around the seven nations of Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, the UK and the US, which are fundamentally located within Kachru's inner circle. However, within these seven there is debate. For instance, Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008) mark Ireland as having one foot in the outer circle. According to the Central Statistics Office (2016), 39.8% of the population self-report as Irish language speakers, although, the understanding

here is that these speakers are predominantly bilingual with Irish spoken less frequently than English. A more prominent case is South Africa, who Kachru (1992) suggests straddles both inner and outer circles. In part this relates to Mufwene's (2001) assertion that sociopolitical factors where English from European descendants (including Afrikaners) is perceived as 'native' while English from other South Africans is perceived as 'indigenised'. A closer look at the South African population however, identifies less than 10% of the population as L1 English speakers (Crystal, 1997; Statistics South Africa, 2012). In real numbers, the 2011 census documents just 4.8 million L1 English speakers of the population of 51 million, which positions English as the fourth most prevalent language behind Zulu, Xhosa, and Afrikaans (Statistics South Africa, 2012). These are both interesting observations when scrutinising the position of Ireland and South Africa within Korean TESOL.

In contrast to taking speaker-origin through English's spread as the foundation, Gupta (1997) proposed a model aligned with levels of multilingualism, with a stronger focus on the 'speaker' rather than the 'variety'. In her model, Gupta classifies English use into five levels. The first two focus on monolingual countries: monolingual ancestral English countries (e.g. Australia, the UK and the US), and monolingual contact countries (e.g. Jamaica). From here, the remaining three levels focus on multilingual contexts: multilingual scholastic English countries (e.g. India and Pakistan), multilingual contact varieties (e.g. Singapore and Malaysia), and multilingual ancestral English countries (e.g. South Africa and Canada). Gupta argues that the delineations made are aligned with how English is acquired, and whether this extends to formal or informal acquisition in a societal context, which also considers the level of external influence. In this sense, there is an indication that 'ancestral' levels may have minimal external influence, whereas 'contact' levels may have developed (in a monolingual context) or be acquired (in a multilingual context) as a societal necessity. Overall, Gupta believes that through a greater focus on the individual experience there is reduced potential to generalise country-speaker associations.

While Gupta's belief does attempt to avoid generalisations, it still serves to mark differences across contexts. Comparatively, Schneider (2007) moved away from these differences to focus more clearly on the holistic 'uniformity' present in the

formative process of post-colonial English varieties. It is here where Schneider (2007) proposes The Dynamic Model, which outlines five developmental phases in the evolution of a post-colonial English variety as: "(1) foundation, (2) exonormative stabilization, (3) nativization, (4) endonormative stabilization, and (5) differentiation" (p. 30). The gross sum of Schneider's model is that English enters a territory with external values and norms before its increased contact with the local context and its respective values become embedded, which leads to its independent consolidation and identity. In effect, The Dynamic Model attempts to document the codification process of English varieties, which, while it does not expressly consider the new English varieties otherwise located in the expanding circle, is of value when inspecting the legitimacy and positioning of Kachru's outer circle varieties holistically.

Turning to the outer circle and the Philippines, and how, through its embedded alignment with Kachru's circles, the Korean Ministry of Education does not view Philippine English as an independently legitimate English variety, it is possible to appreciate the English variety's independence by considering Schneider's Dynamic Model. This interpretation complements KLE' study abroad decisions as targeting the Philippines as a valid English education destination. Furthermore, the status of English itself within the Philippines cannot be disputed; the 1918 Philippines census reported that approximately 50% of the Philippines population could communicate in English (Kirkpatrick, 2010a). In addition, English is currently a language of instruction throughout education, the language of university education, and a language of the government. In conjunction with the above, Filipinos are in high demand as overseas contract workers due to, not in the least, their English ability (Kirkpatrick, 2010a). Interestingly, when contemplating the above, the status of English in the Philippines appears to hold greater standing than in the South African context.

Beyond the status of English in the Philippines and South Africa, there is a need to scan the WE paradigm in reference to its current applicability. As Sharifian (2012, p. 319) states, "The relevance of world Englishes to more practical areas such as intercultural communication and English language teaching cannot be overestimated". In this respect, the WE paradigm, with particular attention paid to

Kachru's circles given its position in the field and the Ministry's positioning (Galloway & Rose, 2015), allows for exploration into its GE research cousin, ELF, which will be unpacked below.

3.1.2 English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

A second element in GE is ELF, which locates English in multilingual interactions (Galloway & Rose, 2015, 2018). At the fundamental level, *lingua franca* is defined as: "A language that is adopted as a common language between speakers whose native languages are different" (*Lingua franca [Def. 1]*, n.d.). In terms of ELF, this was originally furthered as: "a 'contact language' between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication" (Firth, 1996, p. 240). Firth's definition however, can be expanded to include English communication also including inner circle interlocutors, and therefore, may incorporate those for whom English is not a 'foreign' language (Seidlhofer, 2004, 2005). To acknowledge how English is used in the world, that is, as a bridge for communication across domains (Cogo, 2012; Jenkins, 2009; Prime Minister's Office, 2008; Seidlhofer, 2004; Widin, 2010), the contemporary definition for ELF does not differentiate language background, but rather, focuses on the essential element of communication itself, which repositions ELF in a multilingual framework (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b).

Therefore, ELF can be witnessed across myriad situations and contexts where the primary goal is successful communication (Brown, 1995; Canagarajah, 2007; Cogo, 2012; Crystal, 1997; Kirkpatrick, 2010a). Through this understanding, it is possible to see a correlation between this goal and Korea's NEC targeting the development of successful intercultural communicators (Choi, 2006; Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2006, 2017; Ministry of Education, 2015; Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2007; Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2008, 2009; Park & Kim, 2014). Parallel to this is the notion put forth by Graddol (1999), which is, that English will develop to be primarily used for communication in multilingual contexts, and can be argued as the reality of English use in contemporary times (Canagarajah, 2007; Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b). In this respect, English in the current ELF age has resulted in questioning the

legitimacy of NES varieties as models. It is argued that if communication is taking place between multiple L2 interlocutors, the reliance on native norms is obsolete (Jenkins, 2000, 2006, 2009; Meierkord & Knapp, 2002; Sakai & D'Angelo, 2005; Seidlhofer, 2002). As a result, communicative success often hinges on user-created norms, although, also integral to the success of the communicative act are the notions of accommodation, and negotiation of meaning (Canagarajah, 2007; Cogo, 2012; Crystal, 2001; Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Seidlhofer, 2002).

Early ELF research argues that ELF should not rely on native norms, but rather, locate itself via a democratic process (Modiano, 2005; Seidlhofer, 2002). Modiano (2005) continues by arguing L2 English users have important roles in ELF's development. Modiano's (1999) earlier work in this area took a WE approach to the description of ELF use and divided English into five domains: American English; British English; major varieties (e.g. Australian, Canadian, and South African); other varieties; and foreign language speakers. Across these five domains, the influence of Kachru's circles is visible, and therefore, shows an intersection with Korea's English education context. Firstly, a clear delineation of inner circle varieties is present. There is also reference to the outer (e.g. other varieties) and expanding (e.g. foreign language varieties) circles. From this delineation of varieties, Modiano locates 'English as an international language' in the centre, which is proposed as 'The Common Core' and represents features shared across all English users. However, while this model does seem to prioritise the democratic process, Modiano is not explicit in what this 'core' includes, and as a result, it remains theoretical.

In contrast to approach posited by Modiano (1999), the foundation of ELF research, now coined ELF1, included descriptive studies assessing lexical, grammatical and phonological features (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b). One key proposition from this period was the LFC, as put forth by Jenkins (2000), which observed common linguistic features in ELF interactions. In other words, the LFC detailed features of pronunciation considered essential for intelligible communication. This included segmental features across consonant and vowel sounds, and suprasegmental features across prosodic areas relating to stress and rhythm. Of these, nuclear stress was marked as essential for intelligibility, whereas intonational factors, reduced vowels and weak forms, and word stress were seen as non-essential for intelligibility.

While the LFC was an early contributor to ELF research, it was not free from criticism. Despite being addressed by Jenkins (2000), a noted LFC critique is that confusion appears between whether the LFC is prescriptive or descriptive. A case in point here is where there are misinterpretations of the LFC promoting a prescriptive framework pushing the development of ELF as an English variety (Saraceni, 2008). While it is possible to see how a list of observed features could be interpreted as a framework for maximising 'intelligible communication' through suggestions that the LFC outlined a communicative foundation, it is important to reiterate that the LFC arose through observations of interactions where common ground was identified. In this sense, Jenkins (2006, 2010) maintains that the LFC never proposed a single system, but rather, identified a set of features that could assist in providing a widely intelligible foundation from which to build. Dewey (2011) elaborated on this by reinforcing that Jenkins' intention was to draw attention to core and local features that could be leveraged in communication.

Further to this, Jenkins (2010, 2015a) underscores that the LFC was a starting point for prompting discussion. From Jenkins' early research, regional projects have taken place. These include the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) project under Barbara Seidlhofer focusing on ELF in Europe (VOICE, 2013), and the Asian Corpus of English (ACE) under Andy Kirkpatrick focusing on ELF in Asia (ACE, 2020). Both of these projects have greatly assisted in the progression of ELF research, and allow for a closer inspection of the ongoing relevance of the LFC.

The work of Kirkpatrick (2010a) in particular denotes phonological and phonetic features in evidence in ASEAN ELF users, and which of these features appear to help or hinder communication. Across the segmental levels, consonants such as dental fricative /θ/ was observed as commonly substituted as /t/, while final consonant clusters were reduced. Similarly, contrastive vowel length was merged, diphthongs such as [eɪ] and [oʊ] were reduced to monophthongs, and triphthongs such as [aʊwə] became bisyllabic. In terms of prosodic features, reduced vowels and forms are observed as not present in ASEAN ELF, whereas phrase endings and pronouns commonly received stress. This, in conjunction with the LFC and the ASEAN+3 structure, can position the relevance of ELF in the Korean TESOL

context. However, as Jenkins (2000) reinforced, the responsibility in communication is moving away from the speaker, and placing more responsibility on the listener.

Through development in research foci, ELF1 transitioned into the space referred to as ELF2 (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a). In this space, ELF research focused more on the interaction and the associated occurences of meaning negotiation and accommodation. Accommodation is central to effective communication, and this is no different in the ELF paradigm (Canagarajah, 2007; Cogo, 2012; Crystal, 2001; Dewey, 2011; Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010a). When mentioning accommodation, this is referring to Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) and its two prime features of convergence and divergence (Coupland et al., 1988; Gasiorek et al., 2015; Giles, 1973; Giles & Coupland, 1991; Giles & Ogay, 2007; Shepard et al., 2001). Here, convergence is an adaptive strategy used by interlocutors to assist each other in finding equal ground in spoken production and non-verbal communication (NVC). In other words, when interlocutors converge, they begin to speak and act in a similar way, thus, converging, which in turn, aids communication. Divergence on the other hand moves in the opposite direction with the interlocutors maintaining or accentuating their individual characteristics of spoken production and NVC, which results in communication being hindered (Giles & Coupland, 1991; Seidlhofer, 2009). With CAT in mind, and with the understanding that the primary goal in ELF communication is the act of successful communication, it can be asserted that attempts to converge in a mutually respectful manner outweigh attempts to diverge (Canagarajah, 2007; Crystal, 2001; Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Murray, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2009).

Seidlhofer (2009) raises the question of how interlocutors converge in ELF communication. With communication the goal, she asserts that interlocutors in an ELF transaction will converge to an extent that enables them to successfully communicate, while remaining as true to their own culture and identity as possible. In other words, ELF users wish to use English in communicaton, but do not need, nor wish, to rely on norms that have been created outside of their own self and experiences. Furthermore, there is a suggestion that communication and its associated factors and context work together to create the culture of the interaction (Baker, 2011). In this vain, it is argued that users of English may need to only

modify their local production when intelligibility is negatively affected (Hung, 2003). On a similar stratum, there is also the belief that through repeated interactions, and the growing use of ELF in specific regions, norms that are relevant to those ELF users will rise to the surface (Canagarajah, 2007; Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2010a, 2018; Murray, 2012; Torghabeh, 2007). These views enable ELF and its strategies in communication to be seen, and allows the negotiation of meaning also taking place to be pondered.

Negotiation of meaning in ELF is a key element, as without it, communication may not be successfully completed. In simple terms, negotiation of meaning is as it sounds: two parties working together to find mutual ground. With ELF communication in mind, it is observed that as the goal is to successfully communicate, the interlocutors will readily rephrase, paraphrase, or explain to reduce misunderstandings and ensure pragmatic uptake and continuing communication (Canagarajah, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Murray, 2012). Further to this, and with relevance to Asia, it is suggested that negotiation of meaning is also a face-saving act, as the speaker is taking responsibility for not being able to transmit their message to the listener successfully (Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Walkinshaw & Kirkpatrick, 2014). The responsibility taken by the speaker relieves the force of the face-threatening act thrust onto the listener in the initial breakdown, and allows the interlocutors to work together to construct meaning and save face. It is through these collaborative actions that ELF is able to promote intercultural competence.

According to House (2007, p. 19), an intercultural speaker is someone who is knowledgeable across two cultures, and is able to "develop his or her own third way, in between cultures he or she is familiar with". What House (2007) is suggesting is that for someone to exhibit intercultural competence, they should have a developed understanding of their own language and culture and a second language and culture, and through these understandings they are able to approximate a middle ground between these cultures enabling effective communication. However, under the ELF paradigm, it could be argued that having a deep understanding of the culture associated with English may not be required, for that could involve reverting to NES norms and associated cultures, and could potentially move away from the multingual context of ELF. On this plane, it possible to see how the importance of the culture of

the interaction (Baker, 2011), instead of a connection with 'specific' culture, takes precedence in ELF use. Consequently, House's (2007) intercultural speaker notion can be extrapolated onto ELF users and how multilinguals tend to be effective communicators across cultures (Kirkpatrick, 2010a), which also appears to be the NEC target (Choi, 2006; Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2006, 2017; Ministry of Education, 2015; Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2007; Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2008, 2009; Park & Kim, 2014).

Evidence of ELF promoting intercultural competence can be seen through the very nature of ELF interactions. ELF is used across domains ranging from the economic and political, through to tourism and social exchanges, and can include people from diverse sociolinguistic backgrounds (Cogo, 2012; Jenkins, 2009; Murray, 2012). This factor raises the issues of identity, ELF ownership, and ELF development.

With reference to maintaining identity, a speaker's accent is a prime method of expressing their local identity (Kirkpatrick et al., 2008). Kaur and Raman (2014) register that it is important to ELF users that they maintain identity as much as possible, which, as ELF positions itself more firmly in the multilingual is becoming more of a reality. One way in which this could be contributed to is through the proposition that ELF users do not use English in an identity-neutral vaccum with a reduced cultural connection, rather, the identity and culture carried into and constructed within ELF communication is a lively feature of the interaction between the often multilingual and multicultural interlocutors (Baker, 2011). However, for ELF communication to be successful a balance must be struck between maintaining identity and exhibiting an awareness of phonological convergence for greater intelligibility (Kaur & Raman, 2014; Seidlhofer, 2009). According to Seidlhofer (2009), ELF users may not take native norms in terms of phonological realisation as a valid component of the English user contract. This also extends beyond phonological realisations to encompass how ELF communication is now acknowledged as not being bound to inner circle culture (Baker, 2011), which further promotes the importance of maintaining a local identity. To progress this aspect of ELF more completely, increasing awareness of and exposure to WE varieties in ELF interactions where the potential for acquiring a deeper appreciation of ELF while

removing the belief of 'native is best' exists may be a viability (Cameron & Galloway, 2019; Dewey & Patsko, 2018; Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2015, 2018; Jenkins, 2006). Through these developments, it could be argued that through increasing an awareness of the plurilingual nature of English, ELF users will become more empowered through developing a greater level of confidence in their own English production and expression of their culture and identity, while also giving greater legitimacy to their English ownership.

It is documented how the spread of English and its plurilingual nature are contributing to developments in the notion of language ownership (Clyne, 2006; Crystal, 2001; Pennycook, 1995). While there exists the traditional stake for English ownership from the inner circle, stakes for ownership are being planted by L2 and ELF users as the paradigm develops (Blair, 2015; Jenkins, 2006; Sowden, 2012; Sung, 2015). This is partly due to the understanding that much of the communication in English is as ELF (Crystal, 1997, 2001; Graddol, 2000). Through the normality of ELF communication, pluricentric acceptance is supplanting hegemonic tendency, and is resulting in regional ELF developments that are endonormatively grounded (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2010a, 2018; Seargeant, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2002).

Accompanying these developments is the repositioning of the ELF paradigm. From its foundations as a WE sibling in ELF1, through to gaining more independence as a paradigm in ELF2, the current stage is referred to as ELF3 where the underpinnings of ELF interactions have been relocated (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b). The key point to draw on is that while ELF previously appreciated the 'English' aspect, this is where hegemonic beliefs maintained power. With this, the observable overarching norm in ELF interactions was identified as not the English use per se, but rather how English is just *one* component of ELF communication involving multilingual interlocutors (Jenkins, 2015b, 2018b). In essence, Jenkins argues that this repositions ELF from viewing English as superordinate, to viewing English as a parallel element of multilingualism in ELF interactions.

This recent thinking in the ELF paradigm does not discredit earlier research foci. It is still essential in TESOL to equip learners for future communicative success, and this

will often focus on factors contributing to intelligibility, which reverts some attention to features mentioned in the LFC. However, to reiterate, receptive awareness is a key aspect of intelligible communication and can be reaffirmed as actively engaging with accommodation and negotiation of meaning while also prioritising multilingualism (Canagarajah, 2007; House, 2007; Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Murray, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2009). In this sense, this is where attitudinal development and notions of acceptability through awareness-raising activities encompassing English in action across multiple contexts, as positioned in the GE framework, can be shaped (Cameron & Galloway, 2019; Dewey & Patsko, 2018; Fang & Ren, 2018; Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2018). The sum of furthering ELF within this GE framework, as noted above, is the potential held to remove power from the native through the reconfirmation of English within multilingualism as the 'norm', which serves to further empower English learners, in both Korean and wider contexts, as ELF users.

3.1.3 The Multilingualism Framework, Pluricentricity and Levels of Acceptability

It is acknowledged that there is no single owner or culture attached to English (Cogo, 2012; Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 2000). Crystal (2001) contends this can be attributed to the rapid growth English has undergone, which, in turn, has resulted in the rapid development of regional varieties independent of native norms. These conclusions are complemented by the developments in ELF and how English is one component of the multilingual arsenal (Hansen Edwards, 2017; Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b; Kirkpatrick, 2018). Overall, the current state of English has led to the call that it is metaphorically taken from the hierarchical NES and passed onto ELF users (Melchers & Shaw, 2003; Sowden, 2012).

A method for facilitating this passing of ownership is by providing users with exposure to a range of English varieties, which can lead to increased awareness and understanding of English's nature (Brown, 1995; Galloway, 2013; Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2018; Jenkins, 2006; Kubota & Ward, 2000; Matsuura et al., 2017; Pollard, 2016; Sakai & D'Angelo, 2005). The raising of awareness is critical as "someone's accent is the first thing people notice" (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p. 85). While phonology is a key aspect of a person's accent, other factors are prosodic or paralinguistic in nature, and can not only affect the attitudes and perceptions of acceptability of a speaker's English, but also the level at which they are comprehensibly received

(Brown, 1990; Crystal, 1969; Jenkins, 2000; Klopfenstein, 2009; Mennen, 2007; Pickering et al., 2012). However, it is argued that while an accent may be under initial scrutiny, through increased exposure – i.e. an increased familiarity – the attitudes toward it can become more positive, which is essential from a cross-cultural communication, or ELF stance (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2008; Kaur & Raman, 2014; Modiano, 2005). Modiano (2005) adds to this by insisting exposure to regional varieties in the classroom is an important aspect not to be overlooked in terms of developing cross-cultural competence that also promotes local identities in a positive light.

The acceptance of difference is critical, as these differences are related to the user's identity (Crystal, 1997; Modiano, 2005; Sharifian, 2012). Difference exists to the extent of research suggesting that within varieties there is also variation; an example of this being that Singaporean English is no longer considered a single variety of English, but one encompassing several sub-varieties (Crystal, 2001). However, acceptance of difference does not solely hinge on the student as it also relies on the teacher accepting variation (Jin & Cortazzi, 2003). Acceptability from a teacher's standpoint may be a challenge if the teachers are NESTs holding the belief discussed by Galloway (2008, p. 152), in that they offer a "perfect model". In spite of this, if teachers are accepting of the notions of GE and ELF, one might assume they offer a more egalitarian view that promotes pluricentric communication over aspirations of native norms (Dauer, 2005; Melchers & Shaw, 2003).

The democratic development of ELF founded in multilingual norms and the pluricentric realisation of English is a reality. According to Widin (2010), while participants of projects observe differences in hierarchical status relating to English varieties, there is an indication that more recent views point to a paradigm shift where a delineation between NES and NNES exists. Widin (2010) notes that this appears to be more the case with the Japanese-based participants in her study, which may be due to an increased exposure to these varieties via the Japanese Ministry of Education beginning to accept Singaporean and Filipino English teachers. However, an additional factor attributing to this paradigm shift is the notion that English is a bridge between people of all levels within a multilingual framework (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b; Prime Minister's Office, 2008; Widin, 2010). Still, even

though the notion of difference and English's pluricentric phonology is the norm, and if a singular standard does not exist, why education – including education in Korea – is travelling in that direction must be questioned (Kachru & Nelson, 2001; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008).

In this "post-Anglophone world" (Kirkpatrick, 2010a, p. 157) it is argued that native norms are obsolete, and there is a growing demand to internationalise English communication (Brown, 1995; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Meierkord & Knapp, 2002). The reality of English is such that it is now used in global multilingual communication under the umbrella of ELF (Crystal, 1997; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Meierkord & Knapp, 2002; Sharifian, 2012). Despite English being the unofficial global language, and pluricentric realisations being the new norm, the notion is not without challenges (Seargeant, 2009). One challenge interconnects with the notions of acceptability, which has been touched across this section. Further to this, attitudes towards English production, which are often informed by 'native norms', exist in the form of acceptability. For instance, a fear of how intelligible an utterance may be can intertwine with the extent to which it is deemed acceptable (Wang & Jenkins, 2016). Wang and Jenkins' (2016) research in this space also contends that the more ELF-aware – or experienced – the rater is, the greater the level of openness there is with respect to acceptability, which ties in with the notion that it is becoming important to facilitate methods for changing attitudes and perspectives (Sung, 2013).

Furthermore, while ELF is currently positioned holistically within a multilingual framework, where the English component accessible to its users (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b), there are also observations that ELF itself sits on a pluricentric plane (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006). In this pluricentric space, arguments exist in how forms of ELF are realised regionally. Research conducted looking at ASEAN ELF indicates evidence for norm development across a regional context (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2010a, 2010b, 2010d), which could further contribute to notions of acceptability. In essence, much like how English varieties themselves organically develop, the processes in ELF development also appear organic, with a correlation to ELF interaction exposure evident (Jenkins, 2009). Further to this, divergence from the regional ELF norm can lead to communicative misunderstandings occurring. For instance, Deterding and

Kirkpatrick (2006) argue how pronunciation of the interlocutors diverging from a perceived typical ASEAN speaker can have this effect, which pulls the notion of GE variety exposure and its relationships coupling acceptability to intelligibility and comprehensibility back into the equation.

Interestingly, Sewell (2010) theorises that for the purposes of international intelligibility, English will converge on the phonemic level, while still maintaining sub-phonemic variation, which, he believes, marks accent, in and of itself, as not an issue affecting intelligibility. This is poignant when positioning the use of English against Korea's education policy and the acceptability of English varieties as teaching models on the peninsula. However, despite the power intelligibility and comprehensibility hold, the issue relating to whether an English variety is acceptable or not in Korea is also tightly linked to the language attitudes of Koreans themselves. As discussed earlier in this section, a speaker's production is open for judgment, and it is this interplay across the GE framework that similarly contributes to acceptance levels. To understand these evaluative reactions and their power in more depth, the following section will focus on language attitudes.

3.2 Language Attitudes

The concept of attitude has been investigated across a plethora of domains, including social psychology and sociolinguistics (Cargile et al., 1994). Despite the rich history in attitude research, it is claimed that no single definition is in place (Cargile et al., 1994). A widely supported definition for attitude is put forth by Sarnoff (1966, p. 279), who defines an attitude as "a disposition to react favorably or unfavorably to a class of objects". Sarnoff's definition sits in line with Droba's (1933, p. 451) earlier claim that, "An attitude is a mental disposition of the human individual to act for or against a definite object". Through taking these definitions on board, it can be concluded that an attitude, at its most fundamental, is a person's view of something, which, in the case of this research, is a view of a language variety.

Within the attitude itself, three components are said to be present. These components are: cognitive, affective, and behavioural (Baker, 1992; Edwards, 1985). In more specific terms, the cognitive component involves thoughts, beliefs, and mental processes; the affective component involves feelings and emotional reactions; and

the behavioural component, otherwise known as 'readiness for action', is a predisposition toward an action.

The three components of an attitude can manifest in various ways. Firstly, the cognitive component is thought of as influenced by and developed from external stimuli, such as familial or peer groups, or even at the institutional level (Baker, 1992). This is to say that parents may influence the cognitive beliefs of their children with respect to which English variety is optimal for their situation, or the institute (i.e. the Ministry of Education and the educational facilities) dictates who the acceptable teachers of English are. Secondly, the affective component may be an immediate reaction to an object, which in terms of English varieties and appropriate English teachers, may result in instinctive feelings in the learner such as 'I like it' or 'I don't like it'. Thirdly, the behavioural component signals that there is an ingrained tendency to behave or respond in a particular way. For example, a KLE may travel abroad to study English due to the status English proficiency has been given in terms of providing opportunity. Notwithstanding this assertion, hegemonic beliefs could continue to influence the decisions and judgments made, as in the cases of American English and British English prestige (see Ahn, 2014; Evans, 2010; Jeong, 2004; Lee & Lee, 2019; Lippi-Green, 1997; Park, 2009; Pollard, 2011a, 2011b, 2016; Si, 2019). Overall, it can be argued that the three of these components are interrelated and not independent of one another, with Breckler's (1984) study reporting a moderate correlation between the three components, which rises to a stronger correlation when only verbal reporting is present. Despite the findings, Breckler (1984) believes that each component should be investigated independently or the researcher should specify which component is being investigated.

Now the three components that comprise an attitude and the extent of their interrelatedness have been established, how judgments are passed and to which areas they can be related, especially in terms of language, must be considered. It is said that initial interactions act as a trigger to attitudes, and in effect, become the basis for stereotype formation (Bradac, 1990; Cargile & Bradac, 2001; Giles & Coupland, 1991). In terms of language, the attitudes triggered may apply to all levels, such as phonology, syntax, semantics, or pragmatics, which can extend to include speech style and English variety (Bradac, 1990; Cargile & Bradac, 2001). Within the levels

under evaluation, it is possible to deconstruct language attitudes into two additional strata encompassing competence and integrity (Giles & Coupland, 1991). The stratum of competence includes traits such as intelligence, ambition, and confidence, whereas the stratum of integrity includes traits such as sincerity, friendliness, and generosity. Furthermore, underlying notions of power can also influence language attitude formation, and can be informed by notions connected with the provision of educational or professional opportunity (see Jeon, 2009; Mikio, 2013; Park, 2009; Park & Kim, 2014; Shin, 2014; Thatcher, 2008), or perceptions of English variety prestige (see Ahn, 2014; Evans, 2010; Jeong, 2004; Lee & Lee, 2019; Lippi-Green, 1997; Park, 2009; Pollard, 2011a, 2011b, 2016; Si, 2019), among others. These factors can work alongside notions that attempt to acknowledge how English will be used and/or encountered by the learner (see Auerbach, 1995; Graddol, 2000; Jin & Cortazzi, 2003; Seargeant, 2009). Together with this, it would be expected that the experience and awareness of the participants in an attitundinal study would also play a role in the construction of responses and how they are expressed, which would extend to include notions of acceptability levels (Wang & Jenkins, 2016).

Given the depth of possibility in language attitude expression, and the awareness that attitudes are founded internally, it is understandable why Baker (1992) contends attitudes are not directly observable. It could be argued however, that behavioural components of an attitude might be physically observable and not purely cerebral. Likewise, facial expression and other forms of NVC might serve to offer insights into affective components. In spite of this, whether language attitudes are directly observable or not, does not affect the assertion that they are ever-present and form an element in every interaction (Cargile & Bradac, 2001). Similarly, how stereotype formation itself can serve as an indicator relative to consistency in attitude expression might be considered (Giles & Coupland, 1991). Even so, consistency is a variable term, and as Baker (1992) alludes to, there is not a definitive rule in terms of attitudes, nor how individuals may alter attitudes due to extraneous influence or circumstance.

3.2.1 Examples of Attitudinal Studies in TESOL

Language attitudes research in English studies has a rich history. Traditionally, these studies have had NES as the participants and have employed a Matched Guise

Technique (MGT), where audio recordings from one speaker are used as a prompt (Lambert et al., 1960). In the past, the results typically leaned toward higher prestige British English – specifically RP – as the English variety with the most positive perceptions, including when compared with American English (Ball, 1983; Giles et al., 1981; Stewart et al., 1985). However, more recent research has started examining how attitudes are shifting away from the British English preference to an American English preference (Bayard et al., 2001; He & Li, 2009; Sowden, 2012).

A recent shift has been occurring to move language attitudes research in TESOL toward the learner and their attitudes toward English varieties. The focus on learners' attitudes is the direction required if researchers are to transfer more power to the so-called "absent stakeholder" (Widin, 2010, pp. 60-61). It is with this in mind, and with ASEAN+3 and Korea as geographic reference points, that a brief review of several recent studies conducted can inform this current research to a greater degree.

Common in the literature is where learners of English display positive attitudes toward inner circle varieties. Evans (2010) conducted research in China with 247 university students, which was directed at unearthing their attitudes toward a number of English varieties. Employing a direct approach, it was the students' responsibility to list English varieties and assess them on the attitudinal level. The research determines that British English is positively perceived in China, and is associated with the categories of traditional, formal, pleasant, and polite. American English was also seen positively, and was associated with the categories of casual, pleasant, dynamic, and modern. It is interesting to observe that the categories for British English and American English can be viewed as polar opposites – traditional vs. modern, formal vs. casual – which indicates that these two varieties may be valued for different reasons within the community. Although, as data was solely collected via an open-ended questionnaire and follow-up interviews were not conducted, inference is the only way of determining what these reasons may be, and as Evans (2010, p. 277) states herself, there is not a way "to determine with certainty" if labels such as 'traditional' or 'modern' are seen positively or negatively. Her assertion indicates that while highlighting attitudes is important, the behind the scenes analysis of the attitude is of great importance.

As with Evans' study, Kaur and Raman (2014) employed a direct approach with 36 pre-service teachers in Malaysia. The participants of the study had been exposed to the concepts and notions of NES, NNES, ELF and EIL. Across a 6-point scale covering correctness, acceptability, pleasantness, and familiarity, participants rated multiple English varieties. These included the origins of Australia, Brazil, China, Germany, India, Japan, Spain, Sweden, the UK and the US. Overall, American and British English were the top performers across the four categories with Japan English deemed the least correct and acceptable, and returning the second lowest rating in terms of pleasantness. Swedish English was deemed the least pleasant, had the lowest familiarity, and the second lowest in terms of acceptability. Australian English was ranked third across all four categories. Without a qualitative follow-up, much like Evans' study, it is impossible to understand the 'why' for the ratings. Yet, it may suggest that familiarity with a variety plays a role in the resulting attitude conveyed due to the correlations returned.

Given the limitations outlined above, understanding the 'why' of an attitude is of great importance. In this area, Matsuda's (2003) preliminary exploration deployed a triangulated approach using attitudinal questionnaires, Likert scale items, in-depth interviews, and classroom observations with 33 Japanese high school students. Across these participants, 71% stated they were learning American English in their education, with British English returning 0% of the response rate. Throughout the interviews, there was the belief that while English may be the world language, it is an American entity, and the learners wish to learn and acquire American English. Furthermore, through the use of interviews, Matsuda (2003) was able to probe areas in some detail, and while the participants did recognise that English was spoken in the Philippines and Singapore, they were not aware these were independent varieties of English. Similarly, Fang (2016) used a mixed method approach to investigate the attitudes of 309 Chinese university students and conducted nine follow-up interviews. While Fang concludes the research is not generalisable due to the complexity of TESOL in China, the dominant response indicates preferences for American and British English, and shows dissatisfaction with the learners' own local English variety. Interview excerpts are alluding to American English as the most useful for international communication. The research of Matsuda and Fang allows for the inference that the degree to which institutional influence on the attitudinal

formation of Japanese and Chinese learners of English is in play, and may allow for queries of whether the same exists in Korea. However, the studies themselves rely on the participants having an aural picture of what the tested English varieties sound like, which may not be an accurate reality.

To allow participants to assess an English variety – as idiosyncratic as it may appear – research conducted in Asia has used a Verbal Guise Technique (VGT), which uses multiple audio recordings of various speakers, and has attempted to confirm the understanding that familiarity plays a role in attitude formation. For instance, Chiba, Matsuura, and Yamamoto's (1995) VGT study with 169 Japanese university students in relation to nine English speakers, shows preferences for American and British English, with the authors also referencing familiarity as a likely factor for the negative responses received across the tested NNES varieties. Similarly, McKenzie's (2008) VGT study with 558 Japanese university students in relation to six English speakers identified American English speakers as the most competent. Interestingly, the participants' returned figures indicated that the greatest social attractiveness lay with the heavily accented Japanese speaker, which was also the speaker whose origin they were able to most accurately identify. Despite this, a high percentage of participants were able to identify the NES as inner circle speakers, even if they could not pinpoint the exact origin. With the data in mind, McKenzie (2008) asserts that familiarity plays a role in attitude formation, with greater familiarity resulting in a more positive perception. Again though, the lack of qualitative follow-up in these studies hinders exploration of a more direct understanding, which allows for exploration of the need for a mixed method approach.

It is interesting how several attitudinal studies conducted in Asia have made use of a mixed method approach where the indirect MGT or VGT approaches were combined with the direct approach of interviews or surveys. A prime example is He and Li's (2009) study of 795 students and 189 teachers in China. This study triangulated data from a direct 25-item questionnaire, an MGT approach with a 16-trait survey, and interviews with 10% of the sample. The questionnaire suggested that American and British English were preferred teaching models, but that some features of China English have their rightful place in the curriculum. These findings were largely confirmed by the interviews, where American English was considered the most

appropriate as a model for successful international communication. In addition, the MGT trait survey returned figures showing 'Standard English' as being more positively perceived in most categories (e.g. friendly, intelligent, competent, and trustworthy). Overall, He and Li (2009) report that there is a consistency across the triangulated data suggesting China English is becoming more acceptable to the Chinese learners of English, but there still exists the directive that native norms form the basis for China English.

In the context of Korea, Shim (2002) investigated the attitudes of 57 university students using a mixed method approach built around VGT with five speakers from Australia, Canada, Korea, Pakistan, and the US. An open-ended questionnaire and a post-survey discussion completed the triangulation. This study, conducted in 1995, underlines that the Korean participants could not differentiate between American and Canadian English, and that these North American varieties were the most positively perceived. While the questionnaire evaluated Pakistani English in the least positive light, the participants acknowledged a need for international communication in the discussion, even though the participants suggested that an awareness of Indian, Philippine and Singaporean English was unnecessary.

Through the analysis of these regional studies, it is possible to see American and British English are held in the highest esteem. It is also possible to see that direct approaches on their own rely on a level of awareness or familiarity the participants may or may not have, and that indirect approaches do not allow for a deeper understanding of how attitudes are formed. The assertion of familiarity with an English variety affecting its attitude is one to take on board when considering how communication often involves interlocutors from various backgrounds in the multilingual space. Moreover, this understanding may be especially relevant if placing the notion of ELF alongside the directions English education in Korea is taking in attempting to address the necessity for intercultural awareness and respect, which can be extrapolated to furthering English education in Korea and the acceptance of ELF-aware practices.

3.3 Intelligibility, Comprehensibility, and Interpretability

The notion of speech intelligibility is where a listener receives a message as intended by a speaker, with the notion sitting on a continuum spanning intelligible and unintelligible (Schiavetti, 1992). Munro and Derwing (1999, p. 289) state, "[i]ntelligibility may be broadly defined as the extent to which a speaker's message is actually understood by a listener". This definition meets the general criteria, however, it appears to bundle intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability into one package, which, for the purposes of this study, is too all encompassing. In contrast, Smith and Nelson (1985, p. 334) offer a more detailed definition separating the terms intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability into individual elements:

1. Intelligibility: word utterance recognition,
2. Comprehensibility: word utterance meaning (locutionary force),
3. Interpretability: meaning behind word utterance (illocutionary force)

To solidify the differentiation put forth by Smith and Nelson, Kachru and Nelson (2001, p. 21) delineate intelligibility at the fundamental level, where if English is recognised as English, then the language is intelligible. They continue this same exploration with respect to comprehensibility by stating this refers to an intelligible utterance to which a meaning can be assigned (e.g. "Open the door"). Finally, they posit that interpretability refers to an utterance's intended meaning. For example, "It's hot in here" may denote that "It's hot and I'd like the window opening". The most pertinent to this study is comprehensibility, with intelligibility considered too simplistic in scope, and interpretability beyond the scope.

From the communicative act excluding lexical and syntactical aspects, there are three major factors adjudged as affecting intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability. These fall under the umbrellas of phonology, familiarity, and prosodic and paralinguistic features (Boyle, 1984; Renandya & Farrell, 2011).

Phonology and its relationships with intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability have been well studied. In auditing what is deemed communicatively detrimental, divergence from an accepted norm is documented in multiple studies (Boyle, 1984; Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Hung, 2003; Jenkins, 2000;

Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Nelson, 2011). On a finer level, vowel quality and vowel length can play a negative role (Kashiwagi & Snyder, 2008; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; van den Doel, 2007). In contrast to the negative, if phonological features are common or widespread, they can facilitate successful communication (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2010a). An example of which can be found in Kirkpatrick (2010a), where it is noted that a common feature across the ASEAN region is the absence of contrastive vowel length, and this does not impede communication. The existence of a common feature such as the absence of contrastive vowel length brings added strength to ELF and research surveying the LFC.

The idea that a common feature can assist in communication is closely linked with the notion of familiarity, which considers the awareness and prior exposure one has had with a given variety. A lack of familiarity with a variety's features is deemed to negatively impact communication (Boyle, 1984; Brown, 1990; Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Nelson, 2011). Likewise, if one is familiar with a variety, then communication may be enhanced (Crystal, 1997; Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Smith & Bisazza, 1982). McGarr (1978, as cited in Flege, 1992) posits that familiarity with a particular production can assist with intelligibility, however, the conclusion drawn is that it may only assist on the word level and not the sentence level. Similarly, Flege (1992, p. 157) argues "the native dialect of the listener plays a role in determining the intelligibility of vowels spoken in an L2". This can be interpreted as related to familiarity listeners have with their own production. Factoring in these assessments advocates that, as familiarity, or lack there of, may affect communication, the gap may be bridged with the incorporation of a GE-style curricula that offers a breadth of exposure not commonly seen in the language classroom, which can act to increase familiarity levels across multiple English varieties (Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2015, 2018). This would be particularly relevant for the Korean context, where restrictions on which nationalities can be represented in the English language classroom can be a contributing factor through E-2 visa regulations.

Furthermore, closer inspection of the relationship between language attitudes and perceptions of intelligibility and comprehensibility is also of pertinence in this realm. In the first juncture, there are claims that negative attitudes towards a speaker can

result in the deployment of strategies that can lead to lower intelligibility perceptions (Lindemann, 2002; 2006). This suggests that language attitudes can inform perceptions of intelligibilty; however, it does not mean that a direct correlation exists. For instance, Abeywickrama (2013) contends that while the participants of her study into listening testing could not consistently identify speaker origins, and there were no significant differences in listening test performance, the overarching attitude expressed was that NES models of English were more appropriate for testing purposes and less positive attitudes were expressed towards NNES varieties. This pulls in the notion of acceptability as a contributor to the intelligibility and comprehensibility discussion. According to Wang and Jenkins (2016), evidence from their study draws on interview extracts that indicate how acceptability may be informed by perceptions of intelligibility in the eyes of some participants. The claim made by one participant of the study alludes to how a factor in determining acceptability relies on whether the utterance is intelligible, and with this, the relationship may return to the variety in question and the extent to which the interlocutor has experience or familiarity in that specific communicative space. For as is a key implication of their paper, the level of experience that interlocutors have had in intercultural or ELF-driven contexts is capable of influencing beliefs about intelligibility, which again, provides further support in the necessity of a GE-style curricula, as touched above.

Prosodic and paralinguistic features are the final factor drawn on in the literature, and these are features of great interest to this study. Closely related to prosodic and paralinguistic features are proxemics and kinesics. In short, proxemics refers to the distance and physical space between interlocutors, and kinesics refers to gesture, facial expression, and eye movement. Indications are that in face-to-face interaction, proxemics and kinesics play a significant role (Hurley, 1992; Lonergan, 1995; Wharton, 2012). However, in order to monitor the influence of proxemics and kinesics, a visual representation of the speaker is needed, and as this study also unpacks language attitudes, having a visual stimulus of the speaker may skew attitudinal aspects. Relating to the potential skewing from visual stimulus is the belief that ethnic appearance of the teacher affects the attitudes of the learners (Amin, 1999; Thomas, 1999). Therefore, proxemics and kinesics will be discounted. An example of support for this decision comes from Dolan et al. (2001), who report

that a fearful facial expression is more rapidly identified if accompanied with a fearful tone of voice. Their assertion indicates that the prosodic aspect of tone is weighted more heavily than the kinesic aspect of facial expression in terms of pragmatic interpretability.

When reviewing prosodic and paralinguistic features affecting intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability, there is mention of the cline of syllable and stress timing in language, where syllable timing exhibits equal timing between syllables, and stress timing exhibits equal timing between stressed syllables (Dauer, 1983; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Setter, 2006). The stress timed end of the cline is said to impede communication, whereas the syllable timed end is said to assist in communicative success (Brown, 1990; Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010a).

Outside of syllable and stress timing, other prosodic and paralinguistic factors worth evaluation are rhythm, tempo, and intonation. These are discussed as negatively affecting communication for reasons ranging from receptive interpretation of the intention through to perceived and accepted norms within a variety, and even familiarity (Boyle, 1984; Brown, 1990; Dauer, 1993; Jenkins, 2000, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Olson Ramig, 1992; Pickering et al., 2012; Renandya & Farrell, 2011; Renandya & Hu, 2018; Szczepek Reed, 2012; Tatham & Morton, 2006; Wang & Renandya, 2012; Wharton, 2009, 2012). Overall, Jenkins' (2000) LFC promoted suprasegmental features as crucial to intelligibility and the carriage of meaning, which is a view also held by Anderson-Hsieh et al. (1992), who announce prosody as the most important feature relating to communicative success, and posit how attitudes a listener has toward a given speaker can also be affected.

3.4 Overview of Prosodic and Paralinguistic Features

According to Crystal (1969), prosodic and paralinguistic features encompass all non-segmental vocal effects with conventional and systemic roles in the language. In other words, the prosodic and paralinguistic features present in English are linguistic and go beyond segmental, syntactical, and lexical levels of an utterance to contributing to an utterance's realisation and reception. The areas looked at by Crystal cover psychological attributes of sound (pitch, loudness, and duration) and their relationship with physical dimensions (frequency, amplitude, and time).

Crystal (1969) proposed the distinction between the prosodic and paralinguistic, and this is the distinction from where this research stands. The distinction posits prosodic and paralinguistic features are part phonetic, part functional, and span a range of features. More specifically, "[f]rom the phonetic point of view, prosodic features may be defined as vocal effects constituted by variations along the parameters of pitch, loudness, duration, and silence", while "paralinguistic features are phonetically less discrete and allow more idiosyncratic variation". In short, paralinguistic features are "phonetically discontinuous in connected speech, whereas exponents of pitch, loudness and duration are always present" (p. 128).

As communication is a natural act, and as Romero-Trillo and Newell (2012) argue, the most important features are possibly those discernible by the human ear. In support of this belief is the notion that only contrastive features are judged as significant, as prosodic features are not as 'rigid' as their segmental cousins (Crystal, 1969). Crystal clarifies this further by indicating that should a particular feature be omitted from an utterance, that utterance would be judged as different and atypical. Similarly, prosodic features in English may be used to draw attention to salient points, such as grammatical structure or sentence type (Olson Ramig, 1992; Wharton, 2009, 2012; Xu, 2012). Wharton (2012) continues by commenting how prosodic and paralinguistic features can be used overtly or covertly.

To investigate prosodic and paralinguistic features, the delineation needs to be addressed. Crystal's (1969) distinction of the prosodic and paralinguistic features of English is from where this research develops:

1. Prosodic systems include tone (pitch direction), pitch-range, pausing, loudness, tempo, and rhythm;
2. Paralinguistic systems include voice qualifiers (e.g. huskiness, nasalisation, whisper, etc.), and voice qualifications (e.g. giggle, cry, etc.)

It is worth underscoring that many of these features are not independent of one another and are produced simultaneously (Crystal, 1969; Szczepek Reed, 2006, 2012). An example of which, as elucidated by Crystal, is intonation, which is a combination of tone, pitch-range, and loudness, coupled with rhythm and tempo. Szczepek Reed (2012, p. 155) argues that due to this simultaneous nature, it becomes

"impossible to link specific prosodic events with individual linguistic functions", and offers prosody as just one tool used in transmitting meaning.

Tatham and Morton (2006) contend that in order to understand prosody in speech production and perception there are three integral features needed: intonation, stress, and rhythm. In aligning these to Crystal (1969), 'intonation' relates to 'tone (pitch direction)', 'stress' relates to 'loudness', and 'rhythm' obviously relates to 'rhythm', but may extend to include 'tempo'. In terms of these features, much as Crystal (1969) argues that an omission of a feature warrants the utterance to be labelled atypical, a deviation from the expected can have a similar result. It is argued that a divergence from the considered norm for the semantic and pragmatic intention may result in speech processing not being fulfilled accurately, or may interfere with speech processing being completed (Olson Ramig, 1992; Speer et al., 1993; Weismer & Martin, 1992). Taking this as the foundation for an analysis in the area it is now possible to unpack these features in more detail.

3.4.1 Effects of Prosodic and Paralinguistic Features

Intonation – tone (pitch direction) – is used in English to transmit intentions. Perhaps most noticeably, intonation, which can be assessed on a cline of low to high, is a method for which an attitude can be transmitted (Brown, 1990; Dauer, 1993; Mennen, 2007; Pickering et al., 2012; Szczepek Reed, 2012; Tatham & Morton, 2006; Wharton, 2009, 2012). Research from Klopfenstein (2009), however, posits that the weight of intonation carries more than attitude and emotion, and relays that the intended meaning of an utterance can be transmitted successfully, even if drastic segmental deviation is present. This notion is supported in the LFC in terms of tonic stress and tone group (i.e. lexical chunking in a tone unit) (Jenkins, 2000), and as a result, the extent of its relevance to the KLE needs investigation. Overall, intonation is seen as a 'plastic' feature, as it is flexible in nature, where even an alternative intonation pattern on a single word or chunk can result in a vastly different interpretation of meaning (Nilsenova & Swerts, 2012; Romero-Trillo, 2012; Wharton, 2012).

The plastic nature of intonation can transcend the boundaries of prosodic features, and according to Nilsenova and Swerts (2012), can give the illusion of increased

tempo, which is a view that seems in line with the belief that multiple prosodic features can be present simultaneously (Crystal, 1969; Szczepek Reed, 2006, 2012). Further to this, speech rate is documented as a feature with which L2 learners of English have receptive issues (Boyle, 1984; Renandya & Farrell, 2011; Renandya & Hu, 2018; Wang & Renandya, 2012; Zeng, 2007, as cited in Renandya & Farrell, 2011). In addition, speech rate is discussed as a contributor to attitude formation, with slower rates of speech seen as less competent and less socially attractive (Street & Brady, 1982; Street et al., 1983). Which, if taken in conjunction with Piske's (2012) observation, where L2 speech is often at a lower tempo, is perhaps in need of further investigation. In direct relation to RQ2 and RQ3, if a more variable intonation pattern can give the illusion of faster speech, how will this affect the comprehensibility of an utterance and the attitudes toward it? Of course, this does not discount a direct relationship between actual speech rate and its affects on comprehensibility of an utterance and the attitudes toward it.

Moving from intonation and tempo into the world of stress, there are additional aspects to evaluate. In terms of the prosodic breakdown, Brown (1990) contends that stressed syllables and stressed production is a culmination of loudness, pitch-range, tone, and duration combining. Brown continues by discussing how variation in stress and weak forms exist across varieties, but ultimately, there is no impact upon the tonic syllable. According to Riesco-Bernier (2012) however, L2 users of English often produce a higher pitched tonic than is deemed the norm.

As a point of reference, tonic stress refers to the most prominent syllable in a tone unit, and it is through the understanding that tonic stress is of concern to the LFC that the extent to which it connects with ELF communication may be examined (Hahn, 2004; Jenkins, 2000). The LFC makes explicit reference to word stress, and claims that it "is something of a grey area" (Jenkins, 2000, p. 150). Jenkins argues that while word stress may be of importance to L1 English receivers, it does not appear to be of great importance for intelligibility in ELF communication. She does state however, that word stress, when misplaced, can affect tonic stress, and therefore, needs regard. The relationship between word stress and tonic stress in the LFC is one placing some responsibility on word stress.

The complexity of word stress is an area Jenkins (2000) appears reluctant to denote as a core component of successful ELF communication. Dauer (2005) however, contends that word stress could be included in the LFC. While Jenkins wishes to propose a *caveat emptor* scenario, where there are exceptions to word stress rules, Dauer (1993) writes, in her pronunciation manual, that seven basic rules cover the vast majority of polysyllabic words in English. It is true that these seven rules are not exhaustive, but they do offer a solid foundation for the basis of word stress to be addressed.

Along the same lines as stress, there is the notion of timing, which raises the issue of connected speech and weak forms within tone units. There exists a cline of stress timed and syllable timed productions in English, where it is propounded that stress timing is associated with the inner circle native, and syllable timing is of the outer circle (Deterding, 2012). As discussed previously, stress timing exhibits evidence of equal and consistent timing between stressed syllables, whereas syllable timing exhibits equal timing between all syllables (Dauer, 1983; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Setter, 2006). Jenkins (2000) alludes to stress and syllable timing as not being binary in nature, but rather, as situated along a continuum. In spite of Jenkins' assertion, there is the belief that a syllable-based system may be easier to comprehend for learners with a syllable-based L1, such as Japanese (Romero-Trillo, 2012). This is in conjunction with recent writings proposing how stress-based and syllable-based systems may be processed differently (Deterding, 2012; Romero-Trillo, 2012).

Taking the cognitive processing differences under advisement may be a key factor in offering a prosodic explanation for why syllable timed production of English with a lack of weak forms in connected speech is often believed to increase intelligibility and comprehensibility in the ELF context, while stress timed production with weak forms in connected speech is considered less intelligible and comprehensible (Jenkins, 2000, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Renandya & Farrell, 2011). However, Brown (1990) believes an awareness of stressed syllables is integral to comprehension, which is in line with deductions surmising that familiarity with a speech style increases word level intelligibility (Hansen Edwards et al., 2018; Kirkpatrick et al., 2008).

It could be argued that an 'awareness' in general is integral to comprehension. The notion of familiarity may transcend the generic boundaries expressed in Crystal (1997), Kirkpatrick et al. (2008), and Smith and Bisazza (1982), and move into the prosodic to suggest that a lack of familiarity with a prosodic pattern may require more negotiation for communicative success (Flege, 1992; Szczepek Reed, 2012). In efforts of combatting this, Riesco-Bernier (2012) believes that while the L2 user of English may use a reduced set of prosodic features, it should be seen as a communicative strategy rather than a limitation. Irrespective of whether familiarity is in existence or an interlocutor is making use of a reduced set of prosodic features, the endgame is that correct processing by the listener is required, otherwise the inability to process utterances efficiently will put the listener at a "cognitive handicap" (Romero-Trillo & Newell, 2012, p. 122). This raises the question broached by Klopfenstein (2009): which prosodic features affect intelligibility and comprehensibility?

Thus far, intonation, speech rate, and stress have been discussed as prosodic features potentially affecting intelligibility and comprehensibility. However, through developing the question raised by Klopfenstein (2009), how paralinguistic features affect intelligibility and comprehensibility could also be examined. Boyle (1984) finds clarity and pronunciation as factors affecting listening comprehension from both the teachers' and students' perspectives, which on initial inspection may refer to segmental production. To develop this dimension though, the paralinguistic features of voice qualifiers and voice qualifications could also be evaluated as elements of 'pronunciation', and this is a feasible position if 'clarity' is taken as the starting point. To the layman, clarity may refer to clear speech, which, in other words, would be free of impediment. In a more complete manner though, Poyatos' (1991) unpacking of voice qualifiers includes aspects such as voice roughness, huskiness, nasal qualities, and a tremulous or muffled voice. This is pertinent due to how Schiavetti (1992) argues that paralinguistic features, such as hoarseness or stuttering may be recognised by a listener. In this space, it becomes prudent to assess how paralinguistic features, if discernible by the listener, affect intelligibility and comprehensibility.

Pushing the paradigms of intelligibility and comprehensibility further, the weight of prosodic and paralinguistic features requires attention. Crystal (1969, p. 201) writes of the "semantic 'weight'" of prosody, however, this research also moves into the pragmatic. According to Romero-Trillo (2012), prosody is so strong that the presence, absence, or realisation of a feature can considerably alter intended meaning, which is much the same as Crystal's (1969) assertion that a feature's omission may result in atypical labelling. Overall, prosodic features are considered the keepers of both overt and covert meaning, and are integral to the transmission and reception of messages as intended (Brown, 1990; Nilsenova & Swerts, 2012; Romero-Trillo & Newell, 2012; Szczepek Reed, 2012; Wharton, 2012; Xu, 2012).

The importance of prosodic and paralinguistic features however, does not stop there. In addition to transmitting meaning, they also hold other parameters. Prosodic features, for instance, are said to influence a listener's attitude (Anderson-Hsieh et al., 1992; Mennen, 2007; Piske, 2012; Swerts & Krahmer, 2005). Mennen (2007) alludes to intonation in particular, and states that it has the ability to influence attitude formation. Similarly, the research of Anderson-Hsieh et al. (1992) reports prosody has the greatest influence on pronunciation ratings. Worryingly however, attitude formation through prosodic realisations shows the L1 speaker of English passing judgment on L2 speakers of English based on what they deem the 'norm' (Piske, 2012). In sum, the notion that attitude formation can interact with prosodic and paralinguistic cues requires investigation, and is an issue of importance in this study.

3.5 Listening Comprehension and Processing Fluency

Understanding language is an automatic process, which, on the surface, appears simple (Scovel, 1998). Oxford (1993, p. 205) views listening as "the most fundamental language skill", however, her view does not make reference to the complexity of the process. Listening is a combination of physiological and cognitive processes that draws a balance between top-down and bottom-up processing (Brown, 1990; Field, 2008; Lynch, 2006; Vandergrift, 1992). In short, top-down processing is the process of large-to-small, *vis-à-vis* bottom-down processing. In other words, top-down processing is said to make use of context and schema activation to process meaning before assessing individual sounds, whereas bottom-up processing is said to

progress "from sounds to syllables to words to phrases" (Field, 2008, p. 132). This processing, while of importance to pedagogical practice, is not of direct relevance to this study, as the view of Field (2008, p. 133) comes to the fore, where he states, "The issues that concern researchers today are not whether listening is 'bottom-up' or 'top-down' – since it is clearly both", which is a view supported by Vandergrift (1992), who asserts that successful listening actively constructs meaning through combining top-down and bottom-up processing.

A look in this direction sees Oxford (1993) describe listening as a skill not typically occurring in isolation (i.e. it occurs in conjunction with other language skills). Another aspect of the non-isolation of listening skills is that the purpose behind listening is to comprehend and interpret an oral message (Vandergrift, 1992), which, through taking the notions of intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability as our point of reference, the purpose of listening becomes more vivid (Smith & Nelson, 1985). The difficulty of listening comprehension may be increased through the inclusion of items that include ungrammatical utterances, false starts, repetitions, or even through marginal changes in discourse (Oxford, 1993; Scovel, 1998). Keeping these difficulties in mind, and through the foundational position taken, the view that "[l]istening comprehension is a complex, problem-solving skill" rings true (Wipf, 1984, p. 345).

Despite Oxford (1993) observing that listening does not typically occur in isolation, listening in the L2 classroom can contain elements of isolation. The typical listening classroom involves receptive skill procedures utilising listening passages and audio recordings. It is explicated that listening to audio recordings does not allow for interaction with speakers, and therefore results in partially independent, if not isolated, skill practice, which if assessing the real world activities of listening to the radio or announcements, is a situation where listening is a skill practiced in isolation (Renandya & Farrell, 2011; Taylor, 1981). However, one-way communication such as this can often be more difficult (Lonergan, 1995; Renandya & Farrell, 2011; Wipf, 1984).

One factor perceived to hinder L2 listening comprehension is the prosodic feature of speech rate. Boyle's (1984) study of teachers and students in Hong Kong showed

speed of delivery as a pertinent factor in affecting listening comprehension from both the teachers' and the students' perspectives. Similarly, Hasan's (2000) study of 81 Arabic learners of English found that 83.9% of the sample had issues with listening comprehension when speech rate was perceived as too fast. Further to the conclusions that a faster speech rate is less comprehensible, Griffiths' (1992) study of 24 Omani teachers explicates that a speech rate of approximately 127 words per minute (wpm) is more comprehensible than speech rates of 188wpm or greater. Interestingly, 140wpm is stated as the approximate speech rate for lectures in the British context, with a third of lectures documented as 130wpm or slower, while natural conversation is documented as approximately 210wpm (Tauroza & Allison, 1990). Much of this may be related to what the learner is familiar with, for it is proposed that if the learners have only been exposed to slow and deliberate speech, there is an inability to process speech that is more 'natural' (Brown, 1990).

Along with speech rate, pronunciation is a factor perceived as affecting L2 listening comprehension (Boyle, 1984; Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Hasan, 2000; Hung, 2003; Jenkins, 2000; Kashiwagi & Snyder, 2008; Kirkpatrick, 2010a; Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Nelson, 2011; van den Doel, 2007). 64.1% of participants in Hasan's (2000) study list clarity of pronunciation as a factor affecting their listening performance. As Brown (1990) mentions, if learners have received extensive training with 'deliberate' pronunciation models, they will not have had the exposure required to process a delivery including weak forms and features of connected speech. Similarly, L1 transfer may be a factor relating to pronunciation affecting L2 listening comprehension, however, this can work in both directions – positively and negatively (Flege, 1992; Jenkins, 2000; Kashiwagi & Snyder, 2008).

Outside of the phonological and phonetic, attention may now be turned to NVC. It is stated that one-way communication is more difficult to process than two-way communication, and a factor contributing to this difficulty is the lack of visibility in terms of NVC (Brown, 1990; Hurley, 1992; Lonergan, 1995; Renandya & Farrell, 2011; Wipf, 1984). Lonergan (1995) contends that audio-visual elements present in NVC, such as facial expression and gesture, can encode meaning in its entirety, resulting in increased comprehension. This view is partially supported by Hasan (2000), who underscores that the majority of the participants in his study believe

visual elements increase their comprehension. An additional 19.7% of Hasan's participants state NVC is required for comprehension, with a further 44.6% stating NVC is 'sometimes' required for comprehension. Perhaps the reasoning for this is how the extra cues provided by NVC assist in conveying the affective meaning over the conceptual meaning (Brown, 1990; Oxford, 1993). Although, Vandergrift (1992) argues that NVC, and kinesics in particular, are more important for listening comprehension in low level learners. Irrespective of competency levels and the assistance NVC may provide, one-way communication such as radio broadcasts or PA announcements are a reality.

A consideration beyond these specific factors is the notion of familiarity, and with that, 'expectation'. In terms of comprehension, the listener is primed for the task of comprehending oral production, however, if what the listener is expecting to hear does not meet their pre-conceived expectations on phonological or phonetic levels, then online processing of speech may be disrupted (Olson Ramig, 1992; Weismer & Martin, 1992). Under the umbrella of expectation, the notion of familiarity can be examined. As with the delay in online processing occurring due to expectation deviation, a similar delay may occur due to a lack of familiarity.

Familiarity is a notion transgressing many domains. The domain mentioned in this chapter thus far has largely related to pronunciation. When evaluating pronunciation familiarity, and essentially familiarity with a variety of English, it is argued that a lack of familiarity can negatively impede listening comprehension (Boyle, 1984; Brown, 1990; Flege, 1992; Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Nelson, 2011). However, familiarity does not stop at the level of pronunciation as it can also include topic and schemata familiarity, for it is argued that a lack of familiarity with the topic or schemata central to a listening passage has detrimental effects on comprehension (Brown, 1994; Long, 1989, 1990; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994; Scovel, 1998; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998; Vandergrift, 1992). Empirical evidence of the relationship between topic and schemata familiarity, and listening comprehension is put forth by Long (1990), Chiang and Dunkel (1992), and Schmidt-Rinehart (1994). All three of these studies assert that prior familiarity with a topic or schemata has the ability to increase listening comprehension levels in the L2 listener.

The Chiang and Dunkel (1992) study however, raises a pertinent point. The study's instrument involved lectures of between 6m50s and 9m05s in length. In their closing, Chiang and Dunkel draw attention to the limitation of the participants not being permitted to take notes during the lecture. This repositions the listening task as a memory exercise and raises questions of working memory and processing fluency in terms of their effects on listening comprehension (Brown, 1990).

Working memory, otherwise referred to as short-term memory, is important for listening comprehension, as this is the first line in decoding and processing the input (Call, 1985; Field, 2008). Field (2008) underlines that working memory has its limitations in what can be stored, and with increasingly difficult to process input, such as an unfamiliar topic, the decoding and processing of that input stream can become hindered. One issue that contributes to the overload of the working memory may be a reliance on bottom-up processing as it narrowly focuses on individual aspects of speech rather than the broader picture (Vandergrift, 1992). In contrast, if the decoding is fluent – and top-down processes are in play – the working memory does not reach capacity and can continue to process information freely (Field, 2008; Scovel, 1998; Vandergrift, 1992). Beyond this simplified understanding there are additional factors that need assessment.

According to research conducted by Goh (2000), listeners reported that the biggest factor affecting their listening comprehension was their tendency to 'forget quickly'. Of the 40 participants, 26 referenced memory and stated that while they could process the current sentence, they had already forgotten the preceding sentence. Whether this means they were attempting to recall the sentence verbatim is a question to raise, for as it is noted, comprehension does not rely on a verbatim recollection, but rather, is considered more effective when a simplified recollection is stored still housing the intended meaning (Scovel, 1998; Vandergrift, 1992). The inference from Goh's study is that the participants' working memory became overloaded from the difficulty of decoding the input stream. This assertion is in place due to the additional factors in Goh's study noting 22 of 40 participants referred to unknown lexical items as factors affecting their comprehension. Furthermore, it appears that the participants' working memory reached capacity with 17 of 40 participants claiming they were still attempting to formulate meaning while the

following section was ready for processing. It is possible to see that working memory plays a major role in listening comprehension, and while processing is an automatic process, it is not a linear one (Scovel, 1998). There are multiple interactions taking place drawing upon listening competence, processing methods (bottom-up vs. top-down), familiarity with topics and schemata, as well as familiarity with the phonological and phonetic realisation of the speech itself.

Various issues of familiarity have been raised, and yet, even when familiarity exists, the related notions of 'calibration', 'normalisation' and 'attuning' are present. Calibration refers to the ability listeners have to correlate the phonemes they are aurally receiving with the corresponding phonemes in their own speech, and are a key aspect of receptive intelligibility (Bross, 1992). Similarly, normalisation refers to the mental adjustment made "within a matter of seconds" to a speaker's voice in order for the listener to establish "a set of baseline values" (Field, 2008, p. 158). Field's normalisation is explicitly referring to not just the phonemic, but also extends to include prosodic and paralinguistic features. Field (2008, p. 159) argues that as normalisation occurs within the opening seconds of encountering a voice, comprehension questions should "not target the first 10-15 seconds of a recording, to ensure listeners have time to accustom their ears to the speaker". Although not as immediate as the above two notions, House's (2008) notion of attuning relates to how misunderstandings can be lessened through an interlocutor's awareness of speech and discourse patterns. This research however, draws on McLellan's (2017, p. 361) wording for clarity, which states attuning "occurs when interlocutors gradually become accustomed to the intonation, speed of speech, pronunciation and other features" in a speech pattern. In sum, through allowing this accustomisation to occur, the listeners should be more capable of attacking comprehension tasks (Bross, 1992; Field, 2008).

Ultimately, the end goal of listening comprehension is to construct an accurate interpretation of an utterance as it was intended. Factors that may help or hinder L2 listening comprehension have been addressed in this section, with particular attention paid to the prosodic feature of speech rate, familiarity and normalisation processes, and working memory. It is through giving attention to calibration and normalisation, and lessening the workload on working memory that the extent to which speech rate

and other prosodic and paralinguistic features play a role in the receptive language performance of the KLE can be better determined.

3.6 Conclusion

In unpacking the literature in this chapter, the positioning has been set for this study. The chapter progressed through the global contextualisation of English influenced by multiple diaspora. This first section outlined the pluricentric nature of contemporary English through the GE framework contrasted with embedded remnants of linguicism. An evaluation of English's embedded regional features facilitating successful communication was touched while considering a multilingual framework. The primary area of concern raised began to probe notions of acceptance and intelligibility in relation to variation. These questions were carried across into the second section, which drew attention to how attitudes toward English and its varieties are researched, and viewed in wider Asian TESOL contexts. The critique of the literature in these areas marked the need for qualitative frameworks to understand language attitude formation in greater depth. An underpinning of this section was drawing attention to prosodic features identified as aiding communication. However, a keener understanding of the notions behind successful communication was required, which was unpacked in the final section. This final section culminated in a critical evaluation of underlying prosodic and paralinguistic features of English and their respective effects on the listening process. Through this final analysis, the impetus for the study became more focused by questioning the interactions prosodic and paralinguistic features can have with attitude formation and listening comprehension.

Through ruminating on issues discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, the next chapter documents the research design and methodology implemented for achieving an understanding of the extent to which prosodic and paralinguistic features across multiple English varieties interact with attitude formation and/or listening comprehension in KLE.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction

Pertinent literature surrounding GE, WE, ELF and plurilingualism, coupled with how prosodic and paralinguistic features hold roles across these paradigms were explored in the previous chapter. These notions were questioned in terms of how they interact with the English education paradigm in Korea, KLE, and the (N)NEST dichotomy, and because of this, there is a need to explore relevant research approaches. Through auditing these interactions, this study's objectives were informed and refined. This chapter describes the framework and methodology employed for addressing the research objectives related to these aforementioned interactions.

Essentially, this chapter explores the theoretical research framework of the study. The objectives of the study are stated alongside key aspects of the phenomenological approach to establish a foundation. From there, the chapter moves into research design and development, and information about the participants of the study. The latter parts of the chapter will explore the data collection and analysis before looking at ethical considerations of the study.

4.1 Objectives of the Study and Research Questions

Korea's TESOL industry is most accessible to seven non-Korean nations via English language teaching visa (E-2) access: Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, the UK and the US (Hi KOREA, 2020; Jeon, 2009). Outside of TESOL in Korea, vast numbers of KLE travel abroad annually for English language study. The countries to which they travel not only include the seven nations identified above, but notably, also include the Philippines (Ministry of Education, 2009, 2010). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to assess how the English varieties associated with those nations deemed the most relevant to KLE are judged, and to attempt to underline features of English that may affect listening comprehension.

Taking this into consideration, primary research objectives of the study were to examine the extent to which non-lexical characteristics of oral delivery across

different English varieties influence the language attitudes of KLE, and the extent to which these non-lexical characteristics and language attitudes interact with KLE English listening comprehension. Joining these, secondary objectives were to inspect language attitudes of KLE and the extent to which these relate to educational practice and/or are influenced by KLE educational experience, and to identify opportunities for informing and enhancing GE and ELF research in the region.

Following these research objectives, the central research questions addressed were:

RQ1   To what extent are language attitudes of KLE present in relation to English varieties?

RQ2   To what extent do prosodic and paralinguistic features of English varieties interact with the language attitudes of KLE?

RQ3   To what extent do prosodic and paralinguistic features of English varieties interact with the English listening comprehension of KLE?

RQ4   To what extent is there a correlation between English variety, language attitudes, and English listening comprehension amongst KLE?

4.2 Theoretical Research Framework

The essence of this research was to determine the extent to which non-lexical characteristics of oral delivery across different English varieties influenced the language attitudes of KLE, and the extent to which language attitudes affected KLE English listening comprehension. Due to the focus on language attitudes and the need for acquisition of rich description, a qualitative design within a phenomenological approach combined with quantitative components to assess comprehension was identified as the most appropriate to understand the phenomenon.

The holistic overview offered through qualitative inquiry can provide various interpretations of the phenomena being studied, which can be realised in complex and detailed ways contributing to a rich and thick description unpacking the views, feelings and experiences of the participants (Charmaz, 2006; Creswell, 2007; Holliday, 2010; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994). In sum, the attitudes of KLE were the views, feelings and experiences requiring thick description in this study; however, the interaction of the researcher with the research must also be

acknowledged, which is described in section 4.8.2 (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Holliday, 2010; Whittemore et al., 2001). Through collecting and interpreting these worldviews, a more complete representation of the phenomena can be presented, which was essential for developing an understanding of KLE attitudinal worldview in terms of multiple English varieties.

Beyond the attitudinal aspects of this study however, an additional aim was to investigate comprehension levels. While qualitative research attempts to paint a picture using rich data and accepts the presence of the researcher, the assessment of English listening comprehension required less subjective determinations. Accordingly, a quantitative framework was applied to the language comprehension items to reduce the researcher's influence on those areas (Holliday, 2010), while also attempting to represent language comprehension in a more concrete manner, as per Smith and Nelson's (1985) definition of comprehensibility (locutionary force). In other words, the quantitative aspect of listening comprehension performance was directed at the level at which participants comprehended utterances (i.e. comprehensibility), rather than the level at which participants claimed to comprehend utterances (i.e. perceived comprehensibility).

Despite asserting that quantifiable data had a role in this research, the overarching framework for this study remained qualitative due to the complexity of the attitudinal aspects explored. With the understanding that this study was participant driven and attempted to analyse English educational experiences of KLE, it was also essential to show awareness of the shared and common experiences of KLE. As a result, a phenomenological approach was deemed the most appropriate for meeting the research objectives.

4.2.1 Phenomenological Approach
Phenomenology is foregrounded as the foundation of qualitative research and attempts to question the world and develop better understanding (Merriam, 1998; van Manen, 1990). van Manen (1990) attests that the objective of phenomenology is not to translate experiences into simple terms, but rather, to represent the experience as a whole and offer a more complete understanding. In other words, phenomenological research focuses on the "universal essence" of the participants' experience (Creswell,

2007, p. 58). This type of 'commonality' was relevant to this study for attempting to understand underlying language attitudes of KLE together with factors affecting language attitudes and English listening comprehension.

To achieve a better understanding of the phenomena essence it is important to underline that generalisation is not the goal of phenomenology. The goal is to deeply probe into the area and extract that essence through natural discovery (Richards, 2003; van Manen, 1990). Through the probing and resultant developed understanding, interpretation of the phenomena becomes a possibility. However, this explored experience is always just a single interpretation where limitless alternatives and viewpoints continue to exist (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998; van Manen, 1990). In terms of KLE, each participant carried past experiences that shaped their reality, which in turn, contributed to the interpretative complexity of the investigated phenomena. Ultimately, as this research was looking at a shared experience of KLE in an educational context, a phenomenological approach was considered appropriate for developing a more complete understanding (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2003).

Various elements of the phenomenological approach aligned themselves to the premise of this current study. The ontology in evidence was a constructed reality where multiple realities were existing, which included both the concrete nature of listening itself and the experiential reality of the attitudinal reaction to the listening (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; van Manen, 1990). In other words, the study was exploring the question of how the listening experience was for KLE when listening to English. Additionally, the epistemological assumption was that the researcher and participant could not be separated (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Richards, 2003). This resulted in socially constructed realities where participants were interacting with their knowledge and beliefs, and the knowledge and beliefs of the researcher. With this assumption in mind, measures such as triangulation across data sets were established to aid rigour in the research (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Morse, 2015). Through these aspects, a qualitative framework built around interviews and supported by quantitative elements appeared applicable to the current study through its ability to probe for deep understanding of the phenomena while also offering opportunities to increase credibility and transferability.

4.3 Research Design and Strategy

Language attitudes and listening comprehension were the two essential design elements in this research. Firstly, attitudinal research of this nature requires a deeper understanding of the phenomena (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Richards, 2003). Secondly, effectively assessing comprehension requires more quantitative measures (Holliday, 2010). Through these varied factors, the foundation of this research relied on a mixed method design of both interviews and questionnaire items. The rationale behind these decisions will be outlined in this section by focusing on major methods of language attitude investigation.

4.3.1 Methods of Investigation in Language Attitudes

The phenomena under investigation were built around language attitudes, and with the understanding that language attitudes, while ever-present, are not fixed. Through examining investigative approaches, insights into how to research the area were offered. Three reported approaches forming the basis for attitudinal research are: content analysis, direct, and indirect (Cargile & Bradac, 2001; Cargile et al., 1994; Garrett, 2010; Knops & van Hout, 1988). These approaches have their respective strengths and weaknesses, and while content analysis was not of relevance to this study, evaluation of direct and indirect approaches allowed for a determination of which combination of investigation methods was most appropriate (Garrett, 2010).

   4.3.1.1 Direct Method. The direct approach is considered the current approach in language attitudes research and includes methods such as interviews, questionnaires, surveys, and scales (Baker, 1992; Cargile & Bradac, 2001; Cargile et al., 1994; Garrett, 2010). As the name implies, participants are asked to express their language attitudes in a direct manner (Garrett, 2010; Knops & van Hout, 1988). When contrasted with content analysis, the researcher is not called upon to do the bulk of the inference as the participants are attempting to unequivocally state their preferences and evaluations (Garrett, 2010; Knops & van Hout, 1988). However, Knops and van Hout (1988) contend that on its own, the direct approach may leave methodological questions where the relationship between the participants' attitudinal response in a research context may alter in an actual situation. To tackle this limitation and quantify participant responses more accurately, the direct approach often entails multiple methods with common practice being to identify qualitative

data trends and attempt to further validate these through quantitative means such as Likert scales or a semantic differential (Baker, 1992; Garrett, 2010).

In the Korean context, the direct approach could enable a focused understanding of attitudes KLE hold. The rationale was that, as learners of English, KLE would likely hold attitudes pertaining to English varieties, and which variety is more 'correct' or 'pleasant'. This kind of assessment, in conjunction with interviews to seek deeper explanations, has been deployed in several studies (Baker, 1992; Cargile & Bradac, 2001; Garrett, 2010). However, a limitation in terms of KLE may be their lack of familiarity with the English varieties assessed. A lack of familiarity potentially leads to hypothetical questioning, which allows for hypothetical responses not matching concrete experiences (Breckler, 1984). Similarly, a lack of familiarity with the English varieties assessed may lead into what Garrett (2010) refers to as social desirability bias, which, in simple terms can result in participants responding in a socially appropriate manner, rather than giving a true attitudinal representation. With these issues in mind it was of value to explore how exposure to an unfamiliar English variety may be granted to lessen hypothetical questioning and social desirability bias.

4.3.1.2 Indirect Method. The indirect approach is a method often including an evaluation of an audio recording where an objective is to lessen social desirability bias (Cargile & Bradac, 2001; Cargile et al., 1994; Garrett, 2010; Knops & van Hout, 1988). The term 'indirect' in itself is misrepresentative as it is only indirect in that it employs more subtlety than asking explicit questions (Garrett, 2010). The indirect approach has become aligned with the MGT or VGT. MGT, as put forth by Lambert et al. (1960), is a method using audio recordings, with participants informed that the recordings are of different people. However, MGT aims to control variables by employing the same person across multiple recordings; the speaker is capable of producing multiple language varieties to elicit attitudes and give the impression that they are in fact different people.

The major premise of MGT is that through the use of rating scales, such as a Likert scale or semantic differential, the attitudes of the participant are brought to the fore with explicit focus on the language variety being assessed, and not through a reliance on the participant having had prior exposure or a preconceived attitude ingrained

(Agheyisi & Fishman, 1970; Baker, 1992; Garrett, 2010; Giles et al., 1981). Due to what some refer to as deception through not informing the participants of the true intent and motives, MGT has attracted criticism (Jenkins, 2007). Additionally, MGT has also attracted criticism due to its sole reliance on rating scales (Bradac et al., 2001). Rating scales are believed to draw attitudes to the surface, however, Bradac et al. (2001, p. 140) argue that for informing "real-world situations", such as pedagogy and policy, there is a need for deeper understanding. Despite these criticisms, the use of attitudinal rating scales have their place in language attitude research as they may open areas where direct lines of questioning are inappropriate, or do not prove fruitful due to participants' unwillingness to disclose their attitudes fully, especially if these attitudes are perceived as negative or socially inappropriate.

Similar to MGT is VGT, which came into effect largely as a response to the criticisms of MGT. Where VGT primarily differs from MGT is through its use of multiple speakers across audio recordings. Through this use of multiple speakers, VGT is able to provide an instrument that is more 'authentic' (Garrett, 2010; McKenzie, 2006, 2010). In contrast, MGT, while attempting to control variables, could be argued as discounting idiosyncratic difference or prosodic and paralinguistic features across speakers (Bradac et al., 2001). Factoring in these limitations, VGT attempts to introduce the reality of varying vocal characteristics. A number of early VGT studies show how different English varieties return different attitudinal profiles (Bayard et al., 2001; Huygens & Vaughan, 1983; Ladegaard, 1998; Stewart et al., 1985). Through this understanding, and for investigating attitudes of KLE toward English varieties, the greater degree of authenticity that VGT provides allows for a closer inspection of the attitudes held.

4.3.1.3 Towards a Mixed Method. These major approaches in attitudinal research display strengths and weaknesses, and have moderately different foci. Under closer scrutiny, the lines between approaches can be seen as blurred, with overlaps evident. A reliance on a single approach towards attitudes investigation raises questions concerning the validity and reliability of the attitudinal data collected (Garrett, 2010). It is through triangulation of the data and a mixed method approach towards language attitudes that the multiple facets in play can be considered (Garrett, 2010). Specifically, in the case of the KLE, the facets explored

consisted of attitudes towards English varieties, and a deeper probing of how and why these attitudes exist. This multi-faceted approach exemplifies the extent to which the major approaches in attitude studies can work together to form an image of the attitudes present.

4.4 Instrument Design

A convergent mixed method design embedded in a qualitative framework formed the basis for probing the research objectives (Fetters et al., 2013). Materials assessed in both interviews and questionnaire items were founded in unscripted audio recordings derived from spoken prompts. In conjunction, and as mentioned above, the quantitative measure of English listening comprehension also formed part of the instrumentation. The quantitative and qualitative components of the research ran parallel to one another, and this resulted in a convergent design (Fetters et al., 2013). In total, from research design initiation through to data analysis, this study encompassed five phases:

Phase I.   Prompt development and production

Phase II.   Comprehension assessment development

Phase III. Pilot studies

Phase IV.   Data collection

Phase V.   Data analysis

These phases are discussed over the following sections.

4.4.1 Instrument Design I: Audio Recordings

Phase I of the research was the selection of prompts and speakers for the audio recordings, followed by recording production (see Figure 4.1).

In the research development, two elicitation prompt sets were used for the audio recordings. Elicitation Prompt A drew upon Kirkpatrick, Deterding and Wong's (2008) design, and utilised the opening question "Can you tell us what you did on your last vacation?". As per the original design, follow-up questions extracted further spoken language. The Kirkpatrick, Deterding and Wong study offered some comparability in its instrument with an earlier study conducted by Kirkpatrick and Saunders (2005, as cited in Kirkpatrick, Deterding & Wong, 2008) The prior use of this elicitation prompt for parallel purposes justifies its inclusion.

Figure 4.1

Elicitation Prompt Development and Recording
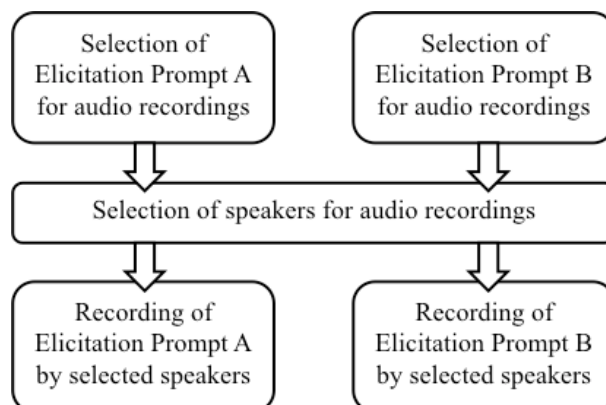
Elicitation Prompt B was a monologue following guidelines of The TOEIC Speaking Test (Educational Testing Service, 2009, 2015). Educational Testing Service's TOEIC is a widely taken English language test and is extensively trialled to maintain its high standards of reliability and validity. The prompt replicated "Question 3: Describe a picture". The TOEIC guidelines stipulate the speaker should describe the picture in as much detail as possible, can have 30 seconds of preparation time, and should speak about the picture for 45 seconds. Pictures for description were selected from sample tests publicly available. While this picture description task is utilised in TOEIC as a spoken assessment, it was used in this research as the basis for listening assessment. This can be justified on two levels:

1. When used in TOEIC, the examiner must assess the discourse and comprehensibility of test takers' utterances on levels including prosodic factors, which could be extrapolated to register the participants of this study as 'examiner' and the audio recordings as 'test taker'.

2. The fundamental premise of an elicited and recorded extended utterance for attitudinal and comprehensibility studies sat in line with the premise of Elicitation Prompt A's inclusion in this study.

For both Elicitation Prompt A and B, each audio recording was approximately one-minute in length. According to Field (2008), a length greater than 10-15 seconds enables the participants' listening cognition to normalise and allows for assessment of the recording in accordance with ability. Field's normalisation aligns with what Bross (1992) terms calibration. Similarly, it is argued that utterances greater than 100

syllables in length tend to exhibit more consistency in speech rate, and one can assume, other prosodic and paralinguistic features, which may contribute to attuning in the listener (House, 2008; McLellan, 2017; Street & Brady, 1982). Audio recordings were used instead of video recordings for two reasons: (1) a visual stimulus could influence participants' language attitudes; and (2) information contained in a video recording could provide extra information pertaining to kinesics, potentially leading to increased comprehension levels irrespective of phonetic realisation (Buck, 2001; Lonergan, 1995). This research sought to assess audio on a purer level.

The varieties of English recorded for this research were drawn from those relevant to KLE. These included the NES speaker varieties, which can most easily obtain an E-2 visa as per EPIK guidelines (Hi KOREA, 2020; Jeon, 2009). In conjunction with this, Philippine English was evaluated as a relevant English variety, due to its prevalence as a study abroad destination. The final English variety of importance to Korea is the local model of Korea English, as utilised by KTE. Through this position, nine varieties of English were proposed as pertinent to KLE: American English, Australian English, British English, Canadian English, Irish English, Korea English, New Zealand English, Philippine English and South African English.

While nine varieties of English were selected, the instrument consisted of 24 audio recordings for each elicitation prompt. In total, each elicitation prompt resulted in 12 male audio recordings and 12 female audio recordings (see Appendix A, Table 10.1). Of these audio recordings, American English, Australian English, British English, Canadian English, Irish English and New Zealand English all resulted in one male and one female audio recording per elicitation prompt. The Korea English audio recordings consisted of both weakly marked and marked male and female speakers for each elicitation prompt. The same delineation of weakly marked and marked was applicable for the Philippine English audio recordings. The remaining four audio recordings per elicitation prompt were of South African English speakers[1], and consisted of a male and a female L1 English speaker, and a male and a female L1 Afrikaans speaker. The rationale for the South African speakers to be selected on this

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[1] South African English is used in this thesis to encompass English speakers holding South African nationality.

basis was because that, even though it is an official language, English is a first language of just 9.6% of the South African population (Statistics South Africa, 2012). This can be combined with the understanding that there exist L1 Afrikaans speakers currently on E-2 visas teaching English in Korea without restriction, yet Philippine English speakers are excluded from E-2 visa eligibility. All speakers in the audio recordings were selected due to their nationality, language background, and English production. While the speakers were selected on these grounds, it is undeniable that a single speaker of an English variety cannot be wholly representative of that variety (Crystal, 1997; Hiraga, 2005; McKenzie, 2010), and this is a factor to consider when contextualising this research.

Building from points raised by Buck (2001) relating to audio quality and how it may affect comprehension levels, audio was recorded digitally through a centralised microphone in a neutral environment with minimal background interference to maximise audio fidelity. In addition, authenticity was added to the audio recordings through using non-professional voice actors (Buck, 2001). The speakers were informed of the purpose of their recordings, and were advised to speak as naturally as possible. This enabled freedom of expression within the domains of the Elicitation Prompts, which acted as semi-scripted scaffolded provision (Buck, 2001). Each speaker recorded both Elicitation Prompt A and B, and while they were informed of the topic and allowed time to prepare for each prompt, all recordings were recorded on the first take in an attempt to lessen the illusion of scripted language, and to maintain the natural occurrence of the prosodic and paralinguistic features of the speakers' speech.

Closer analysis of the 24 selected audio recordings showed consistencies and differences across the audio recordings. The 24 audio recordings for Elicitation Prompt A had durations ranging from 53 seconds through to 67 seconds. They contained a syllable count range spanning from 94 through to 233. The 24 audio recordings for Elicitation Prompt B had durations ranging from 50 seconds through to 60 seconds. They contained a syllable count range spanning from 88 through to 189. As can be seen in Table 10.1 (see Appendix A), differences in utterance density existed despite duration remaining relatively similar. However, due to tempo, rhythm, and pausing all being prosodic features, and a focus of this research,

uniformity across the syllable count range was deemed lower priority than uniformity across the duration of the recordings. Further to this point, all audio recordings allowed for calibration and normalisation to take place (Bross, 1992; Field, 2008), and the utterance density allowed for consistency in prosodic and paralinguistic features to be exhibited (Street & Brady, 1982).

4.4.2 Instrument Design II: Comprehension Assessment

Phase II of the research was the design and revision of the comprehension assessment instrument. The general design structure was similar to Kirkpatrick, Deterding and Wong's (2008) research where a series of open-ended comprehension questions were crafted for each respective audio recording (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2

Comprehension Assessment Question Development
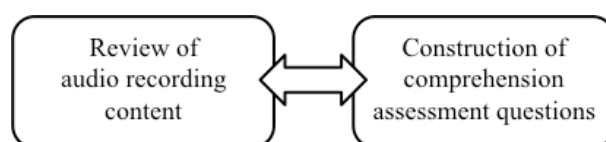
The design used began with replication of the open-ended question format, and resulted in both Comprehension Assessment A and B being independently constructed for each respective audio recording produced via Elicitation Prompt A and B (see Figure 4.3). For instance, Elicitation Prompt A used with Speaker 1 informed the independent construction of Comprehension Assessment A for Speaker 1. Elicitation Prompt B used with Speaker 1 informed the construction of Comprehension Assessment B for Speaker 1. This process continued for all 24 audio recordings, and with both Elicitation Prompts. For further clarification, Figure 4.3 depicts an overview of the process for Elicitation Prompt A. The horizontal arrows in the figure show the interaction between the elicitation prompt and comprehension assessment for each audio recording. Following the figure downwards, each audio recording and comprehension assessment was constructed independently of one another, and was specific to each respective speaker. This same process was also followed for all 24 audio recordings responding to Elicitation Prompt B. A subsidiary part of the comprehension assessment for each speaker was an eight-item

7-point semantic differential following considerations relating to polarity and concepts outlined by Osgood et al. (1957).

Beyond the foundation of the semantic differential consisting of a 7-point scale of eight polar terms, the concepts included covered aspects of perceived comprehensibility and language attitudes (see Appendix A, Figure 10.1). While a semantic differential can be implemented as a standalone instrument for attitudinal research (Baker, 1992), it was of use in this study to initiate a preliminary assessment of perceived comprehensibility and language attitudes held toward each individual audio recording. These preliminary assessments were useful in acting as additional prompts during the interview procedure, and to further extend data (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994). For as Oppenheim (1992) promotes, attitudinal data is complex with multiple approaches required to highlight underlying attitudes in existence.

Figure 4.3

Comprehension Assessment Development Flow Chart
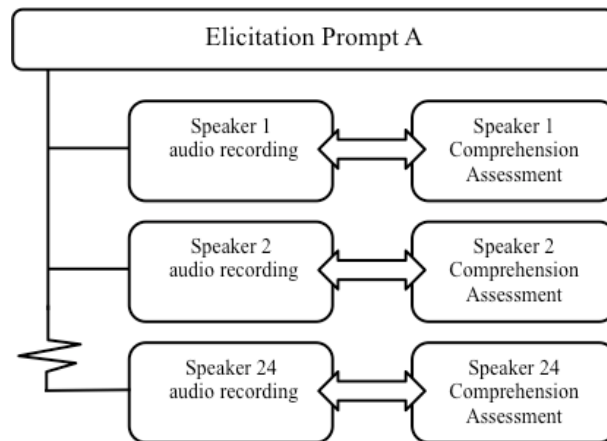
Regarding comprehension benchmarks, Kirkpatrick et al.'s (2008) study focused on L1 speakers of English and specified an 80% benchmark. For reliability and validity reasons, Comprehension Assessments A and B were reviewed by four L1 speakers of English currently holding E-2 visas in Korea. These L1 speakers of English were used to lessen the potential for language ability to hinder comprehension. This process facilitated the researcher in determining which instrument areas required

amendment prior to conducting pilot studies (Buck, 2001; Oppenheim, 1992; Vandergrift, 2010; Wagner, 2010).

The review process indicated two major instrument concerns. Firstly, it was determined that Elicitation Prompt B – the picture description – was more appropriate than Elicitation Prompt A – describing your last vacation. The number and frequency of filled pausing, self-correction, and rephrasing evident in Elicitation Prompt A raised the question of how these features may pose greater issues to L2 speakers of English, the intended participants of this study. Secondly, five comprehension questions were deemed appropriate for the recording length of approximately one minute, as it allowed for the testing of comprehension without shifting towards the testing of memory (Field, 2008; Richards, 1983).

The decision to focus on Elicitation Prompt B – the picture description – facilitated refinement and use in the pilot study. This was founded in the recommendation that critical reflection of methodological procedure is required (Richards, 2003). Revisions were based on the initial review process and considered the comments from Bross (1992) and Field (2008) regarding initial calibration and normalisation, while also seeking to equilaterally space the comprehension questions throughout the audio recording to give adequate processing and writing time, and move away from potentially testing memory (Field, 2008; Richards, 1983).

4.4.3 Instrument Design III: Interview Schedule

To transition into Phase III of the project it was essential to develop the interview schedule that would drive the qualitative framework. With this, there is the belief that qualitative research should focus on the participant with flexibility, and not be restricted by a rigidly defined interview schedule (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Richards, 2003). In simple terms, the interview was based upon a set of guiding prompts, but allowed for flexibility as required (Berg & Lune, 2012; Merriam, 1998).

Flexibility and development within the interview is an active process. On a basic level, the interviewer may manipulate the phrasing of questions to better suit the situation (Berg & Lune, 2012; Merriam, 1998). Factors affecting this judgment could

be due to clarification needs, which were of concern in this study due to L2 speakers of English as participants (Berg & Lune, 2012; Merriam, 1998). As Wagner (2010) highlights, L2 interviews must be at the participant's level, and with this in mind, while the interview schedule was constructed in English, a guiding schedule allowed for clarification in Korean when required. Overall, an interview schedule is there to guide rather than shape the process (Forsey, 2012). For as Richards (2003) puts forth, the interview process should be a personal experience focusing on the individual. Furthermore, there is a suggestion that this process allows for greater rapport development (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). Moving beyond this basic level, a flexible delivery also allows the interviewer to respond to the nuance of the interview (Richards, 2003). These responses may include additional follow-up questions, the addition or deletion of prompts as required, or the exploration of developmental tangents as they arise (Berg & Lune, 2012; Bishop, 2012; Merriam, 1998).

In terms of interview schedule development, there are a number of preferred characteristics. Overall, there is a preference for questioning to move from general to specific as the interview progresses (Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2003). Additionally, caution is required in question wording to avoid 'loaded' or 'double-barrelled' questioning. Richards (2003) delineates question types into five categories:

1. Opening: broad questions to set the topic
2. Check/Reflect: to clarify meaning and intent
3. Follow-up: natural progression in the topic based on issues raised
4. Probe: to develop a deeper understanding of the issues at hand
5. Structuring: transitions to move into the next topic

From Richards' categories coupled with the direction of this research, the guiding interview framework was constructed as shown in Figure 4.4.

This interview framework allowed for manipulation of the format. The constructs were reviewed prior to conducting pilot studies, in line with sound practice (Berg & Lune, 2012). It is worth addressing how the schedule does not explicitly state Check/Reflect or Structuring questions, as these were initiated as the interview environment dictated. Overall, the schedule in place tackled the study's key areas of

interest while also making allowances for the development and probing of developmental tangents according to the nuance of the interview.

Figure 4.4

Guiding Interview Prompts

1. What do you think about this speaker?
   Prompt: Explain why you feel this way.
2. How would you feel if this speaker was your English teacher?
   Prompt: Explain why you feel this way.
3. Do you think this speaker is easy or difficult to understand?
   Prompt: Explain why the speaker is easy/difficult to understand
4. Do you think this speaker talks quickly or slowly?
5. What do you think about this speaker's accent/pronunciation?
   Prompt: Explain why you feel this way.
6. What do you think about this speaker's voice?
   Prompt: Explain why you feel this way.
7. What do you think about this speaker's mood/personality?
   Prompt: Explain why you feel this way.
8. What do you think about the way this speaker speaks?
   Prompt: Explain why you feel this way.

Additional themes to prompt (if appropriate):
1. Prosody: tone (pitch direction), pitch-range, pause, loudness, tempo, rhythmicality, tension.
2. Paralinguistics: tension, voice qualifiers (e.g. whisper), voice qualifications (e.g. giggle, cry).

4.4.4 Pilot Studies

From the procedures undertaken in Phase II, and with the interview schedule development, it was possible to move into conducting pilot studies. Two separate pilot studies were conducted in Phase III, with Elicitation Prompt B (hereafter Elicitation Prompt) and its respective audio recordings and comprehension assessment forming the basis for the pilot studies together with the interview schedule. Prior to beginning pilot studies, the audio recordings were placed into two randomly ordered blind playlists. These playlists were constructed based on: (1) gender of the audio recording speaker, or (2) nationality of the audio recording speaker. Participants were not aware of the origins of each audio recording, and it was further ensured that the same variety of audio recording (e.g. American English male and American English female) was not duplicated in the initial 12 or final 12 items of a playlist.

Pilot 1 was conducted with two participants. The participants were recruited in-person following ethical procedures and informed consent. The participants were subjected to 24 audio recordings and interview procedures surrounding each respective audio recording in one of the two randomly pre-assigned playlists. To give a clearer picture, the basic format saw the participant listen to Audio Recording 1, complete the comprehension assessment for Audio Recording 1, and then be interviewed regarding Audio Recording 1. Upon completion, the procedure moved onto Audio Recording 2. This process continued for all 24 audio recordings (see Figure 4.5). One participant completed the Gender Playlist procedure in approximately 120 minutes, which yielded 64 minutes of interview data. The other participant completed the Nationality Playlist in approximately 150 minutes, which yielded 92 minutes of interview data.

Figure 4.5

Pilot Study 1 Process
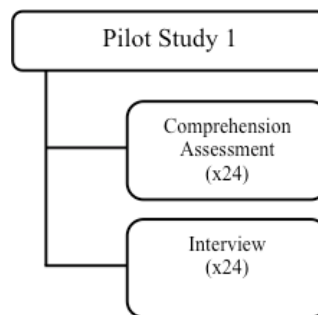
Upon conclusion of the procedure, additional follow-ups resulted in both participants mentioning that the 24-item playlist with subsequent interviews was too long in duration and too arduous in cognitive demand. Wagner (2010, 2015) argues that while a greater number of survey items increases reliability, when conducted in the participants' L2, there is a tendency for mental fatigue to have a negative effect. Wagner continues by arguing that mental fatigue has the ability to influence the reliability and validity of a study. Possibly related to mental fatigue, it was observed that depth of interview responses began to wane in the latter part of the procedure, which is an aspect outlined as a potential issue with an interview schedule (Berg & Lune, 2012). The prime purpose of a pilot study is to test and revise instrumentation and procedural methods (Oppenheim, 1992; Richards, 2003; Wagner, 2010), and

through feedback and observation, the procedure was immediately amended and resulted in Pilot 2 (see Figure 4.6).

Figure 4.6

Pilot Study 2 Process
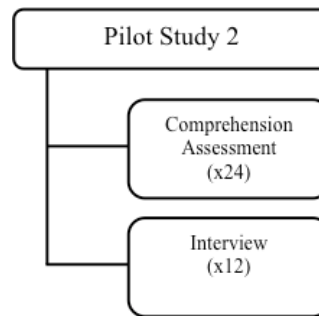
To combat the mental fatigue of the participants while attempting to ensure the fidelity of the instrument and the data it returned, the decision to present the existing playlists in two parts was made (see Appendix A, Table 10.2). This resulted in the initial 12 items of a playlist being accompanied by the interview procedure, and the remaining 12 items requiring the comprehension assessment only, with interview procedures optional. These playlists were then rotated with alternate participants to ensure the data returned allowed for in-depth interviews for all 24 audio recordings within each original playlist when the data was taken as a whole.

With these amendments in place, Pilot 2 was conducted with 8 participants. Potential participants were contacted and those who elected to discuss participation went through informed consent procedures. Through having 8 participants in Pilot 2, each of the four playlists were subjected to in-depth interview procedures twice. This revised procedure returned between 33 minutes and 48 minutes of interview data per participant. Participants did not comment on mental fatigue under these conditions and interview response depth remained consistent throughout, however, upon examination of the participant responses, aspects pertaining to the comprehension assessment were marked as areas in need of attention. As a result, 2 of the 120 comprehension constructs were revised in consultation with the recording transcripts and were checked, which aligns with approaches regarding comprehension assessment development made by Buck (2001). Three elements of the semantic

differential were similarly revised for greater clarity, the final version of which can be seen in Figure 10.1 (see Appendix A).

4.5 Participants

Qualitative research is said to lend itself to a purposeful sampling strategy, and as a result, this strategy was adopted for this research (Merriam, 1998). In simple terms, a purposeful sample strategy is instigated when the researcher wishes to select participants based on criteria that can lead to a deeper understanding of the phenomena under investigation (Cohen et al., 2007; Merriam, 1998; Oppenheim, 1992; Wagner, 2010). In this case, the criteria participants were required to meet spanned three domains: educational experience, age, and English language proficiency.

Consistency of educational experience in the participants was addressed through drawing the sample from currently enrolled university students across two campuses of a mid-tier university located in Korea. Through drawing participants from a mid-tier university, this ensured consistency in two areas. Firstly, all participants were from the same educational context. Secondly, this attempted to lessen the possibility of participants having studied abroad during their general education, which is a possibility that may be increased with students of higher-tier universities – such as the SKY universities of Seoul National University, Korea University, Yonsei University. In addition, through drawing the sample from current university students, age as a variable was controllable, and university-aged students were the focus of this research due to their position in society. These current university students had experienced current English education practices and existing policies in Korea for a number of years. This is in contrast to the older generation that did not have the reality of EPIK during their public school education, and therefore, were not likely to have had exposure to English unless they had actively sought the language. In other words, current university students are the next Korean users of English for internationally communicative purposes and were considered the most relevant to this study.

For participants to perform competently in a listening comprehension assessment and subsequent oral interview, their English language proficiency needed to be

considered. To ensure a measure of standardisation, the language proficiency of the participants was determined by their grade in the university's compulsory freshmen English programme. For the purposes of this research, an A grade (90%) or higher in the compulsory English programme was the requirement. From this purposeful foundation, participants were recruited through contact by the researcher and a meeting schedule was established for informed consent procedures to be undertaken. Meeting times were flexibly established around the participant's schedule. Small incentives were offered for participation as it is claimed that these are often helpful provided it is clear that reward is not performance related (Oppenheim, 1992; Robinson, 2012).

The question of participant numbers in qualitative studies is an area of concern for validity issues (Forsey, 2012; Morse, 2015). The rationale for participant numbers in this research was justified through an analysis of literature in the area. While Morse (2015) argues that sample size should not be pre-determined in qualitative research, her earlier work promotes between 30 and 60 participants as necessary for research making use of guided interviews, which is due to the potential for description to be shallower when compared with grounded theory or phenomenological research (Morse, 2000). However, as this study was guided by a phenomenological approach, the lower end of this scale acted as a starting point. Guetterman (2015) analysed the sampling practices across five phenomenological studies in education and determined there was a range of between 8 and 31 participants. A more in-depth analysis of qualitative sampling practices was conducted by Mason (2010). His survey of 560 completed qualitative doctorates found participant numbers to be $M=31$ ($SD=18.7$), with the majority of instances being 20, 30 or 40 participants – with 23, 26, and 26 instances respectively.

However, participant numbers alone are not the only factor in determining sample size. With qualitative research, rich and thick description is the key target (Creswell, 2016; Creswell & Miller, 2000; Morse, 2015). To achieve this description, saturation of data is required and prioritised (Kvale, 1996; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998; Morse, 2015; Morse et al., 2002; Oppenheim, 1992). The objective with achieving data saturation is finding the balance between extracting rich and thick description and avoiding excessive repetition (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Mason, 2010;

Merriam, 1998). This is what Kvale (1996, p. 102) terms the "law of diminishing returns". In support of this, Oppenheim (1992) claims that saturation is often reached through conducting 30-40 interviews, which sits in line with the aforementioned analyses of qualitative research project sample sizes.

Participant numbers for this study were guided by the literature and the notion that saturation was needed without excessive redundancy (Kvale, 1996; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Mason, 2010; Merriam, 1998; Oppenheim, 1992). Factoring in that this study uses two audio recording streams – gender and nationality – and was conducted with four audio recording playlists in place, the purposeful sampling strategy involved several levels (see Table 4.1 below). In its entirety, 54 participants were recruited, of which, 48 completed the procedure and were deemed valid. Of these 48, 27 were female and 21 were male. This overall figure is linked with the suggested participant numbers required for saturation of information outlined above (Guetterman, 2015; Mason, 2010; Morse, 2000; Morse, 2015). Overall, when delineated as two audio recording streams, the gender stream resulted in 25 participants, and the nationality stream resulted in 23 participants. Further breakdown saw Gender Playlist A returning 12 participants, and Gender Playlist B returning 13 participants; Nationality Playlist A returned 12 participants, and Nationality Playlist B returned 11 participants. If the overarching streams and playlists are taken as independent of one another, these figures are also supported by the literature through being within range of what is typical of a qualitative study utilising a phenomenological approach (Guetterman, 2015). However, as the audio recordings are consistent across both streams, this is only a minor point, and it was through critical analysis and reflection during data collection that 48 valid participants was deemed to be the "law of diminishing returns" (Kvale, 1996, p. 102).

It has been outlined that six recruited participants did not complete the research procedure. Of these, one participant opted to withdraw during the procedure. The remaining five participants were halted during the procedure. One was halted due to inadequate depth and richness of the information being returned. Four were halted due to their listening comprehension performance after four items of the playlist. In all five of these cases, the justification is based upon Morse's (2007) declaration that if data is not of a good quality, it is not relevant.

Table 4.1

Overview of Participant Breakdown

	Gender Playlist A	Gender Playlist B	Nationality Playlist A	Nationality Playlist B
Female	7	7	7	6
Male	5	6	5	5
Total	12	13	12	11
	25		23	

4.6 Data Collection

Phase IV of the research focused on data collection in the project, which was informed by a convergent mixed methods design based in a qualitative framework with added quantitative measures (Fetters et al., 2013). The following section provides an overview of the data collection procedures and how these were directed towards the research questions.

4.6.1 Procedural Overview

This research incorporated a two-step process: (1) Comprehension Assessment and (2) Interview. However, these two steps were neither entirely independent nor were they exhaustive, as additional elements were embedded within each overarching step. The following sections will unpack how each element of the data collection procedures fed into the research questions. This section, however, will focus on the process itself and how the elements performed roles within each step.

Firstly, the comprehension assessment incorporated the elements of listening to an audio recording, responding to comprehension questions, and completing a semantic differential. While the participants were allocated to two independent streams – Gender and Nationality – and were working with 12-item playlists within these streams (see Appendix X, Table 10.2), the process was further broken down into independent levels. In simple terms, the participant listened to playlist item one in conjunction with completing comprehension questions for playlist item one. The audio recording (playlist item one) was only played one time, with no repetition allowed. While listening, the participants completed the comprehension questions relating to that audio recording, and were given time to complete the semantic

differential for that playlist item (see Appendix A, Figure 10.1). Upon completion of the semantic differential, the interview procedure was undertaken. The interview was semi-structured and was guided by the schedule outlined in Figure 4.4 above. Generally, the interview was conducted in English; however, translanguaging with Korean was permitted to encourage freedom of expression. Upon completion of the interview procedure relating to playlist item one, the procedure moved to playlist item two with the process restarting with the comprehension assessment. This continued through the twelve items of the playlist.

Figures 4.7 and 4.8 outline the procedures for both playlists. For instance, if participants were assigned to the Gender stream, the first 12 items may correspond with Gender Playlist A. This resulted in twelve audio recordings being responded to with both comprehension assessment and interview. The second 12 items in the Gender stream – Gender Playlist B – followed the same procedure for the comprehension assessment, with playlist items 13 to 24 returning twelve comprehension assessment responses. However, the interview was only conducted for some items in this second playlist. Which items were probed in the interview stemmed from a judgment made by the researcher during the procedure. The judgment was informed by participant responses across comprehension questions or semantic differential, or was informed by observations of the researcher.

Figure 4.7

Procedure Schematic for Playlist Items 1-12
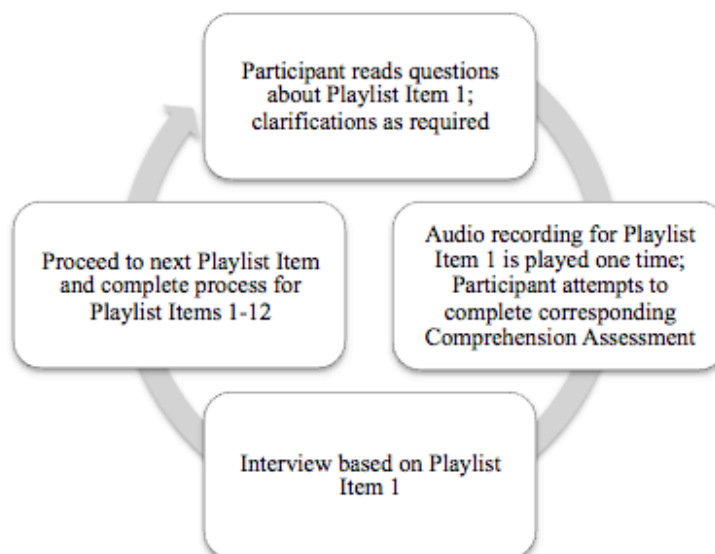
Figure 4.8

Procedure Schematic for Playlist Items 13-24
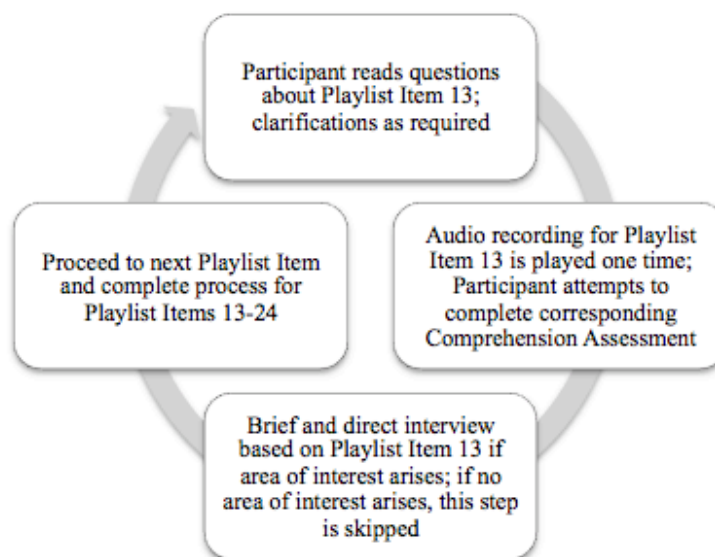
4.6.2 Comprehension Assessment

For purposes of assessing comprehensibility, comprehension questions were constructed for each respective playlist item. For while perceptions of comprehensibility were relevant to understanding relationships with language attitudes it was necessary to determine the actual comprehensibility of the audio recording for the KLE. In this respect, the Comprehension Assessment was directed toward the locutionary force of the audio recordings (Smith & Nelson, 1985). In line with the procedural overview unpacked in the previous section, participants listened to each recording one time only, and were tasked with completing the comprehension assessment consisting of five open-ended questions. The data collected in this element of the instrument was directed at two of the research questions:

RQ3   To what extent do prosodic and paralinguistic features of English varieties interact with the English listening comprehension of KLE?

RQ4   To what extent is there a correlation between English variety, language attitudes, and English listening comprehension amongst KLE?

The data collected allowed for further triangulation between relationships pertaining to comprehension and perceived comprehensibility, and comprehension and language attitudes (Vandergrift, 2010, 2015).

4.6.3 Semantic Differential

The included semantic differential was directed at collecting data that firstly, served to give an overview of the language attitudes held toward a playlist item, and secondly, to serve as an additional prompt during the interview. Effectively, this means that the semantic differential data was a device in place for triangulation across three of the research questions:

RQ1   To what extent are language attitudes of KLE present in relation to English varieties?

RQ2   To what extent do prosodic and paralinguistic features of English varieties interact with the language attitudes of KLE?

RQ4   To what extent is there a correlation between English variety, language attitudes, and English listening comprehension amongst KLE?

This triangulation raised two points: (1) semantic differential data is verifiable (Osgood, 1952; Osgood et al., 1957), and (2) the act of writing instead of verbalising responses can serve to create distance for the participant (van Manen, 1990).

In terms of the first point, the semantic differential data could be verified through the interview, which increased the credibility of its use. Justification for its inclusion comes from Phakiti and Paltridge (2015), who discuss the need for primary data to investigate attitudes and social research. With which, while an attitude may not be directly observable, the use of a measurement device is necessary (Baker, 1992). It was through this that the semantic differential was deemed an appropriate inclusion.

In terms of the second point, the use of a semantic differential allowed for the participants to give an initial attitude toward a playlist item from distance. This was due to the procedure allowing a passive interaction with the audio recordings to take place where initial attitudes could surface prior to participants actively expressing the rationale behind their attitudes during the interview. With respect to this, items from the semantic differential may be drawn upon to act as a fluid interview prompt where

it can help to develop discussion in a connected area. This understanding aligns with the notion put forth by van Manen (1990), where the creation of distance can inadvertently lead into a greater degree of closeness through a multi-staged reflection.

Triangulation of data includes where a quantitative semantic differential is pitted with qualitative interview data, and this was key to this research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2003; Vandergrift, 2015). The data collected and drawn upon through the semantic differential increases the credibility and reliability of the study overall due to the implementation of multiple instruments (He & Li, 2009), which is supported further through the understanding that this aligns with a merging approach offering opportunities for expansion of phenomena (Fetters et al., 2013). The semantic differential used was based on characteristics outlined by Osgood et al. (1957) with a 7-point conceptual polar scale at its core (see Appendix A, Figure 10.1). To unpack this further, the 'concept' in this instance was the audio recording in the playlist, and the data collected was primarily directed toward the language attitudes of the participant in relation to each specific audio recording, which was in line with attitudinal work conducted by McKenzie (2006, 2010).

4.6.4 Interviews

Attitudinal data could be collected via the semantic differential, however, the richness required for tackling the research questions warranted a qualitative approach. On a fundamental level, interviews act as an appropriate means of primary data collection for attitudinal research as they can probe areas relating to attitudes and feelings in an in-depth manner (Charmaz, 2006; Kvale, 1996; Phakiti & Paltridge, 2015; Richards, 2003). To obtain this thick and rich description, the interviews developed around the guiding interview schedule, which was piloted in the earlier phases of the research (see Figure 4.4, Section 4.4.3), and was also facilitated by prompting follow-up discussion of semantic differential responses. These interviews were conducted on a one-to-one basis over a three-month period. All interviews were recorded digitally to allow for accurate analysis (Forsey, 2012; Merriam, 1998), with length determined by the interview itself, and whatever was deemed as 'appropriate' in terms of the data and participant (Berg & Lune, 2012).

In terms of the interview procedure, a point of importance is that pre-existing rapport with the participants was drawn on to facilitate interaction (Berg & Lune, 2012; Charmaz, 2006; Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2003). This rapport stemmed from a lapsed student-teacher relationship discussed in the Positioning of the Research section of this chapter (see section 4.8.2). In short however, as this relationship had lapsed, the power relationship had been levelled as best it could, which, when combined with the concept of the researcher as an essential instrument of the data collection, led to the decision that interviews should be conducted by the researcher (Creswell, 2007). As is promoted in the literature, a neutral attitude was maintained, which was combined with restricted interviewer talk time to ensure the focus was on the participant throughout the interview procedure (Charmaz, 2006; Forsey, 2012; Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2003). This was further facilitated through implementing interview schedules in a flexible manner. This meant question ordering was flexible, question wording was flexible, and language of delivery and interaction was flexible. These realities were informed by the literature, which states that interviews allow for in-depth exploration as areas of interest arise (Berg & Lune, 2012; Charmaz, 2006; Merriam, 1998; Oppenheim, 1992; Richards, 2003; Vandergrift, 2015). The interviews, therefore, were conducted in an iterative manner, which allowed tangents to be explored for assisting in developing a thicker and richer picture. An additional aspect was the incorporation of clarifying questions and restatements to better understand the reliability of the data being collected (Berg & Lune, 2012; Richards, 2003; van Manen, 1990). Overall, this flexibility enabled data collected to reach a saturation point addressing the four central research questions.

4.7 Data Analysis

Throughout Phase V, transcription, coding and analysis took place. As multiple avenues of data were collected in this research, there were also multiple avenues of data analysis. Quantitative data – the semantic differential and comprehension assessment – was analysed in line with assumptions outlined by Fraenkel and Wallen (2006), and largely conjoined with the analyses undertaken in similar attitudinal studies (McKenzie, 2006, 2010). Qualitative interview data was transcribed and analysed in line with suggestions made in the literature (Hammersley, 2012; Hepburn & Bolden, 2013; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Noerager Stern, 2007; Richards, 2003; Saldaña, 2016; Wray et al., 1998). The following two sections outline the data

analysis processes undertaken in relation to the three data types collected: semantic differential, comprehension assessments, and interviews.

4.7.1 Quantitative Analysis: Semantic Differential

The semantic differential covered eight items on a 7-point bipolar scale (see Appendix A, Figure 10.1). The scale items were randomised along the left and right axes when positioning positive or negative sides of the scale. In this respect, the presentation of the semantic differential sat in line with what is considered the norm (Osgood et al., 1957). The semantic differential data was entered into SPSS by converting scale item responses to numerical figures ranging from 1 to 7. The most negative response of the scale was coded as 1, while the most positive was coded as 7. These positions corresponded with how Osgood et al. (1957) note that scale responses should be considered: 1=extremely negative, 2=quite negative, 3=slightly negative, 4=neutral, 5=slightly positive, 6=quite positive, 7=extremely positive.

How this semantic differential data should be considered was influenced by writings in education and sociolinguistics. Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) write that semantic differential data can be either interval or ordinal data, and it is a debatable issue with much depending on the justifications established. This research takes the stance that the semantic differential data is considered interval data, which is due to the assumption that the spacing between scale points is equilateral in distance. McKenzie's (2006, 2010) language attitude research makes extensive use of semantic differential instrumentation and his stance is that the data be considered as interval data for the same reason. It is from these understandings that this research has taken the same position.

In addition, McKenzie (2006, 2010) upholds that parametric testing is suitable for semantic differential data. For parametric testing, normal distribution is required, which can be relaxed if a sufficiently large sample is drawn (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; McKenzie, 2006, 2010). McKenzie's research meets this assumption due to sample size. However, as this current study was largely qualitative in nature, the sample size *(n=48)* may not be considered sufficiently large. This is further the case when the sample is placed into the four playlist categories *(n=12, n=13, n=12, n=11)*. It is through this introspection that this research has taken the position

informed by Fraenkel and Wallen (2006), in which non-parametric testing was deemed more suitable.

Despite the determination that non-parametric was more suitable, the research of McKenzie (2006, 2010) still formed the basis for the analysis process. This decision was due to McKenzie's research being closely aligned with the semantic differential aspect of this project. With direct reference to McKenzie's semantic differential analysis, he has a well-justified position for the use of ANOVA to compare means with semantic differential data. This research has taken his process on board while also factoring in the non-parametric nature of the data due to sample size. Through consultation with Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) and Lund Research Ltd (2018b), Kruskal-Wallis was deployed as the non-parametric equivalent of ANOVA for the semantic differential data.

Statistical analysis of the semantic differential data was conducted through SPSS with Kruskal-Wallis performed. The four playlist groups were entered as the factor, which enabled an analysis to take place across the four groups to determine if differences existed. In addition, descriptive statistics were also used to capture central tendency (median and mean), variability (interquartile range and standard deviation), and frequency, where appropriate. Data output of this nature was an effective medium for triangulation with the more qualitative data collected through the interview procedures.

4.7.2 Quantitative Analysis: Comprehension Assessment

Data from the comprehension assessment, where perceived comprehensibility and actual comprehensibility were at the fore, was analysed quantitatively. The comprehension assessment for each audio recording consisted of five short answer questions. Short answer questions are considered an accurate assessment of whether a listener has accurately understood a text (Brindley, 1998). Each short answer question was marked as either correct or incorrect based on the predetermined accepted responses through analysis of the recordings, the recording transcripts, and the feedback of trial participants. Marginal responses were taken as a whole, and coded according to the holistic view after reanalysis of the recording transcripts (Buck, 2001). All responses were coded as either 1 (correct) or 0 (incorrect) in SPSS.

Based on the criteria established by Kirkpatrick et al. (2008), an 80% benchmark was implemented as the comprehensible marker, which equated to 4 of 5 correct responses. However, as this research looked at the levels to which a variety of English was comprehensible to the participants instead of a bilateral comprehensible/incomprehensible delineation, the decision was made to differentiate the comprehension levels in terms of the number of comprehension assessment short answer questions answered correctly. In this respect, the five short answer questions were converted to six points in terms of correct responses: 0-1=largely incomprehensible, 2-3=slightly comprehensible, 4-5=comprehensible. Following the recommendation of Fraenkel and Wallen (2006), who contend that even a 0% score in a performance assessment does not necessarily equate to a total absence of understanding, the comprehension assessment was considered to be interval data.

Raw data of the comprehension assessment for each audio recording was analysed through SPSS with descriptive statistics used to represent measures of central tendency (median and mean), and measures of variability (interquartile range and standard deviation). Multiple measures for both central tendency and variability were used due to the nature of the comprehension data in relation to the comprehension benchmark established. In addition, Kruskal-Wallis was also performed on the comprehension data through SPSS in order to determine if statistical differences existed between playlists.

4.7.3 Quantitative Analysis: Measure of Association

As a central research question of this study was 'To what extent is there a correlation between English variety, language attitudes, and English listening comprehension amongst KLEs?' (RQ4), it was essential to also perform a measure of association through rank correlation. Due to the relatively small sample size of this study, the most appropriate test to perform was Kendall's rank correlation coefficient (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Lund Research Ltd, 2018a), which was performed in SPSS.

Correlations were tested between both comprehension data and semantic differential language attitude data, and semantic differential perceived comprehensibility data and semantic differential language attitude data. This allowed for two levels of comprehension – actual and perceived – to be considered.

4.7.4 Qualitative Data: Interviews

Data from the interviews was recorded with a centralised microphone, and transcribed with transcription conventions adapted from Hepburn and Bolden (2013) and Wray et al. (1998) (see Appendix B). Observations made during the interviews were also embedded into the transcriptions to add depth to the qualitative data. All transcriptions and observations were checked prior to analysis, with added peer checking coming from an L1 Korean speaker for Korean sections of the transcriptions; these Korean sections were checked again by the researcher prior to analysis. Despite the accuracy checking that took place, it should be reiterated that absolute accuracy was not a pre-requisite as per the understanding that essential information will rise to the surface (Noerager Stern, 2007). On the same plane, Hammersley (2012) and Richards (2003) argue that there cannot be one all encompassing transcription and that the same data can be transcribed in multiple ways. Richards continues by arguing that the transcription itself is a co-construction on two levels: the data and the transcriptionist, and the transcription and the researcher. This co-construction draws on the notion that the researcher is ever-present, and their influence on the study should be acknowledged (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Holliday, 2010; Merriam, 1998). The researcher's interaction with the transcripts shapes the data analysis through the decisions made regarding what should be coded, how it should be coded, and how it is interpreted.

Transcriptions were entered into MAXQDA for qualitative analysis, and in line with the literature, coding of the data took place across multiple levels (Charmaz, 2006; Cohen et al., 2007; Merriam, 1998; Saldaña, 2016). The first level of coding made use of an eclectic method, which is a combination of methods deemed suitable for qualitative studies (Saldaña, 2016). During data collection, pre-coding and preliminary jottings were made which developed into what may be considered several deductive codes relating to prominent prosodic and paralinguistic factors mentioned. This process was based in the belief that collection and analysis are concurrent processes, iterative in nature (Merriam, 1998). The inductive methods implemented were twofold and included both subcoding and concept coding. Subcoding is the process where a code has multiple levels, such as a primary code and a secondary code (e.g. prosody-rhythm). This type of coding works to enrich the data and serves to narrow code data that could be considered too broad. In other

words, subcoding works to 'lump' data together rather than 'split' it into numerous independent levels (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2016). Saldaña (2016) writes that concept coding is a process suitable for larger chunks of data, and this was a useful method in accentuating language attitudes present. These inductive methods are said to enhance visibility of the participant's voice, which is the goal of qualitative analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Prior to second coding taking place, the first level codes were mapped in order to condense the data and give an overview of relationships. This process involved a preliminary categorisation, which was then refined into tighter categories through second coding in a form of data organisation and reduction (Berg & Lune, 2012; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2016). Second coding of the data drew upon the premise of pattern coding, where categories of codes are organised on the meta level (Saldaña, 2016). Throughout these processes, the overall stance taken was that core categories would emerge from the data based on the overarching concepts inferred from the participants' voice (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Holton, 2007; Saldaña, 2016).

4.8 Ethics

This section explores the ethical considerations of the study to underline transparency. With the study sitting within a largely qualitative framework, notions of trustworthiness are applicable and explored below. To highlight the transparency of the study more completely, the positioning of the researcher is also unpacked, which provides additional context for the interpretation of the research. Finally, ethical compliance closes the section.

4.8.1 Trustworthiness

Qualitative research does not rely on the concepts of validity and reliability, and while this research does contain two measures that are quantitative in nature (comprehension assessment and semantic differential), the overarching framework is qualitative. The literature, however, declares that qualitative research still requires crosschecks (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998; Morse, 2015; Morse et al., 2002; Phakiti & Paltridge, 2015; Whittemore et al., 2001). In terms of qualitative research, credibility is a concept similar to validity, and dependability and transferability are concepts similar to reliability and

generalisability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Phakiti & Paltridge, 2015). These work together to increase the trustworthiness of a study (Phakiti & Paltridge, 2015). In essence, Creswell (2016, p. 194) recommends the incorporation of "two or three strategies in a qualitative project".

Credibility was established through multiple processes. Firstly, Wagner (2015) argues that while participants from an education setting offer convenience, assessments regarding their motivation and truthfulness must be considered. The researcher's relationship through prolonged engagement with the participants served to establish rapport, which when added with voluntary participation, allowed for motivation and truthfulness judgments to be made. The credibility in action can be seen from instances of cancelling participant progression when motivation was not present. The implementation of recognised approaches adds to the credibility (and validity) of the research, which in this study is founded in the phenomenological, and supported by the quantitative components developed from existing studies and research (Buck, 2001; Creswell, 2007; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oppenheim, 1992; Osgood et al., 1957). These components were implemented in line with an established convergent mixed methods design (Fetters et al., 2013). Further validity in the quantitative components was established through piloting materials pre-data collection. Beyond these points, triangulation of data was performed through multiple avenues of collection, including comprehension assessment, semantic differential, and in-depth interviews (Merriam, 1998; Vandergrift, 2015).

In brief, while the objective of quantitative research is generalisability, qualitative research can often only serve to highlight the existence of a phenomenon in a particular context. Despite this difference, attempts to establish dependability and transferability in this study were built around transparent research procedures, which facilitate replication opportunities (Holliday, 2010, 2015; Morse, 2015; Richards, 2003; Whittemore et al., 2001). An additional factor was the exemplification of interview data across participants and views. Overall, through promoting supporting views and juxtapositions, a thick and rich description could be developed to evidence phenomena, and this allows for the dependability of the research and its contextual transferability to be assessed (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Holliday, 2010, 2015; Merriam, 1998; Morse, 2015; Richards, 2003). As a final point, additional judgments

can be made through registering how the data was collected across two mid-tier university campuses, and how the audio recordings were presented in four randomly ordered playlists, which both broaden the possibility for transferability.

4.8.2 Positioning of the Researcher

The interaction between participant and researcher comes pre-loaded, and as a result, it is important to recognise the influence the researcher had in this study (Holliday, 2010). Firstly, the researcher had previously lectured where this research was conducted. This was the basis for the pre-existing rapport. It is suggested however, that pre-existing rapport can contribute to the credibility of interview procedures (Berg & Lune, 2012; Charmaz, 2006; Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2003). This teacher-student relationship had the potential to create a power differential, and it was exhibited several times during the data collection where participants called the researcher 교수님 (kyo-su-nim: professor). Despite this, a performance-based relationship in terms of grades being applied by the researcher was removed, which lessened the differential.

An additional aspect to recognise is the position of the researcher in cultural terms (Creswell, 2007). The researcher had spent much of his adult life in Korea, which may have shaped his views and assumptions. In addition to this, while the interviews were conducted in English, the researcher's knowledge of Korean allowed for translanguaging when necessary. Throughout this process the participants were prompted to add further exemplification and clarification of issues raised. Overall, the nature of the interviews and the researcher's positioning added to maintaining rapport through putting the participants at ease. While the interviews were conducted in this manner, the reflexive acknowledgement of the researcher is essential (Creswell & Miller, 2000), which can also be placed alongside the contribution to maintaining rigour via the iterative processes undertaken throughout the research to facilitate constant checking (Morse et al., 2002).

4.8.3 Ethics Compliance

This study followed NHMRC guidelines (National Health and Medical Research Council et al., 2018) and was approved by Curtin University's Human Research

Ethics Committee. Transparent and ethical practice was maintained, which included participatory informed consent procedures through written means with additional verbal discussion in both English and Korean. In addition, all data was non-identifiable and stored securely to ensure confidentiality was maintained.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has looked at the objectives of the study and the theoretical framework that shaped how the research's design, development, and participant recruitment were undertaken. Through inspecting previous research, effective processes for data analysis in this study were initiated to address the research objectives. The chapter concluded by unpacking aspects of trustworthiness, researcher's positioning, and ethical compliance. In sum, this chapter documented the how behind the research and how best to present it. The following two chapters will look at the findings of the research beginning with a focus on language attitudes in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH:
LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

5.0 Introduction

One aim of this research was exploring language attitudes of KLEs toward multiple English varieties via the research methodology unpacked in the previous chapter. This chapter presents findings related to these language attitudes.

The qualitative data collected through the interviews direct the findings through this section to provide the thick description explored in this chapter (see Appendix B for transcription conventions and all interview extracts). A general to specific structure guides the findings across the four major themes that emerged: (1) Familiarity and Comfort; (2) Voice Clarity and Quality; (3) Rhythm, Connected Speech and Filled Pausing; and (4) Paralinguistic Features. Within these superordinate categories both positive and negative comments are drawn on to address RQ1 and RQ2:

RQ1   To what extent are language attitudes of KLE present in relation to English varieties?

RQ2   To what extent do prosodic and paralinguistic features of English varieties interact with the language attitudes of KLE?

The semantic differential data collected across the aspects of Like-Dislike, Good-Bad Accent, and Good-Bad Teacher will be integrated against the speakers discussed to present a more coherent attitudinal picture. With respect to interpretation of the 7-point semantic differential data, it is important to note that a rating closer to 7 represents a more positive rating. To achieve this, and with assertions from Chapter 4 in mind, the non-parametric test of Kruskal-Wallis with the playlist as an independent factor was performed.

5.1 Language Attitudes: Familiarity and Comfort

Throughout the interviews, the notion of familiarity was a theme given credence. This section focuses on the four integrated sub-themes that emerged in this area, as

described in Table 5.1 below. These move from a broad overall attitude through to more specific notions of familiarity and what it encompasses.

Table 5.1

Sub-themes Identified within Familiarity and Comfort

Identified Sub-theme	Description
Overall Attitude	Formation of attitude based on familiarity as a whole
Concept of Familiarity	Level of familiarity and developmental potential; areas noted include educational factors, personal growth, and pop culture
Familiarity with Specific Features	Recipient highlights aspects of the speaker's utterance and comments on familiarity; e.g. specific language variety, pronunciation features, or rhythm
False Familiarity	(Mis)conceptions of familiarity via misidentification; alignment of familiarity perception with attitude in evidence

Overall attitude formation in KLE can be seen as having an underpinning associated with levels of familiarity. In basic terms, it was suggested that the more familiar the KLE considered an English variety, the more positively it was perceived (see Extracts 1 and 2).

Extract 1

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P40:	it was most (1) I (.) it was best speaking (.) to me
3	Interviewer:	best in what way
4	P40:	<+> (1) <+> (.) 제일 익숙했어요 (.) 한국이 빼고 @@@
5		*{<+> (1) <+> (.) I'm most familiar with it (1) except for Korean @@@}*
6	Interviewer:	@@@ (1) so you've heard this the most
7	P40:	yeah [(.) best is] intonation and the pronunciation accent and everything was
8		good (.) I think [[(.)] it's that (.) his (.) she speak clear (.) and <+> (1) I can hear
9		the (1) it was comfortable (.) also (.) and <+> (.) I could catch the answer exac-
10		(.) immediately (1) immediately (.) I think
11	Interviewer:	[this kind of thing] [<+>]

Extract 2

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P31:	<+> (.) she's (.) he's good (2) everything was (1) easy and (1) you know the
3		speed was good (.) and pronunciation was good (.) and especially (1) the (.)

4		accent (1) I think her (.) she's from US (.) because (.) it's too (.) <+> (.)
5		뭐라 해야돼지 [(.)] 굉장히 익숙했어 (.) 듣기 편했고 [(1) yes]
6		*{<+> (.) she's (.) he's good (2) everything was (1) easy and (1) you know the*
7		*speed was good (.) and pronunciation was good (.) and especially (1) the (.)*
8		*accent (1) I think her (.) she's from US (.) because (.) it's too (.) <+> (.) what*
9		*should I say [(.)] it's very familiar (.) it was comfortable to listen to [(1) yes]}*
10	Interviewer:	[@@@] [<+> ok (.) familiar]
11	P31:	yeah familiar

In the first instance, relating to the Philippine (weakly marked) female audio recording, P40 claimed this speaker was the 'best', which was due to existing perceived familiarity in conjunction with how 'immediate' comprehension resulted in a 'comfortable' listening experience. In the second instance, P31 upheld that their positive perception was because 'everything was easy' and attributed it to the rhythm of delivery and also how they were 'familiar' and 'comfortable' with the speaker in the Philippine (weakly marked) female audio recording. The overall positive nature of this excerpt appears to be built around perceived familiarity when reflecting on how 'the accent' was used in conjunction with the initial positive message. It is also worth underlining though, that this familiarity may be a 'false familiarity' given that P31 believed the speaker was from the US (see Extract 2, lines 8-9). This lack of accuracy in the identification of the speaker serves to add weight to the notion that actual speaker origin may not be an issue in blind assessments.

However, actual speaker origin does not detract from how perceived speaker origin may contribute to language attitudes expressed, which is an interesting observation when placed alongside how the Philippine (weakly marked) female audio recording was the most positively perceived in the Like-Dislike semantic differential data. The semantic differential data returned no statistically significant differences across the four playlists for the Philippine (weakly marked) female audio recording when Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed and resulted in M=5.50 (SD=1.05) and Mdn=6 (IQR=5.00-6.00) on the 7-point scale, with the 7 being the most positive rating (see Appendix C, Tables 12.1 and 12.2). Across this scale, a Like 2 rating was the most frequently returned (21 instances) joined by zero instances of Dislike 2 or Dislike 3 (see Appendix C, Table 12.3). While it is likely that this overall attitude was formed

through more than the notions of familiarity and comfort, they cannot be discounted as contributing factors in the development of language attitudes in KLE.

Further to notions of false familiarity, there were instances where it resulted in positive and negative attitudes. For instance, P24 claimed British pronunciation was preferred and identified the speaker in Extract 3 as a UK origin speaker, which was the rationale for holding a positive attitude despite the speaker being the South African (L1 Afrikaans) male.

Extract 3

1	Interviewer:	<+> (1) why do you like him so much
2	P24:	영국발음이라서 @@@
3		*{because it's British pronunciation @@@}*
4	Interviewer:	and why would he be good as a teacher
5	P24:	이게 뭔가 (.) 이 사람이 선생님 하면 (.) 영국발음 익숙해지면 (.) 잘 들리지
6		않을까
7		*{well this person (.) if this person became a teacher (.) I can become more*
8		*exposed to British pronunciation (.) so I can hear it better}*
9	Interviewer:	<+> (1) so you think (.) even though (.) he's very hard to understand now [(1)]
10		and (.) you having him as a teacher (.) it's still a good thing
11	P24:	[<+>]
12	P24:	<+> (1) 이게 듣기 어려워도 듣다 보면 들릴 거 아니에요
13		*{<+> (1) even though this is difficult to listen to if I listen continuously it won't*
14		*be*

Developing this positive perception, P24 continued by stating that 'if this person became a teacher, I can become more exposed to British pronunciation, so I can hear it better'. This is an indication that the participant believes a more developed understanding can result from increasing exposure and familiarity, which potentially contributed to the participant believing the speaker would be a good teacher, and was complemented by the participant issuing a Like 2 for overall attitude and the highest rating of Good Teacher 3 in the semantic differential.

The positive assessments from P24 however, appear to be exceptions. No statistically significant differences across the four playlists for the South African (L1 Afrikaans)

male were returned for either the Like-Dislike or Good-Bad Teacher items when Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed. Overall, the South African (L1 Afrikaans) male speaker returned M=2.42 (SD=1.41; Mdn=2.00, IQR=1.00-3.00) for Like-Dislike and M=3.13 (SD=1.61; Mdn=3.00, IQR=2.00-4.00) for Good-Bad Teacher, which are both on the lower end of the 7-point scale (see Appendix C, Tables 12.1-12.6 for complete figures).

Aligned with these overall perceptions, P38, who also falsely identified the South African (L1 Afrikaans) male as a UK origin speaker, expressed their attitudes in a more negative light when making reference to speaker origin in Extract 4.

Extract 4

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P38:	<+> (.) he is ok (.) but it's my problem (.) I don't like him because (.) he speaks
3		British (.) maybe British pronunciation (.) that I'm not familiar with (.) so I
4		couldn't really that much understand (1) I think his language was not that
5		difficult (.) but because of pronunciation (.) <+> (.) I had hard time (.) and I yeah
6		(.) especially the first part when he speaks part (.) I can't

It is important to stress that P38 did not hold the speaker responsible and claimed that 'it's my problem'. This proposes that acceptance of varying speaker origins is possible in principle, but it also draws attention to the participant's awareness of the prejudice they hold. Ultimately, P38 argued that it was 'because of pronunciation' that it was perceived as less comprehensible, which may further acknowledge that the participant could be accepting of speakers of a variety of origins if able to receive the utterances comprehensibly.

One case of comprehensible reception may stem from the familiarity foundation KLE have with North American English varieties through English education experience in Korea, which is exemplified by P42 in Extract 5.

Extract 5

1	Interviewer:	@@@ (.) where do you want you English teacher to come from
2	P42:	@@@ (1) <+> (2) Canada
3	Interviewer:	<+> (.) why's that

4	P42:	<+> (1) because (1) <+> (.) from our childhood (.) when (.) when we (.) heard
5		something about English (.) <+> (.) almost all audio (.) audio sound is (1)
6		American English (.) so (.) we are awkward to British English (.) so (.) familiar
7		because of familiarity (.) I don't know

In this instance, P42 stated that a Canadian origin English teacher is their preference. This is supported through reflecting on how the majority of their English education experience 'from […] childhood' was with 'American English'. The familiar-unfamiliar dichotomy is further exemplified through stating that 'we are awkward to British English […] because of familiarity'. This promotes the position that less familiarity may equal less comfort.

In spite of perceptions that American English is the foundation of the participants' English experience contrasted with a lack of exposure to British English speakers, the accuracy of these familiarity assessments can be called into question. In response to the British female audio recording, P15 provided an example (see Extract 6).

Extract 6

1	P15:	so (1) its ok everything is ok [(.)] pronunciation is clear American I think (.) so
2		(.) it's ok maybe (.) she <lipsmack> describe picture [(.)] and (.) she's fluent
3	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]
4	Interviewer:	so you think she's American is that why you've given her three for good accent
5	P15:	yeah
6	Interviewer:	is American the best accent
7	P15:	to me [(.)] because (.) when I was young (.) so far (.) I using American I learn
8		about American (.) accent (.) so I think she is American (.) or or not
9	Interviewer:	[<+>]

P15 was adamant this speaker was speaking like a 'clear American'. This continued by developing into the assertion that due to the many years of 'using American' and 'learn[ing] American', there is a belief that American English provides the best accent, which is evidenced through the maximum Good Accent 3 rating in the semantic differential. In spite of these initially confident observations, P15 closed the exchange with 'I think she is American … or not'. This pulls into question whether the participant is second-guessing their familiarity. Even if this participant became

uncertain of the speaker's origin, it does not impact the perception that a life of American English exposure develops ingrained attitudes.

In contrast, a perceived Asian origin speaker can return a negative attitude, and as P27 emphasises in Extract 7, the role pronunciation plays in these inter-related familiarity judgments is brought to the fore.

Extract 7

1	P27:	아시아 (.) 아시아 사람 특유의 그 발음이 있어 그게 (.) 발음 말하는 발음이
2		<+> (.) 영어를 말하는 도중에도 그게 (.) 무의식적으로 자꾸 튀어나와
3		가지고 그거 때문에 좀 듣기가 좀 거북 했던거 같아요
4		*{Asia (.) Asian people have a unique accent (.) the pronunciation the spoken*
5		*pronunciation <+> (.) when using English (.) this comes out unconsciously and*
6		*it's because of this that listening was awkward}*
7	Interviewer:	so you also said he's hard to understand (1) is that the same reason
8	P27:	yes (.) same
9	Interviewer:	and he has a bad accent
10	P27:	yes @@@ .hhh (.) water- watermelon @@@ (.) this
11	Interviewer:	what's a good accent
12	P27:	<+> (1) 미국이나 .hhh 미국이나 아니면 영국 쪽 그런 쪽 발음이 괜찮을 거
13		같아요 [(1)] 사람들이 한국사람들이 (.) 주로 (.) 원어민 발음을 드라마
14		쪽에서 자꾸 듣다 보니까 (.) 친숙해져서
15		*{<+> (1) American or .hhh I think American or British pronunciation would be*
16		*OK [(1)] people Korean people (.) mainly (.) like native pronunciation since they*
17		*watch Western drama a lot (.) they're familiar with it}*

In this exchange, P27 drew attention to the influence a speaker's L1 may have on spoken delivery by discussing how 'Asian people have a unique accent' and that 'when using English this comes out unconsciously'. The resulting factor of this perception of the Korean (marked) male audio recording is that 'listening was awkward'. This combination resulted in the participant reviewing this speaker as having a 'bad accent', which was supported by the participant issuing a Bad Accent 2 rating in the semantic differential. Moreover, when asked to elaborate on what was a 'good accent', the participant reverted to claiming that 'I think American or British pronunciation would be OK', which was largely replicated in the responses of P27 in

the semantic differential (see Table 5.2). The participant justified this by proclaiming that Korean people are 'familiar with it' due to 'watch[ing] Western drama a lot'. However, the most telling aspect of this exchange is the overarching pronouncement that 'Korean people mainly like native pronunciation'. This offers some additional insights into the previous points raised in this section as it points toward a 'native is best' mentality when making broad attitudinal judgments based on a speaker's delivery.

Table 5.2

P27 Good-Bad Accent Responses

Audio recording	P27 response
American female	Good Accent 2
American male	Bad Accent 1
British female	Good Accent 3
British male	Good Accent 3

5.1.1 Summary of Familiarity and Comfort

The factor of perceived familiarity and comfort, and its role in language attitude formation can be condensed. The KLE have determined that the more familiar they feel they are with a specific English variety, the more positively it is perceived. This attitude operates *vis-à-vis* with a lack of familiarity and negative attitude formation. A secondary point is that while there appears to be a stated preference for American English, there are mixed reviews for British English. Additionally, attitudes are shaped by teacher origin, with these attitudes often displaying as a contrastive description between NEST and 'Asian' or KTE.

5.2 Language Attitudes: Voice Clarity and Quality

A transition from overarching language attitude formation to roles of prosodic factors begins with a factor that may be considered the most general. This section will move from general areas of voice clarity into areas of voice quality that also encompass aspects of tone (see Table 5.3). In this sense, factors relating to voice will be addressed relating to four sub-themes.

Table 5.3

Sub-themes Identified within Voice Clarity and Quality

Aspect	Identified Sub-theme	Description
Voice Clarity	Clarity in delivery	Focus on pronunciation and enunciation; recipients use a conceptual reference point against a 'norm'
Voice Quality	Tone level	Related to pitch; low vs. high vs. very high
	Personality perception	Perceptions of speaker's emotional state; happy and bright vs. sensitive and angry
	Distance and power	Contextual appropriacy of the tone; e.g. professional, warm, or calm

5.2.1 Voice Clarity

Voice clarity was raised in Extract 8 as a broad contributor to language attitude formation.

Extract 8

1	P21:	I thi- think she is best
2	Interviewer:	best [so far]
3	P21:	[@@@ yeah]
4	Interviewer:	[@@@] (1) why do you think that is
5	P21:	<+> (1) just I think that (1) .hhh (.) it sounds like clearly (.) yeah (.) yeah

P21 stated the South African (L1 English) female audio recording was the 'best' by underlining the clear sound, which is inherently linked with the notion of clarity. This could be placed under the prosodic umbrella of clarity by focusing on the all-encompassing notions of what is 'clear' or 'exact'. The positive evaluation of the South African (L1 English) female was also evidenced in the Like-Dislike factor of the semantic differential. In this area, while it may be true that the figures returned were not the 'best', *M*=4.69 (*SD*=1.57; *Mdn*=5.00 *IQR*=4.00-6.00) still indicated a positive language attitude across the four playlists, which was supported by no statistically significant differences present when Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed. This was complemented further through the frequency of positive ratings received by the speaker (Like 1, *n*=17; Like 2, *n*=13; Like 3, *n*=3; see Appendix C, Table 12.3). Overall, the notion of clarity may be identified as a specific prosodic feature influencing language attitude formation. Even so, P22 opined that it referred to a general view encompassing multiple prosodic features (see Extract 9).

Extract 9

1	Interviewer:	how about having a Korean English teacher
2	P22:	<+> (.) Korean English teacher speak English
3	Interviewer:	yeah
4	P22:	very (1) <+> I can understand (.) .hhh (.) more easier @@@ because they said
5		(1) <+> (.) what is (2) stru- <+> no (.) <+> what is (.) <+> (1) they say ri- right
6		word or speak (.) honest pronunciation @@@
7	Interviewer:	what is it in Korean
8	P22:	<+>
9	Interviewer:	what in Korean
10	P22:	Korean
11	Interviewer:	yeah (.) can you explain in Korean (1) what you mean by honest pronunciation
12		[(.)] 한국으로
13		*{yeah (.) can you explain in Korean (1) what you mean by honest pronunciation*
14		*[(.)] in Korean}*
15	P22:	[<+>]
16	P22:	한국어로 <+> 정직한 발음으로 하는 거
17		*{in Korean <+> speaking with clear pronunciation}*

In Extract 9, P22 closed by saying 'speaking with clear pronunciation' was at the core. This stemmed from the initial comment that the Korean (marked) male audio recording, and KTE in general, use 'honest pronunciation', and with this, the participant indicated that KTEs are 'easier' to understand. From this assertion, the notion of clear pronunciation can be seen as including multiple factors concurrently.

Developing the notion further leads to taking a closer look at P17 (see Extract 10), who suggested the reference to pronunciation also includes aspects of rhythm.

Extract 10

1	Interviewer:	yeah (1) how would you feel if she was your teacher
2	P17:	good
3	Interviewer:	good
4	P17:	<+>
5	Interviewer:	why
6	P17:	<+> (2) <cough> (2) is it ok to [(.) speak Korean]
7	Interviewer:	[you can use so-] you can use some Korean yes
8	P17:	@@@ (.) <cough> (1) accent is <+> (1) 정확하게

9		*{@@@ (.) <cough> (1) accent is <+> (1) exact}*
10	Interviewer:	<+>
11	P17:	흘리지 않고 정확하게 발음을 해줘서
12		*{because it doesn't flow together and the pronunciation is exact}*

In reference to the South African (L1 English) female audio recording, P17 stated that the 'accent is exact' before developing this to introduce rhythm and how 'it doesn't flow together'. The participant suggested that due to connected speech not being evident, this kind of 'exact pronunciation' led to a positive attitude toward the speaker as a teacher.

In relation to the concept of 'flow', P42 expressed a more specific term, which also interacted with speaker origin in Extract 11.

Extract 11

1	Interviewer:	why do you think she has a good accent
2	P42:	<+> because I like (.) English accent (.) British accent
3	Interviewer:	you mean pronunciation
4	P42:	<+> yeah [(1)] because the (.) accent is very clear (.) than the American accent
5		so (.) I can easily understand what she said [(.)] yeah
6	Interviewer:	[or] [<+>]
7	Interviewer:	what do you mean clear
8	P42:	<+> (1) I can't explain this is English [(.)] 또박또박
9		*{<+> (1) I can't explain this is English [(.)] word-by-word}*
10	Interviewer:	[then]

While P42 misidentified the South African (L1 English) female as a UK origin speaker, there was a deeper explanation for why this audio recording represents a 'good accent'. It is interesting that the initial reference point was that a '[British] accent is very clear' and clearer 'than the American accent' as this seems to go against the previously indicated preference for an American speaker over a British speaker. In any case, this preferential perception developed to include the definition of 'clear' as 'word-by-word', which appeared numerous times throughout the interviews in varying forms, and provides reference to the absence of connected speech features. This notion of word-by-word could often be linked with rhythm, although in this instance it appears to be directly linked with voice quality and clarity

of enunciation and contributed to the positive Good-Bad Accent evaluations received by the South African (L1 English) female speaker (*M*=5.00, *SD*=1.37; *Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=4.00-6.00) on the 7-point scale. In this area, no statistically significant differences were returned between the four playlists across all 24 audio recordings when Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed (see Appendix C, Table 12.7).

5.2.2 Voice Quality

In the domain of voice, tone of delivery was also raised by KLE. An initial comment made in this area related to consistency, as expressed in Extract 12 by P31.

Extract 12

1	Interviewer:	why do you like him (.) this much
2	P31:	<+> (1) why do I like him
3	Interviewer:	<+>
4	P31:	<+> because (1) <+> (2) I (.) I like his voice (.) voice because (.) <+> tone (.)
5		level tone [(1)] was good and he (.) yes as I said (.) pausing (.) yes [(.) was]
6		good
7	Interviewer:	[<+>]

P31 made reference to pausing being 'good', however, a broader comment was made in terms of the voice and tone. When applying 'voice' as an overarching concept, there are multiple factors that work in unison to create 'voice'. One aspect of voice raised by the participants in terms of Like-Dislike was tone level, with particular reference to a 'high tone' (see Extract 13).

Extract 13

1	Interviewer:	why do you dislike her
2	P62:	because her speed is so fast (.) and her voice (.) very high tone (1) I don't like
3		high tone
4	Interviewer:	why do you dislike a high tone
5	P62:	<+> (1) when I hear (.) high tone (.) keep (1) 계속 계속 (.) keep (.) going (1)
6		keep
7		*{<+> (1) when I hear (.) high tone (.) keep (1) continues (.) keep (.) going (1)*
8		*keep}*
9	Interviewer:	what keeps going
10	P62:	high tone
11	Interviewer:	@@@

12   P62:   my eye is sick (.) @@@ (.) I don't like high tone (2) voice

In reference to the Korean (weakly marked) female audio recording in Extract 13, P62 did mention fast delivery (see line 2), but a key aspect here was the 'very high tone'. The participant claimed this high tone created a negative reaction. In contrast, P46 appreciated the high tone of the Korean (weakly marked) female (see Extract 14).

Extract 14

1   Interviewer: what do you think about her voice
2   P46:   good
3   Interviewer: why do you think she's good
4   P46:   high
5   Interviewer: high tone
6   P46:   yeah

From these contrastive excerpts it is possible to see that individual preferences have roles in attitude formation processes. When taking the comments of tone level as a whole against the Korean (weakly marked) female, it is possible to draw on the semantic differential data across the Like-Dislike and Good-Bad Accent factors for support. In these areas, no statistically significant differences were returned across the four playlists for the speaker when Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed. Overall, the figures returned for the Korean (weakly marked) female were largely positive with Like-Dislike M=4.71 (SD=1.52; Mdn=5.00, IQR=4.00-6.00) and Good-Bad Accent M=4.46 (SD=1.46; Mdn=5.00, IQR=3.00-6.00) evidenced on the 7-point scale. It is probable that additional factors have contributed to these semantic differential ratings that extend beyond tone level, however, tone can still be considered a contributor.

Building from preference of tone level, there is the possibility that a more uniform contributor may be linked with an emotional interpretation of tone (see Extract 15).

Extract 15

1   Interviewer: what do you think about this speaker
2   P54:   <lipsmack> 좋았어요

3		*{<lipsmack> it was good}*
4	Interviewer:	why
5	P54:	목소리가 밝아서 (.) @@@ (.) 그리고 웃으면서 말하는 게 좋았어요
6		*{the voice is bright (.) @@@ (.) and I like her speaking with a smile}*

The comments from P54 relating to the Philippine (weakly marked) female in Extract 15 underscored the voice as 'bright' and how she is 'speaking with a smile'. It could be asserted from this smiling voice that this is a reason for P54 forming a positive attitude, with this kind of positive relationship also having an effect on judgments relating to teacher preference, as evidenced by P21 in Extract 16.

Extract 16

1	Interviewer:	how would you feel if she (.) was your teacher
2	P21:	yeah (.) I think it's good (.) because (.) I feel the (.) <+> (.) her (.) emotion
3	Interviewer:	<+> (1) and (.) how can you feel her emotion
4	P21:	because of the (.) accent

Here, P21 claimed the Philippine (weakly marked) female would be a good teacher 'because I feel […] her emotion […] because of the accent'. When we ruminate on the kinds of emotion that can be felt, multiple arise. One such emotion resulting in participants having a positive attitude toward a speaker as a potential teacher is related to 'happiness' (see Extracts 17 and 18).

Extract 17

1	Interviewer:	would you like her as your teacher
2	P43:	yes very much because (.) she (.) <+> (1) she feels funny so it's (.) 그니까요
3		말할 때 기분 기분 좋음이 느껴져서요 (.) 왠지 (.) 수업시간에 지루하지
4		않을 거 같아요 (.) 그래서 좋아요
5		*{yes very much because (.) she (.) <+> (1) she feels funny so it's (.) because*
6		*when she speaks I can feel she is happy (.) so (.) I think it wouldn't be boring*
7		*during class (.) that's why I like it}*

Extract 18

1	Interviewer:	you said you'd like her as your teacher
2	P42:	yeah
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that

4	P42:	<+> because very (.) I think she is very active [(1)] <+> (1) and (.) she makes (.)
5		makes people happy [(1)] <+> because her voice is very brisk a little bit (.) and
6		<+> she (1) ap-app (.) appeal
7	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]
8	Interviewer:	<+> 매력적인
9		*{<+> attractive}*
10	P42:	yeah
11	Interviewer:	what do you mean by brisk
12	P42:	<sigh> [(1)] @@@ (1) <+> (.) as I said (.) she looks interested in the story [(.)]
13		but (.) <+> many-many speakers (.) that I heard before (.) don't look interested
14		(.) not interested in the story (.) or (.) I don't know the study (.) description (.)
15		but she looks very (1) oh there's two boys and with a snowman (.) so (.) a little
16		bit high [(.)] <+>
17	Interviewer:	[@@@] [<+>] [<+>]

In Extract 17, also regarding the Philippine (weakly marked) female, P43 claimed 'when she speaks I can feel she is happy'. This belief led into the assertion that class would not be boring, and this appears related to the observations of P42 regarding the same speaker in Extract 18, where, while there is a claim that the speaker 'is very active' there is no direct claim that the speaker herself is 'happy'. Instead, the participant suggested that through the 'active' nature of the speaker's delivery and because 'she looks interested in the story', 'she makes people happy'. This happiness conferred onto the listener appears to be equally important for the participant in the assessment of teacher acceptability.

Overall, the positive evaluations of the Philippine (weakly marked) female were also evident across the semantic differential data. The most general level of Like-Dislike showed how this speaker received the most positive feedback (M=5.50, SD=1.05; Mdn=6.00, IQR=5.00-6.00). Additionally however, the Philippine (weakly marked) female was also the most positively perceived in both Good-Bad Teacher (M=5.40, SD=1.05; Mdn=5.00, IQR=5.00-6.00) and Good-Bad Accent (M=5.48, SD=1.15; Mdn=6.00, IQR=5.00-6.00) (see Appendix C, Tables 12.5 and 12.8). In assessing these attitudinal factors, Kruskal-Wallis H test was executed with no evidence of statistically significant differences between the four playlists across the 24 audio recordings present (see Appendix C, Tables 12.4 and 12.7), which allows the data to be taken as a whole.

However, tone does not result in solely positive attitude formation. For instance, the emotional tone interpretation of the South African (L1 English) female audio recording also resulted in a negative review, as expressed in Extract 19.

Extract 19

1	Interviewer:	so what do you think about this person
2	P55:	<lipsmack> (.) 이 사람이 어떤 거 같냐구요
3		*{<lipsmack> (.) what do I think about this person}*
4	Interviewer:	<+>
5	P55:	<+> (.) 좀 성격이 예민한 거 같아요 (1) 또 (.) 또 영어로 원어민인 거 같아요
6		*{<+> (.) I think her personality might be sensitive (1) and (.) and I think she*
7		*sounds like a native}*

The key to this utterance from P55 is the belief the speaker is 'sensitive', which may be related to tone of voice. P55 was requested to provide a definition of what they mean by 'sensitive' (see Extract 20).

Extract 20

1	Interviewer:	<+> (1) and why do you think she's unfriendly
2	P55:	<+> (1) 좀 (.) 예민한 성격의 사람인 거 같아서 건들면 (.) 말을 시키면 (1)
3		약간 (.) 불친절할 거 같고 (1) 그런 성격인 거 같아요
4		*{<+> (1) a bit (.) I think her personality is sensitive if I touch her (.) or speak to*
5		*her (1) a little (.) she might be a little unkind (.) she seems like that kind of*
6		*personality}*
7	Interviewer:	예민
8		*{sensitive}*
9	P55:	<+>
10	Interviewer:	예민
11		*{sensitive}*
12	P55:	예민
13		*{sensitive}*
14	Interviewer:	can you explain what you mean
15	P55:	can you [speak]
16	Interviewer:	[can you] explain what you mean by 예민
17		*{[can you] explain what you mean by sensitive}*
18	P55:	<+> 아 (.) .hhh <+> (.) 좀 (1) <+> (.) 화를 잘 내고 [(.)] 어떤 가벼운 일이라도

19		(.) 크게 반응하고
20		*{<+> ah (.) .hhh <+> (.) a little (1) <+> (.) get angry easily [(.)] over little*
21		*things (.) she might overreact}*
22	Interviewer:	[<+>]

When reviewing the perception of P55 in detail across Extract 20, the notion that the speaker may 'get angry easily' can be perceived as linked with tone of delivery, and is therefore, likely to be linked with tone of voice.

Similar to these interpretative emotional inferences, there is a possible claim against preconceived expectations the KLE have of a teacher. While happiness, interest, and genuine emotions have been factors explored, the notion of professionalism covers several others in and of itself. In this area, several participants made reference to a 'teacher's voice' (see Extracts 21 and 22).

Extract 21

1	Interviewer:	why do you think she would be bad as a teacher
2	P42:	<+> (2) <+> (.) her pronunciation can feel rude (.) not professional [(.)] in Korea
3		[(1)] because (.) many students in Korea evaluate (.) evaluate the teacher (.) <+>
4		with their intonation or pronunciation (.) <+> (.) me too
5	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]

Extract 22

1	Interviewer:	what makes her sound friendly
2	P18:	<+> (.) maybe <+> (.) when her explained to what is on the woman left (.) <+>
3		she is saying she says so faster but <+> its (1) <+> it feel like talking to a
4		friend [(.)] not a teacher or other person [(.)] so (.) that made me feel like a (.)
5		friend of her
6	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]
7	Interviewer:	how did it sound like a friend
8	P18:	<+> (.) maybe <+> (1) not too 너무 딱딱하다 형식적이지 않고 <+> (.) and
9		sounds like <+> 편안하게 편안하게
10		*{<+> (.) maybe <+> (1) not too (.) not too harsh and not formal <+> (.) and*
11		*sounds like <+> comfortable comfortable}*
12	Interviewer:	<+> comfortable
13	P18:	yeah
14	Interviewer:	<+> (.) you've picked (.) very bad as a teacher

15	P18:	yeah bad bad as a teacher (.) bad as a teacher
16	Interviewer:	why
17	P18:	because (.) if she is my teacher (.) <+> (2) if I go to school and I would do
18		nothing (.) because too friendly [(.)] maybe it can be her (.) nice (.) but it also
19		can be her bad
20	Interviewer:	[<+>]
21	Interviewer:	yeah
22	P18:	yeah
23	Interviewer:	so you think the teacher needs to be more [(.)] strict
24	P18:	[more]
25	P18:	yeah (.) more strict

In Extract 21, P42 contended that 'many students in Korea evaluate […] the teacher […] with their intonation or pronunciation' before closing the statement by announcing that they do the same. In this instance, P42 commented that the Philippine (marked) female sounded 'rude' and 'not professional', which would make her a bad teacher. This notion of professionalism in the voice tone also carries across into observations made by P18 relating to the South African (L1 English) female in Extract 22, where, while the participant believed the speaker was 'talking to a friend', this is not a positive connection for the classroom. The observation further proposed the delivery was 'not too harsh' and that it was 'comfortable' to listen to, however, the attitude was that they would be a bad teacher, which P18 confirmed by issuing a Bad Teacher 3 rating. This is possibly due to the latter claims made by P18 of how this perception of 'friendliness' could lead to students not working in class. Despite this, the South African (L1 English) female maintained a positive Good-Bad Teacher evaluation overall by returning M=4.73 (SD=1.47; Mdn=5.00 IQR=4.00-6.00) in the 7-point semantic differential item.

When exploring the notion of a teacher's voice from other perspectives it was important to unpack possible contributing factors. P39 for instance, drew on how a teacher may be 'calm' (see Extract 23).

Extract 23

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P39:	.hhh (.) she is like (.) teacher (.) yeah just (.) tell me something like that (.) yeah
3	Interviewer:	so you think the way she (.) explains is like a teacher

4	P39:	yeah yeah yeah she
5	Interviewer:	or you think her voice sounds like a teacher
6	P39:	voice too but (.) yeah she is like (.) telling me (.) she is like teacher (.) yeah
7	Interviewer:	what does a teacher's voice sound like
8	P39:	.hhh (.) clam
9	Interviewer:	calm
10	P39:	yeah calm

P39 indicated the South African (L1 Afrikaans) female was 'like a teacher' in how she had a 'calm' voice. This could be interpreted as the speaker delivering in a style that was not too fast, as this may result in a calm observation. It could also point toward how there was a genuine kind of intonation variation present, which may extend to include a 'caring' emotional quality within the tone. If aligning the caring component as essential to a teacher's voice, then P45 further develops this notion in Extract 24.

Extract 24

1	Interviewer:	why do you like this speaker
2	P45:	<+> (.) I felt (.) her voice is (2) good (1) <+> (1) maybe she (1) very close (.)
3		teacher's voice
4	Interviewer:	this is what a teacher should sound like
5	P45:	<+>
6	Interviewer:	and why do you think that
7	P45:	<+> (.) middle tone (1) and (.) comfortable (.) and (.) soft (.) and not high (1)
8		yeah (1) like <+> (1) mum's mum's voice @@@
9	Interviewer:	what's a mum's voice
10	P45:	ours (.) our mum (.) <+> (2) like a bear (.) 포근 포근한 그런 목소리
11		*{ours (.) our mum (.) <+> (2) like a bear (.) a warm and comfortable voice}*

The observations made by P45 are also made in relation to the South African (L1 Afrikaans) female speaker, where P45 claimed that the speaking was 'comfortable', 'soft' and 'like [a] mum's voice'. When asked to elaborate on this notion of a mother's voice, the participant gave the analogy of it being 'like a bear', which is a voice that is 'warm and comfortable' (see Extract 24, lines 10-11). In considering the notion of a mother's voice, it is easy to see how this may relate to a caring quality consisting of the calmness suggested by P39. Additionally, if contrasting the

observations made earlier in relation to friendliness and professionalism, then it is possible to see how a mother's voice is more appropriate for a teacher than that of a mere friend. While both of these can offer a safe and welcoming environment, a voice associated with 'friendship' may mark a level status and not include a kind of a hierarchical difference; whereas, a voice associated with a parent can provide access to a hierarchical structure that encompasses a status differential loaded with expectation. In this case, the teacher-student relationship can be supported through the welcome nature of a 'warm' and 'calm' delivery that is 'professional', as this promotes the aspects of emotional transfer and genuine attention.

An additional prosodic factor in this area is the variance of intonation that may exist and how this contributes to attitude development. In the case of the Korean (marked) male audio recording, there was a lack of positive emotional perception present, which resulted in negative attitudes toward the accent across the four playlists (*M*=3.35, *SD*=1.38; *Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=2.00-4.00), as was explored in Extract 25 by P61.

Extract 25

1	Interviewer:	no [@@@] (.) well why do you think he has a bad accent
2	P61:	<+> (1) he (2) 감정없다 (.) 감정없는 말 (.) 무미건조 [(.)] <+>
3		*{<+> (1) he (2) no emotion (.) there's no emotion in the speech (.) it's dull [(.)]*
4		*<+>}*
5	Interviewer:	[<+>]

P61 suggested the speaker was 'dull' because 'there's no emotion in the speech'. While this lack of emotion can breed a negative attitude, it can also interrelate with other aspects, such as impacting the desire to interact with the utterance (see Extract 26).

Extract 26

1	Interviewer:	what do you mean by (.) their tone is the same
2	P37:	I mean (1) like (1) they they they are explain some picture (.) but not have
3		interesting just (.) same voice tone [(.) so] (1) yeah
4	Interviewer:	[<+>]
5	Interviewer:	does that make it harder for you to understand
6	P37:	actually it doesn't matter about but I can't (.) feeling interesting [(.) their] from

7		their voice so [(1)] like my feeling (.) I don't wannaaa listen it (.) like (1) really
8		focusing (.) I don't want [(.)] yeah
9	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

In Extract 26, P37 claimed the British male speaker lacked interest in describing the situation, which resulted in the participant similarly not having an interest in listening. In effect, this perceived monotonous delivery potentially detracted from the listener's attention and resulted in a negative attitude being formed. In contrast, a more active intonation pattern can lead to a positive attitude being formed, as is evidenced in the exchange with P27 across Extract 27.

Extract 27

1	Interviewer:	you said he has a very good accent
2	P27:	yes
3	Interviewer:	what do you mean by that (.) or why do you think that
4	P27:	<+> (.) good accent (1) .hhh (.) 그 음 말하는 높낮이 (.) 높낮이가 일정하고 (.)
5		<+> (.) 말하는 속도도 (.) 이해가 충- (.) 이해가 충분히 될 정도로 적당한
6		속도기 때문에 (1) 그래서 good accent
7		*{<+> (.) good accent (1) .hhh (.) the <+> intonation (.) the intonation is*
8		*consistent and (.) <+> (.) the speaking speed is also (.) suff- to understand (.)*
9		*because of the speed it's sufficient enough to understand (1) that's why good*
10		*accent}*

Here, P27 attested that the British male was not monotonous, but rather, implemented a 'consistent' intonation with 'sufficient' speed aiding understanding and resulting in a positive attitude towards the accent. The more positive acknowledgements of P27 appear aligned with the Good-Bad Accent rating received by the British male speaker across the four playlists, where no statistically significant differences were returned when Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed, and M=5.06 (SD=1.04, Mdn=5.00, IQR=4.00-6.00) was evidenced (see Appendix C, Tables 12.7 and 12.8). As highlighted however, this contrast in a singular audio recording from different participants serves to underline how attitudes are formed at the individual level.

The kind of active delivery explored by P27 appears to be linked with listeners' interest, which is an area considered in relation to teachers (see Extract 28).

Extract 28

1	Interviewer:	how would you feel if he was your teacher
2	P16:	<+> (2) 좋을거 같아요 (.) 좀 뭔가 의욕적으로(.) 할 거 같아요 (.) 좀
3		전형적인 한국 (.) 인강 (1) 강사 스타일 (.) 막 좀 (.) 높은 하이 톤에 (.) 막
4		화려한 제스처에
5		*{<+> (2) I think it would be good (.) he seems (.) a little enthusiastic (.) a bit*
6		*like the typical Korean (.) internet lecture (.) teaching style (.) a bit of (.) a high*
7		*tone (.) and a lot of gesture}*
8	Interviewer:	<+> (.) so you think he could be a fun teacher
9	P16:	fun
10	Interviewer:	because of his tone and gestures [(.) or]
11	P16:	[no] (.) 재미는 없지만 (.) 뭔가 할려고 하는
12		*{[no] (.) not fun but (.) <+> enthusiastic}*

P16 expressed in Extract 28 the belief that the Korean (weakly marked) male speaker made use of this active delivery and it equated to the participant expressing a positive attitude for the speaker as a potential teacher. Here, the participant claimed that the speaker 'seems a little enthusiastic' and was 'like the typical Korean internet lecture teaching'. The participant commented that the speaker used 'a lot of gesture'; however, this enthusiastic approach and inclusion of gesture resulted in the perception that the teacher would be 'not fun'. Rather, it appears that due to the speaker's enthusiasm he could be a 'good teacher'. This may be because the participant believed the enthusiasm for the topic related to the speaker's interest in the topic, which may also result in listeners' being more 'interested'.

In contrast, actively pursuing an enthusiastic delivery may not be the answer. As mentioned in an earlier section, participants were perceptive in their observations, and as evidenced in the exchange with P61 in Extracts 29 and 30, a genuine and natural enthusiasm and delivery may be preferential to a forced one.

Extract 29

1	P61:	[he's] singing @@@

2   Interviewer: singing

3   P61:   yeah

4   Interviewer: why do you think he sounds (.) like he's [singing]

5   P61:   [<+> he is (***)] (.) woman's (.) in or hanging (.) tomato (.) right hand [(.)] mm

6   mmm

7   Interviewer: [<+>]

Extract 30

1   Interviewer: you said he would be bad as a teacher

2   P61: yes

3   Interviewer: why do you think that

4   P61: @@@ if you are him (.) I hate you @@@

5   Interviewer: I thought you hated me already [@@@]

6   P61: [he's singing] (.) @@@

Within Extracts 29 and 30, P61 declared that the South African (L1 English) male was 'singing'. While this is not explicitly true as it was a spoken monologue, the observation from P61 was that an unnatural amount of intonation variation was present, which was imitated in line 5 of the exchange. From this, the deduction can be made if a speaker is perceived as being disingenuous in their delivery through forced expression, it may be possible for distance to be created between speaker and listener, and result in a negative attitude toward the speaker as a potential teacher, which, in this instance contributed to a Bad Teacher 3 rating.

5.2.3 Summary of Voice Clarity and Quality

Overarching aspects related to voice clarity and quality and their influence on language attitude formation in KLE exist in both general and individual-specific comments. In terms of general comments directed at voice clarity, the KLE mentioned pronunciation as being 'exact' or not. In the case of the former, a delivery perceived as more exact resulted in a more positive attitude; whereas a delivery deemed 'inexact' resulted in a more negative attitude. On an individual level, the KLE showed how voice quality relating to tone can be a personal factor in attitude formation with both positive and negative attitudes for high and low tones respectively. The final area of voice quality addressed in this section also focused on tone, although it was based on emotional perceptions of the speaker. In this case, the emotion perceived in the speaker's voice appeared to transfer onto KLE and that had

an impact on the language attitude expressed. For instance, those speakers with a 'happy' or 'bright' tone were more positively perceived. Similarly, the perceived 'professionalism' of the speaker through their voice quality was also considered by KLE, with more professionally perceived speakers being more positively received as potential teachers. The combination of which could feed into the language classroom through their pedagogical relevance to training teachers in achieving more attitudinally positive interactions with their students.

5.3 Language Attitudes: Rhythm, Connected Speech, and Filled Pausing

Rhythm, like the prosodic factors explored above, does not lie independently nor does it present as a generalisable feature. Overall, three sub-themes will be covered in this section, encompassing the areas of rhythm, connected speech, and filled pausing (see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4

Sub-themes Identified within Rhythm, Connected Speech, and Filled Pausing

Identified Sub-theme	Description
Rhythm and rate of speech	Perceptions of rate of speech; fast vs. slow vs. level of suitability
Connected speech	Delineation related to word-by-word delivery and connected speech with liaison; delivery can influence perceptions of rate of speech
Filled pausing	Evidence of filled pausing within utterance; relationship with fluency, perceived intelligence, and recipient expectations

5.3.1 Rhythm

As with the previously explored prosodic factors, the attitudes expressed relating to rhythm are equally personal and dependent on the participant. Similarly, the same kinds of prosodic interrelationships also appear evident. In the case presented in Extract 31, a voice-rhythm interrelationship is one to which P63 made loose reference.

Extract 31

1	Interviewer:	he seems to be your favourite [(.)] why
2	P63:	[yeah]
3	P63:	the most favourite one (.) <+> because .hhh (.) <+> (.) speed is (.) suitable for me

| 4 | | and (.) accent is good (1) <+> (1) just (.) almost clear [(.)] to me |
| 5 | Interviewer: | [<+>] |

Here, P63 stated the 'accent is good', which was a common declaration through the interviews. In this case, it is unclear exactly what P63's intended meaning was in relation to 'accent'. Of greater importance though, is the assessment that this audio recording was the participant's 'favourite one'. It is worth mentioning that for P63, the Philippine (marked) male was the thirteenth recording heard. Therefore, this participant had had ample exposure for making a grounded attitudinal determination. In addition, the prominent factor for P63's attitude was the link with rhythm, which the participant declared was 'suitable for me'. Accompanying this, the Philippine (marked) male received moderately positive attitudinal feedback overall across the Like-Dislike (*M*=4.48, *SD*=1.35; *Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=4.00-5.00) and Good-Bad Accent (*M*=4.65, *SD*=1.38; *Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=3.25-6.00) 7-point semantic differentials, both of which returned no statistically significant differences across the four playlists when Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed. Despite the overall picture, the individualisation of what is appropriate for the participant requires scrutiny across all situations. For instance, building from P63's speed suitability comments, other participants referenced their own preferences (see Extracts 32-34).

Extract 32

1	Interviewer:	can I ask why you like him a little bit
2	P54:	like
3	Interviewer:	<+>
4	P54:	<lipsmack> (.) <+> (1) like 느리게 말해줘서 [(.)] @@@
5		*{<lipsmack> (.) <+> (1) like because he spoke slowly [(.)] @@@}*
6	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 33

1	Interviewer:	ok (2) so how do you feel about it being so slow
2	P50:	I (.) good like (.) @@@ (.) I like (.) <+>
3	Interviewer:	why do you like it
4	P50:	<+> because (.) <+> when it's test (1) I have (.) 100 score [(.)] @@@ so @@@
5		(.) and I understand good <+>
6	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 34

1	Interviewer:	<+> (.) <+> (.) why do you dislike her so much
2	P12:	너무 천천히 말을 해서 (.) 못 알아 먹겠어요
3		*{because she speaks really slowly (.) I couldn't understand}*
4	Interviewer:	<+>
5	P12:	yeah
6	Interviewer:	so these are related [(.)] like and understanding (.) ok
7	P12:	[yeah yeah]
8	P12:	very bad [(.)] I hate her
9	Interviewer:	how would you feel if she's your teacher
10	P12:	noooo

In the case of P54 in Extract 32, a slower delivery was seen as positive and was stated as the reason why they 'like' the Philippine (marked) male speaker. In this area of slower preference, P50 offered one possible explanation in Extract 33, in that the increased perceived comprehensibility levels coming from a slower delivery led to more positive attitudes towards the Korean (marked) female audio recording.

However, to reinforce the individual nature of these perceptions, P12 expressed the converse in Extract 34 by claiming that it was due to the slow delivery of the Philippine (marked) female speaker that it was hard to understand and drew the connection between likeability and understanding. When looking at the Like-Dislike ratings as a whole, the Philippine (marked) female returned a moderately negative attitude across the four playlists (*M*=3.04, *SD*=1.46; *Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=2.00-4.00). This overall negative attitude consisted of 14 Dislike 1 ratings, 15 Dislike 2, and 5 Dislike 3 (see Appendix C, Table 12.3). While the prosodic factors contributing to this attitude formation are myriad, P12 provides brevity in verbalising the negative by stating 'I hate her' (see Extract 34, line 8).

Continuing with the interrelational rhythm theme, negative attitudinal views expressed towards the Philippine (marked) female formed as a result (see Extracts 35 and 36).

Extract 35

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P50:	<+> (.) very slow (.) so I (.) <+> (.) I'm very uncomfortable (1) .hhh and (.) very
3		slow (.) very very slow [(1)] @@@ (.) very unfriendly (.) @@@
4	Interviewer:	[@@@]

Extract 36

1	Interviewer:	<+> (.) is there any other reason why (.) you dislike this (.) speaker
2	P50:	<+> (1) 답답 @@@
3		*{<+> (1) uncomfortable @@@}*

P50 repeatedly commented how the Philippine (marked) female was 'very slow' (see Extract 35), and it was also evidenced how the comment of being 'uncomfortable' with the listening process relates to likeability (see Extract 36). This is despite the earlier postulation that a slow delivery can result in a '100 percent' test result breeding a positive attitude (see Extract 33, line 4), others suggested that even if a slow delivery is perceived as easier to understand, it does not guarantee positive attitude formation. Therefore, the questioning could be stretched to whether the KLE believes effective communication is a necessity for 'good English'. In the case of P43, effective communication did not appear to equate to a positive attitude (see Extract 37).

Extract 37

1	Interviewer:	you've written slow across the top
2	P43:	yeah (.) it s- (.) it seems like child [(1)] and (.) <+> (.) slowly and (.) too slowly
3	Interviewer:	[<+>]
4	Interviewer:	so with it being too slow does that make it easy or hard for you
5	P43:	it's easy but (.) yeah it's easy to understand but (.) it's not good English
6	Interviewer:	how do you feel (.) if someone speaks this slow
7	P43:	<+> (2) <+> it's (.) it's case by case because (.) in this case I think it's child [(.)]
8		and it is possible [(.)] 애가 얘기하니까요 여기서 이해 할만 하겠는데요 (.)
9		만약에 그 (1) 다른 (.) 관광지 같은데서도 느리게 말해주면 이해하겠는데
10		그냥 일반 대화에서 (.) 너무 느리게 말해주면 좀 그럴거 싫을 거 같아요
11		*{<+> (2) <+> it's (.) it's case by case because (.) in this case I think it's child*
12		*[(.)] and it is possible [(.)] this person because this person here I could*
13		*understand what she said (.) if it's (1) a different (.) tourist place and she speaks*
14		*slowly I can understand but for just normal conversation (.) if someone speaks*
15		*really slowly it wouldn't be pleasant}*
16	Interviewer:	[<+>]　　[<+>]

In this exchange surrounding the Korean (marked) female audio recording, P43 claimed this was 'not good English' (see Extract 37, line 5). The greatest factor in

making this assessment appears to be related to the slow rate of delivery, as exemplified through: 'it seems like a child […] too slowly'. The participant continued by proferring that even though this speaker was 'easy to understand' the slow delivery impacted attitude formation in commenting that 'if someone speaks really slowly it wouldn't be pleasant'. This uncomfortable feeling has been referred to on multiple occasions and is not the only negative attitude KLE expressed when reacting to slow rhythm (see Extract 38).

Extract 38

1	Interviewer:	why don't you like him
2	P45:	he is so slow
3	Interviewer:	so what do you prefer
4	P45:	I prefer (1) more fast [(1)] he was boring
5	Interviewer:	[<+>]

P45 commented on the slow delivery of the Philippines (weakly marked) male in Extract 38 and explicitly stated a preference for a faster delivery to avert boredom. This notion of a faster delivery resulting in a more positive attitude is not expressed regularly throughout the interviews with the majority of the comments relating to a faster rate of speech associated with perceived comprehensibility. Beyond this domain however, there are also connections with professionalism to inspect, as put forth in Extract 39.

Extract 39

1	Interviewer:	why do you think she was easy to understand
2	P38:	she speaks fast compared to others (.) but she speaks clearly (.) and her voice is
3		really clear (.) I think it's suitable to professional (.) and I mean (.) professors or
4		teachers <+> (.) really clear (1) yeah the voice is really good
5	Interviewer:	is there anything else about her voice that's really good (.) or just clear
6	P38:	clear (.) and confident [(.) and] (.) <+> (.) no pausing or (.) no (.) pausing or
7		remembering something or like that (.) <+>
8	Interviewer:	[<+>]

This declaration was not made with just rhythm in mind as it also considered voice clarity. However, the combination of the voice being 'really clear' and the rhythm 'confident' led to a positive attitude toward this speaker as a potential teacher from

P38. This positivity did not fully extend across the KLE as the Good-Bad Teacher semantic differential rating indicates across the four playlists. While there were 17 positive ratings returned (Good Teacher 1, n=12; Good Teacher 2, n=4, Good Teacher 3, n=1), the overall Good-Bad Teacher rating returned was *M*=3.81 (*SD*=1.45; *Mdn*=4.00, *IQR*=3.00-5.00). In effect, this serves to mark the independent nature of the assessment on the qualitative level, which also draws additional attention to speed suitability. For instance, as seen in Extract 40 with P19, there may equally be the desire for a faster speaker.

Extract 40

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P19:	<+> (.) it's like (.) real (.) real (.) English teacher [(.)] yeah (.) good rhythm good
3		tone (.) except one thing (.) the (.) speed is (.) I want more (.) a little bit more fast
4	Interviewer:	[<+>]
5	Interviewer:	she's a little bit too slow for you
6	P19:	yes

P19 suggested that the Philippine (weakly marked) female was a 'real English teacher', and yet, they wanted the speaker to be 'a little bit more fast' (see Extract 40, lines 2-3). This desire for a faster delivery houses the potential for a negative judgment. As mentioned, when addressing attitudes toward an accent, the participants of this study have often interlinked rhythm with other prosodic features, and while it is possible for rhythm alone to be a factor in these attitudinal developments, it is often not the case. For example, P31 made clear reference to rhythm and its attitudinal effect when discussing the Canadian female (see Extract 41).

Extract 41

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P31:	<+> (.) her voice was good (.) <+> yeah (.) I mean voice (.) <+> (1) tone was
3		good (1) and the pronunciation accent also (1) yeah yeah yeah (.) good (.) but
4		she spoke too fast [(2) so]
5	Interviewer:	[too] fast (.) for you to understand well
6	P31:	yes (2) <+> (1) anything else was good (.) but the speed was (.) yeah just a little
7		too fast

There were multiple comments from P31 in Extract 41 referring to their negative perceptions of the rhythm, which included 'she spoke too fast' and 'the speed was […] a little too fast'. Despite these negative perceptions of rhythm, there was an overarching positive attitude toward the accent relating to tone and pronunciation. This was replicated in the Good-Bad Accent 7-point semantic differential rating (*M*=5.27, *SD*=1.16; *Mdn*=6.00, *IQR*=5.00-6.00) and was complemented by the 38 Good Accent ratings (Good Accent 1, *n*=15; Good Accent 2, *n*=18; Good Accent 3, *n*=5; see Appendix C, Table 12.9).

Working in the background of these rhythm-based attitudinal judgments are attitudes that are formed within the space of assessing whether a speaker would make a suitable teacher for the KLE. In this area, P21 assessed the Australian female as too fast (see Extract 42).

Extract 42

1	Interviewer:	<+> (1) and <+> (1) is there anything else about her (.) pronunciation or (.)
2		something that
3	P21:	.hhh (.) <+> (.) her voice is <+> (1) nice but <sigh> (1) I think if (.) if she (2) try
4		to teach (.) Korean people (.) I think she needs <+> (.) little slow
5	Interviewer:	she needs to slow [down]
6	P21:	[yeah]

Here, P21 did not explicitly state the speaker was too fast for them, but rather, claimed that if this speaker were to 'try to teach Korean people' they would need to slow down. This is valid for leading discussions into how different rates of delivery may be appropriate for different class levels. In the case of the South African (L1 English) male, his speed was identified as more appropriate for lower level classes in Extract 43, which was further verified in Extract 44.

Extract 43

1	Interviewer:	how would you feel (.) if he was your teacher
2	P26:	what teacher
3	Interviewer:	if this person was your teacher
4	P26:	<+> (1) it's good (.) but (.) he's also low class (.) teacher [(.)] I think
5	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 44

1	P26:	<+> high level teacher (.) must have fast [(.)] I think
2	Interviewer:	[<+>]
3	Interviewer:	why
4	P26:	because (1) .hhh (.) when student (2) 계속 같은 그런 적당한 속도로 계속
5		하다 보면은 (.) 빠른 그런 (1) 빠르게 말하는 외국 사람을 만났을 때 (.)
6		이해 못 할 수도 있으니까 그거에 대해서 할려면 어떻게 보면은 좀 빠른
7		빠르게 교육하는 사람한테 더 좋다고 생각해요
8		*{because (1) .hhh (.) when student (2) if they listen to same speed all the time (.)*
9		*the fast (1) when they meet native speakers who speak quickly (.) they won't be*
10		*able to understand so in that sense I think it's better to learn from someone who*
11		*speaks a little fast}*

In this exchange, P26 suggested the speaker would be good as a 'low class teacher' (see Extract 43, line 4). The participant developed this to propose that a more advanced student would benefit from a faster rate of delivery. The ultimate proclamation was that through exposure to a variety of speeds, students would be better equipped for communicating with 'native speakers who speak quickly', and this results in the assertion that P26 believes 'it's better to learn from someone who speaks a little fast' (see Extract 44).

5.3.2 Connected Speech

In spite of the claims, a danger of a faster delivery is that the interrelationship with rhythm can heighten the possibility for a negative attitude forming against other prosodic factors. An example of this was aired by P40 in Extract 45, who did not hold a positive attitude towards the accent of the American male. This exchange also contains a possibility that the participant was referencing other voice qualities, such as enunciation.

Extract 45

1	P40:	he was fast and <+> [(.)] a little bit (.) blurry
2	Interviewer:	[<+>]
3	Interviewer:	불명확
4		*{unclear}*
5	P40:	yeah (.) 불명확 (.) unclear

6		*{yeah (.) unclear (.) unclear}*
7	Interviewer:	ok (1) why do you dislike him
8	P40:	because (.) his speed and <+> (.) his <+> (.) his (.) intonation and maybe
9		pronunciation wasn't (.) <+> (.) was (.) difficult (.) to me (1) so (.) I don't like
10		this speaker
11	Interviewer:	where is he from
12	P40:	<sigh> [(1)] I think he is American (.) A-American but (.) but (.) I don't like him
13	Interviewer:	[@@@]

P40 suggested that due to the speed, intonation and pronunciation, a negative attitude was formed. The reference to 'unclear' made by the participant was not developed enough to assert whether this referred to enunciation, or whether it may refer to other elements more closely connected with rhythm, such as connected speech, which is considered an attitudinal formation factor by P17 (see Extracts 46 and 47).

Extract 46

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P17:	<+> (1) accent is (1) <+> (1) not not (.) <+> (.) abnormal
3	Interviewer:	it's a little bit weird
4	P17:	yeah
5	Interviewer:	yeah (.) how is it weird
6	P17:	<+>
7	Interviewer:	you mean like in her pronunciation or the way she
8	P17:	<+> pronunciation

Extract 47

1	Interviewer:	yeah (1) is there anything else about her voice
2	P17:	<+> (1) <+> (2) <+> Korean
3	Interviewer:	<+> @@@
4	P17:	@@@ (.) 약간 (.) 좀 (.) 끄는 느낌이 있어요 [(1)] 딱딱 끊어 지는 게 아니고
5		(1) 좀 약간 (1) 듣기 좀 불편하게 (.) [uncomfortable]
6		*{@@@ (.) a little (.) bit (.) the feeling is like it's muddied/dragging into each*
7		*other [(1)] the words are not breaking clearly and (1) it's a little bit (1)*
8		*uncomfortable to listen to (.) [uncomfortable]}*
9	Interviewer:	[<+>] [yeah]

When commenting on the Philippine (marked) female, P17 described the accent as 'abnormal' (see Extract 46, line 2). Further development in this line of questioning

led to the notion of the participant feeling that the delivery was 'muddied' or 'dragging into each other' with 'words not breaking clearly' (see Extract 47). Through these comments it may be determined that the participant is referring to the speaker's use of liaison or connected speech in their delivery. This led to P17 describing this an 'uncomfortable' listening experience. The negative attitudes expressed by P17 were supported by the data returned in the Like-Dislike and Good-Bad Accent semantic differential items. No statistically significant differences were returned when Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed against these two semantic differential items for the Philippine (marked) female audio recording (see Appendix C, Tables 12.1 and 12.7). The figures returned were M=3.04 (SD=1.46; Mdn=3.00, IQR=2.00-4.00) for Like-Dislike and M=3.83 (SD=1.43; Mdn=4.00, IQR=3.00-5.00) for Good-Bad Accent across the four playlists. Overall, these ratings were some of the most negative returned (see Appendix C, Tables 12.2 and 12.8).

Direct contrasts to these muddied delivery comments could result in more positive feedback, which was present in P17's evaluation of to the South African (L1 English) in Extract 48 and Extract 10 (see Appendix B).

Extract 48

1	Interviewer:	why do you (.) why do you like her a little bit
2	P17:	<+> (2) I think (.) she's accent is (2) soft
3	Interviewer:	<+> [(.)] not strong
4	P17:	[not hard yeah]

In this case, P17 was more positive in stating how the 'soft' accent (see Extract 48) and 'exact' pronunciation were aided by not 'flow[ing] together' (see Appendix B, Extract 10, lines 11-12). The way the participant expressed 'flow together' is a strong indicator that they are referring to aspects of connected speech, and therefore, rhythm. From this, it is possible to suggest that the prosodic feature of connected speech under the umbrella of rhythm acts as a factor in accentual attitude formation. Holistically, the South African (L1 English) female returned positive Like-Dislike and Good-Bad Accent evaluations without statistically significant differences when Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed (see Appendix C, Tables 12.1 and 12.7). Across the four playlists, Like-Dislike ratings returned were M=4.69 (SD=1.57;

Mdn=5.00, *IQR*=4.00-6.00), while Good-Bad Accent ratings were *M*=5.00 (*SD*=1.37; *Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=4.00-6.00).

P16 explored similar flow factors in Extract 49 when referring to the Irish male 'speaking clearly', and how in this case there was a negative relationship with attitude formation.

Extract 49

1	Interviewer:	ok (.) <+> (1) is there anything about (.) his pronunciation that
2	P16:	unclear
3	Interviewer:	he's unclear
4	P16:	yeah
5	Interviewer:	what do you mean
6	P16:	<+> (1) 좀 뭔가 (.) 그냥 (.) 굴러가는 거 (.) 이렇게 (.) 또박또박 말하는 것이
7		아니라 (.) <u>으으으</u>
8		*{<+> (1) a little what is it (.) just (.) something is rolling (.) like that (.) rather*
9		*than speaking clearly (.) <gargle>}*
10	Interviewer:	it's all (.) squashed [together]
11	P16:	[yeah]
12	P16:	so (.) bad (.) as a teacher

The observation that 'something is rolling [together…] rather than speaking clearly' can be extrapolated to the relationship between liaison and connected speech (see Extract 49, lines 6-9). In effect, the participant believed that through the presence of connected speech, a negative attitude was formed toward the speaker as a potential teacher, which was also the overall view held across the four playlists when Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed on the Good-Bad Teacher semantic differential item (*M*=2.88, *SD*=1.23; *Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=2.00-4.00; see Appendix C, Tables 12.4 and 12.5). Overall, the relationship between liaison and connected speech, and teacher suitability was also expressed by P49 in Extract 50.

Extract 50

1	Interviewer:	why do you think she would be good as a teacher
2	P49:	<+> (.) 속도가 (1) 듣기에 좋았던 좋은 속도 같아요 (.) 너무 빠르지도 않고
3		(.) 발음이 나쁘지도 않고 (.) <+>
4		*{<+> (.) the speed (1) it was good to listen to and I think it was a good speed (.)*
5		*not really fast and (.) not bad pronunciation (.) <+>}*

6	Interviewer:	발음이 나쁘지 않고 (.) does that mean not good or @@@
7		*{the pronunciation is not bad (.) does that mean not good or @@@}*
8	P49:	@@@
9	Interviewer:	what do you think about her pronunciation
10	P49:	이 (.) 이 지금 (.) 지금 이거의 발음이요
11		*{this (.) this now (.) this pronunciation now}*
12	Interviewer:	<+>
13	P49:	<+> 괜찮은 거 같아요
14		*{<+> I think it's ok}*
15	Interviewer:	@@@ just ok
16	P49:	yes
17	Interviewer:	what's good pronunciation
18	P49:	뭔가 뭉개지지 않고 잘 들리는 또박또박한
19		*{<+> it's not squashed together and I heard it well as word-by-word}*

While P49 was developing their attitude around the 'pronunciation' present in the Philippine (weakly marked) female here, the exchange developed to include the participant's definition of 'good pronunciation'. In this case, the participant cited a delivery that is 'not squashed together' and can be 'heard […] as word-by-word' (see Extract 50, lines 18-19). This appears to be a clear expression of how connected speech and liaison pose issues, and how through perceived absences a more positive attitude can be formed. The positive nature of this commentary was also evident across the four playlists when looking at the Good-Bad Teacher semantic differential item (M=5.40, SD=1.05; Mdn=5.00, IQR=5.00-6.00).

5.3.3 Filled Pausing

Closely interlinked with rate of delivery, connected speech and liaison are pausing and filled pausing. These prosodic factors can also be bundled under rhythm through their direct relationship with the speed and rhythm of an utterance. This crossover was evidenced in Extract 51 by P61.

Extract 51

1	Interviewer:	you said you dislike him
2	P61:	yeah
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that
4	P61:	<+> (2) too slow @@@

5	Interviewer:	<+>
6	P61:	<+>
7	Interviewer:	so if (.) he spoke faster [(1)] would your opinion change
8	P61:	[yes]
9	P61:	<+> (2) if he was faster and
10	Interviewer:	<+> if he was fast (.) do you think you would like him more
11	P61:	<+>
12	Interviewer:	you said (.) you dislike him because he's too slow
13	P61:	yes [and (.)] @@@ (1) and mmm mmm mmm
14	Interviewer:	[if (.) <+>]

The latter section of this exchange regarding the Korean (weakly marked) male saw P61 add that filled pauses contributed to the negative 'too slow' assessment. Similarly, filled pauses may contribute to the comfort level experienced (see Extract 52).

Extract 52

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P54:	답답해요 (.) @@@
3		*{it's uncomfortable (.) @@@}*
4	Interviewer:	you or him
5	P54:	@@@ (.) both
6	Interviewer:	@@@ (.) why do you feel like that
7	P54:	음음 이래서
8		*{because of the umm umm}*

The uncomfortable attitude expressed by P54 in Extract 52 was due to the filled pauses present. It is evident from this exchange that filled pauses can bring ongoing comfort reference to the fore, however, on a more negative level, there is a possibility for filled pausing to evoke a stronger reaction (see Extracts 53 and 54).

Extract 53

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this person (1) their voice or (.) their personality
2	P30:	이 여자는 조금 (.) 바보 같았어요
3		*{this woman seems (.) like a bit of an idiot}*
4	Interviewer:	why do you think that
5	P30:	<+> (.) 자꾸 엄~ 음~ 이러면서 (.) 막 말을 잘 못하는 느낌 [(1)] 조금 (.)

6		부족한 사람 같았어요

7 *{<+> (.) she often ummms and ahhhhs so (.) I feel like she can't speak very well*
8 *[(1)] a little bit (.) like someone who is lacking ability}*
9 Interviewer: [<+>]

Extract 54

1	P60:	<+> he didn't speak (.) he didn't tell fl-fluently (.) fluently right
2	Interviewer:	<+>
3	P60:	yeah so I (.) feel he's not a kind of good teacher (.) yeah (2) just a teacher
4	Interviewer:	why do you think it was not fluent
5	P60:	pardon (1) ok do you want to @@@
6	Interviewer:	why do you think it was not fluent
7	P60:	just like (.) when he (.) when he talk about something (.) just (.) like (1) choppy (.) choppy right [(.)] his (.) his speaking was choppy (1) [like (.) umm (.) umm]
8	Interviewer:	[<+>] [stop start stop start]

The observation from P30 in Extract 53 was that through the 'umms and ahhs' there was an immediate attitudinal response, the background of which may be from the presence of filled pausing and its interaction with notions of proficiency, which is extended on by P60 in Extract 54 in claiming that the South African (L1 English) male might be a teacher, but not a good teacher, with a Bad Teacher 1 rating returned. This attestation was made with reference to the perception that 'he didn't [speak] fluently', which emerged from the inclusion of 'umm' in the utterances. Overall, the participant reported that this speaker was 'choppy' in delivery, and this gave the impression of a lower proficiency level. Further to this choppiness and suitability as a teacher, P53 expressed their views clearly in Extract 55.

Extract 55

1	Interviewer:	you said he would be bad a as teacher
2	P53:	<+>
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that
4	P53:	because when he (.) talk (.) tell about something (.) he said umm err 이렇게
5		말했어요 (.) 중간 중간마다
6		*{because when he (.) talk (.) tell about something (.) he said umm err he spoke*
7		*like that (.) in the middle every time}*
8	Interviewer:	when someone uses umm umm [(1)] do you think that's harder
9	P53:	[<+>]

10	P53:	<+>
11	Interviewer:	do you think that's more difficult to understand
12	P53:	no but (.) 어 중간 중간 마다 그게 있으면 (1) 어 깔끔하지가 않아요 근데 (1)
13		선생님 될려면 뭔가 정확하게 해야 정확하고 깔끔하게 말할 줄 알아야 돼요
14		(1) <cough>
15		*{no but (.) <+> if it's there in the middle every time (1) <+> then it's not clear*
16		*but (1) to be a teacher you have to say something clearly and you should know*
17		*how to say it clearly (1) <cough>}*

In this instance P53 indicated that an excessive use of filled pausing by the South African (L1 English) male resulted in a negative attitude toward the speaker as a potential teacher, with the participant returning a Bad Teacher 1 rating. However, the closing statement conferred that 'to be a teacher you have to say something clearly and you should know how to say it clearly' (see Extract 55, lines 12-17). This stresses that a teacher should have the linguistic control to efficiently deliver a message. Holistically however, the presence of filled pausing does not appear to consistently influence the teacher preference ratings of this speaker. While a spread of frequencies did exist, with 11 negative and 10 neutral ratings present (see Appendix C, Table 12.6), a moderately positive attitude was still returned across the four playlists for the Good-Bad Teacher rating (*M*=4.69, *SD*=1.46; *Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=4.00-6.00) with no statistically significant differences reported when Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed.

Building from this however, attention to appropriate and effective pausing and chunking is required. In this domain, P37 explored in Extract 56 how the act of chunking may contribute to developing attitudes in connection with the Philippine (weakly marked) female.

Extract 56

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P37:	<sigh> (1) I think she maybe from Korea (.) and (.) the reason why <lipsmack>
3		(.) she got (.) like (1) <+> she got to catch (.) main point (.) like directly (.) <+>
4		(.) like and then (.) she really worry about grammar (.) and (1) or grammar or
5		just speaking something she really thinking too much (.) and yep (.) that's all
6	Interviewer:	what makes you feel like she's thinking too much
7	P37:	<+> (1) I mean (.) when she like that (.) what is my feeling <+>

8	Interviewer:	no (.) why why do you think she's [thinking too much]
9	P37:	[<+> (.) <+> when] she spoke about the (.) where are they trying to spend time
10		(.) and then she she said like (.) they are trying to spend time (.) and (1) and yeah
11		she say ahh maybe outdoor and then (.) sheee (.) she thin- she does a little
12		laughing [(1)] so yeah
13	Interviewer:	[<+>]
14	Interviewer:	why do you dislike her
15	P37:	<+> (1) I can't I can't feeling (.) confident (.) from her voice [(1)] so I don't like
16		[(.)] that (.) yeah (1) like just (.) just my thinking (.) if the people can speak
17		English well (.) but (.) the doesn't matter about grammar because I think (.) just
18		speaking is important (.) just I think (.) so I think yeah (.) thinking too much I
19		don't like it @@@
20	Interviewer:	[<+>]

P37 attested that pausing and filled pauses played roles in attitude development, and that through the use of filled pausing and 'thinking too much' they experienced a lack of 'confidence' in the speaker. The comments from P37 considered how the speaker was 'worrying about grammar' and that the following laughter suggested the speaker lacked English proficiency. This may be due to P37's belief that this was a Korean origin speaker, and through this misidentification, an L2 speaker of English. This misidentification held the potential to influence the attitude formed by the participant, which resulted in Dislike 1 being returned, in spite of the overall positive Like-Dislike attitude figures across the four playlists (*M*=5.50, *SD*=1.05; *Mdn*=6.00, *IQR*=5.00-6.00). Furthermore, the misidentification influence could explain the comments registering a relationship between the presence of pausing and perceived grammar focus.

The overarching perception of negativity was still present in relation to noticeable integration of pausing in an extended utterance, which can also overlap with perceptions of intelligence (see Extract 57).

Extract 57

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P53:	he (1) seems like stupid
3	Interviewer:	why do you think he sounds stupid
4	P53:	<sigh> (.) he speak too slow [(.)] and (1) he speak word to word to word to word
5	Interviewer:	[<+>]

The judgments made by P53 refer to 'stupidity' and how a slower delivery appearing as 'word to word to word' was a factor in making that determination. In contrast however, Extract 58 indicates that this word-to-word or chunk-to-chunk delivery can be a positive.

Extract 58

1	Interviewer:	why do you like her
2	P56:	<+> she is (.) she speed is normal and (.) lots of time between the word

P56 surmised that the pausing between words from the Philippine (weakly marked) female was a positive. While the participant did not state why it was a positive, it could be due to how it may assist with processing and perceived comprehensibility, as was claimed against the South African (L1 English) male in Extract 59.

Extract 59

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker's voice
2	P32:	good
3	Interviewer:	good
4	P32:	<+> (.) .hhh (.) he put some terms [(.) in] the sentence (.) and he (.) it is helpful
5		to understand this listening (.) so (.) yeah (.) I think (.) his voice and his saying
6		(.) is good
7	Interviewer:	[<+>]
8	Interviewer:	<+> (.) so what do you mean by terms
9	P32:	.hhh (.) like before the speakers [(1)] <+> they said like (.) I (.) I (.) I didn't
10		understand very well [(.)] but this speaker is (.) his term make (.) made me
11		understand easier
12	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]
13	Interviewer:	you mean the words he's choosing (.) or
14	P32:	no like [(.) time]
15	Interviewer:	[when] he stops
16	P32:	yeah stop
17	Interviewer:	ok (.) right (2) so you think he uses (.) good pausing (.) for you
18	P32:	yeah

P32 made reference to 'terms' assisting with intelligibility, and with further probing it was confirmed that 'terms' referred to the 'time' between words and chunks.

5.3.4 Summary of Rhythm, Connected Speech, and Filled Pausing

The prosodic factors relating to rhythm, while appearing to show an interrelationship with vocal factors, do appear to have a relationship with language attitude formation in the KLE. Overall, rate of delivery is one area KLE mentioned openly, with a slower delivery often perceived positively due to its apparent ease in understanding. Despite this, a slower delivery also returned negative language attitudes, often linked to perceptions of the speaker's proficiency levels. A faster delivery, likewise, can return a negative language attitude, with the proposition being that the speaker is not assisting the listener. However, several KLE mentioned rate of delivery regarding 'suitability' and how a suitable speed is of preference; this assertion carries over to an appropriate rate of delivery for English class level. The comments made by KLE relating to rhythm show tight links with the connected speech continuum, where speech with liaison present is perceived more negatively due to its perceived increased rate of delivery. Similarly, an additional factor identified by KLE was pausing, which, while slowing the rate of delivery, did not automatically equate to a positive language attitude as several KLE discussed how it can affect the flow of the message transmitted and reduce the confidence the listener has in the speaker. Although, this is not a blanket statement as KLE also discussed how pausing can result in a more positive attitude due to the opportunity it creates for greater uptake in the message being transmitted.

5.4 Language Attitudes: Paralinguistic Features

Moving from the overarching prosodic features that appear in attitude formation, there are three paralinguistic features that also appear: (1) Talking to oneself; (2) Coughing and Sighing; and (3) Crying (see Table 5.5). These could be loosely linked with voice quality and clarity, and voice qualifications. Again however, these features are not entirely independent of other features and overlaps do appear.

A case in point is the notion of 'talking to oneself', which is made in reference to the Irish male audio recording across multiple interviews. While it may be possible to associate this feature with tone and rhythm of delivery, it could also be classified as a paralinguistic feature as it is not a general feature of delivery. Deeper definition of this feature was developed in Extract 60 by P53.

Table 5.5

Sub-themes Identified within Paralinguistic Features

Identified Sub-theme	Description
Talking to oneself	Idiosyncratic tone present in the delivery; received as a private monologue
Coughing and sighing	Voice qualifications present in the delivery; act as a distractor
Crying	Voice qualification interconnected with delivery; detracts from the message through presenting as interference

Extract 60

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P53:	I don't like this speaker
3	Interviewer:	why
4	P53:	he talk just \<gargle\> (.) \<+\> (.) \<+\> 말하다가 중간에 혼잣말하고
5		*{he talk just \<gargle\> (.) \<+\> (.) \<+\> he talks to himself during the speaking}*
6	Interviewer:	how do you feel about that
7	P53:	\<+\>
8	Interviewer:	how do you feel about 혼잣말
9		*{how do you feel about talking to himself}*
10	P53:	혼잣말 (.) 별로 였어요
11		*{talking to himself (.) I don't really like it}*
12	Interviewer:	do you think it's harder to understand
13	P53:	yeah
14	Interviewer:	why
15	P53:	그 혼잣말이 아 막 혼잣말이 이 내용이 아 몰르겠어 막 이렇게 막 (1)
16		이사람이 혼잣말하는 건지 아니면 말하는 건지 (.) 그것도 헷갈렸고 (.) 그냥
17		마음에 않들었어요
18		*{the talking to himself \<+\> talking to himself this content \<+\> I just don't know*
19		*like this (1) whether this person was talking to himself or speaking (.) that made*
20		*me confused (.) I just didn't like it}*

The way P53 described the feature with a gargling sound gives the impression that 'talking to oneself' is perceived as an impersonal and unfiltered stream of noise. On the same plane, P60 also expressed how this feature was established in Extract 61.

Extract 61

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P60:	@@@ his speaking is weird (.) @@@ (.) yeah because (1) I didn't think about it
3		but (.) when he just say (.) by himself (.) like (.) maybe he just think about the
4		topic [(.)] and he just say (.) by himself (.) 혼잣말 (.) right @@@ (.) I just feel
5		awkward and then (.) it makes me awkward (1) but yeah (.) his accent is good
6		great (.) and
7		*{@@@ his speaking is weird (.) @@@ (.) yeah because (1) I didn't think about*
8		*it but (.) when he just say (.) by himself (.) like (.) maybe he just think about the*
9		*topic [(.)] and he just say (.) by himself (.) talks to himself (.) right @@@ (.) I*
10		*just feel awkward and then (.) it makes me awkward (1) but yeah (.) his accent is*
11		*good great (.) and}*
12	Interviewer:	[<+>]

P60 believed the speaker was not considering the audience in their delivery and was just speaking their mind. This inconsiderate delivery resulted in a feeling of discomfort and 'awkwardness' for the participant, which was elaborated on in Extract 62 by P44 in how a teacher employing this feature may be perceived.

Extract 62

1	Interviewer:	can you explain the dislike (.) hard to understand and bad as a teacher
2	P44:	like (.) he is (.) his speaking or (.) how do I say (.) 전화 하듯이 아니면 (.)
3		혼잣말 [(.)] yeah (2) he (.) 영어는 잘 할 수 있는데 (.) can't be a good teacher
4		(1) to (.) explain something (.) for fail students [(.)] yeah so (.) because of that
5		reason <+> (.) I (.) dislike him (1) you know [(.)] he don't speak clearly (.) like
6		(.) <mumble> and 혼잣말 [(.)] yeah
7		*{like (.) he is (.) his speaking or (.) how do I say (.) like talking on the phone or*
8		*(.) talking to himself [(.)] yeah (2) he (.) can speak English well but (.) can't be a*
9		*good teacher (1) to (.) explain something (.) for fail students [(.)] yeah so (.)*
10		*because of that reason <+> (.) I (.) dislike him (1) you know [(.)] he don't speak*
11		*clearly (.) like (.) <mumble> and talks to himself [(.)] yeah}*
12	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

The participant claimed that because of the talking to himself he 'can't be a good teacher'. As above, this could relate to the tonal interpretation, and as discussed, a professional, warm, and caring tone has received positive appraisal, whereas this kind of detached and impersonal delivery may be perceived as rude and

unprofessional and result in a more negative attitude. Overall, these comments were replicated in the 7-point semantic differential data where the Irish male audio recording returned no statistically significant differences across the four playlists when Kruskal-Wallis H test was executed on the Like-Dislike and Good-Bad Teacher. The figures returned in these areas were *M*=2.73 (*SD*=1.33; *Mdn*=2.50, *IQR*=2.00-3.75) for Like-Dislike and *M*=2.88 (*SD*=1.23; *Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=2.00-4.00) for Good-Bad Teacher.

The second paralinguistic feature arising from the interviews was a voice qualification described by the KLE as coughing or sighing. In this area there were negative comments made against the Korean (marked) male audio recording (see Extracts 63 and 64).

Extract 63

1	Interview:	what do you think about
2	P49:	<+> (1) 중간에 기침소리랑 한숨 소리가 많았어요
3		*{<+> (1) there were a lot of coughing sounds and sighing sounds in the middle}*
4	Interviewer:	how do you feel about that
5	P49:	기침소리에서 많이 놀랬어요
6		*{I was really surprised because of the coughing sounds}*
7	Interviewer:	<+> (.) does it make it harder to understand (.) or just (.) shocks you a bit
8	P49:	<+> (1) 그렇게 많이 어려운 거 같지 않고 (.) 듣다 보면 들릴 거 같은
9		*{<+> (1) I think that it wasn't that hard and (.) if I listened more I might get it}*
10	Interviewer:	fast slow normal
11	P49:	normal
12	Interviewer:	normal (.) why do you dislike him
13	P49:	기침소리 때문에 (.) @@@
14		*{because of the coughing sounds (.) @@@}*

Extract 64

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P24:	애는 (.) 목소리가 마음에 안 들어 (.) 이게 @@@
3		*{this person (.) I don't like this person's voice (.) this @@@}*
4	Interviewer:	what part of his voice don't you like
5	P24:	아 막 (.) 가래 낀 거 같은 (.) 담배피시나
6		*{<+> (.) it's like he has phlegm stuck (.) or he smokes}*

7	Interviewer:	he sounds like he smokes a lot of cigarettes
8	P24:	yeah (1) 막 (.) 엄청 허스키한 목소리인데
9		*{yeah (1) <+> (.) the voice is really husky}*

In Extract 63, P49 opined how the 'coughing' and 'sighing' sounds delivered a negative attitude. In this audio recording the speaker did clear his throat during the speech, which is a paralinguistic feature, but it is somewhat surprising that a natural speech process such as this drew a negative attitude. Despite this, P24 also mentioned the feature in Extract 64 by suggesting that the throat clearing indicates a possible relationship with smoking, which could raise another level of attitudinal influence for examination in where the participant possibly holds a negative attitude to smokers.

The third paralinguistic feature registered is possibly the most independent, and refers to 'crying' (see Extracts 65 and 66).

Extract 65

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P35:	<+> (.) hard accent and (1) speed and (.) 다 ok 인데 (.) 다 좋은데 (.) 목소리가
3		(.) 약간 울먹울먹 하는 거 같아요
4		*{<+> (.) hard accent and (1) speed and (.) it's all OK (.) all good but (.) the*
5		*voice (.) I think it sounds a little bit like crying}*
6	Interviewer:	does that make it harder
7	P35:	no
8	Interviewer:	does it change your feeling
9	P35:	<+>
10	Interviewer:	how do you feel
11	P35:	같이 우울해져요
12		*{we became depressed together}*
13	Interviewer:	@@@ (1) where do you think she's from
14	P35:	American
15	Interviewer:	<+> (1) why do you think she would be a bad teacher
16	P35:	<+> (.) not happy
17	Interviewer:	because she's not happy
18	P35:	yes (1) 목소리가 (.) 막 말할 때도 울먹울먹 우는 거 아니죠 (.) 월래
19		그런거죠 [(2)] 그래서 (1) 좋은 선생님 같진 않아요

20		*{yes (1) the voice (.) <+> when she speaks she sounds like she's crying (.) is it*
21		*just her voice [(2)] so (1) she wouldn't be a good teacher}*
22	Interviewer:	[@@@]
23	Interviewer:	<+> (.) how should a good teacher sound
24	P35:	(+) (1) 일단 / happy 막 이런 거 [(1)] 한국도 친구들 (.) 막 이렇게 하는 데 (.)
25		똑같지 않을까요
26		*{<+> (1) first (.) 'happy' <+> like this [(1)] in Korea 'hey friends' (.) <+>*
27		*they say it this way too (.) isn't it the same}*
28	Interviewer:	[@@@]
29	Interviewer:	<+> (.) is there anything else about a good teacher
30	P35:	<+> (.)재밌어야 해요
31		*{<+> (.) it should be fun}*

Extract 66

1	P24:	이 사람이 우는 거 같은데요
2		*{this person seems like they're crying}*
3	Interviewer:	how does it make you feel (.) if someone sounds (.) like this
4	P24:	sad
5	Interviewer:	it makes you feel sad as well
6	P24:	yeah

The claim made by P35 in Extract 65 suggested the Philippine (marked) female audio recording presented a 'crying' sound, which while it did not affect perceived comprehensibility, did result in a negative attitudinal effect. P35 pronounced that 'we became depressed together' (see Extract 65, lines 11-12), which proffers that when experiencing a potentially depressing situation, there is the potential to converge in an empathetic manner; this same phenomenon was expressed by P24 (see Extract 66). Overall, this transferred emotion was also capable of influencing attitudes toward a potential teacher, as P35 concluded across lines 15-21 of Extract 65, where the participant believed the speaker would be a poor teacher because she was 'not happy', which was extended to focus on the particular aspect of crying by claiming that 'when she speaks she sounds like she's crying'. It could be suggested that this interpretation of the speaker crying may be related to the emotional points mentioned earlier in this chapter, and contributes to the understanding that a happy and caring tone correlates with a more positive attitude.

5.4.1 Summary of Paralinguistic Features

The paralinguistic features raised by KLE in relation to language attitude formation were all claimed to contribute to negative attitude development. In the case of talking to oneself, KLE believed this creates distance between the speaker and listener and is the reason for negative attitudinal response. With respect to coughing and sighing, KLE believed these paralinguistic features create a distraction, which interrupts the listening process. Similarly, the paralinguistic feature of crying was also reported as a distraction, although, it can also lead to emotional transference. Basically, KLE suggested that if the speaker seemed depressed, it resulted in them feeling depressed, and led to a negative attitude.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter focused on language attitude formation in KLE. The chapter drew on qualitative data across the themes of: Familiarity and Comfort; Voice Clarity and Quality; Rhythm, Connected Speech, and Filled Pausing; and Paralinguistic Features. Within these themes, quantitative data from the semantic differential items across Like-Dislike, Good-Bad Accent, and Good-Bad Teacher were embedded to extend understanding. The findings in this chapter indicate that the Philippine (weakly marked) female performed strongly, and while a consensus can appear, there are indications that attitude formation can still be shaped on the individual level. Additionally, through the areas explored in this chapter it has become evident that overlaps and interrelationships exist across the features highlighted and how they inform language attitudes. Furthermore, there is evidence indicating that the perceived existence of a prosodic or paralinguistic feature has the potential to influence the attitude formation of the listener and/or contribute to emotional transference. This concludes the language attitudes findings of this research, while the following chapter will address the remaining research questions through focusing on findings related to perceived comprehensibility and comprehension.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH:
PERCEIVED COMPREHENSIBILITY
AND COMPREHENSION

6.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, qualitative interview data was coupled with semantic differential data to explore the language attitudes of KLE. This chapter will draw on quantitative and qualitative data to extend the findings of the research, and will address areas directed at perceived comprehensibility and English listening comprehension. These areas attend to RQ3 and RQ4:

RQ3   To what extent do prosodic and paralinguistic features of English varieties interact with the English listening comprehension of KLE?

RQ4   To what extent is there a correlation between English variety, language attitudes, and English listening comprehension amongst KLE?

In terms of quantitative data, the semantic differential item of Easy-Hard to Understand will be a focus for exploring perceived comprehensibility. Secondly, comprehension will be addressed through the 5-item comprehension assessment conducted for each of the 24 audio recordings. A final quantitative element is an exploration of the correlations between perceived comprehensibility and language attitudes, and comprehension and language attitudes. In terms of qualitative data, interview excerpts will specify factors that KLE deemed to hold influence on both perceived comprehensibility and comprehension (see Appendix B for an overview of transcription conventions). The four overarching themes explored will include: (1) Familiarity and Comfort; (2) Voice Clarity, Tone, and Intonation; (3) Rhythm, Pausing, Connected Speech, and Filled Pausing; and (4) Paralinguistic Features.

6.1 Perceived Comprehensibility

For perceived comprehensibility, which was represented on the 7-point semantic differential as Easy-Hard to Understand, where rating closer to 7 indicates a more positive outcome (i.e. easier to understand), Kruskal-Wallis H test resulted in no statistically significant differences for 19 of the 24 audio recordings across the four

playlists (see Appendix D, Table 13.1). Of the 5 audio recordings to show statistically significant differences across the four playlists, four were male speakers: Canadian male, Korean (weakly marked) male, Philippine (weakly marked) male, and South African (L1 English) male. The one female speaker was the Canadian female (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1

Significant Differences across the Easy-Hard to Understand Semantic Differential Item

Audio Recording	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Canadian female	12.43	3	0.006
Canadian male	10.42	3	0.015
Korean (weakly marked) male	12.83	3	0.005
Philippine (weakly marked) male	8.02	3	0.046
South African (L1 English) male	8.55	3	0.036

n=48

Analysis of these 5 audio recordings offers potential insights into the existing differences. With respect to the Canadian male ($\chi^2(3)=10.42$, $p=0.015$), the mean rank scores returned were 35.25 (Gender Playlist A), 18.81 (Gender Playlist B), 21.25 (Nationality Playlist A), and 23.05 (Nationality Playlist B) (see Tables 6.2 and 6.3). Pairwise comparisons showed statistically significant differences present between Gender Playlist A (*M*=5.83, *SD*=0.72; *Mdn*=6.00, *IQR*=5.00-6.00) and Gender Playlist B (*M*=4.00, *SD*=1.47; *Mdn*=4.00, *IQR*=2.50-5.00) with a *p* value of 0.016. Other pairings showed no evidence of statistically significant differences.

Table 6.2

Canadian Male Audio Recording; Easy-Hard to Understand Figures

Playlist	Canadian male (Mean Rank Scores)	Mean (SD)	Median (IQR)	*n*
Gender Playlist A	35.25	5.83 (0.72)	6.00 (5.00-6.00)	12
Gender Playlist B	18.81	4.00 (1.47)	4.00 (2.50-5.00)	13
Nationality Playlist A	21.25	4.17 (1.85)	4.00 (3.00-6.00)	12
Nationality Playlist B	23.05	4.45 (1.70)	5.00 (3.00-6.00)	11

The breakdown across the playlists suggests that an early playlist positioning of an audio recording may result in a stronger perception being expressed (see Table 6.4).

Looking at the Gender A playlist, where the Canadian male audio recording was in the third position, the first two audio recordings received more negative perceived comprehensibility ratings. Therefore, the Canadian male appears to be the first audio recording the participants deem comprehensible. While this does not appear evident when participants have given a positive rating to one of the first two audio recordings encountered, as seen when looking at the figures relating to Gender Playlist B and Nationality Playlist A, it did appear evident when inspecting Nationality Playlist B. In this case, the first audio recording was perceived negatively, which was sharply contrasted with the more positively perceived audio recordings that followed.

Table 6.3

Canadian Male Audio Recording; Easy-Hard to Understand Kruskal-Wallis H Test Pairwise Comparisons

Playlist 1 – Playlist 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Gender B – Nationality A	-2.442	5.487	-0.445	0.656	1.000
Gender B – Nationality B	-4.238	5.616	-0.755	0.450	1.000
Gender B – Gender A	16.442	5.487	2.996	0.003	0.016
Nationality A – Nationality B	-1.795	5.722	-0.314	0.754	1.000
Nationality A – Gender A	14.000	5.596	2.502	0.012	0.074
Nationality B – Gender A	12.205	5.722	2.133	0.033	0.198

Table 6.4

Comparison of Easy-Hard to Understand Ratings by Playlist Position

	Position 1	Position 2	Position 3
Gen. A[a]	M=4.08 (SD=1.78)	M=3.42 (SD=2.07)	M=5.83 (SD=0.72)
	Mdn=5.00 (IQR=2.25-5.75)	Mdn=3.00 (IQR=2.00-5.75)	Mdn=6.00 (IQR=5.00-6.00)
Gen. B[b]	M=4.54 (SD=1.90)	M=3.85 (SD=1.86)	M=3.54 (SD=1.56)
	Mdn=5.00 (IQR=3.00-6.00)	Mdn=3.00 (IQR=2.00-6.00)	Mdn=3.00 (IQR=2.50-5.00)
Nat. A[c]	M=5.25 (SD=1.55)	M=4.42 (SD=1.73)	M=4.92 (SD=1.24)
	Mdn=6.00 (IQR=4.25-6.00)	Mdn=5.00 (IQR=2.25-6.00)	Mdn=5.00 (IQR=5.00-6.00)
Nat. B[d]	M=3.55 (SD=1.81)	M=5.55 (SD=1.21)	M=6.45 (SD=0.82)
	Mdn=4.00 (IQR=2.00-5.00)	Mdn=5.00 (IQR=5.00-6.00)	Mdn=7.00 (IQR=6.00-7.00)

Note. Gen. A= Gender Playlist A; Gen. B=Gender Playlist B; Nat. A= Nationality Playlist A; Nat. B=Nationality Playlist B.

[a] $n=12$; [b] $n=13$; [c] $n=12$; [d] $n=11$

A similar assertion may be drawn from analysis of the South African (L1 English) male audio recording, which returned a test statistic of $\chi^2(3)=8.55$, $p=0.036$. Across the four playlists this resulted in mean ranks of 24.29 (Gender Playlist A), 16.77 (Gender Playlist B), 25.62 (Nationality Playlist A), and 32.64 (Nationality Playlist B) (see Tables 6.5 and 6.6). Pairwise comparisons presented evidence for statistically significant differences between Gender Playlist B (*M*=5.31, *SD*=0.98; *Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=5.00-6.00) and Nationality Playlist B (*M*=6.45, *SD*=0.82; *Mdn*=7.00, *IQR*=6.00-7.00) with a *p* value of 0.022.

Table 6.5

South African (L1 English) Male Audio Recording; Easy-Hard to Understand Figures

Playlist	South African (L1 English) male (Mean Rank Scores)	Mean (SD)	Median (IQR)	*n*
Gender Playlist A	24.29	5.75 (1.29)	6.00 (5.00-7.00)	12
Gender Playlist B	16.77	5.31 (0.98)	5.00 (5.00-6.00)	13
Nationality Playlist A	25.62	6.00 (0.74)	6.00 (5.25-6.75)	12
Nationality Playlist B	32.64	6.45 (0.82)	7.00 (6.00-7.00)	11

Table 6.6

South African (L1 English) Male Audio Recording; Easy-Hard to Understand Kruskal-Wallis H Test Pairwise Comparisons

Playlist 1 – Playlist 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Gender B – Gender A	7.522	5.340	1.409	0.159	0.954
Gender B – Nationality A	-8.856	5.340	-1.658	0.097	0.584
Gender B – Nationality B	-15.867	5.465	-2.903	0.004	0.022
Gender A – Nationality A	-1.333	5.446	-0.245	0.807	1.000
Gender A – Nationality B	-8.345	5.568	-1.499	0.134	0.804
Nationality A – Nationality B	-7.011	5.568	-1.259	0.208	1.000

Although, in this case the more negative perceived comprehensibility result fell in Gender Playlist B, which coincided with a playlist position of 21, contrasted with the playlist positioning of 3 in Nationality Playlist B. The difference here may be partially due to early attuning, as described above in relation to the positive

perception returned in Nationality Playlist B; similarly, it may be partially due to the late positioning in Gender Playlist B, which could be influenced by listener fatigue.

The notion that differences exist due to having attuned to the process, which allowed the participants to deliver a comparative judgment, was also evident across the remaining three audio recordings. The first case here is the Korean (weakly marked) male audio recording which returned figures of χ^2(3)=12.83, p=0.005. This consisted of mean ranks of 33.92 (Gender Playlist A), 24.96 (Gender Playlist B), 14.00 (Nationality Playlist A), and 25.14 (Nationality Playlist B) (see Tables 6.7 and 6.8). The statistically significant differences were present between Gender Playlist A (*M*=6.08, *SD*=0.79; *Mdn*=6.00, *IQR*=5.25-7.00) and Nationality Playlist A (*M*=3.83, *SD*=1.40; *Mdn*=3.50, *IQR*=3.00-5.00) with a *p* value of 0.002.

Table 6.7

Korean (weakly marked) Male Audio Recording; Easy-Hard to Understand Figures

Playlist	Korean (weakly marked) male (Mean Rank Scores)	Mean (SD)	Median (IQR)	*n*
Gender Playlist A	33.92	6.08 (0.79)	6.00 (5.25-7.00)	12
Gender Playlist B	24.96	5.23 (1.17)	5.00 (5.00-6.00)	13
Nationality Playlist A	14.00	3.83 (1.40)	3.50 (3.00-5.00)	12
Nationality Playlist B	25.14	5.00 (1.84)	6.00 (3.00-7.00)	11

With the Korean (weakly marked) male audio recording, the comparative judgment appears informed by perceptions of the immediately previous audio recordings (see Figures 6.1 and 6.2). In the positive comprehensibility perception in Gender Playlist A, the Korean (weakly marked) audio recording immediately follows the negatively perceived South African (L1 Afrikaans) male audio recording, which returned *M*=1.42 (*SD*=0.52; *Mdn*=1.00, *IQR*=1.00-2.00). In contrast, where the Korean (weakly marked) male audio recording was perceived negatively in Nationality Playlist A, it immediately followed two audio recordings that were more comprehensibly perceived, namely the American female (*M*=5.00, *SD*=1.28; *Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=4.00-6.00) and the British male (*M*=4.92, *SD*=1.24; *Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=5.00-6.00).

Table 6.8

Korean (weakly marked) Male Audio Recording; Easy-Hard to Understand Kruskal-Wallis H Test

Pairwise Comparisons

Playlist 1 – Playlist 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Nationality A – Gender B	10.962	5.469	2.004	0.045	0.270
Nationality A – Nationality B	-11.136	5.703	-1.953	0.051	0.305
Nationality A – Gender A	19.917	5.577	3.571	0.000	0.002
Gender B – Nationality B	-0.175	5.597	-0.031	0.975	1.000
Gender B – Gender A	8.955	5.469	1.637	0.102	0.609
Nationality B – Gender A	8.780	5.703	1.540	0.124	0.742

Figure 6.1

Gender Playlist A; Positive Perception Development
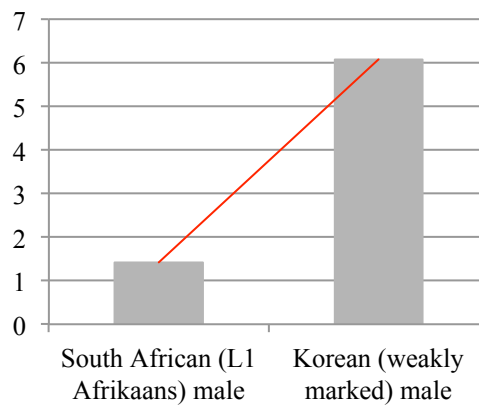
Figure 6.2

Gender Playlist A; Negative Perception Development

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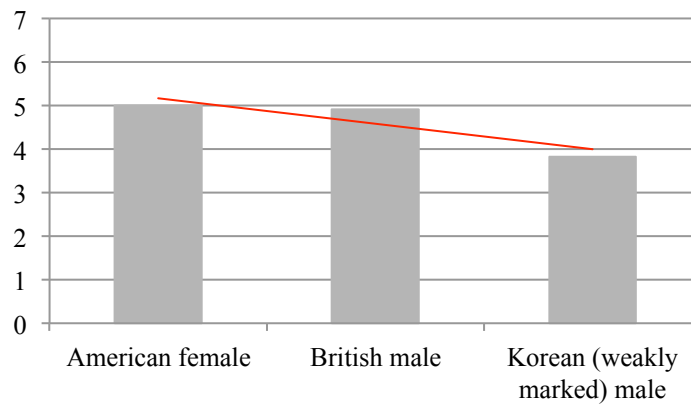
The second case of a similar nature was the Philippine (weakly marked) male, who returned figures of $\chi^2(3)$=8.02, p=0.046. This consisted of mean ranks of 32.67 (Gender Playlist A), 18.62 (Gender Playlist B), 21.25 (Nationality Playlist A), and 26.09 (Nationality Playlist B) (see Tables 6.9 and 6.10). Statistically significant differences were present between Gender Playlist A (*M*=6.00, *SD*=0.60; *Mdn*=6.00, *IQR*=6.00-6.00) and Gender Playlist B (*M*=4.92, *SD*=1.12; *Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=4.50-5.50) with a *p* value of 0.048. When the Philippine (weakly marked) male audio recording was located in the final position of Gender Playlist A (i.e. position 12 overall), it returned a more positive comprehensibility perception than when in the final position of Gender Playlist B (i.e. position 24 overall). This is also evident in the Canadian female audio recording when looking at the two gender playlists closely. In both cases, it could be argued that when in the final position of all audio recordings (i.e. position 24), listener and cognitive fatigue may be a contributor. However, this only appeared to be the case within the two gender playlists, which may suggest that the variation of switching between male and female speakers in the two nationality playlists serves to suppress listener fatigue.

Table 6.9

Philippine (weakly marked) Male Audio Recording; Easy-Hard to Understand Figures

Playlist	Philippine (weakly marked) male (Mean Rank Scores)	Mean (SD)	Median (IQR)	*n*
Gender Playlist A	32.67	6.00 (0.60)	6.00 (6.00-6.00)	12
Gender Playlist B	18.62	4.92 (1.12)	5.00 (4.50-5.50)	13
Nationality Playlist A	21.25	4.83 (1.70)	5.00 (3.00-6.00)	12
Nationality Playlist B	26.09	5.45 (0.93)	6.00 (5.00-6.00)	11

Looking at the Canadian female more closely, this was the final audio recording showing statistically significant differences across the four playlists ($\chi^2(3)$=12.43, p=0.006). The four playlists returned mean ranks of 17.54 (Gender Playlist A), 19.69 (Gender Playlist B), 26.33 (Nationality Playlist A), and 35.77 (Nationality Playlist B) (see Tables 6.11 and 6.12). Pairwise comparisons showed that statistically significant differences were present across two pairs. The first pair was the difference between Nationality Playlist B (*M*=5.09, *SD*=1.38; *Mdn*=6.00, *IQR*=5.00-6.00) and Gender Playlist A (*M*=2.83, *SD*=1.12; *Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=2.00-3.75) with a *p* value of 0.008.

The second pair was Nationality Playlist B (*M*=5.09, *SD*=1.38; *Mdn*=6.00, *IQR*=5.00-6.00) and Gender Playlist B (*M*=3.08, *SD*=1.55; *Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=1.50-5.00) with a *p* value of 0.024.

Table 6.10

Philippine (weakly marked) Male Audio Recording; Easy-Hard to Understand Kruskal-Wallis H Test Pairwise Comparisons

Playlist 1 – Playlist 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Gender B – Nationality A	-2.635	5.300	-0.497	0.619	1.000
Gender B – Nationality B	-7.476	5.424	-1.378	0.168	1.000
Gender B – Gender A	14.051	5.300	2.651	0.008	0.048
Nationality A – Nationality B	-4.841	5.527	-0.876	0.381	1.000
Nationality A – Gender A	11.417	5.405	2.112	0.035	0.208
Nationality B – Gender A	6.576	5.527	1.190	0.234	1.000

Table 6.11

Canadian Female Audio Recording; Easy-Hard to Understand Figures

Playlist	Canada female (Mean Rank Scores)	Mean (SD)	Median (IQR)	*n*
Gender Playlist A	17.54	2.83 (1.12)	3.00 (2.00-3.75)	12
Gender Playlist B	19.69	3.08 (1.55)	3.00 (1.50-5.00)	13
Nationality Playlist A	26.33	3.92 (1.83)	3.00 (3.00-5.75)	12
Nationality Playlist B	35.77	5.09 (1.38)	6.00 (5.00-6.00)	11

Table 6.12

Canadian Female Audio Recording; Easy-Hard to Understand Kruskal-Wallis H Test Pairwise Comparisons

Playlist 1 – Playlist 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Gender A – Gender B	-2.151	5.468	-0.393	0.694	1.000
Gender A – Nationality A	-8.792	5.576	-1.577	0.115	0.689
Gender A – Nationality B	-18.231	5.702	-3.197	0.001	0.008
Gender B – Nationality A	-6.641	5.468	-1.215	0.225	1.000
Gender B – Nationality B	-16.080	5.596	-2.874	0.004	0.024
Nationality A – Nationality B	-9.439	5.702	-1.656	0.098	0.587

In both pairs showing significant differences, when the audio recording was located in the eighth position it returned a more positive comprehensibility perception; this extended to where a marginally negative perception of M=3.92 (SD=1.83; Mdn=3.00, IQR=3.00-5.75) was returned with the speaker located in the twentieth position, although this is not a statistically significant difference. In attempting to understand why the Canadian female audio recording was more comprehensibly perceived in the eighth position of Nationality Playlist B, there is a possibility that fatigue and comparative judgments played roles. In the case of listener fatigue, the eighth position is the earliest presentation of the Canadian female audio recording in all four playlists, which may be a factor. Regarding comparative judgment, in both instances where the statistically significant differences fell and a lower perception of comprehensibility was expressed, the Canadian female audio recording followed the Philippine (weakly marked) female, which was perceived positively by KLE overall. This may signal that the Canadian female is suffering the consequence of following the more comprehensibly perceived Philippine (weakly marked) speaker. Similarly, when in Nationality Playlist B, the Canadian female followed the South African (L1 Afrikaans) female, the Korean (marked) female and the Irish male audio recordings. The Korean (marked) female was typically received well for perceived comprehensibility; however, the South African (L1 Afrikaans) female and the Irish male were both received negatively with M=3.36 (SD=1.91; Mdn=3.00, IQR=1.00-5.00) and M=2.45 (SD=1.21; Mdn=2.00, IQR=2.00-3.00) returned in Nationality Playlist B respectively, which may serve to illustrate a comparative judgment.

Of the remaining 19 audio recordings, which showed no evidence of statistically significant differences across the four playlists, 11 returned an overall Mean of 4.00 or greater with 5 of these returning an overall Mean of 5.00 or greater (see Table 6.13; see Appendix D, Table 13.2). Overall, the Korean (marked) female was deemed the most comprehensible with M=6.29 (SD=1.29; Mdn=7.00, IQR=6.00-7.00) returned on the 7-point scale. This consisted of 44 Easy to Understand ratings (Easy to Understand 1, n=1; Easy to Understand 2, n=14; Easy to Understand 3, n=29) (see Table 6.14; see Appendix D, Table 13). The accumulation of 29 instances of Easy to Understand 3 was almost double the second most prevalent recipient of the Easy to Understand 3 rating. Comparatively, the Korean (weakly marked) female recorded M=5.02 (SD=1.62; Mdn=5.00, IQR=4.00-6.00). This consisted of 33 Easy

to Understand ratings (Easy to Understand 1, *n=10*; Easy to Understand 2, *n=15*; Easy to Understand 3, *n=8*). In contrast, the Korean (marked) male audio recording received 26 ratings of Hard to Understand, and *M*=3.58 (*SD*=1.78; *Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=2.00-5.00). This begins to highlight how the speakers were rated independently of their perceived origin.

Table 6.13

Mean and Median for Korean-origin Speakers; Easy-Hard to Understand

Audio Recording	Mean	SD	Median	IQR
Korean (marked) female	6.29	1.29	7.00	6.00-7.00
Korean (marked) male	3.58	1.78	3.00	2.00-5.00
Korean (weakly marked) female	5.02	1.62	5.00	4.00-6.00

n=48

Table 6.14

Frequency Distribution for Korean-origin Speakers; Easy-Hard to Understand

Audio Recording	Hard 3	Hard 2	Hard 1	Neutral	Easy 1	Easy 2	Easy 3
Korean (marked) female	0	3	0	1	1	14	29
Korean (marked) male	6	9	11	7	6	6	3
Korean (weakly marked) female	1	5	2	7	10	15	8

n=48

Turning to the Philippine English speakers (see Tables 6.15 and 6.16), and firstly, the Philippine (weakly marked) female audio recording a high level of perceived comprehensibility was present in the *M*=5.46 (*SD*=1.27; *Mdn*=6.00, *IQR*=5.00-6.00) returned. This consisted of 40 instances of Easy to Understand ratings (Easy to Understand 1, *n=12*; Easy to Understand 2, *n=19*; Easy to Understand 3, *n=9*). Similar traits are also visible in the Philippine (marked) male audio recording, where 34 instances of Easy to Understand ratings were returned (Easy to Understand 1, *n=14*; Easy to Understand 2, *n=12*; Easy to Understand 3, *n=8*) in conjunction with 10 instances of Hard to Understand ratings (Hard to Understand 1, *n=9*; Hard to

Understand 2, *n=1*). This resulted in *M*=5.06 (*SD*=1.41; *Mdn*=6.00, *IQR*=4.00-6.00). The contrast in the Philippine audio recordings came with the Philippine (marked) female (*M*=4.15, *SD*=1.69; *Mdn*=4.50, *IQR*=3.00-5.75). This consisted of an almost even split 24 Easy to Understand ratings and 22 Hard to Understand ratings.

Table 6.15

Mean and Median for Philippine-origin Speakers; Easy-Hard to Understand

Audio Recording	Mean	SD	Median	IQR
Philippine (marked) female	4.15	1.69	4.50	3.00-5.75
Philippine (marked) male	5.06	1.41	6.00	4.00-6.00
Philippine (weakly marked) female	5.46	1.27	6.00	5.00-6.00

n=48

Table 6.16

Frequency Distribution for Philippine-origin Speakers; Easy-Hard to Understand

Audio Recording	Hard 3	Hard 2	Hard 1	Neutral	Easy 1	Easy 2	Easy 3
Philippine (marked) female	0	11	11	2	12	8	4
Philippine (marked) male	0	1	9	4	14	12	8
Philippine (weakly marked) female	0	1	5	2	12	19	9

n=48

On the difficult end of the comprehensibility spectrum, three audio recordings stood out as having an overall perceived comprehensibility Mean of less than 3.00 (see Tables 6.17 and 6.18). These were British female (*M*=2.88, *SD*=1.54; *Mdn*=2.00, *IQR*=2.00-4.00), Irish male (*M*=2.52, *SD*=1.17; *Mdn*=2.00, *IQR*=2.00-3.00), and South African (L1 Afrikaans) male (*M*=1.88, *SD*=1.23; *Mdn*=2.00, *IQR*=1.00-2.00). The British female audio recording returned the third lowest overall Mean across the four playlists. This was reinforced with 35 instances of Hard to Understand ratings received, which comprised 10 instances of Hard to Understand 1, 17 instances of Hard to Understand 2, and 8 instances of Hard to Understand 3. The 8 instances of

Hard to Understand 3 here represent the second highest return of all audio 24 recordings.

Table 6.17

Mean and Median for Bottom 3 Performers; Easy-Hard to Understand

Audio Recording	Mean	SD	Median	IQR
British female	2.88	1.54	2.00	2.00-4.00
Irish male	2.52	1.17	2.00	2.00-3.00
South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	1.88	1.23	2.00	1.00-2.00

n=48

Table 6.18

Frequency Distribution for Bottom 3 Performers; Easy-Hard to Understand

Audio Recording	Hard 3	Hard 2	Hard 1	Neutral	Easy 1	Easy 2	Easy 3
British female	8	17	10	3	6	4	0
Irish male	7	21	14	1	4	1	0
South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	23	15	8	0	0	1	1

n=48

The second lowest rating overall was received by the Irish male audio recording, which included 42 instances of Hard to Understand ratings. Within these ratings there were 14 instances of Hard to Understand 1, 21 of Hard to Understand 2, and 7 of Hard to Understand 3. Overall, the 21 instances of Hard to Understand 2 were the most received by any of the 24 audio recordings.

The audio recording to receive the lowest overall rating in terms of perceived comprehensibility was the South African (L1 Afrikaans) male, which included the greatest number of Hard to Understand 3 ratings (*n=23*). In conjunction with this, 8 instances of Hard to Understand 1 and 15 instances of Hard to Understand 2 ratings were received. In total, this amounted to 46 instances of Hard to Understand ratings received across the 48 participants.

6.2 Comprehension

Turning from perceptions of comprehensibility to the 5-item comprehension assessment implemented in the research, a clearer picture can be formed. The 5-items represented in each audio recording were assessed as correct or incorrect, and these results were tallied to give an overall rating out of 5 for each participant against each audio recording. With the delineation made in the instrument development, the cut-off for comprehensibility was deemed to be the 80% mark, which equated to a Median breakdown of: 0-1=largely incomprehensible, 2-3=slightly comprehensible, 4-5=comprehensible.

Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed on the overall comprehension tallies with statistically significant differences only found between the four playlists in relation to the British female audio recording, where figures of $\chi^2(3)=8.29$, $p=0.040$ were returned. The mean ranks across the four playlists were 23.50 (Gender Playlist A), 26.50 (Gender Playlist B), 31.58 (Nationality Playlist A), and 15.50 (Nationality Playlist B) (see Tables 6.19 and 6.20). The statistically significant differences in evidence were between Nationality Playlist A (*M*=2.92, *SD*=1.44; *Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=1.25-4.00) and Nationality Playlist B (*M*=1.18, *SD*=1.17; *Mdn*=1.00, *IQR*=0.00-2.00) with a *p* value of 0.03. One factor here is the positioning of the British female audio recording in these two playlists; in Nationality Playlist A it was the thirteenth audio recording, while in Nationality Playlist B it was the first. Upon inspection, this shows that when the audio recording is presented first overall, it returned lower overall comprehension levels. This is evidenced by the significant differences identified in relation to British female. However, these differences, while not at a statistically significant level, were also evident in other audio recordings positioned in the first and thirteenth locations of any given playlist (see Figure 6.3). These included the American male with *M*=2.25 (*SD*=1.42; *Mdn*=1.50, *IQR*=1.00-4.00) in the first position and *M*=2.54 (*SD*=1.20; *Mdn*=2.00, *IQR*=2.00-3.50) in the thirteenth position; the Philippine (marked) male with *M*=3.67 (*SD*=1.15; *Mdn*=3.50, *IQR*=3.00-5.00) in the first position and *M*=3.82 (*SD*=0.87; *Mdn*=4.00, *IQR*=3.00-4.00) in the thirteenth position; and the South African (L1 English) female with *M*=3.39 (*SD*=1.04; *Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=2.50-4.00) in the first position and *M*=4.00 (*SD*=0.43; *Mdn*=4.00, *IQR*=4.00-4.00) in the thirteenth position.

Beyond the assertions related to significant differences in existence, the remaining 23 audio recordings showed no evidence of statistically significant differences (see Appendix D, Table 13.4). Following the guide that marked comprehensibility at 80% against the Median breakdown of 0-1=largely incomprehensible, 2-3=slightly comprehensible, 4-5=comprehensible, 13 of the remaining 23 audio recordings were deemed comprehensible. A Median of 4.00 returned in 12 audio recordings and a Median of 5.00 returned in one audio recording (see Appendix D, Table 13.5). On the other end of the spectrum, 10 audio recordings returned Median ratings of less than 4.00 (2.00, *n*=2; 2.50, *n*=1; 3.00, *n*=6; 3.50, *n*=1), none of which fell firmly within the 'largely incomprehensible' bracket.

Table 6.19

British Female Audio Recording; Comprehension Figures

Playlist	British female (Mean Rank Scores)	Mean (SD)	Median (IQR)	*n*
Gender Playlist A	23.50	2.00 (1.21)	2.00 (1.00-3.00)	12
Gender Playlist B	26.50	2.31 (1.49)	2.00 (1.00-4.00)	13
Nationality Playlist A	31.58	2.92 (1.44)	3.00 (1.25-4.00)	12
Nationality Playlist B	15.50	1.18 (1.17)	1.00 (0.00-2.00)	11

Table 6.20

British Female Audio Recording; Comprehension Kruskal-Wallis H Test Pairwise Comparisons

Playlist 1 – Playlist 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Nationality B – Gender A	8.000	5.721	1.398	0.162	0.972
Nationality B – Gender B	11.000	5.614	1.959	0.050	0.301
Nationality B – Nationality A	16.083	5.721	2.811	0.005	0.030
Gender A – Gender B	-3.000	5.486	-0.547	0.585	1.000
Gender A – Nationality A	-8.083	5.595	-1.445	0.149	0.891
Gender B – Nationality A	-5.083	5.486	-0.927	0.354	1.000

Through looking at the overall comprehension performance, the five strongest performing audio recordings when surveying both Median and Mean were: Korean (marked) female (*Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=4.25–5.00; *M*=4.71, *SD*=0.54); Canadian male (*Mdn*=4.00, *IQR*=3.25–5.00; *M*=4.00, *SD*=1.09); Philippine (weakly marked) female (*Mdn*=4.00, *IQR*=4.00–5.00; *M*=3.96, *SD*=1.07); New Zealand male (*Mdn*=4.00,

IQR=3.00–5.00; *M*=3.85, *SD*=0.87); and South African (L1 English) male (*Mdn*=4.00, *IQR*=3.00–5.00; *M*=3.81, *SD*=1.02). In contrast, the five weakest performers were: South African (L1 Afrikaans) male (*Mdn*=2.00, *IQR*=1.00–3.00; *M*=1.88, *SD*=1.30); South African (L1 Afrikaans) female (*Mdn*=2.50, *IQR*=1.00–3.00; *M*=2.23, *SD*=1.36); Irish male (*Mdn*=2.00, *IQR*=2.00–3.00; *M*=2.46, *SD*=1.17); American male (*Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=2.00–4.00; *M*=2.69, *SD*=1.21); and Canadian female (*Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=2.00–4.00; *M*=2.92, *SD*=1.18).

Figure 6.3

Comprehension at Playlist Item 1 vs. 13
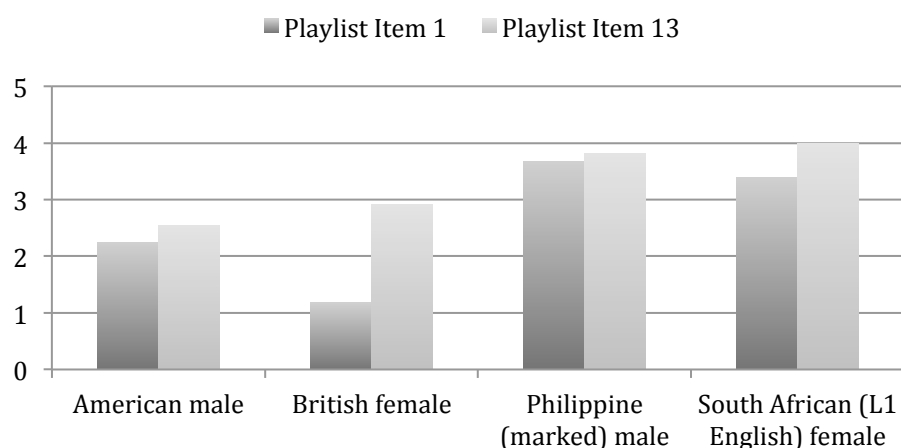
6.3 Language Attitudes and Comprehension Performance Associations

To address the extent to which correlations between English variety, language attitude, and English listening comprehension amongst KLEs exist, it was essential for the comprehension data to be collapsed into the three macro categories: 0-1=largely incomprehensible, 2-3=slightly comprehensible, 4-5=comprehensible. With respect to addressing the research question, broad language attitudes were addressed through the semantic differential items of Like-Dislike, Good-Bad Accent, and Good-Bad Teacher where positive responses were represented by higher ratings (i.e. 7 was the most positive rating on the 7-point scale). In addition to these, the semantic differential item focusing on perceived comprehensibility also drew upon language attitudes while offering insights into listening performance.

In terms of the association present between perceived comprehensibility and comprehension, only 13 of the 24 audio recordings returned statistically significant correlations when Kendall's rank correlation coefficient was run (see Appendix D, Table 13.6). With respect to audio recordings that received positive feedback overall, two of the strongest associations returned were evidenced in the Philippine (weakly marked) female and the British male. The Philippine (weakly marked) female returned a moderate positive association between the Easy-Hard to Understand rating and language comprehension (τ_b=0.452, p=0.001). The British male returned a weak positive association of τ_b=0.388 (p=0.003) for the same items. Interestingly, the strongest association across these items was returned by the South African (L1 Afrikaans) female audio recording, which was the recipient of negative feedback overall. This audio recording returned a moderate positive association of τ_b=0.511 (p=0.000). Similarly, this negatively perceived audio recording was accompanied by the Irish male audio recording, which also returned moderate positive association of τ_b=0.409 (p=0.001).

In terms of general language attitude and perceived comprehensibility there was a greater degree of correlation overall. Of the 24 audio recordings, 23 returned statistically significant correlations between the Like-Dislike and Easy-Hard to Understand ratings when Kendall's rank correlation coefficient was executed (see Appendix D, Table 13.7). Overall, only the Philippine (weakly marked) male did not return statistically significant results, which may be related to the differences in perceived comprehensibility ratings across playlists that were outlined in previous sections. Putting the Philippine (weakly marked) male audio recording aside, the audio recordings to return the strongest associations were found in the Australian female (τ_b=0.660, p=0.000) and the South African (L1 English) female (τ_b=0.643, p=0.000), which both showed strong positive associations and were positively adjudged in terms of language attitude overall. Similarly adjudged in a positive manner was the Korean (weakly marked) female audio recording, which also returned a moderate positive association of τ_b=0.579 (p=0.000). However, as was noted previously, the statistically significant associations were also present in negatively perceived audio recordings. The case in point here is the moderate association evidenced between the Like-Dislike and Easy-Hard to Understand ratings for the Australian male audio recording (τ_b=0.571, p=0.000).

Despite the high number of statistically significant correlations across the Like-Dislike and Easy-Hard to Understand items, this figure dropped to statistically significant correlations across just 8 of 24 audio recordings when Like-Dislike and comprehension was assessed with Kendall's rank correlation coefficient (see Appendix D, Table 13.1). Of the 8 recordings to display statistically significant correlations, the associations were typically much lower than the associations present in language attitude and perceived comprehensibility difficulty. For instance, the Australian female and the South African (L1 English) female audio recordings only showed weak positive associations with τ_b=0.272 (p=0.030) and τ_b=0.300 (p=0.020) respectively. The negatively perceived Australian male audio recording showed a marginally more impressive association; however, this was still a weak positive association of τ_b=0.362 (p=0.004). Overall, 6 of these 8 audio recordings returned a correlation that was approximately half that of the correlation returned in relation to language attitude and perceived comprehensibility difficulty. The only audio recordings that returned correlations on par with one another across the two categories were the Philippine (weakly marked) female and the South African (L1 Afrikaans) female. In the first instance, the Philippine (weakly marked) audio recording showed a weak positive association in both cases, where the Like-Dislike and language comprehension figures were τ_b=0.306 (p=0.021) compared with the Like-Dislike and perceived comprehensibility figures of τ_b=0.389 (p=0.001). In the second case, the South African (L1 Afrikaans) female audio recording showed moderate positive associations in both cases, with τ_b=0.494 (p=0.000) and τ_b=0.517 (p=0.000) respectively.

This trend of a greater number of statistically significant correlations between language attitude and perceived comprehensibility when compared with language attitude and comprehension continued across the areas of (1) Good-Bad Accent and perceived comprehensibility or comprehension; and (2) Good-Bad Teacher and perceived comprehensibility or comprehension.

In these areas the comparative figures in terms of statistically significant correlations returned when Kendall's rank correlation coefficient was performed sits at:

1. 20 of 24 audio recordings showed associations when Good-Bad Accent was coupled with perceived comprehensibility compared to 7 of 24 audio recordings with comprehension (see Appendix D, Table 13.8);

2. 21 of 24 audio recordings showing associations when Good-Bad Teacher was coupled with perceived comprehensibility compared to 5 of 24 audio recordings with comprehension (see Appendix D, Table 13.9).

In relation to Good-Bad Accent, the strongest associations were found in the Australian female audio recording (τ_b=0.560, p=0.000) and the Philippine (weakly marked) female audio recording (τ_b=0.555, p=0.000) when it came to assessing perceived comprehensibility; both audio recordings returned moderate positive associations. Of these two, the Philippine (weakly marked) female also returned a weak positive association where Good-Bad Accent and comprehension was considered with figures of τ_b=0.323 (p=0.014) evidenced. As before, there were disparate figures returned with perceived comprehensibility associations often more strongly aligned than the comprehension associations. The anomaly here was the Irish female audio recording, which returned weak positive Kendall's rank correlation coefficients for both Good-Bad Accent and perceived comprehensibility, and Good-Bad Accent and comprehension; however, the perceived comprehensibility association was a τ_b=0.338 (p=0.004), with the comprehension association being a stronger τ_b=0.350 (p=0.008).

The final set of associations considered in this section concern the Good-Bad Teacher ratings. In this area the most positively perceived audio recording was the Philippine (weakly marked) female, and with figures returned through Kendall's rank correlation coefficient, a moderate positive association of τ_b=0.419 (p=0.001) was shown when focusing on the Easy-Hard to Understand item. This association was reduced to weak positive (τ_b=0.278, p=0.035) when comprehension was considered in conjunction with Good-Bad Teacher. While these figures appear similar, this was not the norm overall, and a return to disparity was also present. This disparity is none more evident than when turning to comparisons possible with the Australian female and American female audio recordings. Looking at the Australian female audio recording, which returned the strongest associations across both areas, the Kendall's rank correlation coefficient figures of Good-Bad Teacher and Easy-

Hard to Understand (τ_b=0.635; p=0.000), and Good-Bad Teacher and comprehension (τ_b=0.328; p=0.009). This trend was replicated in the American female audio recording, which showed moderate positive associations (τ_b=0.543, p=0.000) and weak positive associations (τ_b=0.281, p=0.031) respectively.

Through examining the returns across these areas of language attitudes, it may be possible to suggest that perceived comprehensibility plays a role in attitude formation. Of course, given that a measure of association cannot indicate causality, there is also the possibility that language attitudes play roles in the reporting of perceived comprehensibility levels. Furthermore, the findings of this research indicate that actual comprehension does not appear to play a major role in attitude formation. However, this may be due to the participants not having knowledge of how well they performed in terms of comprehension, as feedback was not provided in this area. Therefore, it stands to reason that perceived comprehensibility would be of greater importance. Beyond this, however, it may be worth investigating in the future that if comprehension results are reported to participants, would this have an effect on language attitude development, and would this in-turn result in a greater correlation between language attitudes and comprehension?

6.4 Qualitative Perceived Comprehensibility and Comprehension Data

With the quantitative elements directed at perceived comprehensibility and comprehension now covered, this section will explore the qualitative interview data in the same areas (see Appendix B for transcription conventions and all interview extracts). Across the 24 audio recordings assessed, four major themes emerged: (1) Familiarity and Comfort; (2) Voice Clarity; (3) Rhythm and Pausing; and (4) Paralinguistic Features. Within these categories, a series of positive and negative comments have arisen that serve in contributing to the research objectives.

6.4.1 Familiarity and Comfort

One major factor affecting the perceived comprehensibility ratings for the participants is the notion of familiarity and how that is linked with a feeling of comfort. This section will look at the three major sub-themes within the notions of familiarity and comfort, which include the feeling of comfort, the level of familiarity, and the development of familiarity (see Table 6.21).

Table 6.21

Sub-themes Identified within Familiarity and Comfort

Identified Sub-theme	Description
Feeling of Comfort	Overall perceptions of the recipient; embedded in ease for the listening experience
Level of Familiarity	Perceptions of how familiar the recipient is with a language variety; perceived relationships between high and low familiarity and comprehensibility
Familiarity Development	Experiences that can contribute to familiarity; educational experience, pop culture, or in-group association

In general terms, the consensus appears to be that the more familiar the participant believed they were with a variety of English, the more comfortable they were during the listening experience, and as a result, a higher comprehensibility level was perceived (see Extract 67).

Extract 67

1	Interview:	if <+> you hear an accent for the first time [(.)] is that hard
2	P27:	[yes]
3	P27:	yes sure
4	Interviewer:	and when you hear it more and more (.) how do you feel
5	P27:	.hhh (.) 점점 듣다 보면은 (.) 익- 익숙해지면 이제 좀 편안해질 거 같아요
6		*{.hhh (.) as I hear it more (.) and become fam- familiar I think it would become*
7		*more comfortable}*

As P27 expressed, 'as I hear it more and become familiar I think it would become more comfortable'. Furthermore, the participants were aware of which speakers furnished them with feelings of comfort or discomfort. For instance, P14 declared in Extract 68 that they were more comfortable with the Philippine (weakly marked) female audio recording than they were with other audio recordings.

Extract 68

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P14:	<+> (.) he (.) he is very (.) good to (.) <+> good speaker to understand (.) <+>
3		even I don't know the word (1) <+> she speak very exact word so I can guess the
4		(.) word (1) word word [(1)] than other person and .hhh (.) <+> (.) this is first
5		time to (.) imagine the picture (.) so (1) I really like to (.) <+> I thought h- she is
6		good teacher (.) if she be the teacher and (.) <+> (1) I can understand (.) I cannn

7		understand what she said easy (.) and she has good accent because (.) <+> (.) I
8		don't (***) the other person (1) when I heard the other person recording I (.) feel
9		a little uncomfortable (.) but this is good

One proposal from P14 was that the comfort related to the increased perception of comprehensibility that was present when compared with the other audio recordings. This was evidenced through the participant stating they 'can understand what she said easy', which was confirmed across the four playlists through the comprehensible *Mdn*=4.00 (*IQR*=4.00-5.00) rating being returned for overall comprehension performance (see Appendix D, Table 13.5). Nonetheless, P14 also claimed that when they 'heard the other person recording [they] feel a little uncomfortable'. In an attempt to understand these reactions further, P14 was asked where they believed the speaker was from (see Extract 69). P14's belief that the speaker may have been an American could be linked with the perception that KLE are exposed to American English more than other varieties through both their English education experiences in Korea. P44 expressed this same perception in Extract 70.

Extract 69

| 1 | Interviewer: | [where do] you think she's from |
| 2 | P14: | maybe American |

Extract 70

1	Interviewer:	who do you think has the best accent (.) which country
2	P44:	which country (2) country (1) country
3	Interviewer:	<+>
4	P44:	US (.) I don't know (.) 호주는 안 가봐 가지고 (.) 안 가봐서
5		*{US (.) I don't know (.) I haven't been to Australia (.) I haven't been}*
6	Interviewer:	so you would normally prefer an American teacher
7	P44:	yeah
8	Interviewer:	why is that
9	P44:	<+>
10	Interviewer:	why
11	P44:	why (.) 익숙해서 [(1)] I usually watch American drama yeah [(.)] sometime I
12		watch from England like Sherlock [(.)] or Dr Who (.) and it's really hard to
13		understand their accent (.) and also in Australia
14		*{why (.) because it's familiar [(1)] I usually watch American drama yeah [(.)]*
15		*sometime I watch from England like Sherlock [(.)] or Dr Who (.) and it's really*

16		*hard to understand their accent (.) and also in Australia}*
17	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

P44 deduced that they prefer American English due to familiarity. This same declaration was reinforced through suggesting the lack of familiarity with British English made that variety 'really hard to understand' (see Extract 70, lines 11-13). Similarly, Extract 71 indicates that increased familiarity equated to increased comprehensibility.

Extract 71

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about [this speaker]
2	P40:	[@@@] he is Asian (.) right [(.)] maybe I think (.) I think (.) I think <+> (.) he's
3		Asian (.) because (1) his (.) his <+> (.) his pronunciation and intonation or
4		several thing is the same with me (.) like (1) so (1) I could understand yeah (.) it
5		was it was easy to understand (.) because (.) @@@ (.) he was same with me (.)
6		I-I I felt
7	Interviewer:	[I don't know]
8	Interviewer:	so (1) if you hear someone that speaks (.) similar to you [(.)] you think that's
9		easier (.) or
10	P40:	[yeah]
11	P40:	.hhh (.) easier to me but (.) <+> (.) <+> (.) is same with me (.) it means <+> (.)
12		he (.) is (.) speaking ability is not (1) good [(1)] @@@ (.) I think (1) maybe
13		many (.) many (.) many Koreans or the other Asian country student (.) can
14		understand (.) easily (.) his speaks but (1) well (1) other the (.) other countries
15		using the English (.) maybe they (2) .hhh they can't understand his (.) speaking
16		(1) I think just
17	Interviewer:	[@@@]

In the exchange in Extract 71, P40 stated the Korean (marked) male speaker 'was [the] same with me' and as a result, this underlying familiarity made it 'easy to understand'. The participant stated this type of speaking can be understood 'easily' by 'many Koreans or […] other Asian' listeners. In support, P40 recorded a comprehensible rating of 4.00 for overall comprehension performance. Despite this, P40 questioned whether non-Asian interlocutors would understand this type of speaking, which returns to the notion of familiarity and whether these potential non-Asian interlocutors would be familiar with a Korean (marked) male type of audio recording.

It is evident that P40 strongly believes in familiarity's power and how it connects to comprehensibility, and this is extended further in the comments made across Extracts 72 and 73.

Extract 72

1	Interviewer:	you said she's easy to understand
2	P46:	yes
3	Interviewer:	why do you think she's easy to understand
4	P46:	she is (1) <+> (.) 발음이 (2) 알아 듣기 쉬웠어요
5		*{she is (1) <+> (.) pronunciation (2) it was easy to understand}*
6	Interviewer:	where do you think she's from
7	P46:	<+> (.) Korea
8	Interviewer:	so (.) do you think Korean English is easy for you (.) to understand
9	P46:	yeah
10	Interviewer:	why do you think that
11	P46:	I teach (.) English (.) 계속 한국인한테 배웠어요 (.) 그래서 (.) 한국인이 하는
12		영어가 (.) 알아 듣기 쉬워요
13		*{I teach (.) English (.) I have continuously learnt English from Koreans (.) so (.)*
14		*Koreans speaking English (.) is easy to understand}*

Extract 73

1	Interviewer:	why do you think it's easy
2	P43:	왜 쉽냐고요
3		*{why is it easy}*
4	Interviewer:	yeah
5	P43:	그냥 (.) 그니까 이게 (.) 주위에는 한국 사람들이 많잖아요 외국인들이
6		친구들이 있는게 아니고 (.) 그래서 맨날 들었던 말이니까 이제 딱 듣고
7		바로 되는데 (.) 지금 앞에서는요 그 (.) 외국인 외국인 말 듣고 친구들끼리
8		외국인 이렇게 했다가 (.) 갑자기 바뀌니까 그게 좀 어려웠던거 같아요 (.)
9		계속 친근해져있는 것에 들으니까 쉽고 그렇지 (.) 그 차이인거 같아요
10		*{just (.) because this (.) in these surroundings there are many Koreans right*
11		*foreigners there are no foreign friends (.) so because I hear this all the time now*
12		*I can understand straight away but (.) when I'm in front of the (.) foreigner if I*
13		*hear foreigners talking like this (.) suddenly it changes and I think that's a little*
14		*difficult (.) but if I continuously become familiar with it it'd be easy and (.) I*
15		*think that's the difference}*

Extract 72 shows that P46 correctly identified the Korean (weakly marked) female as a Korean origin speaker, and through this identification proposed that because they 'have continuously learnt English from Koreans […it] is easy to understand'. P43 continued this train of thought with reference to Korea English across Extract 73 through stating that 'in these surroundings there are many Koreans' and because they 'hear this all the time [they] can understand straight away'. Overall, this was supported by the Korean (weakly marked) female recording a comprehensible *Mdn*=4.00 (*IQR*=2.25-4.00) in overall comprehension performance (see Appendix D, Table 13.5). In contrast, the participant believed that when they 'hear foreigners talking' it is 'a little difficult' (see Extract 73, lines 8 and 12-14). Interestingly, P43 made the explicit link to a lack of familiarity and how familiarity development could increase comprehensibility by claiming that 'if I continuously become familiar with it'd be easy' (see Extract 73, lines 9 and 14-15). The claim that a relationship between familiarity and comprehensibility exists was also expressed negatively in the exchange with P24 regarding the British male audio recording shown in Extract 74.

Extract 74

1	Interviewer:	<+> (.) you've said he was difficult to understand (.) why do you think that
2	P24:	억양이 좋긴 한데 (.) 잘 못 알아 듣겠 (1) 좋기만 해요 [(.)] 듣기만
3		*{the intonation is good but (.) I couldn't understand very well (1) but I like it*
4		*[(.)] just to listen to}*
5	Interviewer:	[<+>]
6	Interviewer:	<+> (1) why do you think that was difficult
7	P24:	익숙하지 않으니까 (1) 맨날 듣는 거는 (.) 수업하고 이럴 때는 다 (.)
8		영국발음보다 미국발음 [(1)] 많이 하니까 영국발음 듣는 것은 (.) 좀
9		힘들어요
10		*{because it's not familiar (1) we always listen to (.) when we have a class (.)*
11		*American pronunciation is used more than British pronunciation [(1)] since this*
12		*is the case listening to British pronunciation (.) is a little difficult}*

According to P24, the speaker was 'difficult to understand' as it was 'not familiar'. Interestingly, while the participant returned a Hard to Understand 2 rating for the speaker, the overall comprehension performance of P24 was a comprehensible 4.00. The underpinning of the perceptions seem to relate to the English education

experience the KLE have had, where American English has taken a perceived precedence in their English learning journey. For instance, P24 reflected that 'when we have a class American pronunciation is used more than British pronunciation' and continued in claiming that 'since this is the case listening to British pronunciation is a little difficult' (see Extract 74, lines 7-12). This utterance offers the potential interpretation that through the lack of familiarity the participant has had with British English it was perceived as less comprehensible. This may especially be the case if directly comparing it with American English and the association with familiarity, which was exemplified by P24 rating the American male as Easy to Understand 1 and the American female as Easy to Understand 2.

Development of familiarity in this respect is a factor that must be considered integral to levels of comprehensibility for KLE, as summarised by P40 in Extract 75.

Extract 75

1	P40:	@@@ (.) 만약에 제가 영국 영어를 어렸을 때 부터 쭉 배워왔다면 (.)
2		영국영어를 들었을 때 그게 더 친숙해서 그게 더이해를 하기가 쉬웠을 것
3		같은데 (.) <+> 일단 그랬을 거 같구요 그리고 .hhh (.) 근데 약간 <+> 워터
4		라던가 그런 쉬운 단어를 들었을 때는 (.) 영국영어가 더 쉬울 거 같아요
5		왜냐면은 그게 w-a-t-e-r 이거를 정확하게 발음해 내기 때문에 (1) 근데
6		단어가 어려워 지고 그러면은 (.) 약간 (.) 제가 배웠던 영어능력에서는
7		익숙하지가 않기 때문에 (1) 그래서 좀 어려울 거 같긴해
8		*{@@@ (.) if I learned British English continuously from being young (.) then*
9		*when I hear British English it would be easier to understand because it would be*
10		*more familiar (.) <+> I think that would be the case and .hhh (.) but a little <+>*
11		*when I hear easy words like 'water' (.) I think they would be easy in British*
12		*English because that's just w-a-t-e-r and it's pronounced clearly (1) but the*
13		*more difficult words (.) a little bit (.) because they're not familiar to me with my*
14		*English ability (1) so I think they would be a bit hard}*

P40 has appeared to draw on their English experience but repositioned it into a hypothetical situation by claiming that 'if I learned British English continuously from being young then […] it would be easier to understand'. Of note here was that even though the participant showed awareness of British English pronunciation

features, they still claimed a reduced level of familiarity resulted in reduced comprehensibility levels. Extract 76 exemplified this type of limited familiarity-comprehensibility relationship in the extreme.

Extract 76

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about him
2	P16:	<+> (1) first (.) I cannot understand (.) what he (.) speaking
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that is
4	P16:	<+> (2) pronunciation is not (1) <+> (1) 친숙하지 않아요 많이 (.) 들어본게
5		아니라서 [(1)] 그래서 (.) 튕겨져 나가요 (.) 그냥 (.) 약간 (.) 중국어 듣는 거
6		같은
7		*{<+> (2) pronunciation is not (1) <+> (1) it's not familiar (.) I haven't heard it*
8		*very often [(1)] so (.) it just bounces out (.) it's just (.) a little bit (.) like listening*
9		*to Chinese}*
10	Interviewer:	[<+>]
11	Interviewer:	중국어
12		*{Chinese}*
13	P16:	yeah (.) 뭔가 (.) 영어를 듣는게 아니라 (.) 다른 외국어를 듣는 거 같아요
14		*{yeah (.) what is it (.) it's not like listening to English (.) I think I'm listening to*
15		*another foreign language}*

Here, it was argued that listening to the South African (L1 Afrikaans) male audio recording was akin to 'listening to another foreign language' (see Extract 76, lines 13-16). This assertion was because 'the pronunciation is not […] familiar' and they 'cannot understand'. Perhaps more significantly however was that this severe lack of familiarity led P16 to announce that the speech 'just bounces out' and that they felt like they were 'listening to Chinese'. Ultimately, this exchange serves to illustrate that the greater the perceived lack of familiarity, the greater the level of perceived incomprehensibility, and this can lead to even an English utterance being so minimally received that it could be misinterpreted as a foreign language.

6.4.2 Voice Clarity, Tone, and Intonation

A major prosodic factor suggested as influencing the comprehensibility levels of these KLE across the audio recordings assessed was founded in several elements of the voice, which are explored in this section via three sub-themes. These elements of

the voice move from the general level of clarity, and into aspects of voice tone, and intonation (see Table 6.22).

Table 6.22

Sub-themes Identified within Voice Clarity, Tone, and Intonation

Identified Sub-theme	Description
Voice clarity	A focus on clarity in terms of enunciation and word endings; extends into perceptions of confidence in delivery
Voice tone	Perceptions of speaker's emotion; inclusivity through a positive tone vs. distance through a negative tone
Intonation pattern and delivery	Situational appropriacy intonation patterns; active vs. flat patterns

6.4.2.1 Voice Clarity. When considering clarity with reference to degree of comprehensibility, the KLE raised connections between greater levels of perceived clarity and comprehensibility. For instance, Extract 77 indicates that P63 recognised a clear voice as a positive point.

Extract 77

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P63:	<+> (1) she she (.) her voice is slow (1) andddd (1) .hhh her (.) pronunciation is
3		not (.) hard to me (1) and (.) .hhh (1) yeah (.) it's not (1) <+> her voice is clear
4		(2) yeah
5	Interviewer:	how do you feel (.) when someone speaks this slow
6	P63:	good (.) @@@
7	Interviewer:	why
8	P63:	I hope (1) every (.) every people (.) who (.) has mother language .hhh (.) speaks
9		like this (.) @@@
10	Interviewer:	@@@ (1) do you think it's good for communication
11	P63:	yeah (.) @@@

The assessment from P63 of the Korean (marked) female audio recording in Extract 77 was that 'her voice is clear' and that the 'pronunciation is not hard'. The participant also identified the voice as 'slow', and this rhythmic feature cannot be discounted as a contributing factor in the comprehensible *Mdn*=5.00 (*IQR*=4.25-5.00) for overall comprehension performance (see Appendix D, Table 13.5). However, the assertion across lines 8-9 that 'I hope every [person] who has mother

language speaks like this' was strong in suggesting the overall package of the Korean (marked) female audio recording resulted in the 'clear' voice evaluation. P39 drew a similar evaluation when discussing the Korean (weakly marked) female (see Extract 78).

Extract 78

1	Interviewer:	you said she is very easy to understand
2	P39:	yeah yeah
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that
4	P39:	she has <+> (.) pronunciation is very sure (.) and not fast
5	Interviewer:	what do you mean very sure
6	P39:	<+> (1) clearly (1) yeah (.) that is (.) I said it
7	Interviewer:	what do you mean clearly
8	P39:	명확
9		*{clear enunciation}*

Again, Extract 78 marked how a clear delivery is easier to understand. When attempting to delineate the notion of clarity further, P39 defined 'clear' by making direct reference to 'clear enunciation'. However, as in Extract 77, there was also a comment relating to rhythm and the delivery being 'not fast', which further proffered that clarity and rhythm may be interlaced. In conjunction though, the participant observed that the 'pronunciation is very sure', which may be reference to a confident delivery. This confidence aspect may have resulted in a clearer delivery perception through the speaker having greater assurance in the message they are attempting to transmit. Extract 79, on the other hand, shows the converse effect.

Extract 79

1	P54:	@@@ (.) 이게 영어권 발음 같지 않은 (.) 막 한 단어 한 단어 굳이 말할려고
2		하는 거 같아요 [(1)] 자신감이 없어 보였어요
3		*{@@@ (.) this didn't sound like an English speaker's pronunciation (.) <+> I*
4		*think he's trying to say it word by word [(1)] he doesn't sound like he has*
5		*confidence}*
6	Interviewer:	[<+>]
7	Interviewer:	<+> (1) does that make it harder for you
8	P54:	yes
9	Interviewer:	why do you think that is

10	P54:	뭐라는 지 모르겠어요 @@@ (.) 마지막에 처음에는 괜찮은데 마지막에
11		갈수록 (.) 더듬거림이 심해지면서 자신감이 없어지니까 (.) 목소리가
12		작아져서 막 웅얼웅얼웅얼 @@@
13		*{I don't know what he is saying @@@ (.) the end at first it was OK but by the*
14		*end (.) because the muttering was getting worse and since he was losing*
15		*confidence (.) the voice became lower <+> mumble mumble mumble @@@}*

Regarding the Korean (marked) male audio recording discussed in Extract 79, P54 made multiple references to the lack of confidence the speaker appeared to have, and this resulted in claims that 'by the end […] the muttering was getting worse'. The participant expressed the unclear enunciation and perceived mumbling of the speaker through onomatopoeia, which was borne from the declaration that the audio recording was hard to understand, and was moderately supported by the overall comprehension performance result of the Korean (marked) male audio recording across the four playlists (*Mdn*=3.00, *IQR*=3.00-4.00; see Appendix D, Table 13.5).

P54 continued in the area of clarity when discussing the New Zealand female audio recording in Extract 80 by exploring how the speaker mumbled a lot.

Extract 80

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P54:	너무 (.) 웅얼거려요 (.) 웅얼거려요 @@@ (.) 옹알옹알
3		*{really (.) mumbles (.) mumbles @@@ (.) mumble mumble}*
4	Interviewer:	why do you think that [(.) or why] do you think it was harder
5	P54:	[<+>] (.) 단어가요 [(.)] 이렇게 (.) 명확하게 끊기는 느낌이 아니라 다 이어진
6		거 같아서 (.) 이해 알아듣기 힘들었어요 뭐라고 하는지 모르겠어요
7		*{[<+>] (.) the words [(.)] I think they feel like they weren't separated or*
8		*enunciated clearly so (.) it was difficult to understand I don't know what she was*
9		*saying}*
10	Interviewer:	[<+>]

When asked to refine how mumbling is related to the utterance being harder to understand, a reference was made in relation to how the participant 'feels like [the words] weren't separated or enunciated clearly' (see Extract 80). This can reaffirm

that perceived voice clarity could also be influenced by perceptions pertaining to rhythmic factors.

6.4.2.2 Tone. Moving on from voice clarity, the prosodic factor of tone encompasses several areas to which the participants refer. One area mentioned on a general level was the perceived 'brightness' of the tone. This reference to brightness may be linked with the degree of positivity in the speaker. With reference to the Korean (weakly marked) female audio recording, Extract 81 discussed the effects this positivity has on comprehensibility.

Extract 81

1	Interviewer:	she seems to be your favourite
2	P54:	<+>
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that
4	P54:	제일 알아듣기 쉬었어요
5		*{it was easiest to understand}*
6	Interviewer:	why do you think she was the easiest
7	P54:	<+> (1) <lipsmack> 일단 목소리가 마음에 들어요 (.) @@@ (.) 목소리가
8		명료하고 밝고 (.) 망설임이 없잖아요 [(1)] 옹알거리지도 않았어요
9		*{<+> (1) <lipsmack> I like her voice first of all (.) @@@ (.) the voice is clear*
10		*and bright and (.) there's no hesitation [(1)] she also didn't mumble}*
11	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Here, P54 began by defining the speaker as 'the easiest to understand', which appeared tightly linked with the voice being 'clear and bright' (see Extract 81). In contrast, P24 proposed that a voice that is not bright has the opposite effect in Extract 82.

Extract 82

1	P24:	<+> (.) 막 이상해 못 알아 듣겠어 말하는 게 (1) <sigh>
2		*{<+> (.) it's strange I don't understand what he is saying (1) <sigh>}*
3	Interviewer:	@@@ (.) why do you think you couldn't understand (.) very easily
4	P24:	약간 (.) 막 그런 거 보다 약간 좀 (.) 밝고 (1) 명랑하게 말하면 좀 듣기
5		쉽잖아요 (.) 약간 좀 톤 높은 소리로 말하면
6		*{a little (.) compared to that if it's a little (.) brighter and (.) cheerful when then*
7		*speak then listening is easier (.) if the tone of voice is a bit higher}*

P24, speaking of the Korean (marked) male audio recording in Extract 82, expressed that they 'don't understand what he is saying' before stating that if a voice is 'brighter and [more] cheerful', it is easier for listening. Drawing a conclusion from this, the inference may be that the more negatively the voice tone is perceived, the more difficult it may be to understand. This was partially supported in Extract 83 by P35.

Extract 83

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P35:	<+> (.) So fast (.) and (.) and (1) 그냥 빨라요 @@@ 너무 빨라요
3		*{<+> (.) so fast (.) and (.) and (1) it's just fast @@@ so fast}*
4	Interviewer:	is that why it was difficult for you
5	P35:	yes 하나도 모르겠어요
6		*{yes I don't know anything}*
7	Interviewer:	is there anything else that made it difficult
8	P35:	<+> (1) .hhh (.) Fast and (.) voice (.) voice is (.)소리가 화난 거 같아요 (1) 근데
9		이 주제가 되게 무거운 주제였어요 (1) Sign 막 이런 거 들었는데 그래서
10		그런가
11		*{<+> (1) .hhh (.) fast and (.) voice (.) voice is (.) I think it sounds angry (1) but*
12		*this theme is a very heavy one (1) I heard sign and that's why}*

In Extract 83, P35 commented on how the South African (L1 Afrikaans) female appeared to 'sound angry', and while the participant mentioned a fast delivery was a factor resulting in a lower level of perceived comprehensibility, the negative voice tone appeared partially responsible. Overall, these factors may have possibly contributed to the slightly comprehensible *Mdn*=2.50 (*IQR*=1.00-3.00) comprehension performance (see Appendix D, Table 13.5).

 6.4.2.3 Intonation. The final prosodic factor relating to vocal delivery and comprehensibility raised by the KLE is located under the umbrella of intonation. The evaluation of intonation here includes two macro levels to explore: flat or active intonation.

Broadly speaking, a more active intonation pattern appeared easier to understand for KLE (see Extracts 84 and 85).

Extract 84

1	Interviewer:	why do you like him and think he's easy to understand
2	P42:	because (.) he use many up and down (.) wooo @@@ (.) we need dessssk
3		@@@ (1) and so (.) when he use the up and down I (.) can catch the word [(.)]
4		clear clearly (.) so easy to understand
5	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 85

1	Interviewer:	<+> (.) so you prefer (.) do you usually prefer (.) when you're listening [(.)]
2		someone flat or someone (.) more up and down
3	P43:	[yeah]
4	P43:	if communication is up and down is better [(.)] but <+> it's class-classroom flat
5		pattern is [better]
6	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]

P42 clearly referenced an active intonation pattern in Extract 84 through stating 'he use many up and down'. The participant continued by stressing how this kind of active intonation resulted in the audio being 'easy to understand' in which they 'can catch the word'. This was a notion supported by P43 in Extract 85, through expressing the belief that 'up and down is better'; however, it is interesting how this active intonation is only preferential for communication. P43 also gave credence to a flat intonation pattern by proposing that a more monotonous intonation pattern is better suited to the classroom (see Extract 85, lines 4-5). This could possibly be due to a flat delivery representing a constant rather than varied pattern, and this may result in listeners attuning themself more easily to increase their focus. In contrast, an active intonation pattern, while possibly offering a greater number of communicative cues for an interlocutor, presents as neither constant nor uniform and may pose a receptive hurdle when the purpose is to listen only, as may be the case in a listening classroom environment.

Moving away from the hypothetical listening classroom however, the majority of participants referred to intonation in terms of general communication. The consensus

was that a flat intonation pattern was more difficult to understand, as expressed across Extracts 86 and 87.

Extract 86

1	Interviewer:	why do you think he was hard to understand
2	P60:	<+> (.) his intonation is almost the same [(1)] usually almost same (.) yeah so
3	Interviewer:	[<+>]
4	Interviewer:	flat
5	P60:	yeah flat
6	Interviewer:	is that usually harder for you
7	P60:	yes (.) because I cannot catch (.) exact intonation [(1)] what vocabulary (.) they
8		are yeah
9	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 87

1	P35:	네 [(.)] 만약에 악센트가 안되고 그냥 한 음으로 쫙 얘기하니까 [(.)] 단어가
2		잘 안들리고 [(.)] 그리고 (1) 어~ 음~ 이게 너무 많았어요.
3		*{yes [(.)] if the intonation isn't there and because she just uses one tone when*
4		*she speaks [(.)] I can't hear the words very well [(.)] and (1) ohhh ummm she*
5		*used this kind of filler really many times}*
6	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]
7	Interviewer:	this (.) this person
8	P35:	yes
9	Interviewer:	so you think she's flat
10	P35:	yes
11	Interviewer:	does that make it harder for you
12	P35:	<+>
13	Interviewer:	if someone speaks with more intonation (.) is that easier
14	P35:	yes 왜냐하면 (.) because (.) 그래야 단어가 잘 들리는데 (1) 한 음으로 (.)
15		얘기하니까 (.) 오히려 막 단어가 이어서 들리는 그래서 잘 모르겠어요 [(1)]
16		<+> (.) 그리고 어 음 이런게 많으니까 집중이 잘 안됐어요
17		*{yes because (.) because (.) if it's like that I can hear the words better but (1)*
18		*since it's one tone (.) when she speaks (.) I heard it like the words were all*
19		*connected instead and that's why I couldn't understand [(1)] <+> (.) and since*
20		*there are so many ohhs and umms I couldn't focus very well}*
21	Interviewer:	[<+>]

In Extract 86, P60 stated how the South African (L1 Afrikaans) male audio recording used 'intonation [that] is almost the same' and that because of this they were unable to understand the vocabulary with any degree of certainty. On the same plane, P35 also made the same reference to difficulty in comprehending vocabulary in Extract 87 by underlining that the Korean (weakly marked) female 'just used one tone' and how they 'could not hear the words very well' as a result. These observations were supported by P35 returning a Hard to Understand 2 rating, which was accompanied by a slightly comprehensible 2.00 comprehension performance. P35 added further support to these claims in Extract 87 by expressing their contrastive experiences in that a more active intonation pattern equates to the participant 'hear[ing] the words better'. The points raised by P35 indicate that a more active intonation may allow for increased comprehensibility, which, on the lexical level, may be linked with word stress. In addition to these observations, P35 also referenced filled pauses and how these being used 'many times' led to the participant 'not being able to focus very well'. In sum, the reference to filled pauses and the possibility that an active intonation directed at the lexical level were points both raised by P35, and it is possible to see how intonation may not be an independent prosodic feature affecting comprehensibility for KLE, but rather, how an 'intonation+1' situation is possibly arising.

6.4.3 Rhythm, Pausing, Connected Speech, and Filled Pausing

The prosodic features falling under the umbrella of rhythm and pausing are frequently mentioned in relation to their perceived effects on comprehensibility. In this area, four sub-themes will be drawn on in this section (see Table 6.23). On the most general level, rhythm in its pure form as rate of delivery is raised in terms of slow versus fast, which also relates to pausing. Building from this, aspects of rhythm on a more closely judged plane relating to a continuum of connected speech and liaison will be introduced as well. The final rhythmical element addressed in terms of effects on comprehensibility is that of filled pausing.

Table 6.23

Sub-themes Identified within Rhythm, Pausing, Connected Speech, and Filled Pausing

Identified Sub-theme	Description
Rate of delivery	Perceptions of rate of speech; expressed as fast vs. slow, and not fast vs. too slow
Pausing	Appropriate pausing in terms of adequate positioning and timing; aspects related to lexical and/or syntactic chunks vs. a constant stream of speech
Connected Speech	Tri-level delineation expressed ranging spanning word-by-word delivery, lexical chunks, and connected speech with liaison; focus is largely on word endings and if they are clearly cut or connected with following words
Filled Pausing	Use of filled pausing in speech; received as a distractor

6.4.3.1 Overall Rate of Delivery. The KLE mentioned rate of delivery in terms of fast versus slow on multiple occasions. One of the participant's beliefs, expressed in Extract 88, was that a slower delivery was easier to understand than a faster delivery:

Extract 88

1   Interviewer: why do you think she's so easy to understand
2   P36:   she speak slow [(1)] before (1) any speakers (.) she's the most slow speaker

Speaking in relation to the Philippine (weakly marked) female audio recording, P36 believed the slower delivery of this speaker against the other audio recordings made it easier to understand. This may have contributed to the overall comprehension performance of the audio recording (*Mdn*=4.00, *IQR*=4.00-5.00; see Appendix D, Table 13.5). Furthermore, this same idea of slow vs. fast with respect to the British male audio recording was expressed in Extracts 89 and 90.

Extract 89

1   Interviewer: what do you think about this person
2   P11:   <+> (.) was (.) veryyyy easy to understand
3   Interviewer: why do you think it was easy
4   P11:   was (.) <+> (.) not fast (.) was <+> good accent (1) <+> (1) pronunciation was
5   good (.) <+>

Extract 90

1	Interviewer:	<+> (.) and (.) why do you think he's hard to understand
2	P35:	<+> (1) 빨라요 빨라서 (.) 빨라서 잘 모르겠어요
3		*{<+> (1) fast fast so (.) it was fast so it's hard to understand}*

While P11 clearly expressed in Extract 89 the speaker was 'very easy to understand' because it was 'not fast', this excerpt illustrates how perceptions of rhythm are individual to the participant. This is further evidenced through the exchange with P35 shown in Extract 90 relating to the same British male audio recording, where the participant believed the speaker 'was fast so it's hard to understand'. Extracts 89 and 90 serve to capture that perception of rhythm is individual and may not be generalisable. Additionally, these extracts also reinforce that rhythm is connected with perceptions of comprehensibility. One reason for this may be associated with what P13 referred to in Extract 91.

Extract 91

1	P13:	her voice is (1) 목소리는 너무 큰 건 없는데 [(.)] 약간 너무 빨리 말해서 (.)
2		제가 이렇게 (.) 이해할려고 했는데 (.) 그냥 정리가 안될정도로 너무 빨르게
3		말해서 (1) 문제가 말하고자 하는 걸 모르겠어요
4		*{her voice is (1) the voice in not loud but [(.)] she speaks a little too fast so (.) I*
5		*was like (.) trying to understand but (.) I just couldn't organise my thoughts*
6		*because she spoke too fast so (1) I don't know what the answers to the questions*
7		*were}*
8	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Here, P13 claimed the Canadian female was 'a little too fast' and as a result, the participant 'couldn't organise [their] thoughts' while listening. This inability to process their thoughts clearly on the receptive level led to the perception that comprehensibility was reduced, and may lead to what P30 referred to in Extract 92 when discussing the Irish male audio recording.

Extract 92

1	Interviewer:	why do you think he's so hard to understand
2	P30:	너무 빠르고 발음도 잘 안 들리고 (2) 그래서 (.) 뭔 내용인지 하나도
3		모르겠어요

| 4 | | *{it was too fast and I couldn't hear the pronunciation very well (2) so (.) I* |
| 5 | | *couldn't understand the content of what he was saying at all}* |

As mentioned by the participant in Extract 92, 'it was too fast' and this led to the belief that the participant 'couldn't understand the content of what he was saying at all'. It is important to note however, that while a faster rate of speech may make the audio more difficult to understand, a slower delivery does not automatically equate to the audio being easier to understand (see Extract 93).

Extract 93

1	P22:	@@@ (.) .hhh (.) <+> (.) someone speaks slow (.) I can understand more easier
2		so [(.)] but but (2) 너무 느리면은 (.) 너무 느린 것은 더 좋진 않지만 (.) <+>
3		(.) 적당히 (.) slow @@@
4		*{@@@ (.) .hhh (.) <+> (.) someone speaks slow (.) I can understand more*
5		*easier so [(.)] but but (2) if it's really slow (.) it's not good if it's really slow but*
6		*(.) <+> (.) a little (.) slow @@@}*
7	Interviewer:	[<+>]

P22 indicated in Extract 93 that there appears to be a cut-off point suggesting perceived rate of speech interconnects with perceived comprehensibility along a cline through expressing that while a slow delivery may help with understanding, 'it's not good if it's really slow'. P12 demonstrated this concern when speaking of the Korean (marked) female audio recording in Extract 94.

Extract 94

1	Interviewer:	ok (1) since it's so slow (.) <+> (1) do you think it was easy to understand
2	P12:	no
3	Interviewer:	what was (.) why (.) what made it hard to understand
4	P12:	<+> (.) too slow (1) <+>
5	Interviewer:	so if it's too slow its harder (.) for you
6	P12:	yeah (.) 너무 느려가지고 (1) 뭘 말하고 싶은지 모르겠어요 (.) <+> 이거를
7		영어로 설명할 수 없네 [(.) @@@]
8		*{yeah (.) it's really slow and (1) I don't know what she wants to say (.) <+> I*
9		*can't explain this in English [(.) @@@]}*
10	Interviewer:	[@@@]

P12 observed that the speaker was 'too slow' and concluded that 'I don't know what she wants to say' in Extract 94. There is no further elaboration on why this 'really slow' delivery made it harder to understand, and again, the observation is still an individual one, however, it appears to have contributed to the participant returning a Hard to Understand 2 rating. This individualisation is captured in Extract 95 through P18's comments.

Extract 95

1	P18:	perfect @@@ (1) <+> (.) because she speak very slowly [(.)] make people can
2		understand (.) nobody <+> anybody can understand [(1)] if she explain (1) and
3		(.) she using very simple English (.) also <+> (1) her pronunciation (.) not that
4		bad [(.)] yeah so-so (1) <+> and easy to understand (1) but I don't know (.) <+>
5		I'm sure (.) she's not a good <+> she can be a good teacher some day (.) not now
6		not now (.) and (.) as a speaker English speaker she's very well (.) so I envy her
7	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

P18 believed the rhythm of the same Korean (marked) female audio recording was 'perfect' because 'anybody can understand', which was supported by the overall comprehension performance figures (*Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=4.25-5.00; see Appendix D, Table 13.5). Essentially, through looking at these contrastive stances, some clarity can be uncovered by focusing on what P63 stated in terms of suitability in Extract 31 (see Appendix X). The observation of P63 was that the speed of the Philippine (marked) male audio recording was 'suitable for me' and that was why the speaker was 'clear' and the participant's 'favourite'. The strength of the commentary from P63 was supported by the Easy to Understand 3 rating returned together with the figures of a comprehensible 5.00. Ultimately, this displays how individual perceptions of rhythm can affect perceptions of comprehensibility, and it further elucidates how these individual judgments are aligned to an internal baseline that KLE may establish.

6.4.3.2 Pausing. In terms of pausing, this feature may be adjudged differently to rate of delivery, even though it is interconnected. The interactions with the participants reference how pausing is an independent prosodic factor of which they are conscious, as in Extract 96.

Extract 96

1	P18:	yeah but she she's not (.) she says not slowly [(.)] she's she's voice speed is
2		enough to fast anddd (.) she has little accent [(1)] she (.) using the English word
3		(.) <+> (1) 적당한 적당한 단어 (.) 적절한 단어로 했고 [(1)] <+> (.) and <+>
4		잘 쉬었어요 (.) 쉼이 딱 좋았어요 (.) 한 문장 말하고 딱 쉬고 한 문장 말하고
5		딱 쉬고
6		*{yeah but she she's not (.) she says not slowly [(.)] she's she's voice speed is*
7		*enough to fast anddd (.) she has little accent [(1)] she (.) using the English word*
8		*(.) <+> (1) enough enough vocabulary (.) the vocabulary is appropriate and*
9		*[(1)] <+> (.) and <+> she paused well (.) the pausing was good (.) saying one*
10		*sentence and pausing and saying one sentence and pausing}*
11	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

P18 made clear reference to pausing as a factor independent of rate of delivery in Extract 96, where they began by exploring how the Australian female audio recording was 'not slow' and that the 'speed is enough', which possibly refers to what has been mentioned in terms of suitability. However, going beyond this, the participant identified how the speaker 'paused well' and that the 'pausing was good'. Further explanation came from exemplifying how the structure followed a 'saying one sentence and pausing' style of delivery. P27 probed why this style of delivery may be important to increasing perceptions of comprehensibility (see Extract 97).

Extract 97

1	P27:	yes (1) <+> easy easier (.) <+> (.) .hhh (1) 말하고 말을 하는 그 사이 텀이
2		길어가지고 (.) 그 사이 동안 이제 (.) 말하는 게 이해 이해하는 시간을 가질
3		수 있었어요
4		*{yes (1) <+> easy easier (.) <+> (.) .hhh (1) the length of the pause between the*
5		*speaking is quite long (.) that period in the middle (.) I can understand what is*
6		*being said during the time taken in between speaking}*

In the exploration across Extract 97, P27 observed that the Korea (marked) female audio recording used a 'pause between the speaking [that] is quite long', and this is an integral point because the participant claimed they 'can understand what is being said during the time taken in between speaking'. In other words, the listener processed what had been said by using the pauses, which prepared them for the next

part of the delivered utterance. Conversely, Extract 98 indicates that the absence of pausing appeared to have the opposite effect.

Extract 98

1	P35:	<+> (.) 선생님이라고 했을 때 (.) <+> (.) 일단 빠르고 생각할 시간을 좀
2		안주는 거 같아요
3		*{<+> (.) as a teacher well (.) <+> (.) firstly it's too fast and I think she doesn't*
4		*give us time to think}*
5	Interviewer:	for you
6	P35:	yes (1) 지금 이게 설명하는 그런 거잖아요 (1) 근데 (.) 두서 없이 얘기해요
7		[(.)] 그 뭐라고 하지 (1) 그니까 (1) 어 그냥 (.) 어려워요
8		*{yes (1) so this is explaining something (1) but (.) there's no logic to the*
9		*speaking [(.)] what can I say (1) but (1) umm just (.) it's hard}*
10	Interviewer:	so you've said she's very fast [(.)] <+> (.) is there anything else
11	P35:	<+> (.) 이 사람도 그게 없어요 쉬는 거 [(.)] 그래서 잘 못 알아 듣는 거
12		같아요
13		*{<+> (.) this person doesn't have a pause [(.)] so I think that I can't understand*
14		*very well}*

P35 expressed that the Canadian female audio recording does not include pausing and that it was due to this that they believed they could not understand (see Extract 98, lines 11-14). The rationale behind this declaration from the participant appears to be that the faster rate of delivery combined with the lack of pausing removes the 'time to think'. This runs alongside what has been explored above, where there is a pronouncement that the inclusion of pausing allows the listener to process an utterance. Therefore, through this negative observation there is a possibility that a lack of pausing reduces the potential for listeners to process utterances efficiently, and leads to the belief that the utterance is more difficult to understand.

6.4.3.3 Connected Speech Continuum. While rate of delivery loosely looks at the perceived speed of an utterance, and pausing looks at the time between utterances, a similarly connected factor is that of connected speech. The cline that KLE have identified in this space is the level to which an utterance involves liaison presence in the lexical chunks. On the negative level, connected speech is identified as hindering comprehensibility, as purported in Extract 99 by P56.

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Extract 99

1	Interviewer:	why do you think it's more hard (.) more difficult
2	P56:	<+> 자신감이 없으면 일단 목소리가 약간 조금해지고 (.) 단어가 또박또박
3		나오지 않고 [(1)] 약간 끝을 흐리게 되는 그런게 있어서
4		*{<+> if I don't have confidence firstly the voice is bit low and (.) it doesn't come*
5		*out word-by-word [(1)] the endings are a bit muddled together so that's why}*
6	Interviewer:	[<+>]
7	Interviewer:	why do you dislike him so much
8	P56:	I only think @@@ (2) I can't hear anything
9	Interviewer:	do you think you've heard (.) this kind of accent before
10	P56:	no
11	Interviewer:	no (.) this is maybe the first time
12	P56:	<+> .hhh (.) 사투리가 있는 영국사람 같은데 @@@
13		*{<+> .hhh (.) it sounds like a British dialect @@@*
14	Interviewer:	how do you feel about UK English
15	P56:	very hard to understand
16	Interviewer:	why do you think that difficult
17	P56:	어 내가 제가 공부했던 거랑 발음 자체가 달라서 [(1)] 아 똑같은 단어인데
18		다른 느낌
19		*{<+> it's different to what I've studied [(1)] it's the same words but a different*
20		*feeling}*
21	Interviewer:	[<+>]
22	Interviewer:	how is it different
23	P56:	뭐라 해야돼지 (.) th 발음 (.) 아하 (.) 으음 (.) .hhh 아 약간 발음 자체가 (.)
24		굴르는게 많아서 (.) 스무스 하게 넘어가는 게 많아서 알아듣기가 좀 힘든
		(1) .hhh 뭐라 해야돼지 @@@
25		*{what should I say (.) the TH sound (.) ahhh (.) umm (.) .hhh <+> a bit of*
26		*pronunciation itself (.) is rolling a lot (.) and there are many things skipping*
27		*smoothly so it's a bit hard to understand (1) .hhh what should I say @@@}*
28	Interviewer:	you went like this (.) do you you mean 억양
29		*{you went like this (.) do you you mean intonation}*
30	P56:	very smooth so (.) not (.) 이렇게 단어들이 끊어있지 않아서 (1) like a two
31		word [(.)] sound one
32		*{very smooth so (.) not (.) like these words aren't cut off (1) like a two word [(.)]*
33		*sound one}*
34	Interviewer:	[잘 끊지 않아]
35		*{[the words don't separate well]}*

In this exchange, P56 explored how the South African (L1 Afrikaans) male audio recording does not allow the words to 'come out word-by-word' and that 'the endings are muddled together' (see Extract 99, lines 2-5). These assertions were why the participant perceived this speaker as more difficult to understand and may have contributed to the overall comprehension performance (*Mdn*=2.00, *IQR*=1.00-3.00; see Appendix D, Table 13.5). Later in the exchange, the participant alluded to being unfamiliar with the pronunciation of the audio recording, but also reaffirmed that the pronunciation 'is rolling a lot' and 'many things [are] skipping smoothly so it's a bit hard to understand' (see lines 23-27). To ensure that P56 was not referring to intonation, confirmation of the meaning was sought, with the participant confirming that the words were not 'cut off', which suggested that liaison and connected speech were the factors referred to as increasing the perceived difficulty.

In contrast, clearly enunciated word endings have the inverse effect, as P56 posited in relation to the British male audio recording in Extract 100.

Extract 100

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P56:	제일 알아 듣기 쉬웠던거 같애요 지금 4명 중에 제일 알아듣기 쉬웠던 거
3		같아요
4		*{I think he was the easiest to understand of the four I've listened to so far}*
5	Interviewer:	why do you think that
6	P56:	발음도 되게 또박또박 잘 끊어서 했고 약간 외국인이 듣기 좋게
7		*{the pronunciation was really word-by-word with well cut endings and this*
8		*foreigner was good to listen to}*

Here, P56 believed that 'the pronunciation was really word-by-word' which resulted in the speaker being 'the easiest to understand' for the participant, and was supported by the participant recording 4.00 for comprehension performance. A clearer definition of word-by-word expression was provided by other participants (see Extracts 101 and 102).

Extract 101

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about [this speaker]
2	P20:	[@@@] (.) last time same (.) best <+> (.) very <+> (.) easy understand and (.) so

3		(.) very slow speech (.) and I (.) easy (.) easy listening the word (.) very <+>
4		또박또박
5		*{[@@@] (.) last time same (.) best <+> (.) very <+> (.) easy understand and*
6		*(.) so (.) very slow speech (.) and I (.) easy (.) easy listening the word (.) very*
7		*<+> word-by-word}*
8	Interviewer:	everything's separate
9	P20:	yeah (.) <+> (.) two boys (.) <+> (.) cutting watermelon (.) yeah
10	Interviewer:	that makes it easier for you
11	P20:	yeah

Extract 102

1	Interviewer:	why do you think he's easy to understand
2	P55:	<+> 왜냐하면 <+> (.) 단어만 문장을 막 (.) 수식 안하고 딱 단어만 말했고
3		[(.)] 그리고 (.) <+> (.) 딱 잘 들렸어요 이렇게 맞물리지 않고 (.) 발음
4		*{<+> because <+> (.) just words the sentences were <+> (.) not modified and*
5		*were just purely words that he spoke and [(.)] and (.) <+> (.) I understood it*
6		*right away there's no overlap like this (.) in the pronunciation}*

In brief, P20 surmised that the Korean (marked) female audio recording was 'word-by-word' by using the Korean word for this concept, which ensured a clearer definition was established through eliminating the possibility for a misrepresentation to occur through their English use (see Extract 101, lines 4 and 7). Furthermore, P55 put forth a more descriptive definition in Extract 102 that promoted how 'there's no overlap […] in the pronunciation', which can be considered an extension of the word-by-word observations and also serves to show the contrast with the overlapping nature of connected speech identified by the KLE. Through these contrasts it can be deduced while liaison and connected speech are perceived as more difficult on the receptive level, a cleaner and clearer word-by-word delivery may be perceived as easier to understand. However, this is not to say that all clean and clear word breaks assist with comprehensibility, as they must be broken into appropriate contextual boundaries. P13 explored how these 'breaks' may fall in inappropriate places (see Extract 103).

Extract 103

1	Interviewer:	why do you dislike so much
2	P13:	she (.) speak (.) very slowly and (.) 문장 문장으로 끊어서 말해서 (.) 이해가

3		좀 많이 안되고
4		*{she (.) speak (.) very slowly and (.) because she's speaking sentence-by-*
5		*sentence (.) it's a bit not understandable}*

P13 broke down how the Korean (weakly marked) male used a 'sentence-by-sentence' delivery, which possibly contained elements of the word-by-word approach combined with elements of connected speech. The ultimate claim of the participant was that 'it's a bit not understandable'. It is possible that the participant was able to understand parts of the utterance; however, it appears that due to the sentence-by-sentence delivery there were disconnects between sentence comprehensibility and comprehensibility of the overall content. This may have been due to the participant not having the ability to maintain focus on the rhetorical development of the speaker, which was an aspect raised in Extract 104 by P61.

Extract 104

1	Interviewer:	why do you think you can't focus
2	P61:	can
3	Interviewer:	can't @@@
4	P61:	can't focus @@@
5	Interviewer:	@@@
6	P61:	<+> (1) he (1) when he say (1) he <+> (1) he he didn't say straight <+> (.) 아
7		뭐라 그래야 돼지 쭉 말 않하고 (.) 중간 중간 끊어서
8		*{<+> (1) he (1) when he say (1) he <+> (1) he he didn't say straight <+> (.)*
9		*<+> what should I say he doesn't speak continuously and (.) in the middle he*
10		*stops in the middle}*
11	Interviewer:	he doesn't finish the word
12	P61:	finish
13	Interviewer:	he stop start (.) stop start
14	P61:	<+>
15	Interviewer:	is that usually harder for you
16	P61:	<+> (1) no not (1) I (.) can <+> [(2)] 요점을 모르겠어 (.) 질문에 답을 해야
17		되는데 [(1)] 말을 하다가 멈추고 (.) stop start stop start (.) 집중 안돼요
18		*{<+> (1) no not (1) I (.) can <+> [(2)] I don't get the point (.) I have to answer*
19		*the questions but [(1)] he speaks and stops (.) stop start stop start (.) I can't*
20		*focus}*
21	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]

Through the exchange in Extract 104, the impact this sentence-by-sentence or chunk-by-chunk approach has on perceived comprehensibility can be explored. P61 discussed how through this kind of 'not speak[ing] continuously' and 'stop[ping] in the middle' it was difficult to focus on the subject at hand. This is different to how thinking time created through pausing can give KLE processing opportunities, and promotes that both pausing and chunking need to be appropriately conceived and perceived in order for it to assist receptive comprehensibility. P62 further explored this notion in Extract 105 when discussing the Philippine (marked) female audio recording.

Extract 105

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P62:	<+> (.) I can't (.) I can't understand this speaker
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that
4	P62:	<+> because (.) she used simple language but (.) her pronunciation is (.) like (.)
5		more (.) bo-bop de-de
6	Interviewer:	can you explain that (1) bo-bop de-de
7	P62:	<+> (.) bo-bop de-de is like (.) he can (.) not speak very well (.) like (2) hesitate
8		[(.)] so I can't understand her (.) speaking
9	Interviewer:	[<+>]
10	Interviewer:	and if someone speaks (.) with a lot of hesitation [(1)] is that usually harder for
11		you
12	P62:	[<+>]
13	P62:	yes
14	Interviewer:	is she fast (.) slow (.) normal
15	P62:	<+> (1) slow
16	Interviewer:	if someone speaks slowly [(.)] do you usually think they're easy to understand
17	P62:	[yes]
18	P62:	<+> I think (.) if speaker's speaking speed is slow I can understand more easily
19		(.) but (.) now her speaking is just not slow (.) like [(.)] hesitate and slow [(.)] is
20		more (1) make confused (2) yes
21	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]

The consensus presented by P62 in Extract 105 is how a slower delivery is often easier to understand. Yet, there are other factors to take into account. Firstly, the participant referred to the speaker 'not speak[ing] very well' because they 'hesitate', which resulted in the participant claiming that they 'cannot understand'. Further elaboration of this came through describing how the speaker is 'just not slow', but

rather, is 'hesitat[ing] and slow'. The result of this combination was that the participant became 'confused' and had difficulties with understanding. One interpretation of what the participant may mean by hesitation, can return us to the 'stop-start' notion previously identified; however, it may justifiably be a reference to inappropriate pausing, which, if considering how someone may actively be construed as hesitating while speaking, then this idea could also extend to encompass filled pausing.

6.4.3.4 Filled Pausing. In raising the issue of filled pausing and its effect on comprehensibility, there was a negative association delineated by several participants, which underscores that this is a key prosodic factor affecting comprehensibility. On the most basic level, Extract 106 introduces the issue.

Extract 106

1	Interviewer:	why is he hard to understand
2	P13:	첫 부분이 약간 아 음 이게 길어서 (.) 듣기 힘들었다
3		*{the first part has a few ahhh umm and these are too long (.) so it's hard to*
4		*understand}*

Here, P13 stated that the Korean (marked) male was 'hard to understand' because 'the first part has a few ahhs and umms'. In more detail, P49 also identified filled pausing as a factor; however, the participant did not declare that there was a direct relation with understanding (see Extract 107).

Extract 107

1	P49:	.hhh (1) 말을 하다가 중간에 (.) 음 (.) 이런 시간이 좀 [(.) 많았던 거]
2		*{.hhh (1) in the middle of his speaking (.) ummm (.) there was a lot of this}*
3	Interviewer:	[mmm mmm]
4	Interviewer:	if someone uses (.) lots of (.) mmm mmm (.) does that make it harder for you
5	P49:	<+> (.) 어렵진 않은데 (.) 집중이 잘 안돼서
6		*{<+> it's not harder but (.) I can't concentrate}*

While the participant believed that the Korean (marked) male audio recording had 'a lot of this' kind of 'umm' in their speaking it was 'not harder'. However, the overarching claim was that P49 could not concentrate because of the filled pausing.

Similarly, P35 also referenced this concentration issue in Extract 87 (see Appendix B) in relation to the Korean (weakly marked) female audio recording. P35 ultimately mentioned how 'since there are so many ohhs and umms [they] couldn't focus very well' (see Appendix B, Extract 87, lines 14-20). In spite of this, as with other prosodic factors raised in this section, the filled pausing did not appear to be an independent factor. Throughout the exchange, the participant referred to intonation and how the speaker 'just used one tone when she spoke'. In addition, the participant also considered how they 'heard it like the words were all connected', which is an extrapolation of connected speech and liaison. In these cases, P35 believed that the monotonous, connected delivery combined to create something that was difficult to understand, while the participant only explicitly mentioned filled pauses in terms of how they were not able to 'focus well' as a result. It is possible that the combination of three of these prosodic factors conspired to culminate in an utterance that was more difficult for the participant to understand. However, it is equally possible that the participant was able to differentiate the perceived effects of these factors. Either way, through the excerpts explored here, it can be concluded that filled pausing appears to have an immediately negative effect on perceptions of comprehensibility. The question remains, though, is this a direct or indirect effect?

6.4.4 Paralinguistic Features

Moving away from the prosodic factors affecting receptive comprehensibility levels in KLE, paralinguistic features must also be explored. Of these, the KLE explicitly mentioned two with direct reference to comprehensibility (see Table 6.24). These were the notions of talking to oneself and a voice qualification identified as coughing.

Table 6.24

Sub-themes Identified within Paralinguistic Features

Identified Sub-theme	Description
Talking to oneself	Idiosyncratic tone present in the delivery; received as a private monologue
Voice qualifications	Coughing sounds; act as a distractor

In terms 'talking to oneself', this was primarily mentioned in relation to the Irish male audio recording:

Extract 108

1	Interviewer:	<+> (1) different reason [(.)] if there [are any] if there any different reasons
2	P43:	[<+>] [<+>]
3	P43:	<+> (.) it's <+> another reason is <+> (.) is <+> (.) 중간에 혼잣말 많이 한 거
4		같아요
5		*{<+> (.) it's <+> another reason is <+> (.) is <+> (.) I think he talks to*
6		*himself a lot in the middle}*
7	Interviewer:	how do you feel when someone speaks like that
8	P43:	그냥 it's not <+> (.) it's too hard to concentrate
9		*{just it's not <+> (.) it's too hard to concentrate}*

As expressed by P43, 'I think he talks to himself a lot in the middle'. The resulting effect of this was that it was 'too hard to concentrate'. Thus, while the participant did not claim that talking to oneself had a direct effect on comprehensibility, it did negatively affect concentration, which can indirectly affect perceived comprehensibility and/or comprehensibility. P53 supported this assertion further in Extract 60 (see Appendix B), where the participant identified the speaker as 'talking to himself'. The culmination of this is that P53 was unable to clearly determine 'whether this person was talking to himself or speaking' (see Appendix B, Extract 60, lines 15-20). Due to this, the participant became 'confused', which reinforces the negative association in the effects of comprehensibility, as was raised in reference to P43 in Extract 108. Across the four playlists, this paralinguistic feature may be a contributor in the overall comprehension performance of the Irish male audio recording (*Mdn*=2.00, *IQR*=2.00-3.00; see Appendix D, Table 13.5).

The second paralinguistic feature identified as holding an effect on comprehensibility was coughing, as was discussed across Extracts 109 and 63.

Extract 109

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P60:	yeahhhh (.) to understand (.) her speaking was difficult to me (.) yeah because (.)
3		suddenly (.) her voice was changed (.) maybe because of (.) she was to cough or
4		(.) yeah (.) because yeah (.) andddd (.) because of that one (.) I cannot (.) I

5		couldn't understand well [(.)] yeah
6	Interviewer:	[<+>]
7	Interviewer:	why do you think
8	P60:	because (1) like (1) pardon (.) why do you think
9	Interviewer:	@@@ yeah I didn't finish the question (.) you just started speaking
10	P60:	@@@
11	Interviewer:	why why do you think (.) <+> (.) her changing her voice (.) made it harder for
12		you
13	P60:	just (1) I can not (.) be adapted her voice (.) her changed voice [(.)] yeah (1) like
14		(.) while someone talk to other other someone (.) yeah (1) to change the voice is
15		(.) makes someone (1) really weird (.) yeah (.) @@@ (1) like (1) for instance (.)
16		to me (.) I just (.) when I yeah (.) when I study TOEFL [(.)] TOEFL speaking (1)
17		and I just tried to record my voice before (.) and then (.) I listened (.) but (.) at
18		that time (.) I tried to speak English (.) for TOEFL (1) I (.) caught a cold (.) and I
19		just sneezed and coughed (.) and it makes my voice weird (.) and it cannot be
20		understandably [(.)] understandable yeah (1) it is sameee reason
21	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

In Extract 109, P60 expressed that they 'couldn't understand well' because 'suddenly the voice was changed'. Essentially, the participant believed the Philippine (marked) female audio recording wanted to 'cough'. The result of this paralinguistic change was that the participant proclaimed that they were unable to 'adapt [to] her voice'. This may allude to the notions of calibration and normalisation (Bross, 1992; Field, 2008), and how these processes were broken; however, it may equally be due to the participant's focus in the listening being broken through the voice qualification having more prominence in the listening. The result of this could be that the participant was unable to refocus sufficiently for perceptions of comprehensibility of the listening to be restored. Although, beyond this possibility, P60 reflected on their own situation where they have inadvertently recorded their own sneezing and coughing in a spoken performance for their own English study and this resulted in their own voice being construed as 'weird' and not 'understandable'.

Similarly, P49 also referred to 'coughing sounds' and how they affected perceptions of comprehensibility due to the possibility that coughing impedes comprehensibility through interfering with calibration and normalisation (Bross, 1992; Field, 2008). This was supported by P49, who stated that 'I was really surprised because of the

coughing sounds' (see Appendix B, Extract 63, lines 4-5). Interestingly, the assertions of P49 also seem to be aligned with the assertions made above, in that the participant discusses how 'it wasn't that hard and if I listened more I might get it'. This conveys the interpretation that the coughing appears to have interrupted the participant's concentration and that with opportunities to re-attune through additional listening, comprehensibility, while perceived to be negatively impacted in the moment, may not have been negatively impacted overall.

6.5 Summary of Factors Affecting Perceived Comprehensibility and Comprehension

The findings presented in this chapter explored perceived comprehensibility and English listening comprehension via different channels. When looking at the semantic differential item of Easy-Hard to Understand, it appears that KLE have rated perceived comprehensibility independently of perceived speaker origin. This is evidenced through speakers of the same origin returning contrasting results, with this same phenomenon apparent when looking at the comprehension items. The value of this finding is that it serves to underscore how KLE may have based their judgments on more than the perceived identity of a speaker. While it is not possible to determine, without exception, the extent to which language attitudes influence perceived comprehensibility, there is a suggestion that KLE in this study primarily attending to the utterances presented did not allow attitudes towards a perceived identity of speaker influence perceived comprehensibility on a major scale, which also applied to their comprehension performance.

The correlational aspect of this study indicates that perceived comprehensibility played a more significant role than actual comprehension in the expression of language attitudes; although, as underlined above, there is also the possibility that language attitudes can hold some influence over perceptions of comprehensibility and/or comprehension. Moreover, when unpacking the qualitative data, it is clear that KLE developed base factors that either helped or hindered their uptake in their perceived comprehensibility beliefs. In this area, four superordinate categories were formed that included: (1) Familiarity and Comfort; (2) Voice Clarity, Tone, and Intonation; (3) Rhythm, Pausing, Connected Speech, and Filled Pausing; and (4) Paralinguistic Features.

1. In terms of familiarity and comfort, KLE believed the more familiar they were with an English variety, the more comprehensible it was, and this deduction worked *vis-à-vis* with less familiarity and perceptions of lower comprehensibility.

2. In terms of the role voice played in perceived comprehensibility, KLE believed a clearer delivery with an emphasis on enunciation was more comprehensible than a less clear delivery. Additionally, and as was explored in Chapter 5, perceptions of the emotional perceptions of the speaker through tone of delivery also acted as contributors. This was evident when turning to perceived comprehensibility, as KLE believed a more positive tone was easier to understand than a negatively weighted tone. Similarly, a more active intonation pattern was often perceived as more comprehensible than a flatter intonation pattern, which could have been perceived as boring and result in a loss of listener focus.

3. The multi-faceted area related to rhythm was founded in the overarching concept of rate of delivery with a faster delivery often perceived as less comprehensible while a slower delivery was perceived as more comprehensible. This was not an all-encompassing generalisation, however, as KLE also proposed that a delivery that is too slow could impede perceptions of comprehensibility. Linked with rate of delivery was pausing, with KLE asserting that effective pausing allowed the listener to process the utterance, whereas a lack of pausing or ineffective pausing impeded comprehensibility perceptions and may have confused the listener. This concept carried over into the connected speech continuum with KLE proposing that if liaison was present in an utterance, it was perceived as more difficult to comprehend, while clearly defined lexical boundaries executed appropriately aided perceptions of comprehensibility; this included both individual lexical item boundaries and lexical chunk boundaries. A factor that could impede these lexical boundaries was the prosodic factor of filled pausing, which was discussed by KLE as having a negative impact on perceived comprehensibility through its affect on listener concentration.

4. Paralinguistic features also impeded perceptions of comprehensibility in KLE. The KLE mentioned the notion of talking to oneself and the voice qualification of coughing as comprehensibility perception hindrances. The

KLE indicated these features did not directly impact perceptions of comprehensibility; rather, they impacted the listening process resulting in an indirect effect on perceptions of comprehensibility.

The data explored and themes developed in this chapter allow rumination of the extent to which perceived comprehensibility and listening comprehension are potentially influenced by prosodic and paralinguistic factors.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the findings of the research related to perceived comprehensibility and English listening comprehension across multiple planes. The quantitative data presented firstly drew on perceived comprehensibility ratings from the semantic differential data before transitioning into listening comprehension. The quantitative side of the data was wrapped up by looking at correlations existing between language attitudes and comprehension. In building the chapter from the quantitative side of the data, context was provided to better position the qualitative side that offered the thick description of the issues at hand. A thematic exploration of the qualitative data was delineated across: Familiarity and Comfort; Voice Clarity, Quality, Tone, and Intonation; Rhythm, Pausing, Connected Speech, and Filled Pausing; and Paralinguistic Features. Across these themes, perceived comprehensibility indicators were often related to levels of familiarity, positivity, and clarity. The latter point of which – clarity – related to both clarity on the vocal or enunciation level and clarity on the rhythm level, which interacted with connected speech and filled pausing. From this final point, the notions of calibration and normalisation may be regarded as ongoing or recurrent and may hold the potential to contribute to perceived comprehensibility levels and/or listening comprehension performance. This concludes the findings of this research, and provides the drive for prominent issues raised in this and the previous chapter to form the basis for the discussion in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION

7.0 Introduction

In this chapter, key findings that emerged from the data presented in Chapters 5 and 6 will be discussed. This chapter will address six themes that arose with discussion connecting these themes to aspects of language attitudes and comprehensibility of English varieties from perspectives of KLE with the final theme developing from language attitude formation and transitioning into Korea's educational policy and TESOL hiring practices. Each area discussed interacts with contemporary literature of relevance.

The six themes discussed are:

1. The roles of intonation and emotional transference in language attitudes of KLE;

2. The roles of familiarity relationship with listening performance and language attitudes of KLE;

3. The roles of intonation, weak forms and connected speech in listening performance and language attitudes of KLE, and how they interrelate with LFC and ASEAN ELF features;

4. The roles of perceived speech rate, liaison, and pausing in listening performance and language attitudes of KLE;

5. The role of paralinguistic features in impeding comprehensibility through the interruption and resetting of the calibration and normalisation processes of KLE;

6. The role of perceived speaker origins and the (in)accuracy of origin identification in connection with teacher hiring practices in Korea.

7.1 Theme 1: The Roles of Intonation and Emotional Transference in Language Attitudes of KLE

This research contends that language attitude formation stems from the intonation of an utterance and how this operates on a continuum of KLE passing judgment. In the broadest sense, the first encounter with a speaking style is important for how that

speaker may be judged as a teacher. An example put forth by P42 across lines 2-4 of Extract 21 (see Appendix B) stated that 'many students in Korea evaluate the teacher [through…] their intonation or pronunciation'. Through this claim, it is possible to see that intonation may have played a role in attitude formation for this KLE, which extended to encompass the notion of what contributes to making a good or bad teacher. This idea, where intonation acts as attitudinal director, is also promoted in the literature (Brown, 1990; Mennen, 2007; Szczepek Reed, 2012; Tatham & Morton, 2006; Wharton, 2009, 2012). Wharton (2009, p. 141) explores this further in stating that prosodic features, including intonation, "typically create[s] impressions, [and] convey[s] information about emotions or attitudes", which is aligned with Tatham and Morton's (2006) observation that tone of voice plays a key role in attitude and emotion detection.

One aspect may include a perceived detachment of the speaker, which is evidenced through interview comments towards the Ireland male audio recording. While the feature responsible for the attitude of KLE in the instance explored in Extract 61 (see Appendix B) has been coded as paralinguistic, it is still intonational delivery driving the feature and feedback. For instance, P60's comments in Extract 61 create a negative impression through exemplifying how KLE felt 'awkward' (see lines 4-5). Further to this awkward impression, the run-on effect of this delivery style may develop a negative attitude toward teacher suitability, as P44 expressed (see Appendix B, Extract 62). One consideration in this aspect may be how the delivery intonation was perceived as lacking range, and was therefore 'detached' from the communicative expectation of a classroom environment. This observation interconnects with Mennen's (2007) discussion of pitch range, which Crystal (1969) registers as part of intonation, as a factor contributing to attitude formation. Mennen tenders that a wider pitch range results in a more positive perception formation, whereas the converse is true of a narrower range.

However, beyond intonation acting as an agent for attitude formation, how a perceived emotion can be received by the listener and how this contributes to attitude formation is a point for exploration. In this area, Barsade et al. (2018, p. 1) put forward the term 'emotional contagion', which refers to the "transfer of moods or emotion from one person to another". Furthermore, it is worth identifying how

emotion transference can exist in both positive and negative domains (Barsade, 2002; Johnson, 2009).

Taking on board how emotion may be transferred as a conceptual point that may occur on varying levels, it is possible to identify an instance of this emotional transmission in P43's comments across Extract 17 (see Appendix B), where the participant stated, 'I can feel she is happy', and it was from this positive perception of emotion the participant believed the speaker would be a good teacher. This supports Wharton's (2009) claim that intonation acts as a transmitter of emotion. Beyond this however, there is evidence signalling that emotion may not merely be *transmitted*, but may be *transferred*. It is argued that both verbal and non-verbal communicative elements can contribute to this kind of convergence, as explored in aspects of the CAT (Patterson, 2001; Shepard et al., 2001). Although the case of CAT is founded in interaction, there is potential for a kind of 'internal convergence' to take place. In other words, while there may not be an outward expression of how emotion has been transferred through verbal and non-verbal communicative elements, interlocutors may acknowledge the transference within themselves, which could lead to a convergence of the verbal and non-verbal communicative elements on display.

Turning to how paralinguistic features may also contribute in this domain, comments made against the Philippine (marked) female audio recording drew on the paralinguistic feature of crying and how it carried a negative emotion (see Appendix B, Extract 66). The key point from P24 in Extract 66 was how the crying made them feel 'sad', which was also evidenced in Extract 65 (see Appendix B) from P35, where the participant claimed that 'we became depressed together' (see lines 10-12). The indications here are that emotional transference appeared present. Whether this was an actual transference or a perceptual one cannot be verified here; however, this is documented in fields other than education and may carry applicability to education contexts.

Many of the claims in relation to emotional transference surround NVC, including body language and facial expression (Barsade, 2002; Barsade et al., 2018; Hatfield et al., 2014; Hatfield et al., 1993). Although, the understanding that prosodic factors are

relayers of emotion could extend emotional transference to include these. Furthermore, the underlying emotional weight of an explicitly emotional paralinguistic feature, such as crying, could also be transferred under this notion. Support for the inclusion of paralinguistic features in emotional transference is evidenced through the research of Hawk et al. (2012), who posited that vocal cues could transfer emotion onto listeners. The vocal cues used in their research are documented as corresponding with specific emotions, examples of which denote anger cues as having throaty grunts present, and sadness cues as having sniffles or sobs present. In considering these inclusions and the positioning of this research, it is possible to interpret Hawk et al.'s (2012) research as confirming that paralinguistic features, such as the crying in the Philippine (marked) female audio recording, may be an element of emotional transference requiring greater exploration.

While much of the above has focused on the transference of negative emotion, there are instances that connect with positive indicators. In the case of P54, they may not have directly stated that they were 'happy' as a result of the Philippine (weakly marked) female speaker's happiness, it did signal that in holding a positive attitude, the participant was also holding a positive emotional response, as expressed in the utterance, 'I like her speaking with a smile' (see Appendix B, Extract 15, lines 5-6). Ultimately, this formation, or transference, is said to play a role in group dynamics (Barsade, 2002; Johnson, 2009), and in this regard, the group dynamic of the classroom may be an area for deeper investigation. Hatfield et al. (1993) have noted that exploration of the teacher-student relationship could be an area advanced through emotional transference research, and while Mottet and Beebe (2000) argue that emotional transfer exists in an instructional context, it is unclear who instigates the emotion: teacher or student.

It is through this lack of instigative clarity that the leadership research of Johnson (2009) may act as a guide. In summary, Johnson claims that the emotion and mood of the leader affects the emotion and mood of the follower. This relational power may be interpreted as similar to that of teacher and student. Therefore, it may be possible to assert that the teacher's emotion and mood can affect the emotion and mood of the student, and in turn, the classroom dynamic. In assessing this and by ruminating on what an 'ideal' classroom environment may be, comments located in

Extract 24 across lines 8-11 (see Appendix B) hold importance, where the image portrayed by P45 is that the speaker's voice was 'warm and comfortable' and like 'our mum'. This in itself emits an emotional response where a 'mum's voice', while being something unique to our own individual experience and person, may be something that is possible to interpret to mean that the speaker is caring and offering a safe environment. This in turn could result in the participant feeling at ease and protected, which may result in a more positive classroom dynamic. While this is not evidence of the direct transference of the emotion of leader onto follower, as suggested by Johnson (2009), it does offer some insights into the directions possible for furthering understanding.

7.1.1 Summary of Theme 1

This discussion has explored how aspects of intonation can contribute to attitude formation, and how prosodic and paralinguistic factors can be coupled with emotional transference. Consensus suggested that an engaging delivery with interactive intonation and range could foster a more positive attitude. In turn, positive interactional experiences through an open and warm delivery also carrying positive emotion may result in a more positive classroom dynamic through emotional transference. As the literature denotes, it is unclear in power differential relationships which party instigates the emotional transference, however, this is an area that could be explored further.

7.2 Theme 2: The Roles of Familiarity in Relationship with Listening Performance and Language Attitudes of KLE

A regular concept of this research was the notion of familiarity. Indications from the participants posit that familiarity can interact with both attitude formation and listening performance. This often stemmed from the KLE perceptions that they have been more exposed to American English, which has led to a greater level of US-centric familiarity. This can be seen in the assertion of P31 made in Extract 2 (see Appendix B). By drawing attention to pronunciation through claiming that the 'pronunciation was good […] especially the accent' and continuing this by stating the speaker was from the US, which was 'very familiar', the participant has allowed the inference that American English is the variety they are comfortable with. This would be a valid claim supporting the notion of familiarity if the origins of the

speaker were American. Interestingly though, the speaker in question is the Philippine (weakly marked) female, and through this claim of 'familiarity', the notion of 'perceived familiarity' can be deduced as holding greater importance than 'actual familiarity'. This is supported by Kang, Moran, et al. (2018), whose research indicates that while familiarity plays a role in listening performance it can also extend to how proportionately similar an unfamiliar accent is to a familiar one. This interpretation may extend further by understanding how Philippine English is an American-influenced variety (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Tayao, 2008), which may have inadvertently contributed to the perceived familiarity level.

In contrast, there is an indication that a familiarity inversion can also be true for KLE. With this, a perceived lack of familiarity can have negative effects on listening performance and attitude formation. In this research it was evident KLE drew upon British English with express mention of a lack of familiarity, evidence of which is present in the Extract 4 (see Appendix B). Similarly, P24 inferred that the speaker was difficult to listen to because of KLE experience with American English throughout their schooling (see Appendix B, Extract 74). It appears that Korea's English education system breeds a perceived familiarity with American English, which was supported by the claim that 'when we have a class, American pronunciation is used more than British pronunciation' (see lines 7-12). This belief is underpinned through the developmental history of Korea's English education system, which has held American English speakers in high esteem (Choi, 2006; Chung & Choi, 2016; Kwon, 2000; Lee, 2004), and continues with KTE perceptions reviewing American English as a practical model for KLE (Ahn, 2014). The contemporary presence of American English in Korea is further evidenced through the statistics identifying US passport holders as the most prevalent foreign residents holding E-2 visas (Korea Immigration Service & Ministry of Justice, 2019).

The run-on of this appears to be a negative effect for non-American-influenced speakers. Extracts 4 and 74 (see Appendix B) have theorised that the participants could not understand clearly because of the 'British pronunciation'. P40 reinforced this across Extract 75 (see Appendix B) by underscoring how the situational circumstance may have altered their point of view. The participant indicated that 'if I learned British English continuously from being young, then when I hear British

English it would be easier to understand because it would be more familiar'. While this conditional could be labelled as a generic lack of familiarity with a specific variety due to circumstance, it may be more effective to build on discussions of how a lack of familiarity with the phonological and prosodic features of a specific variety can impact listening performance (Brown, 1990; Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Smith & Bisazza, 1982). Further to this, there are overtones that these features may align with accepted norms and that divergence from these norms or expectations could affect familiarity levels (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Hung, 2003; Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Nelson, 2011; Olson Ramig, 1992; Weismer & Martin, 1992). This is important to contemplate as it is within the power of educators to develop familiarity in learners. Yet, to do so effectively, adequate training and exposure must be implemented.

Taking the attitude of P24 expressed in Extract 3 (see Appendix B) on board, KLE appear alert to how increasing familiarity may contribute to developing listening performance. The positive outlook across lines 5-8 stating that 'if this person became a teacher I can become more exposed to British pronunciation' shows confidence and optimism in being open to that having greater opportunities to develop familiarity with the variety. In the first instance, this aligns with observations that familiarity can bridge the intelligibility gap (Crystal, 1997; Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Smith & Bisazza, 1982). Secondly, this also appears to draw on the proposition that the listener will be able to attune through becoming more accustomed to the speech and its patterns, which could contribute to an increased listening performance (Galloway & Rose, 2014; House, 2008; McLellan, 2017).

In addition to this, P43 referred to a similar concept in Extract 73 (see Appendix B), and even though it was raised when commenting on a familiar variety, developmental issues arose. While P43 commented that they 'can understand [Korea English] straight away' due to the levels of exposure they have accrued, the participant stated that 'if I hear foreigners talking like this, suddenly it changes and I think that it's a little difficult'. They continued by contemplating that through 'becom[ing] familiar with it, it'd be easy'. Overall, this was similar in concept to the utterance from P24 across Extract 3 (see Appendix B) in that they both believed developing familiarity with less familiar varieties of English would also develop

listening performance. However, the developmental role familiarity plays should not be restricted to listening performance alone, and can extend to the attitudinal level, where the major assertion is that a more positive perception can be formed through a greater degree of familiarity (Cameron & Galloway, 2019; Fang & Ren, 2018; Galloway & Rose, 2014; Hansen Edwards, 2019; Lee & Hsieh, 2018; McKenzie, 2008; Pollard, 2011a, 2016; Tanghe, 2014).

This observation leads into how increasing familiarity levels could also positively affect ELF development. The literature posits that the role of the teacher in international communication developmental contexts is to bring a greater exposure and awareness to GE and its WE and ELF branches (Blair, 2017; Cameron & Galloway, 2019; Dewey, 2012; Dewey & Patsko, 2018; Renandya, 2012; Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2018; Tanghe, 2014). An initial point of call here though is that to implement greater exposure, teacher education needs to embody the movement. Dewey and Patsko (2018) argue that raising awareness is the first stage in developing ELF pedagogically, and this has the potential to influence attitudes of educators toward the practicalities of GE and ELF-aware practices. In this respect, research claims that teachers performing in local contexts framed in SE and without GE awareness can develop a more positive attitude toward GE through their own increased exposure (Cameron & Galloway, 2019). The essence of this positive development relies on teacher education's potential to facilitate educators in becoming an 'agent of change' within TESOL (Blair, 2017). However, it must be pointed out that active engagement with the relationships between local context, GE, WE and ELF requires critical reflection by individual teachers (Dewey, 2012; Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2018).

With teachers acting as the agent of change in this domain, exploring classroom practice and its potential becomes possible. An example of classroom implementation may be through drawing on online-accessible extensive listening resources to increase listening exposure in areas that can serve to increase both familiarity with specific English varieties and familiarity with prosodic factors, such as weak forms and connected speech patterns potentially present in specific English varieties (Lee & Hsieh, 2018; Lee & Lee, 2019; Renandya & Jacobs, 2016). Similarly, this would serve to develop a demi-international experiential learning

context for English learners, where developing their listening performance may positively impact attitudinal development (Hansen Edwards et al., 2018). However, as language is a personal tool, restricted online exposure may not be adequate in and of itself. With this, the question of softening educational and immigration policies relating to country of origin may become an active discussion in efforts of increasing face-to-face communication opportunities and regional familiarity across ASEAN+3 for KLE in the current ELF climate.

7.2.1 Summary of Theme 2

The discussion in this section has drawn on the notion of familiarity and its interaction with listening performance and attitude formation. Overall, it is suggested that if a listener perceives a greater degree of familiarity with an English variety, it is perceived as more comprehensible and a more positive attitude will often be present. This position is *vis-à-vis* regarding decreased familiarity. In addition to the general notion of familiarity, it was highlighted that preconceived expectations and familiarity with prosodic factors can hold similar roles. Throughout the discussion the literature confirmed the claims of KLE in these areas, and when working together, prompted the proposition that increasing exposure to a wider range of English varieties for learners of English may have positive washback in not only listening performance and language attitudes, but also for GE and ELF communication.

7.3 Theme 3: The Roles of Intonation, Weak Forms and Connected Speech in Listening Performance and Language Attitudes of KLE, and How They Interrelate with LFC and ASEAN ELF Features

To position this theme it is important to revisit ELF, its developments, and current location. To reiterate briefly, while ELF1 developed around describing pertinent language features (e.g. the LFC), the paradigm transitioned into ELF2, which focused on interlocutor interaction (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b). The current state of ELF however, is positioned as ELF3, which locates English within a multilingual framework (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b). As explored in Chapter 3, this study takes the position that, while ELF may now be located within a multilingual framework, early research in the field still applies to TESOL. This positioning is especially the case when joined by the umbrella of GE and the role awareness-raising and exposure activities are said to hold across the frameworks

(Cameron & Galloway, 2019; Dewey & Patsko, 2018; Fang & Ren, 2018; Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2018). It is through an extrapolation of the roles awareness-raising activities can play that aspects of the LFC and observed ASEAN ELF features can be considered.

Listening performance and language attitude formation in KLE cover two areas aligned with the LFC and observed ASEAN ELF features. One feature perceived as impacting listening performance and language attitudes is connected with intonation. There is an observation that active intonation patterns assist with increasing comprehensibility levels, as evidenced by P42 (see Appendix B, Extract 84). The 'up and down' the participant has referred to is an active intonational pattern, which assisted the participant in 'catch[ing] the word' and was also mentioned in response to the reasoning for 'liking' the speaker. This observation was made in relation to the Philippine (weakly marked) female audio recording, which also returned one of the highest quantitative results for overall comprehension performance (*Mdn*=4.00, *IQR*=4.00–5.00; *M*=3.96, *SD*=1.07) on the 5-point comprehension rating and the most positive Like-Dislike rating of all speakers on the 7-point semantic different (*M*=5.50, *SD*=1.05; *Mdn*=6.00, *IQR*=5.00–6.00). This can be held in contrast with comments relating to the South African (L1 Afrikaans) male audio recording, which returned one of the lowest quantitative results for overall comprehension performance (*Mdn*=2.00, *IQR*=1.00–3.00; *M*=1.88, *SD*=1.30; see Appendix D, Table 13.5) and the lowest rating in the Like-Dislike ratings (*M*=2.42, *SD*=1.41; *Mdn*=2.00, *IQR*=1.00–3.00; see Appendix C, Table 12.2). One possible explanation for this is the lack of active intonation, as registered in Extract 86 (see Appendix B) by P60. In announcing 'his intonation is almost the same' and how this resulted in the participant not being able to 'catch [the] exact intonation [of the] vocabulary', the inference of the level to which a listener perceives the presence of active intonation may have an effect on listening performance. While this could be a direct effect, how it may have an attitudinal effect indirectly influencing listening performance may not be discounted.

Extract 26 (see Appendix B) moved the focus away from difficulties a lack of intonational variation may have had and positioned the focus to the attitude that resulted from the lack of intonation through P37 stating 'I can't feel interest from

their voice, so […] I don't want to listen to it'. This utterance indicates that listening performance may become compromised by language attitudes stemming from intonation patterns. In this area, whether a lack of intonation directly or indirectly impacts listening performance and language attitudes requires further investigation to understand the relationship more completely. In spite of this, it is of interest that while the LFC does not address intonation in depth beyond nuclear stress, there is an observation that other intonational factors are non-essential for intelligibility (Jenkins, 2000). This is not to say this is a limitation of the LFC, as Jenkins' intention was to use the LFC as a starting point for discussion (Jenkins, 2010, 2015a), which is also the intention here when considering the current state of ELF research. Firstly, this is due to this intonational impact not being concretely explored in this study. Secondly, this is due to intonation being a prosodic feature that includes multiple aspects simultaneously represented (Crystal, 1969; Szczepek Reed, 2006, 2012). Despite this claim, KLE have raised intonation as a factor affecting their listening performance and language attitudes, and similarly, intonation was also raised in the recent study of Kang, Thomson, et al. (2018) as a feature holding a key role in listening performance. In consolidating these assertions, it may be suggested that there is a need for a greater determination of the level to which intonational patterns may positively or negatively affect comprehensibility and language attitudes in communication. For, as Romero-Trillo and Newell (2012) believe, any prosodic feature discernible by the human ear has the potential to be a feature of importance.

Further to this notion of discernibility, there exists an issue raised by KLE transgressing pronunciation and connected speech boundaries. In this domain the interview excerpts where KLE refer to notions of 'clarity' hold importance, and which, in the first instance, may be interpreted as 'clarity of pronunciation' or 'enunciation'. P39 suggested in Extract 78 (see Appendix B) that the Korean (weakly marked) female's pronunciation 'is very sure', which was extended to include the notion of 'clear enunciation'. The claim was that this clear enunciation made the speaker easier to understand. This view is held in contrast with comments made against the South African (L1 Afrikaans) male, who returned some of the lowest ratings for overall comprehension performance (*Mdn*=2.00, *IQR*=1.00–3.00; *M*=1.88, *SD*=1.30; see Appendix D, Table 13.5). In this space, P32 made direct reference to 'unclear enunciation' as a contributing factor to the difficulty (see

Appendix B, Extract 110) and P24 presented further clarification of what this 'unclear enunciation' may mean in Extract 111 (see Appendix B). The interpretation of how 'the pronunciation isn't exact' was expanded on in Extract 111 to include a perception of 'mumbling'.

However, as mentioned above, whether these notions of enunciations are an independent feature of pronunciation or one transgressing connected speech boundaries remains unclear. For, in turning to P54, 'mumbling' may be a perception of how the use of weak forms and connected speech features appeared (see Appendix B, Extract 80). While P54 referred to the speech pattern as 'mumbling', further explanation in the exchange stated that 'the words […] weren't separated or enunciated clearly'. This statement moves the discussion into the prosodic realm of connected speech, and in essence, how this negatively affects listening performance due to word boundaries becoming blurred, which is something supported through the claims of Renandya and Farrell (2011). The idea of blurred word boundaries was raised directly by P17 as having negative effects (see Appendix B, Extract 47). In stating that 'the words are not breaking clearly', there was a clear connection with what Renandya and Farrell (2011) discuss. Furthermore, the comment relating back to how these blurred word boundaries also interacted with levels of 'comfort' also indicates an underlying connection with language attitude formation. In this case, this was a negative impact.

In contrast to the negative interactions brought forward, there is also evidence underlining that a lack of weak forms and connected speech positively affected listening performance and language attitudes. P56 argued that the British male 'was the easiest to understand [because] the pronunciation was really word-by-word with well cut endings', which also made 'this foreigner good to listen to' (see Appendix B, Extract 100). This is an important assertion in that the participant is not only offering opposing evidence to the earlier commentary surrounding how weak forms and connected speech can negatively impact listening performance and language attitudes, but also in that, an absence of weak forms and connected speech can actually increase perceptions of listening performance. When returning to the LFC, weak forms are identified as non-essential prosodic features for intelligible communication (Jenkins, 2000); however, in examining the observed features of

ASEAN ELF, weak forms are not described as *non-essential,* rather, they are *not in evidence* (Kirkpatrick, 2010a). Through this we may also draw on the claim from Jenkins (2007) that the LFC attempts to reduce pronunciation features in an effort to make the task easier. This is relevant when placed alongside the premise that ELF is concerned with how variation, adaptation and modification present in the communicative act and may encompass translanguaging (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2018a). In essence, the way in which the British male in this study has been viewed as omitting weak forms and connected speech could be an achievable translanguaging modification with positive implications.

7.3.1 Summary of Theme 3

This section has discussed two prosodic features of relevance for the continued development of ELF by revisiting aspects of the LFC in conjunction with the ASEAN+3 context of this research. Firstly, in terms of intonation, it was determined that while intonation beyond nuclear stress is deemed non-essential in the LFC, there is evidence indicating that an *active vs. flat* intonation pattern can impact both listening performance and language attitude formation in KLE. Although, as intonation is also described as a 'plastic' feature encompassing multiple prosodic factors simultaneously, there is a need for more refined research in the area to ascertain if specific intonation thresholds for what constitutes *active* or *flat* from the perspective of learners of English exist. Secondly, in terms of connected speech and weak forms, evidence from KLE suggested implementations of these features have negative impacts, whereas the absence of these features has positive impacts.

7.4 Theme 4: The Roles of Perceived Speech Rate, Liaison, and Pausing in Listening Performance and Language Attitudes of KLE

An additional prosodic factor important to KLE receptive listening performance and language attitude formation is the perception of speech rate. When discussing speech rate, KLE also expressed how pausing and chunking are perceived as contributors. Building from these relationships, this section will begin with a raw look at speech rate before progressing into areas of pausing and chunking.

A common deduction from KLE was that a speech rate perceived as fast was more difficult to understand. P13's claim that 'I just couldn't organise my thoughts

because she spoke too fast' points to how a faster rate of speech can affect processing fluency (see Appendix B, Extract 91). In this case, the perception that the speech rate was 'too fast' may have credence in relation to this study. This is because when looking at the audio recordings in detail, the comment was made against the Canadian female, which was one of the faster audio recordings at approximately 142 words per minute (wpm). This rate of speech however, falls within the norms for lecture rates and normal speech (Kennedy, 1978; Street & Brady, 1982; Tauroza & Allison, 1990).

An issue to reflect on here may be that proficiency levels of KLE in this study required a slower rate of speech for listening performance to be of a higher standard. In support of this, P18 stated how a slower rate of speech equates to a greater degree of ease in perceptions of comprehensibility and listening comprehension (see Appendix B, Extract 95). The observation from P18 that the Korean (marked) female was speaking 'very slowly' is accurate as the recording is only around 72wpm. The rate of speech in this case also indicates that language attitudes may be shaped with this in mind. While P18 is content in acknowledging that 'as a speaker of English she's very well', there also appears to be an assessment of the rate of speech in terms of suitability as a teacher, as the participant states that 'she can be a good teacher some day [but] not now' (see lines 5-6).

However, these assertions relating to speech rate assisting perceptions of comprehensibility do not say 'slower is better', as P12 claimed against the same Korean (marked) female audio recording that the inverse can also be true (see Appendix B, Extract 94). That the lower rate of speech here impeded the listening performance is interesting as this audio recording returned the highest comprehension performance figures overall (*Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=4.25–5.00; *M*=4.71, *SD*=0.54; see Appendix D, Table 13.5). This reinforces the claims made in the findings that a perception of speech rate can be a personal preference, and whether 'optimal' rates of speech exist requires examination.

With respect to personal preference, P63 suggested a level of comfort with the Philippine (marked) male audio recording, which was produced at approximately 116wpm. Furthermore, the comments from P63 also draw attention to the

interrelationship that was acknowledged between rate of speech and language attitude. As is evidenced in Extract 31 (see Appendix B), the participant has confirmed that this speaker was their 'favourite', with this claim being built from the observation that the 'speed is suitable for me'. Overall, this alludes to how there may exist an optimal rate of speech. While the literature posits that perceptions of speech rate potentially affect listening performance (Buck, 2001; Chang, 2016; Griffiths, 1992; Hasan, 2000; Kang, Thomson, et al., 2018; Renandya & Farrell, 2011; Renandya & Jacobs, 2016; Wang & Renandya, 2012), and KLE even note a slight preference for slower rates of speech (Barnes, 2009), there is not a generalisable claim available through this research. In part, this is because of the blurred lines between rate of speech and its relationship with pausing, especially in terms of assisting processing fluency in KLE. In this space, there is an indication that pausing can be of equal or greater importance than rate of speech alone; it is a prosodic feature signalled by KLE across a range of speech rates, both slower and faster.

To draw expressly on what KLE may be using the pauses for, exchanges with two participants act as exemplars (see Appendix B, Extracts 59 and 97). Across these extracts it is possible to conclude that in using 'terms' (i.e. pausing between words or chunks), KLE were able to process the listening and 'understand easier'. Which may nullify perceptions of speech rate, especially if we turn to Extract 96 (see Appendix B), and the comments P18 made against the Australian female, which was produced at approximately 142wpm. Through evaluating how P18 believed the Australian female 'paused well' by 'saying one sentence and pausing', the potential for deeper exploration becomes visible. This is partially related to Blau's (1990) claim that pausing has a greater impact on comprehensibility than rate of speech. Claims of this nature may firstly connect with their potential to be noticed by the listener (Romero-Trillo & Newell, 2012), and secondly, may be related to the processing fluency ability of the listener. In this respect, Vandergrift and Goh (2012) state that automatic bottom-up processing of an utterance can be problematic, and it is here that effective pausing may facilitate processing (Buck, 2001; Kang, Thomson, et al., 2018).

Here though, it is important to note the distinction between effective and ineffective pausing, which was exemplified in Extract 104 (see Appendix B). As P61 discussed in the extract, 'he didn't say [it] straight […] he doesn't speak continuously and in

the middle he stops […] he speaks and stops'. It appears that through this ineffective pausing pattern, there was damage to how comprehensible the participant believed the utterance to be. This may be because, as Buck (2001) observes, pausing does have the potential to assist comprehensibility, however, this may only be the case if pausing is actually *identified* as pausing. In this respect, the observation from P61 can be approached in two ways. Firstly, the position may be that the speaker has used an ineffective pausing pattern, which led to perceptions of unnatural chunking patterns, and resulted in receptive confusion. Alternatively, the speaker has used an effective pausing and chunking pattern that has not been accurately identified by the listener. In this case the opportunity to engage learner training is presented to develop the listening and processing skills of the subject to develop familiarity with patterns of pausing and chunking in an attempt to contribute to levels of comprehensibility through advancing processing fluency.

7.4.1 Summary of Theme 4

This theme has focused on perceptions of speech rate and the value of pausing in listening performance language attitude development. Overall, there was a marking of how rate of speech is a personal adjudication for KLE, although, this may be due to the language proficiency levels of the participants in this study. While many findings of this study relating to rate of speech and comprehensibility are similar to those previously published, an area that does not appear to have been keenly explored is that of 'optimal speech rates' in listening performance and language attitudes. In addition, with the effect pausing is said to have on KLE listening performance in this study, it would be possible to extend future rate of speech research to more completely understand the role pausing – both effective and ineffective – has on listening performance, and the extent to which it interacts with language attitude formation.

7.5 Theme 5: The Role of Paralinguistic Features in Impeding Comprehensibility through the Interruption and Resetting of the Calibration and Normalisation Processes of KLE

Through this research KLE have expressed how paralinguistic features hold roles in impeding comprehensibility. The way in which KLE have focused on the roles paralinguistic features play in comprehensibility cover several domains and move

from how these features affect the listening stream to demonstrate their potential for contributing to the resetting of the listening process. These themes will be explored in this section.

The first aspect of how paralinguistic features impact the receptive listening stream requires identification of the paralinguistic features in question. Notably, P13 and P49 both commented on how prominently filled pausing impeded their perceptions of comprehensibility. Both participants concluded that the presence of 'umm', when used a lot, led to a negative impact on the listening process. In the case of P13, this made the listening more difficult (see Appendix B, Extract 106); however, while P49 did not believe this to be the case, they believed the filled pausing negatively affected their concentration, and therefore interrupted the listening stream (see Appendix B, Extract 107). One possible explanation for this is presented by Buck (2001), who posits that pausing – both filled and unfilled – can assist the listening process, but only if this pausing is recognised as such. In the cases of P13 and P49, this recognition may not have occurred. This posits that additional listener training to increase familiarity with language as a 'stream' – inclusive of fillers and pauses – may be required to improve the efficiency of these KLE in processing utterances containing filled pausing (Renandya & Jacobs, 2016).

This phenomenon is not restricted to filled pausing however, and encompasses other paralinguistic features. One feature underlined throughout the research in association with the Irish male audio recording was the notion of 'talking to oneself', which has been interpreted as a perception relating to tone of the delivery; however, as this was not a specific tone pattern associated with Irish English, it has been classified as an idiosyncratic feature, and therefore, as paralinguistic.

In the case of this 'talking to oneself' feature, KLE referred to how it affected their 'concentration' (see Appendix B, Extract 108, lines 8-9) or led to questioning the purpose of the speech (see Appendix B, Extract 60). In the cases presented in Extract 108 and Extract 60, the result of receiving the listening stream was similar to filled pausing use. In both of these cases, the result was that the listening stream was interrupted due to mental processing of the utterance. In the first instance, this was underlined as an impact on concentration, which was expressly observed as an effect

of filled pausing. In the second instance, the 'distance' created by the speaker's tone pattern led to the participant claiming they became 'confused' through a lack of confidence in who the message was being delivered to; this is in spite of the research focusing on a one-way listening process. The importance of the impact of this 'talking to oneself' paralinguistic pattern is due to its noticeability by the listener, for as Schiavetti (1992) argues, paralinguistic features that are noticed hold the potential to affect listening. Moreover, while this tone pattern is perhaps not as explicit as a filled pause, it is still discussed by KLE, and is therefore considered as "competing noise" (Archibald, 2017, p. 7). Ultimately, the presence of this feature may be influenced by listeners' 'expectation' (Field, 2008; Olson Ramig, 1992; Weismer & Martin, 1992). The interpretation of this is that divergence from expectation impacts the concentration and focus of the listener and increases the listening workload (Archibald, 2017).

This kind of increase in the workload can be seen through the exchanges with P60 (see Appendix B, Extract 109, lines 1-6) and P49 (see Appendix B, Extract 63) concerning the Philippine (marked) female audio recording and the observed presence of the coughing voice qualification. It is possible to see in both extracts that KLE were taken by surprise by the paralinguistic feature's appearance and this resulted in the audio diverting from expectation. In these cases, P60 stated the voice 'suddenly changed', which led to decreased comprehensibility while P49 registered their 'surprise' at the coughing sounds and proposed how additional listening to the audio recording may allow them to 'get it'. The final section of the exchange with P49 could be interpreted as suggesting that through having experienced the coughing in a first listening, the differing expectation for P49 in a second listening would be informed by being equipped with the knowledge that a paralinguistic feature would appear. This assertion reconnects with the workload associated with the listening, and how it may be reduced (Archibald, 2017).

Taking the paralinguistic features above as a whole however, this notion of workload and expectation can be extended by incorporating the notions of calibration and normalisation (Bross, 1992; Field, 2008). In doing this, it is possible to begin exploring the second aspect of how paralinguistic features hold the potential to reset the listening process. I contend that this resetting of the listening process is taking

place due to the polarity between the listener's expectation of an utterance and the effect these paralinguistic features have. This is due to the listener's expectation interacting with the reality of the utterance in the first 10-15 seconds of its vocalisation where "a set of baseline values" are established (Field, 2008, p. 158). In this initial phase the calibration and normalisation takes place, with it also stretching to encompass paralinguistic features in evidence (Bross, 1992; Field, 2008). However, it appears that paralinguistic features making their first appearance after this baseline has been established may break the listening process and result in the requirement to reset the calibration and normalisation. Evidence of this assertion is visible through the claims of KLE in this section, who draw connections to how paralinguistic features have impeded their concentration and focus, and through this connection it is possible to align this impact to stages of the listening process. One key point of introspection here is that the KLE in this project appear to be ill equipped to deal with the unexpected. This lack of training in how to interpret and understand a stream of speech containing paralinguistic features requires attention if addressing how to prepare listeners for utterances carrying the potential to interrupt and reset calibration and normalisation processes.

7.5.1 Summary of Theme 5

This theme has ruminated on paralinguistic features and how they affect preceptions of comprehensibility through the interruption and resetting of calibration and normalisation processes. A key connection is that paralinguistic features hold the potential to reposition an utterance away from an expectation. This expectation may be pre-conceived, or it may be an expectation formed during the calibration and normalisation process, with the findings of this research proposing that paralinguistic features such as filled pausing hold the potential to interrupt the listening process and reset calibration and normalisation parameters.

7.6 Theme 6: The Role of Perceived Speaker Origins and the (In)accuracy of Origin Identification in Connection with Teacher Hiring Practices in Korea

A recurrent theme of this research surrounds KLE attitudes towards speakers' perceived origins. It is important to reiterate that these KLE were not aware of the speaker's origins and this is why 'perceived speaker origins' are a discussion point. Overall, this section will explore an overarching language attitude KLE appear to

hold with reference to the interrelationship with perceived speaker origins and will extend to how these perceptions may be relevant to language teacher hiring practices in Korea.

A basis to begin this discussion lies in the observation from KLE that Asian speakers of English carry a 'unique accent' not on the same level as 'American or British pronunciation'. P27 discussed this in relation to the Korean (marked) male audio recording across Extract 7 (see Appendix B). According to the participant, this was due to the familiarity developed through exposure to 'Western drama', and it appears to be through this increased perception of familiarity the participant speculated that 'Korean people mainly like native pronunciation'. However, when considering other factors that have influenced Korea's relationship with English, such as the actions contributing to the creation of "American English fever" (Jeong, 2004, p. 40), it may not be just pop culture exposure influencing KLE perceptions in how they perceive an Asian speaker of English. The main factor is possibly the longstanding position of inner circle Englishes in Korea's English education paradigm, and how this has been perpetuated by the country's English education policy (Chang, 2005; Choi, 2006; Chung & Choi, 2016; Hi KOREA, 2020; Jeon, 2009; Jeong, 2004; Kwon, 2000; Park, 2009). Through employing such policies, an established standard of expectation in KLE that an American or British model is provided, and not meeting this expectation may be frowned upon. In support of this final claim, there was evidence of KLE voicing such an opinion, as P59 explicitly underscored when discussing how the speaker in question was unable to pronounce 'properly' (see Appendix B, Extract 112). When probed, the participant's belief was that proper pronunciation is either an American or British model.

This kind of profession relating to specific English varieties is not unique to the KLE of this study however, as it is evident across other Asian domains. For instance, recent research across China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea and Malaysia all illustrate student preferences for native varieties, with particular emphasis on American or British English (Evans, 2010; Fang, 2016; Hansen Edwards et al., 2019; He & Li, 2009; Kaur & Raman, 2014; McKenzie, 2008; Si, 2019; Yook & Lindemann, 2013). Behind these student preferences is the observation that teachers in multiple Asian contexts believe their local teaching contexts are developed around 'standard'

English frameworks (Cameron & Galloway, 2019), which may be a contributor. Furthermore, origin-related attitudes extend beyond both the student and teacher. Research from Chang (2005) has marked that Korean parents connect with the same America-centric preference for English education, while there is also an observation that the extension reaches as far as KTE believing that American English provides the best model for KLE (Ahn, 2014). These observations in the research may not be able to be taken at more than face value, however, and unpacking this claim should become clearer when aligning it with the inaccuracy of speaker origin identification that has occurred in this study.

A case in point assessing speaker origin identification surrounded P24's discussion of the South African (L1 Afrikaans) male. Extract 3 (see Appendix B) shows that the participant believed this speaker was of British origin, and would therefore be a good teacher due to the increased exposure to British English they would provide. This may seem like a minor misidentification if returning to Korea's English education policy and hiring practices to understand how South Africa is one of the seven nationalities with streamlined accessibility to English language teacher employment in Korea (Hi KOREA, 2020; Jeon, 2009). Significantly, it should be in the interests of social justice to inspect this issue more deeply when misidentification of this nature occurs for Philippine English speakers, who are located outside of the seven prioritised nationalities.

A case in point is the Philippine (weakly marked) female, who was viewed positively and misidentified as American. Across Extract 2 (see Appendix B), P31 expressed speed and pronunciation as both 'good' ultimately led to the assertion that the speaker was from the US. A large part of this observation appears to also be related to the perceived level of familiarity the participant has had with this variety of English. Further support of this nature comes from P40, who discussed the level of familiarity Koreans have with this variety of English (see Appendix B, Extract 1). As is evident in the extract however, it is not just the familiarity that was a factor in the judgment formation of P40. Much like P31, there was reference to the pronunciation and accent of the speaker with the overall message that this Philippine (weakly marked) speaker was 'the best'. This perception was supported by the quantitative data with this speaker receiving the highest Good-Bad Teacher rating result (M=5.40,

SD=1.05; *Mdn*=5.00, *IQR*=5.00-6.00; see Appendix C, Table 12.5), the second highest perceived comprehensibility ratings (*M*=5.46, *SD*=1.27; *Mdn*=6.00, *IQR*=5.00-6.00; see Appendix D, Table 13.2), and the third highest comprehension performance figures (*Mdn*=4.00, *IQR*=4.00–5.00; *M*=3.96, *SD*=1.07; see Appendix D, Table 13.5). Factoring these into the equation, perhaps the declaration that this speaker is the best is possible to understand. Despite this, the potential implications this kind of misidentification has when contrasted with the 'NEST is best' argument also exists (Dewey, 2014; Jenkins, 2006; Jeon, 2009; Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Park, 2009).

According to Hansen Edwards (2019), if a speaker is perceived as a NES, a more positive perception is formed. This seems to be an obvious deduction in terms of the nature of the (N)NES dichotomy. What is not obvious however, is that if misidentification occurs and the positive perception is formed – as in the case of the Philippine (weakly marked) female – then who the holder of power is. The discussion in this arena typically favours the NES, but if a NNES is identified as a NES, it may be worth calculating if they are then on par with a NES and what the possible implications of that may be in the wider TESOL context where policy holds much of the weight.

A current push in the literature is for the promotion of the MET within an ELF framework (Blair, 2015; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2010a, 2010b). On one level, this push is driven by communication encounters that learners of English are likely to have, which encompass multiple English varieties across a range of contexts (Dewey, 2014; Galloway & Rose, 2015). In this respect, Jenkins (2018b) posits that the future of ELF is set to include multiple English varieties and multiple languages, with change and adaptation to occur as the situation dictates. An additional level however, refers to the ownership of English. In this case, GE and ELF attempt to position NEST and NNEST equally within TESOL while asserting that hiring practices should mirror the current climate (Blair, 2015; Galloway & Rose, 2015). Despite the challenges that may exist in the initiation of MET-based and ELF-aware hiring practices, such as stakeholder resistance (Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2018), the observation of KLE utilising the Philippines as a study abroad destination (Bureau of Immigration, 2014; *Number of foreign students in the Philippines*

increases, 2013; Satake, 2015; Strother, 2015) combined with the misidentifications that have been unpacked in this section, there is a potential to begin giving legitimacy to the MET for KLE, devoid of origin associations. The implication of which begins to question educational policy in Korea by moving into GE domains, adding legitimacy across the region, and supporting the functional use of English by KLE.

7.6.1 Summary of Theme 6

This theme firstly focused on the perceived origins of the speakers in this research and attempted to highlight instances where a judgment was made based on origin, together with where misidentification of speakers also occurred. One aspect of the message in this section related to passing judgments on whether a speaker was identified as an American or British speaker. The importance of this to KLE may be due to belief that these varieties are given educational power in the Korean English education system. However, where misidentification occurred and an outer circle variety, such as Philippine English, was perceived positively and as an American speaker, the possibility to modernise the educational experience of KLE with active engagements with GE and ELF-aware notions becomes an area of potential exploration. In this respect, a key area for exploration is how to develop awareness and legitimacy for positively perceived varieties of English for the purpose of furthering educational policy and hiring practices in the region, which, while confronting underlying social justice issues, could also positively position valid GE varieties as valid classroom models.

7.7 Conclusion

This chapter looked at six major themes from the research. The discussion began with aspects of attitudinal transfer and its potential role in group dynamics before moving into familiarity's role in language attitude formation and listening performance. Themes 3-5 focused on the main body of the research by travelling across prosodic and paralinguistic features that interact with language attitudes and listening performance. These themes delved into relationships between GE and ELF and the listening process. Beyond these areas, the chapter discussed education in Korea alongside hiring practices. Through each theme, the discussion was developed via interactions with contemporary literature to begin extrapolating the potential for

the implications of the research. Overall, the discussion in this chapter considered a range of overt and covert prosodic and paralinguistic features and their roles in attitude formation and listening performance, while also extending to educational policy domains. These areas offer a starting point for a more detailed exploration of associated implications, which will be a focus of the final chapter.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

8.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the aims, research questions, rationale, research methods, and key findings of the study. It also presents conclusions, recommendations and implications for language education practice, policy development, and further research in the area.

8.1 Study Aims and Research Questions

This study explored TESOL in Korea surrounding KLE and their assessments of relevant English varieties. The English varieties assessed were drawn from those nationalities with streamlined access to E-2 visas in Korea, in conjunction with Korean English and Philippine English (English Program in Korea, n.d.-c; Hi KOREA, 2020; Jeon, 2009). Through focusing on multiple English varieties, the study attempted to draw on perceived similarities and differences across these varieties. In this respect, KLE language attitude formation was incorporated while also considering prosodic and paralinguistic factors (Crystal, 1969; Romero-Trillo & Newell, 2012; Tatham & Morton, 2006). Aspects of listening comprehension spanning these domains were concurrently explored.

The key objectives of the study were:

1. To examine the extent to which non-lexical characteristics of oral delivery across different English varieties influence the language attitudes of KLE, and the extent to which these non-lexical characteristics and language attitudes interact with KLE English listening comprehension.
2. To inspect language attitudes of the KLE and the extent to which these relate to educational practice and/or are influenced by the KLE educational experience.
3. To identify opportunities for informing and enhancing GE and ELF research in the region.

These objectives were guided by four central research questions:

RQ1   To what extent are language attitudes of KLE present in relation to English varieties?

RQ2   To what extent do prosodic and paralinguistic features of English varieties interact with the language attitudes of KLE?

RQ3   To what extent do prosodic and paralinguistic features of English varieties interact with the English listening comprehension of KLE?

RQ4   To what extent is there a correlation between English variety, language attitudes, and English listening comprehension amongst KLE?

8.2 Rationale for the Study

The rationale for this study stemmed from interests in English education policy in Korea and the current international communication climate surrounding GE and ELF. In the first area, Korea's TESOL industry prioritises seven nationalities, which competes with KLE study abroad destinations. These conflicts present an area for potential educational policy progression within Korea through developing a more informed and open position. To give traction to any progression, the communicative level of KLE in terms of GE and ELF required inspection. In this sense, the researcher felt that the inclusion of an outer circle English variety of regional relevance to KLE (i.e. Philippine English) would be integral. The rationale behind this inclusion was to draw on notions of developing awareness and appreciation through exposure (Crystal, 1997; Galloway, 2013; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Renandya & Jacobs, 2016), and to explore if receptive comprehensibility levels across multiple English varieties could be maintained while also determining if perceptions of prosodic and paralinguistic features were independent of variety. The underpinning of this study was to explore the extent to which KLE perceived and received multiple English varieties, which would hold the potential to offer a paradigm for English listening comprehension development in international contexts, and potentially inform GE and ELF research to enhance regional research in the ASEAN+3 context. Furthermore, the opportunity to influence English educational policy in the Korean context by drawing on the human capital of ASEAN+3 could promote social sustainability and contribute to equality and inclusivity across the sector in Korea.

8.3 Research Methods

A phenomenological approach was presented as the lens for this study. The focus was to explore the multiple realities expressed through KLE listening experience and to condense them into an approachable summary (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2003; van Manen, 1990). A convergent design with a qualitative framework was deployed encompassing interviews combined with quantitative components for attitudinal triangulation and comprehension assessment (Fetters et al., 2013). The interaction between the qualitative and quantitative components allowed for deeper exploration of the phenomenon surrounding the English listening experience for KLE. The qualitative data collected was transcribed and analysed following organisation and reduction principles (Hammersley, 2012; Hepburn & Bolden, 2013; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Noerager Stern, 2007; Richards, 2003; Saldaña, 2016; Wray et al., 1998). The quantitative data drew on established protocols from similar studies, but with non-parametric equivalents implemented due to sample size (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Lund Research Ltd, 2018a, 2018b; McKenzie, 2006, 2010). Overall, the data types collected were overlaid to showcase the essence of the phenomena for providing an overview of the prosodic and paralinguistic features of English interacting with attitude formation, perceived comprehensibility and comprehension in KLE.

8.3.1 Participants

This study focused on KLE across multiple campuses of a mid-tier university in an attempt to capture data that may be more representative of typical KLE when positioned alongside socioeconomic factors. However, to satisfy the receptive performance requirements delineated in the research design, a purposeful strategy was deployed drawing on academic performance in compulsory university-level English language classes. This ensured that the participants offered a level of representation as a typical Korean student, while also offering a level of representation as a Korean student engaged with learning English and holding a base level of English, which could also be interpreted as a typical representation of the future user of English beyond the Korea-only context.

8.4 Key Findings of the Study

Six key findings arose through the KLE responses to the multiple English varieties assessed in terms of language attitudes and English listening performance:

8.4.1 Finding 1: Intonation and Emotional Transference Influence Language Attitudes in KLE

This finding arose through responses from KLE exploring how intonation played a developmental role in language attitude formation. Intonation, as expressed by KLE in relation to this finding, aligns with the tone of delivery behind the speaker and not purely the intonation at the utterance level. KLE utterances point to how intonation includes whether they perceive a speaker as approachable, caring, comfortable, happy or professional, or along negative lines such as detached, impersonal or unprofessional. These first level intonation markers help KLE establish initial language attitudes.

However, beyond these initial attitudes, a more developed language attitude can be formed through emotional transference. In its simplest form, KLE posited that when they interpret a positive emotion in speech, they mirror this emotion and more positive language attitudes are developed. Similarly, this applies to negative emotion and negative attitude formation. In this area, there was greater evidence expressed by KLE for negative transference; although, as the notion of emotional transference also relates to group dynamics, it is important to note that KLE began to express an *ideal* classroom environment as one in which the teacher sounds warm and comfortable. This emits a type of emotional transference, where, rather than being a more direct mirror, offers an *appropriate* emotional response to the classroom, environment, and its ideal safe dynamic, which is capable of developing a context-specific but deeper language attitude.

8.4.2 Finding 2: Familiarity Plays a Positive Role in KLE Listening Performance and Language Attitudes

A recurrent concept throughout the study was the notion of familiarity and how KLE indicated that it influences both listening performance and language attitude formation. Here though, the familiarity referred to by KLE also includes perceived level of familiarity. In these areas, the conclusion was that a greater degree of

familiarity – actual or perceived – resulted in more positive listening performance perceptions and more positive language attitudes, with the inverse evident when a lesser degree of familiarity was reported. Focusing on the positive development and formation however, the KLE was aware that increasing familiarity is a trainable mechanism through increasing listening opportunities and exposure. Increasing exposure to a less comprehensible variety of English allows KLE to gain a greater degree of confidence through the belief that they will become more familiar with the variety. In turn, the variety becomes more comprehensible and interacts with the language attitude more positively (Crystal, 1997; Fang & Ren, 2018; Galloway & Rose, 2014; Hansen Edwards, 2019; Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Lee & Hsieh, 2018; McKenzie, 2008; Pollard, 2011a; Tanghe, 2014).

As a point of discussion, the underpinning of the KLE responses presented in this study moved beyond blind exposure and often referred to educational and societal contexts, suggesting that familiarity development in KLE is borne of real life opportunity. Korea's English education foundation of American English presented the perception within KLE that they are more familiar, and therefore, more positive toward American English, where British English was often sidelined through reference to lower familiarity levels because of educational inopportunity. A similar assertion was present when KLE considered their societal English exposure and its lack of 'foreigners'. In this arena, the KLE discussed how the greater opportunity to hear Korea English results in negative listening experiences when encountering non-Korea English within the community and outside of the classroom. However, as with the more general assertions, a more regular and continuous opportunity to encounter foreigners within the community facilitates the development of familiarity, listening performance and language attitudes, which has relevance in both GE and ELF applications.

8.4.3 Finding 3: Intonation, Weak Forms and Connected Speech Play Roles in Listening Performance and Language Attitudes of KLE, and Show an Interrelationship with LFC and ASEAN ELF Features

ELF research is in a constant state of development, and while the arena has moved from the LFC as a factor aligned with ELF1, it still holds relevance for furthering the field by contributing to the current positioning of ELF3 within a multilingual

framework (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b). This is more forthright when considering the field in conjunction with features of ASEAN ELF (Kirkpatrick, 2010a), and the regional extension of Korea in this study. Findings arising from the data suggested prosodic features aligned with intonation, weak forms and connected speech connected with LFC and ASEAN ELF features, and were influential in listening performance and language attitude development.

In terms of intonation, KLE claimed that a more *active* intonation pattern was more easily and more positively received than a *flat* intonation pattern. This could be a welcome discussion point to interact with the LFC that transgresses both ELF1 and ELF2 boundaries by promoting that a higher degree of engagement from the listener due to active intonation pattern perceptions can facilitate a greater degree of positive communication, which is also a key tenet of ELF3 communication (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b). To understand this relationship more completely, it is suggested that a focused inspection of intonation patterns in ELF communication is undertaken in attempts to understand which components of intonation are actors in the determination of whether an utterance is perceived as *active* or *flat*. Furthermore, unpacking these areas against the notion of whether an intonation threshold exists that could indicate how and when perceptions may be influenced holds the potential to inform notions of what may 'best practice' in facilitating ELF communication strategies or participating in ELF communication itself.

With reference to weak forms and connected speech, KLE often referred to these phenomena as 'mumbling' or 'unclear' contrasted with utterances that are 'word-by-word'. In this area, the LFC signalled weak forms as non-essential while they are not in evidence in ASEAN ELF (Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010a). Taking these conclusions on board, KLE in this study displayed a preference for the features being *not in evidence*. Overall, the presence of weak forms and connected speech were confirmed in this research as negatively impacting listening performance and language attitude development, while their absence was more positive. Through these observations, the non-essential nature and potentially detrimental effects of weak forms and connected speech were further confirmed. These findings present developmental opportunities for research in areas pertaining to weak forms and connected speech in ELF communication, where it may be possible to assess whether

a cline exists for indicating where perceptions of 'appropriate' connected speech applications are practical. The implications of which could first transfer to teacher training with attention being paid to classroom delivery and extend into awareness-raising strategies for learners of English to succeed in ELF communication. On the second level, the identification of a cline of this nature could extend into raising awareness in learners of English at both ends of the cline in attempts of developing their receptive skills in communication that may involve interlocutors who are less ELF-aware.

8.4.4 Finding 4: Perceptions of Speech Rate, Liaison, and Pausing are Connected to Listening Performance and the Language Attitudes of KLE

Findings of this study suggested that perceptions of speech rate, liaison, and pausing hold value when it comes to listening performance and language attitude development in KLE. The essence of this domain corresponds with literature in the same arena (Barnes, 2009; Buck, 2001; Chang, 2016; Griffiths, 1992; Hasan, 2000; Kang, Thomson, et al., 2018; Renandya & Farrell, 2011; Renandya & Jacobs, 2016; Wang & Renandya, 2012). This position was furthered through KLE commentary depicting perceived speech rate as an internal interpretation on the personal level and extended to include liaison or pausing. This means that different listeners can interpret speech rates differently due to that listener's English experience or proficiency level, among other factors. This finding marks that while there may exist an 'optimal speech rate', other variables exist that regulate the extent to which speech rate in raw values can be broadly considered. However, when surveying the general perception of speech rate, KLE noted that a faster speech rate was more difficult to comprehend, and in turn, resulted in a more negative attitude being formed. The resulting negative attitude seemed to stem from a lesser degree of confidence in their listening performance and processing fluency. Overall, and in prosodic terms, this faster speech rate perception was found to be overlapping with liaison, and therefore, drew attention to a perceived *lack of pausing*.

In contrast, KLE often drew attention to pausing when commenting on a perceived speech rate that was slower. In this area, there was evidence that a slower rate of speech resulted in a more refined listening performance, which is supported by Buck's (2001) writing. However, as above, this assertion is somewhat individual and

interconnects with KLE experience or English proficiency level. In addition, the finding promoted that a slower rate of speech did not automatically equate to a more positive attitude as KLE drew attention to pausing and chunking realisations as attitudinal factors. Here, the finding that arose is that the fluency of speech and presentation of chunking in a *natural way*, while avoiding increasing speech rate unnecessarily, was a greater factor in developing a positive language attitude than perceptions of speech rate alone.

When taking this finding as a whole though, a deeper interconnection with the notion of familiarity stands at its core. This is highlighted through assessing KLE's exposure and awareness beyond specific English varieties, which promotes reappraisal of familiarity in terms of exposure and awareness of varying speech rates, styles, and pausing or chunking methods. Taking this deeper assessment opportunity, the finding in this area can be interpreted as drawing attention to pushing the notions of an optimal speech rate, style, and pausing presentation for learners of English across varying exposure and proficiency levels.

8.4.5 Finding 5: Comprehensibility is Impeded by KLE Calibration and Normalisation Processes being Interrupted and Reset by Paralinguistic Features Present in Speech

A key finding of this study relates to how paralinguistic features can interrupt and reset the listening process and leads to a decreased listening performance perception. The foundations of this finding are the notions of calibration and normalisation, where the listening process is fronted by a brief period where the listener establishes a base in which the listening process is decoded (Bross, 1992; Field, 2008). However, through the comments of KLE, these calibration and normalisation processes were not a one-time factor and appear to be cyclical through the possibility of being reset when a paralinguistic feature interferes with the stream of audio under processing. Paralinguistic features promoted as holding roles in this area include an idiosyncratic tone interpreted as 'talking to oneself', voice qualifications such as coughing and sighing, and most notably, filled pausing.

In the cases unpacked, paralinguistic features were said to negatively impact the concentration of the listener in the listening process. In the case of an idiosyncratic

'talking to oneself' tone, concentration was affected through the listener's focus being removed from the task due to being unclear about who the intended audience is, and therefore, misinterpretation of the listening purpose. The appearance of coughing or sighing led to surprise and shock in the listener, which repositioned their focus from listening and decoding to the sudden speech change. With respect to filled pausing, the repositioning of focus was still in evidence; however, this was due less aligned with surprise and shock, and more aligned with filled pausing delivery and quality not being adequately related to the stream of speech being processed. In all cases, the overarching principle raised by KLE was that concentration is negatively impacted, which resulted in the pre-established baseline values that were established through the preceding calibration and normalisation process needing to be re-normalised, re-calibrated, and effectively, reset.

8.4.6 Finding 6: The KLE Attitudes towards Perceived Speaker Origins and Their (In)accuracy in Identifying These Origins are Not Aligned with Teacher Hiring Practices in Korea

Partially overlapping with the findings related to familiarity is the final key finding of this research that arose, which, in this instance, is centred around how the perceived origin of a speaker informs KLE's language attitudes and extends to how actual origins of these speakers are not aligned with English teacher hiring practices and visa regulations in Korea. As discussed in this thesis, the English language teacher visa regulations of Korea are guided by citizenship and provide greater accessibility to seven non-Korean nationalities (English Program in Korea, n.d.-c; Hi KOREA, 2020; Jeon, 2009). These nationalities are cross-referenced by KLE with the American English education foundations and preferences of the nation (Choi, 2006; Chung & Choi, 2016; Jeong, 2004; Kwon, 2000), and combine to form the perception that American English receives the most positive language attitude from KLE. However, this research indicated that KLE are often inaccurate in identifying speaker origins, which extended to show that the speakers that KLE identify as non-American origin receive less favourable language attitude feedback. In contrast, speakers misidentified by KLE, but believed to be of American origin, receive more favourable language feedback. The most prominent case in this area is positioned against visa regulations and hiring practices in Korea due to the consistent misidentification of the Philippine (weakly marked) female as an American origin

speaker; the Philippines is an origin falling outside of visa regulations and hiring practices in Korea's English education paradigm. Despite this, in coupling these positive observations with principles relating to notions of MET (Blair, 2015; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2010a), there is a case developing for revision of Korea's educational policy and hiring practices in TESOL.

8.5 Limitations of the Study

This study has presented key findings signalling areas of importance to KLE and their relationship with English and English education policy in Korea; however, there are limitations in the study. Firstly, while this study focused on KLE across multiple campuses of a mid-tier university in Korea to access a cross-section of KLE population attempting to represent what a *typical* KLE may be, this presents a limitation in itself. For while these participants were KLE with diverse, Korea-centric English education experiences throughout their earlier education, they were less diverse with respect to their tertiary education and regional context at that point in their English journey. Despite this study not attempting to produce findings that were generalisable to an entire population, the study context discounts the potential to generalise on face value and illustrates a need for wider research to be conducted across the peninsula to determine the extent to which the phenomena may be confirmed.

Secondly, language proficiency levels of both KLE and the interviewer present limitations. The participants of this study were of a lower intermediate English level, which was a decision made in an attempt to access a *typical* KLE. However, given how the content of the interviews were largely focused on prosodic and paralinguistic features present in audio recordings while seeking thick description of the phenomena, the spoken language proficiency of the participants was a concern. This was alleviated by the interviewer, and in the interviews, through translanguaging when appropriate. The limitation of note here relates to the appropriate degree of language proficiency in both the participant and the interviewer. To effectively conduct the interviews, it is optimal for the interviewer to have the capability to freely comprehend Korean. To maintain as true a representation of the study paradigms as possible, it would be ideal for future interviewers to be proficient L2 Korean users. Yet, possible compromises could

include interviews being conducted by an L1 Korean speaker or through using an interpreter. A point of significance though, is that while these options alleviate the language issue, they do hold the potential to change the interview dynamic.

Thirdly, in addressing the connection between prosodic and paralinguistic features and the extent to which they affect listening comprehension in this study, unscripted audio recordings were produced to present a natural representation of language. However, as the regulation and presence of prosodic and paralinguistic features in the audio recordings were not controlled, much depended on the participants' perceptions of which features were in evidence. Although scripting language together with cues to include specific prosodic and/or paralinguistic features in relative isolation could potentially address this area, this would reduce the *natural* aspect of the speech, which often includes prosodic and paralinguistic overlaps. In addition, this extends to the notion of real world communication, where the reality of which would be built around listeners' perceptions of prosodic and paralinguistic features that may overlap and/or be concurrently present. Despite this, there is a case for scripted speech with regulated prosodic and paralinguistic features to be used, and this could be for the purposes of acting as a confirmatory device in relation to the phenomena raised in this research.

8.6 Implications and Recommendations of the Study

This study has proposed six key areas that could be impacted or developed through the findings that have arisen. These move from general language awareness and developmental opportunities related to KLE and other learners of English, through to more specific aspects that draw attention to prosodic and paralinguistic features of English that can influence language attitudes and listening comprehension, and also consider aspects of teacher training and educational policy. This section will discuss the implications and recommendations related to these areas.

8.6.1 Opportunities for Exposure, Awareness-raising, and Familiarity Development

This study was built around blindly assessed English varieties, from which KLE expressed their language attitudes, which appear to have been informed by established baseline values. Familiarity played a key role in establishing these

baselines; however, in this respect, *perceived familiarity* was more dominant. Findings proposed that perceived familiarity was important in language attitude formation and listening performance. Unfortunately, through comparing these perceptions of familiarity with accuracy of origin identification, it is apparent that identification accuracy is not guaranteed, which can lead to a *false familiarity*. The implication of this is that while the language attitudes expressed by KLE are valid as a whole, they are not as valid when they are expressed against a speaker's origin, if inaccurately identified. This contributes to existing attitudinal studies (Hansen Edwards, 2019; Yook & Lindemann, 2013) in the area by raising researcher awareness of the extent to which learners of English may actually be familiar with an English variety and its features when encountered.

Furthermore, when weighing the implications of false familiarity more completely, there is added support for the need to raise awareness through a GE approach (Fang & Ren, 2018; Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2015, 2018; Sung, 2015). While the Korean English education system is rooted in American English values, and KLE have shown a preference for American English on paper, there are contrastive findings that have positioned a weakly marked Philippine English speaker positively. This case in itself moves that through raising awareness of regionally appropriate English varieties for KLE, there is a possibility to lessen the perceived need for American English. Rather than remove the validity of American English, this is intended to broaden the horizons of KLE through unlocking differing presentations of English that are equally legitimate, particularly across the ASEAN+3 region. This increasing exposure is not a new proposition for TESOL within an ELF paradigm, and has been presented a number of times combined with electronic exposure as a valid means of facilitating awareness raising (Lee & Hsieh, 2018; Lee & Lee, 2019; Renandya & Jacobs, 2016). However, what I am proposing is that purely raising awareness is not sufficient for repositioning attitudes as it does not promote active reflection in the listener or the attitudes expressed. The approach I am seeking draws on active engagement with the false familiarity marked in this study through considered use of GE-centred classroom materials. This is a minor adjustment whereby typical electronic exposure to a range of English varieties may be used by informing students of the origins of the speaker in the recording and then focusing on features in that variety. Rather, I propose that awareness-raising activities be conducted in a

blind manner in its initial stages by *not* informing learners of the origin of the speaker(s) in the recordings used for increasing their exposure. From this stage, the first response elicited from the learners should focus on the reflective aspects of their attitudes, perceptions of comprehensibility, and the perceived origins of the recording's speaker. This offers the opportunity for the learner to express an attitude more directly connected with the vocal realisation of the recording, which may or may not be affected by false familiarity. From this base, it would be possible to move onto identification and discussion, which would enact a greater degree of critical reflection. In turn, this allows learners to treat English varieties more as *English* than as a *variety of English*, which is an underlying principle of ELF communication. Moreover, across this area it would be interesting to explore how extended exposure may contribute to the development of KLE in terms of the potential it holds for impacting international language performance.

8.6.2 The Appropriacy of Visa Regulations and Hiring Practices Related to Teacher Origin in Korea

This study has displayed how attitudes held by KLE towards the nationality of a potential teacher are often underpinned by the KLE understanding that they are primarily taught American English due to the position American English holds in Korea's English education structure (Ahn, 2014; Chang, 2005; Choi, 2006; Jeong, 2004; Kwon, 2000). This is supplemented by Korea's English language teaching visa restrictions and how these inform Korea's hiring practices, especially within EPIK (English Program in Korea, n.d.-c; Hi KOREA, 2020; Jeon, 2009). Overall, the combination of these factors contribute to maintaining the NEST-NNEST *status quo* in Korea; however, the findings underscore that attitudes, perceptions of comprehensibility and comprehension of the English varieties aligned with Korea's language teaching visa policies do not always result in positive outcomes, which is coupled with the level of (in)accuracy KLE have in identifying speaker origins. In addition, Philippine origin English speakers were positively received in both language attitude and listening comprehension in this study. This finding, when combined with the quantity of Koreans who study English in the Philippines (Bureau of Immigration, 2014; *Number of foreign students in the Philippines increases*, 2013; Satake, 2015; Strother, 2015), signals that English language teaching visa regulations and hiring practices in Korea both require revision to better align with the role

English performs locally, regionally and globally. The rationale behind this is simply that if a regionally appropriate English speaker is viewed positively but falls outside the boundaries of acceptance, there is a need for revision. Support in this area has been promoted previously with the proviso that visa regulations and hiring practices consider more than nationality by also including a teacher's training (Blair, 2015; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2010a). The underlying argument in this domain highlights how highly trained English teachers may be overlooked or excluded due to their nationality, and this is an aspect of English education that is not congruent with the social justice that is promoted within and across other industries. The result of which is not just ignorance when it comes to offering equal opportunity to those in TESOL, but also the lack of attention it pays to a key stakeholder within TESOL – the learner. In attending to this more critical stance, the outcome holds the potential to lead to a higher degree of validity being placed in the MET and the roles they hold with TESOL in contemporary ELF-aware times.

Calling for policy revision is inadequate by itself, and this is where additional steps raising stakeholder awareness need to be taken. In recent times, KLE have been travelling to the Philippines to study English, and this is increasing the legitimacy of Philippine origin teachers in the KLE context; however, it does not directly contribute to the legitimacy of Philippine origin teachers *in* Korea. To contribute in this area there must be increased awareness across multiple stakeholders, and this requires action at the policy level. To push this area in the right direction, there is firstly a necessity for further research in the area, where an explicit focus is on outer circle origin teachers of English from the ASEAN+3 region in reference to KLE[2]. This could add to the legitimacy of the revision calls through raising awareness in a broader base of KLE while also providing opportunities to raise awareness in the Ministry of Education and policy makers. It is from this developed research base that a proposal for policy revision could be promoted, which, to increase the possibility of acceptance may require a multi-stage approach implementing teacher exchanges or trial teacher placements across the peninsula instead of a blanket revision. In actioning a multi-stage approach that actively places ASEAN+3 teachers in Korean English classrooms, this would lessen the chances for hiring bias to take place in the

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[2] Outer circle is referred to here as a starting point for broaching the topic of educational policy in Korea, given the current practice built around the inner circle.

recruitment phase, and actively engages stakeholders in assessing the appropriacy of hiring based on teacher origin.

8.6.3 Intonation and Emotional Transference's Influence on Language Attitudes in the Language Classroom for Informing Teaching Practice

The notions of how language attitude development can be influenced by a speaker's intonation and result in aspects of emotional transference is largely derived from other fields (Barsade, 2002; Barsade et al., 2018; Hatfield et al., 2014; Hatfield et al., 1993; Johnson, 2009; Mottet & Beebe, 2000), but also needs further exploration when taking the language classroom context into consideration. More specifically, the exploration required surrounds how prosodic and paralinguistic factors might contribute to the presentation of speech and how this presentation results in emotional transference. Furthermore, this leads into an exploration of the levels at which the transference occurs. When reflecting on the findings connected to this area, we may recall that pure emotions, such as happiness, are not the only elements involved. This is especially the case when recalling that a 'professional' teacher tone prompted an *appropriate* student response. It is with this in mind that this recommendation is founded and proffers the explicit proposal that a deeper exploration of the transference is required where assessing the roles of interactions and relationships in the process is integral.

One way in which an assessment of emotional transference could be enacted might be through classroom observation or classroom recording leading into a reflective teaching cycle. The feedback or analysis of these observations or recordings could be used to interrogate instances of potential emotional transference in the classroom and identify the dynamics surrounding it. Moreover, the identification of such instances could present opportunities for focus groups involving those in cases of potential emotional transference to reflect on the instances identified. Additionally, the focus group itself would also open the possibility of additional emotional transferences to occur, which could be unpacked at the time. While this is a research-driven initiative, an initial assessment of this nature could help to inform the field in how emotional transference can be identified in the classroom and what its potential outcomes are. From this base, the practicalities could become a component of teacher education, whereby, the understanding is that teachers would be equipped to begin identifying

emotional transference in their classroom and act accordingly in the reflective teaching cycle. Understanding emotional transference in the classroom could help in assessing teacher-student interactions and how emotional transference has the potential to influence teaching practice on both individually reflective and teacher training levels, which may serve to modify classroom discourse, improve classroom dynamics, and lead to increased teacher acceptance with more positive student evaluations. Similarly, assessing student-student interactions for emotional transference can prompt teacher reflection on student' group discourse and interaction and allow the teacher to pay attention to group dynamics to maximise a supportive and positive learning environment.

8.6.4 Intonation Patterns, Weak Forms, and Connected Speech and Their Interrelationships with Listening Performance and Language Attitudes

A key finding from this research drew on two overarching prosodic features of relevance to the LFC and ASEAN ELF: *active vs. flat* intonation; and weak forms and connected speech. As discussed in Chapter 3, ELF has progressed from the LFC (Jenkins, 2015a, 2015b, 2018a, 2018b), and ASEAN ELF does not appear to make use of the prosodic features discussed (Kirkpatrick, 2010a). Despite the movement, the findings of this study demonstrate that contributions to the field could continue by considering the KLE's commentary.

Firstly, in terms of intonation, it was signalled that while intonation beyond nuclear stress is deemed non-essential in the LFC (Jenkins, 2000), there is evidence indicating that an *active vs. flat* intonation pattern can have an impact on both listening performance and language attitude formation in KLE. However, as intonation is also described as a 'plastic' feature encompassing multiple prosodic factors simultaneously (Nilsenova & Swerts, 2012), there is a need for more refined research in the area to ascertain if there are specific intonational thresholds for what constitutes *active* or *flat* from the perspectives of learners of English. While this current study assessed language on the receptive level, it may be beneficial to implement a study with emphasis on two-way communication. This would allow for additional factors to be considered, which may extend to include notions of familiarity and/or convergence and divergence from intonation pattern expectations.

Secondly, in terms of weak forms and connected speech, evidence from KLE posits that the implementation of these features has a negative impact, whereas their absence has a positive impact. This observation, taken in conjunction with the LFC's non-essential categorisation of this feature together with its reported absence in successful ASEAN ELF communication proposes that the *non-essential* could be 'upgraded' to a *do not teach*. This is not to be taken as a blind claim, and it is imperative that further research be conducted in the area before instigating such a 'ban'. However, through determining the extent to which weak forms may impede receptive comprehensibility, while an absence of weak forms actively increases receptive comprehensibility, there is the potential to influence the teaching of English for *lingua franca* purposes, which could also extend to include materials development, the implication of which could lead to developing a revised framework for informing more successful and positive ELF interactions.

8.6.5 Pausing and Chunking Awareness and Their Interrelationship with Listening Performance and Language Attitudes

Effective listening requires the ability to decode language as it is presented, which requires both bottom-up and top-down processes (Brown, 1990; Field, 2008; Lynch, 2006; Vandergrift, 1992). While this research has not assessed the listening processes involved, it has drawn attention to the KLE's attention to a range of prosodic factors such as speech rate, pausing and chunking. It is possible to view speech rate as an independent factor, but as the findings drew attention to a faster perceived speech rate as also providing evidence for a lack of pausing, it is in the areas of pausing and chunking that extra attention should be paid. A first stop is to increase exposure to a range of pausing and chunking patterns. Through developing listening opportunities in these areas via a form of extensive listening training for decoding the 'stream' of language (Renandya & Jacobs, 2016), perceived rates of speech may also be impacted as the listener could become more aware of the pausing that is present, and become more capable of using these features for listening performance.

In terms of research opportunities, I open the call for additional research that can more accurately examine the level in which pausing and chunking play roles in listening performance and attitude development, and furthermore, could examine if

the same pausing and chunking qualities are related factors in two-way communication. Through developing listening comprehension research in this area further, which may include listeners across multiple proficiency levels, and/or similar concepts in two-way communicative contexts, there is the potential for teaching practice and materials development in the region to be advanced. If stretching this, we could also inspect how greater awareness in this area could extend to include appropriate listener training through raising familiarity levels with pausing patterns via extensive listening, which in turn, could become a beneficial factor in enhancing ELF communication in the region if coupled with exposure to regionally appropriate English varieties.

8.6.6 Calibration and Normalisation Impacts of Paralinguistic Features

This study drew attention to calibration (Bross, 1992) and normalisation (Field, 2008) in the listening process and indicated how they are not a one-time occurrence. A key issue raised in the findings was that paralinguistic features have the potential to interrupt the listening process by resetting calibration and normalisation in a cyclical fashion. Part of the issue appears to be that KLE do not have the development required for receiving a speech stream inclusive of paralinguistic features beyond the established expectation. This is of interest in two overarching ways. Firstly, it may be possible to determine through further research the extent to which calibration and normalisation resetting affects comprehensibility; and this may extend to explore whether secondary calibration and normalisation requires the same time commitment from the listener. Secondly, there is a possibility to address the area directly through an intervention built around extensive listening inclusive of paralinguistic features to better train and accustom the listener, which extends the aforementioned extensive listening protocol influenced by Renandya and Jacobs (2016). It may be interesting to explore here the extent to which developing a listener's familiarity with a range of utterances containing paralinguistic features stretching beyond expectation may lessen the potential for calibration and normalisation interruption. With these postulations at its foundation, it is prudent for listening experience to be developed in a way that may allow the listener to accept a *stream of speech* as *speech*. Ultimately, there is a responsibility to give the listener access to a broad array of possible linguistic expectations, which means providing access to natural occurrences of speech inclusive of paralinguistic features and

avoiding sterile production devoid of these features. The rationale for this recommendation is the potential it holds for equipping listeners with the tools required for interacting with a listening process that may be sans calibration and normalisation interruption, and is more representative of a *real world* encounter.

8.7 Concluding Remarks and Directions for Future Research

This final chapter of the thesis has summarised the study and its components before revisiting the key findings, recognising limitations, and presenting implications and recommendations.

Overall, this research has offered insights into KLE and their language attitudes to a range of English varieties, and has explored how these attitudes interrelate with listening performance while also drawing explicit attention to the role prosodic and paralinguistic features play in these areas. In general, findings from this study have suggested that if an encountered English variety is positively perceived, the actual origin of the speaker is not a major factor, which should be a point for discussion and development amongst the stakeholders engaged with educational policy, immigration policy, hiring practices, and English education in Korea.

In addition, practical and pedagogical considerations point toward an embedded need for greater awareness encompassing both student and teacher levels. On the student level, a primary developmental tool supported through this research is the power of extensive listening protocols that span a range of English varieties KLE are likely to encounter. This promotes the development of a broad-based awareness through increasing exposure, and can transition into focused developmental awareness-raising opportunities addressing prosodic and paralinguistic features. Additionally, teacher training and materials design can also encompass these developmental awareness-raising approaches to further the receptive competence of KLE, serve to develop more positive language attitudes, and also contribute to pedagogical sustainability.

Pushing these assertions further, directions for future research encompass two overarching domains. One research domain revolves around how increasing exposure to multiple English varieties is essential for understanding the extent to

which familiarity can be developed and how this may impact language attitude (re)formation and listening performance. Ideally, this channel of research will cross one-way, two-way and group interactions to capture multiple facets of communication. Exploring research in these areas could potentially develop KLE abilities within ASEAN+3 and ELF domains. These research directions could form part of a mutli-stage approach to the revision and development of English education policy in Korea to better replicate communicative realities. The first stage of which could be shaped from positive results in the attention paid to awareness raising and the development of KLE abilities in ELF contexts. From this stage, a more practical application of research could cover the trialling of a teacher exchange initiatives to bring highly trained ASEAN+3 teachers into Korean classrooms. These actions could further progress KLE abilities within ASEAN+3 and ELF domains, but more importantly, could potentially serve in offering an entry point for actioning processes surrounding the revision and development of English education policy in Korea.

An additional domain requiring focused, empirical research is how language attitudes and listening performance can be impacted through prosodic and paralinguistic means. Broader spectrum research into the roles of intonation, weak forms, connected speech and pausing in attitude development and listening performance is required. Moreover, there is a need for research focusing on calibration and normalisation processes in learners of English and ELF communication. As above, research in these areas spanning one-way, two-way and group communication would offer the greatest benefit to the field by way of contributing to existing pedagogy and theory across TESOL and ELF.

In sum, building toward the global nature of English and its relationship with KLE, Korea's English education paradigm, and the wider context is a priority. In other words, the distance between English education in Korea and the underlying importance of ELF for KLE in ASEAN+3 needs to be narrowed. The importance of this is largely related to developing greater equity within TESOL across the region. When this is unpacked against the findings of this research, it blossoms into multiple facets that are not just related to teachers and hiring practices (i.e. NNEST exclusion in Korea), but also in developing equity for learners by providing access to the tools required for effective and positive international communication interactions. In

essence, this means that increasing opportunities for KLE to encounter *English(es)* with a wide range of prosodic and paralinguistic realisations that may impact the listening process is the logical conclusion in this time of globalisation for facilitating their usership of English in the domains in which they are likely to be applied, such as tourism, business, and communication across the ASEAN+3 region.

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APPENDIX A

Table 10.1

Summary of Audio Recording Speakers

Nationality	Gender	Language Features	Elicitation Prompt A	Elicitation Prompt B
American	Female	L1 English	63s, 185 syllables	60s, 150 syllables
American	Male	L1 English	63, 180 syllables	59s, 176 syllables
Australian	Female	L1 English	66s, 208 syllables	53s, 170 syllables
Australian	Male	L1 English	55s, 199 syllables	59s, 189 syllables
British	Female	L1 English	56s, 178 syllables	50s, 134 syllables
British	Male	L1 English	54s, 125 syllables	60s, 163 syllables
Canadian	Female	L1 English	65s, 197 syllables	59s, 188 syllables
Canadian	Male	L1 English	62s, 181 syllables	58s, 126 syllables
Irish	Female	L1 English	53s, 190 syllables	56s, 170 syllables
Irish	Male	L1 English	61s, 233 syllables	52s, 157 syllables
Korean	Female	Marked	66s, 167 syllables	57s, 97 syllables
Korean	Male	Marked	63s, 118 syllables	56s, 113 syllables
Korean	Female	Weakly marked	65s, 213 syllables	56s, 143 syllables
Korean	Male	Weakly marked	66s, 162 syllables	55s, 119 syllables
New Zealand	Female	L1 English	66s, 217 syllables	58s, 143 syllables
New Zealand	Male	L1 English	63s, 178 syllables	58s, 142 syllables
Philippine	Female	Marked	59s, 110 syllables	57s, 88 syllables
Philippine	Male	Marked	60s, 153 syllables	59s, 151 syllables
Philippine	Female	Weakly marked	56s, 187 syllables	55s, 133 syllables
Philippine	Male	Weakly marked	56s, 94 syllables	57s, 101 syllables
South African	Female	L1 Afrikaans	55s, 176 syllables	54s, 176 syllables
South African	Male	L1 Afrikaans	67s, 187 syllables	60s, 165 syllables
South African	Female	L1 English	66s, 216 syllables	52s, 161 syllables
South African	Male	L1 English	61s, 157 syllables	59s, 140 syllables

Note. The syllable count should be considered approximate as it does not include false starts, filled pausing or other prosodic and paralinguistic features that may have been present in the audio recording but could be interpreted as a syllable.

Figure 10.1

Visual Representation of Revised Instrument

Playlist item number

Answer the questions:

1. Comprehension question 1 _____
2. Comprehension question 2 _____
3. Comprehension question 3 _____
4. Comprehension question 4 _____
5. Comprehension question 5 _____

	3	2	1	1	2	3	
dislike	3	2	1	1	2	3	like
easy to understand	3	2	1	1	2	3	hard to understand
good as a teacher	3	2	1	1	2	3	bad as a teacher
bad accent	3	2	1	1	2	3	good accent
intelligent person	3	2	1	1	2	3	not intelligent person
difficult language	3	2	1	1	2	3	simple language
good English	3	2	1	1	2	3	not good English
unfriendly personality	3	2	1	1	2	3	friendly personality

Comments: _____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Note. The instrument was presented on a single side of A4 paper for each playlist item. This was repeated 24 times to allow for one page for each playlist item. Comprehension questions were aligned with each playlist item. The revised semantic differential was presented in the same format for all 24 playlist items. Participants could make additional comments below the semantic differential.

Table 10.2

Audio Instrument Revised Playlists

Track Number	Gender Playlist A	Gender Playlist B	Nationality Playlist A	Nationality Playlist B
1	American male	South African (L1 English) female	Philippine (marked) male	British female
2	Australian male	Philippine (marked) female	South African (L1 English) female	American male
3	Canadian male	Australian female	British male	South African (L1 English) male
4	British male	Irish female	American female	Korean (weakly marked) female
5	South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	South African (L1 Afrikaans) female	Korean (weakly marked) male	Irish male
6	Korean (weakly marked) male	Korean (weakly marked) female	Irish female	Korean (marked) female
7	New Zealand male	American female	New Zealand female	South African (L1 Afrikaans) female
8	Philippine (marked) male	Korean (marked) female	Korean (marked) male	Canadian female
9	South African (L1 English) male	British female	Australian female	Philippine (marked) female
10	Korean (marked) male	New Zealand female	South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	New Zealand male
11	Irish male	Philippine (weakly marked) female	Philippine (weakly marked) female	Australian male
12	Philippine (weakly marked) male	Canadian female	Canadian male	Philippine (weakly marked) male

APPENDIX B

Transcription Conventions

(.)	Short duration of silence
(1)	Medium duration of silence
(2)	Long duration of silence
<+>	Filled pause
fal-	False start; self-correction
.hhh	Inhale
@@@	Laughter
<cough>	Action; denoted in text
(***)	Unclear utterance
XXX	External event
[ ]	Overlapping utterance
{ }	Translation of utterance

Adapted from Hepburn and Bolden (2013) and Wray et al. (1998).

Interview Extracts

Extract 1

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P40:	it was most (1) I (.) it was best speaking (.) to me
3	Interviewer:	best in what way
4	P40:	<+> (1) <+> (.) 제일 익숙했어요 (.) 한국이 빼고 @@@
5		*{<+> (1) <+> (.) I'm most familiar with it (1) except for Korean @@@}*
6	Interviewer:	@@@ (1) so you've heard this the most
7	P40:	yeah [(.) best is] intonation and the pronunciation accent and everything was
8		good (.) I think [(.)] it's that (.) his (.) she speak clear (.) and <+> (1) I can hear
9		the (1) it was comfortable (.) also (.) and <+> (.) I could catch the answer exac-
10		(.) immediately (1) immediately (.) I think
11	Interviewer:	[this kind of thing] [<+>]

Extract 2

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P31:	<+> (.) she's (.) he's good (2) everything was (1) easy and (1) you know the
3		speed was good (.) and pronunciation was good (.) and especially (1) the (.)
4		accent (1) I think her (.) she's from US (.) because (.) it's too (.) <+> (.)
5		뭐라 해야돼지 [(.)] 굉장히 익숙했어 (.) 듣기 편했고 [(1) yes]
6		*{<+> (.) she's (.) he's good (2) everything was (1) easy and (1) you know the*
7		*speed was good (.) and pronunciation was good (.) and especially (1) the (.)*
8		*accent (1) I think her (.) she's from US (.) because (.) it's too (.) <+> (.) what*
9		*should I say [(.)] it's very familiar (.) it was comfortable to listen to [(1) yes]}*
10	Interviewer:	[@@@] [<+> ok (.) familiar]
11	P31:	yeah familiar

Extract 3

1	Interviewer:	<+> (1) why do you like him so much
2	P24:	영국발음이라서 @@@
3		*{because it's British pronunciation @@@}*
4	Interviewer:	and why would he be good as a teacher
5	P24:	이게 뭔가 (.) 이 사람이 선생님 하면 (.) 영국발음 익숙해지면 (.) 잘 들리지
6		않을까
7		*{well this person (.) if this person became a teacher (.) I can become more*
8		*exposed to British pronunciation (.) so I can hear it better}*
9	Interviewer:	<+> (1) so you think (.) even though (.) he's very hard to understand now [(1)]
10		and (.) you having him as a teacher (.) it's still a good thing

11	P24:	[<+>]
12	P24:	<+> (1) 이게 듣기 어려워도 듣다 보면 들릴 거 아니에요
13		*{<+> (1) even though this is difficult to listen to if I listen continuously it won't*
14		*be*

Extract 4

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P38:	<+> (.) he is ok (.) but it's my problem (.) I don't like him because (.) he speaks
3		British (.) maybe British pronunciation (.) that I'm not familiar with (.) so I
4		couldn't really that much understand (1) I think his language was not that
5		difficult (.) but because of pronunciation (.) <+> (.) I had hard time (.) and I yeah
6		(.) especially the first part when he speaks part (.) I can't

Extract 5

1	Interviewer:	@@@ (.) where do you want you English teacher to come from
2	P42:	@@@ (1) <+> (2) Canada
3	Interviewer:	<+> (.) why's that
4	P42:	<+> (1) because (1) <+> (.) from our childhood (.) when (.) when we (.) heard
5		something about English (.) <+> (.) almost all audio (.) audio sound is (1)
6		American English (.) so (.) we are awkward to British English (.) so (.) familiar
7		because of familiarity (.) I don't know

Extract 6

1	P15:	so (1) its ok everything is ok [(.)] pronunciation is clear American I think (.) so
2		(.) it's ok maybe (.) she <lipsmack> describe picture [(.)] and (.) she's fluent
3	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]
4	Interviewer:	so you think she's American is that why you've given her three for good accent
5	P15:	yeah
6	Interviewer:	is American the best accent
7	P15:	to me [(.)] because (.) when I was young (.) so far (.) I using American I learn
8		about American (.) accent (.) so I think she is American (.) or or not
9	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 7

1	P27:	아시아 (.) 아시아 사람 특유의 그 발음이 있어 그게 (.) 발음 말하는 발음이
2		<+> (.) 영어를 말하는 도중에도 그게 (.) 무의식적으로 자꾸 튀어나와
3		가지고 그거 때문에 좀 듣기가 좀 거북 했던거 같아요
4		*{Asia (.) Asian people have a unique accent (.) the pronunciation the spoken*
5		*pronunciation <+> (.) when using English (.) this comes out unconsciously and*

6		*it's because of this that listening was awkward}*
7	Interviewer:	so you also said he's hard to understand (1) is that the same reason
8	P27:	yes (.) same
9	Interviewer:	and he has a bad accent
10	P27:	yes @@@ .hhh (.) water- watermelon @@@ (.) this
11	Interviewer:	what's a good accent
12	P27:	<+> (1) 미국이나 .hhh 미국이나 아니면 영국 쪽 그런 쪽 발음이 괜찮을 거
13		같아요 [(1)] 사람들이 한국사람들이 (.) 주로 (.) 원어민 발음을 드라마
14		쪽에서 자꾸 듣다 보니까 (.) 친숙해져서
15		*{<+> (1) American or .hhh I think American or British pronunciation would be*
16		*OK [(1)] people Korean people (.) mainly (.) like native pronunciation since they*
17		*watch Western drama a lot (.) they're familiar with it}*

Extract 8

1	P21:	I thi- think she is best
2	Interviewer:	best [so far]
3	P21:	[@@@ yeah]
4	Interviewer:	[@@@] (1) why do you think that is
5	P21:	<+> (1) just I think that (1) .hhh (.) it sounds like clearly (.) yeah (.) yeah

Extract 9

1	Interviewer:	how about having a Korean English teacher
2	P22:	<+> (.) Korean English teacher speak English
3	Interviewer:	yeah
4	P22:	very (1) <+> I can understand (.) .hhh (.) more easier @@@ because they said
5		(1) <+> (.) what is (2) stru- <+> no (.) <+> what is (.) <+> (1) they say ri- right
6		word or speak (.) honest pronunciation @@@
7	Interviewer:	what is it in Korean
8	P22:	<+>
9	Interviewer:	what in Korean
10	P22:	Korean
11	Interviewer:	yeah (.) can you explain in Korean (1) what you mean by honest pronunciation
12		[(.)] 한국으로
13		*{yeah (.) can you explain in Korean (1) what you mean by honest pronunciation*
14		*[(.)] in Korean}*
15	P22:	[<+>]
16	P22:	한국어로 <+> 정직한 발음으로 하는 거
17		*{in Korean <+> speaking with clear pronunciation}*

Extract 10

1	Interviewer:	yeah (1) how would you feel if she was your teacher
2	P17:	good
3	Interviewer:	good
4	P17:	<+>
5	Interviewer:	why
6	P17:	<+> (2) <cough> (2) is it ok to [(.) speak Korean]
7	Interviewer:	[you can use so-] you can use some Korean yes
8	P17:	@@@ (.) <cough> (1) accent is <+> (1) 정확하게
9		*{@@@ (.) <cough> (1) accent is <+> (1) exact}*
10	Interviewer:	<+>
11	P17:	흘리지 않고 정확하게 발음을 해줘서
12		*{because it doesn't flow together and the pronunciation is exact}*

Extract 11

1	Interviewer:	why do you think she has a good accent
2	P42:	<+> because I like (.) English accent (.) British accent
3	Interviewer:	you mean pronunciation
4	P42:	<+> yeah [(1)] because the (.) accent is very clear (.) than the American accent
5		so (.) I can easily understand what she said [(.)] yeah
6	Interviewer:	[or] [<+>]
7	Interviewer:	what do you mean clear
8	P42:	<+> (1) I can't explain this is English [(.)] 또박또박
9		*{<+> (1) I can't explain this is English [(.)] word-by-word}*
10	Interviewer:	[then]

Extract 12

1	Interviewer:	why do you like him (.) this much
2	P31:	<+> (1) why do I like him
3	Interviewer:	<+>
4	P31:	<+> because (1) <+> (2) I (.) I like his voice (.) voice because (.) <+> tone (.)
5		level tone [(1)] was good and he (.) yes as I said (.) pausing (.) yes [(.) was]
6		good
7	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 13

1	Interviewer:	why do you dislike her
2	P62:	because her speed is so fast (.) and her voice (.) very high tone (1) I don't like
3		high tone
4	Interviewer:	why do you dislike a high tone

5	P62:	<+> (1) when I hear (.) high tone (.) keep (1) 계속 계속 (.) keep (.) going (1)
6		keep
7		*{<+> (1) when I hear (.) high tone (.) keep (1) continues (.) keep (.) going (1)*
8		*keep}*
9	Interviewer:	what keeps going
10	P62:	high tone
11	Interviewer:	@@@
12	P62:	my eye is sick (.) @@@ (.) I don't like high tone (2) voice

Extract 14

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about her voice
2	P46:	good
3	Interviewer:	why do you think she's good
4	P46:	high
5	Interviewer:	high tone
6	P46:	yeah

Extract 15

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P54:	<lipsmack> 좋았어요
3		*{<lipsmack> it was good}*
4	Interviewer:	why
5	P54:	목소리가 밝아서 (.) @@@ (.) 그리고 웃으면서 말하는 게 좋았어요
6		*{the voice is bright (.) @@@ (.) and I like her speaking with a smile}*

Extract 16

1	Interviewer:	how would you feel if she (.) was your teacher
2	P21:	yeah (.) I think it's good (.) because (.) I feel the (.) <+> (.) her (.) emotion
3	Interviewer:	<+> (1) and (.) how can you feel her emotion
4	P21:	because of the (.) accent

Extract 17

1	Interviewer:	would you like her as your teacher
2	P43:	yes very much because (.) she (.) <+> (1) she feels funny so it's (.) 그니까요
3		말할 때 기분 기분 좋음이 느껴져서요 (.) 왠지 (.) 수업시간에 지루하지
4		않을 거 같아요 (.) 그래서 좋아요
5		*{yes very much because (.) she (.) <+> (1) she feels funny so it's (.) because*
6		*when she speaks I can feel she is happy (.) so (.) I think it wouldn't be boring*
7		*during class (.) that's why I like it}*

Extract 18

1	Interviewer:	you said you'd like her as your teacher
2	P42:	yeah
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that
4	P42:	<+> because very (.) I think she is very active [(1)] <+> (1) and (.) she makes (.)
5		makes people happy [(1)] <+> because her voice is very brisk a little bit (.) and
6		<+> she (1) ap-app (.) appeal
7	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]
8	Interviewer:	<+> 매력적인
9		*{<+> attractive}*
10	P42:	yeah
11	Interviewer:	what do you mean by brisk
12	P42:	<sigh> [(1)] @@@ (1) <+> (.) as I said (.) she looks interested in the story [(.)]
13		but (.) <+> many-many speakers (.) that I heard before (.) don't look interested
14		(.) not interested in the story (.) or (.) I don't know the study (.) description (.)
15		but she looks very (1) oh there's two boys and with a snowman (.) so (.) a little
16		bit high [(.)] <+>
17	Interviewer:	[@@@] [<+>] [<+>]

Extract 19

1	Interviewer:	so what do you think about this person
2	P55:	<lipsmack> (.) 이 사람이 어떤 거 같냐구요
3		*{<lipsmack> (.) what do I think about this person}*
4	Interviewer:	<+>
5	P55:	<+> (.) 좀 성격이 예민한 거 같아요 (1) 또 (.) 또 영어로 원어민인 거 같아요
6		*{<+> (.) I think her personality might be sensitive (1) and (.) and I think she*
7		*sounds like a native}*

Extract 20

1	Interviewer:	<+> (1) and why do you think she's unfriendly
2	P55:	<+> (1) 좀 (.) 예민한 성격의 사람인 거 같아서 건들면 (.) 말을 시키면 (1)
3		약간 (.) 불친절할 거 같고 (1) 그런 성격인 거 같아요
4		*{<+> (1) a bit (.) I think her personality is sensitive if I touch her (.) or speak to*
5		*her (1) a little (.) she might be a little unkind (.) she seems like that kind of*
6		*personality}*
7	Interviewer:	예민
8		*{sensitive}*
9	P55:	<+>

10	Interviewer:	예민
11		*{sensitive}*
12	P55:	예민
13		*{sensitive}*
14	Interviewer:	can you explain what you mean
15	P55:	can you [speak]
16	Interviewer:	[can you] explain what you mean by 예민
17		*{[can you] explain what you mean by sensitive}*
18	P55:	<+> 아 (.) .hhh <+> (.) 좀 (1) <+> (.) 화를 잘 내고 [(.)] 어떤 가벼운 일이라도
19		(.) 크게 반응하고
20		*{<+> ah (.) .hhh <+> (.) a little (1) <+> (.) get angry easily [(.)] over little*
21		*things (.) she might overreact}*
22	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 21

1	Interviewer:	why do you think she would be bad as a teacher
2	P42:	<+> (2) <+> (.) her pronunciation can feel rude (.) not professional [(.)] in Korea
3		[(1)] because (.) many students in Korea evaluate (.) evaluate the teacher (.) <+>
4		with their intonation or pronunciation (.) <+> (.) me too
5	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]

Extract 22

1	Interviewer:	what makes her sound friendly
2	P18:	<+> (.) maybe <+> (.) when her explained to what is on the woman left (.) <+>
3		she is saying she says so faster but <+> its (1) <+> it feel like talking to a
4		friend [(.)] not a teacher or other person [(.)] so (.) that made me feel like a (.)
5		friend of her
6	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]
7	Interviewer:	how did it sound like a friend
8	P18:	<+> (.) maybe <+> (1) not too 너무 딱딱하다 형식적이지 않고 <+> (.) and
9		sounds like <+> 편안하게 편안하게
10		*{<+> (.) maybe <+> (1) not too (.) not too harsh and not formal <+> (.) and*
11		*sounds like <+> comfortable comfortable}*
12	Interviewer:	<+> comfortable
13	P18:	yeah
14	Interviewer:	<+> (.) you've picked (.) very bad as a teacher
15	P18:	yeah bad bad as a teacher (.) bad as a teacher
16	Interviewer:	why

17	P18:	because (.) if she is my teacher (.) <+> (2) if I go to school and I would do
18		nothing (.) because too friendly [(.)] maybe it can be her (.) nice (.) but it also
19		can be her bad
20	Interviewer:	[<+>]
21	Interviewer:	yeah
22	P18:	yeah
23	Interviewer:	so you think the teacher needs to be more [(.)] strict
24	P18:	[more]
25	P18:	yeah (.) more strict

Extract 23

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P39:	.hhh (.) she is like (.) teacher (.) yeah just (.) tell me something like that (.) yeah
3	Interviewer:	so you think the way she (.) explains is like a teacher
4	P39:	yeah yeah yeah she
5	Interviewer:	or you think her voice sounds like a teacher
6	P39:	voice too but (.) yeah she is like (.) telling me (.) she is like teacher (.) yeah
7	Interviewer:	what does a teacher's voice sound like
8	P39:	.hhh (.) clam
9	Interviewer:	calm
10	P39:	yeah calm

Extract 24

1	Interviewer:	why do you like this speaker
2	P45:	<+> (.) I felt (.) her voice is (2) good (1) <+> (1) maybe she (1) very close (.)
3		teacher's voice
4	Interviewer:	this is what a teacher should sound like
5	P45:	<+>
6	Interviewer:	and why do you think that
7	P45:	<+> (.) middle tone (1) and (.) comfortable (.) and (.) soft (.) and not high (1)
8		yeah (1) like <+> (1) mum's mum's voice @@@
9	Interviewer:	what's a mum's voice
10	P45:	ours (.) our mum (.) <+> (2) like a bear (.) 포근 포근한 그런 목소리

{ours (.) our mum (.) <+> (2) like a bear (.) a warm and comfortable voice}

Extract 25

1	Interviewer:	no [@@@] (.) well why do you think he has a bad accent
2	P61:	<+> (1) he (2) 감정없다 (.) 감정없는 말 (.) 무미건조 [(.)] <+>
3		*{<+> (1) he (2) no emotion (.) there's no emotion in the speech (.) it's dull [(.)]*
4		*<+>}*
5	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 26

1	Interviewer:	what do you mean by (.) their tone is the same
2	P37:	I mean (1) like (1) they they they are explain some picture (.) but not have
3		interesting just (.) same voice tone [(.) so] (1) yeah
4	Interviewer:	[<+>]
5	Interviewer:	does that make it harder for you to understand
6	P37:	actually it doesn't matter about but I can't (.) feeling interesting [(.) their] from
7		their voice so [(1)] like my feeling (.) I don't wannaaa listen it (.) like (1) really
8		focusing (.) I don't want [(.)] yeah
9	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

Extract 27

1	Interviewer:	you said he has a very good accent
2	P27:	yes
3	Interviewer:	what do you mean by that (.) or why do you think that
4	P27:	<+> (.) good accent (1) .hhh (.) 그 음 말하는 높낮이 (.) 높낮이가 일정하고 (.)
5		<+> (.) 말하는 속도도 (.) 이해가 충- (.) 이해가 충분히 될 정도로 적당한
6		속도기 때문에 (1) 그레서 good accent
7		*{<+> (.) good accent (1) .hhh (.) the <+> intonation (.) the intonation is*
8		*consistent and (.) <+> (.) the speaking speed is also (.) suff- to understand (.)*
9		*because of the speed it's sufficient enough to understand (1) that's why good*
10		*accent}*

Extract 28

1	Interviewer:	how would you feel if he was your teacher
2	P16:	<+> (2) 좋을거 같아요 (.) 좀 뭔가 의욕적으로(.) 할 거 같아요 (.) 좀
3		전형적인 한국 (.) 인강 (1) 강사 스타일 (.) 막 좀 (.) 높은 하이 톤에 (.) 막
4		화려한 제스처에
5		*{<+> (2) I think it would be good (.) he seems (.) a little enthusiastic (.) a bit*
6		*like the typical Korean (.) internet lecture (.) teaching style (.) a bit of (.) a high*
7		*tone (.) and a lot of gesture}*
8	Interviewer:	<+> (.) so you think he could be a fun teacher
9	P16:	fun
10	Interviewer:	because of his tone and gestures [(.) or]
11	P16:	[no] (.) 재미는 없지만 (.) 뭔가 할려고 하는
12		*{[no] (.) not fun but (.) <+> enthusiastic}*

Extract 29

1	P61:	[he's] singing @@@

2   Interviewer: singing

3   P61:   yeah

4   Interviewer: why do you think he sounds (.) like he's [singing]

5   P61:   [<+> he is (***)] (.) woman's (.) in or hanging (.) tomato (.) right hand [(.)] mm

6   mmm

7   Interviewer: [<+>]

Extract 30

7   Interviewer: you said he would be bad as a teacher

8   P61: yes

9   Interviewer: why do you think that

10 P61: @@@ if you are him (.) I hate you @@@

11 Interviewer: I thought you hated me already [@@@]

12 P61: [he's singing] (.) @@@

Extract 31

1   Interviewer: he seems to be your favourite [(.)] why

2   P63:   [yeah]

3   P63:   the most favourite one (.) <+> because .hhh (.) <+> (.) speed is (.) suitable for me

4   and (.) accent is good (1) <+> (1) just (.) almost clear [(.)] to me

5   Interviewer: [<+>]

Extract 32

1   Interviewer: can I ask why you like him a little bit

2   P54:   like

3   Interviewer: <+>

4   P54:   <lipsmack> (.) <+> (1) like 느리게 말해줘서 [(.)] @@@

5   *{<lipsmack> (.) <+> (1) like because he spoke slowly [(.)] @@@}*

6   Interviewer: [<+>]

Extract 33

1   Interviewer: ok (2) so how do you feel about it being so slow

2   P50:   I (.) good like (.) @@@ (.) I like (.) <+>

3   Interviewer: why do you like it

4   P50:   <+> because (.) <+> when it's test (1) I have (.) 100 score [(.)] @@@ so @@@

5   (.) and I understand good <+>

6   Interviewer: [<+>]

Extract 34

1   Interviewer: <+> (.) <+> (.) why do you dislike her so much
2   P12:   너무 천천히 말을 해서 (.) 못 알아 먹겠어요

3   *{because she speaks really slowly (.) I couldn't understand}*

4   Interviewer: <+>

5   P12:   yeah

6   Interviewer: so these are related [(.)] like and understanding (.) ok

7   P12:   [yeah yeah]

8   P12:   very bad [(.)] I hate her

9   Interviewer: how would you feel if she's your teacher

10 P12:   noooo

Extract 35

1   Interviewer: what do you think about this speaker

2   P50:   <+> (.) very slow (.) so I (.) <+> (.) I'm very uncomfortable (1) .hhh and (.) very

3   slow (.) very very slow [(1)] @@@ (.) very unfriendly (.) @@@

4   Interviewer: [@@@]

Extract 36

1   Interviewer: <+> (.) is there any other reason why (.) you dislike this (.) speaker

2   P50:   <+> (1) 답답 @@@

3   *{<+> (1) uncomfortable @@@}*

Extract 37

1   Interviewer: you've written slow across the top

2   P43:   yeah (.) it s- (.) it seems like child [(1)] and (.) <+> (.) slowly and (.) too slowly

3   Interviewer: [<+>]

4   Interviewer: so with it being too slow does that make it easy or hard for you

5   P43:   it's easy but (.) yeah it's easy to understand but (.) it's not good English

6   Interviewer: how do you feel (.) if someone speaks this slow

7   P43:   <+> (2) <+> it's (.) it's case by case because (.) in this case I think it's child [(.)]

8   and it is possible [(.)] 애가 얘기하니까요 여기서 이해 할만 하겠는데요 (.)

9   만약에 그 (1) 다른 (.) 관광지 같은데서도 느리게 말해주면 이해하겠는데

10   그냥 일반 대화에서 (.) 너무 느리게 말해주면 좀 그럴거 싫을 거 같아요

11   *{<+> (2) <+> it's (.) it's case by case because (.) in this case I think it's child*

12   *[(.)] and it is possible [(.)] this person because this person here I could*

13   *understand what she said (.) if it's (1) a different (.) tourist place and she speaks*

14   *slowly I can understand but for just normal conversation (.) if someone speaks*

15   *really slowly it wouldn't be pleasant}*

16 Interviewer: [<+>]   [<+>]

Extract 38

1   Interviewer: why don't you like him

2   P45:   he is so slow

3   Interviewer: so what do you prefer

4	P45:	I prefer (1) more fast [(1)] he was boring
5	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 39

1	Interviewer:	why do you think she was easy to understand
2	P38:	she speaks fast compared to others (.) but she speaks clearly (.) and her voice is
3		really clear (.) I think it's suitable to professional (.) and I mean (.) professors or
4		teachers <+> (.) really clear (1) yeah the voice is really good
5	Interviewer:	is there anything else about her voice that's really good (.) or just clear
6	P38:	clear (.) and confident [(.) and] (.) <+> (.) no pausing or (.) no (.) pausing or
7		remembering something or like that (.) <+>
8	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 40

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P19:	<+> (.) it's like (.) real (.) real (.) English teacher [(.)] yeah (.) good rhythm good
3		tone (.) except one thing (.) the (.) speed is (.) I want more (.) a little bit more fast
4	Interviewer:	[<+>]
5	Interviewer:	she's a little bit too slow for you
6	P19:	yes

Extract 41

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P31:	<+> (.) her voice was good (.) <+> yeah (.) I mean voice (.) <+> (1) tone was
3		good (1) and the pronunciation accent also (1) yeah yeah yeah (.) good (.) but
4		she spoke too fast [(2) so]
5	Interviewer:	[too] fast (.) for you to understand well
6	P31:	yes (2) <+> (1) anything else was good (.) but the speed was (.) yeah just a little
7		too fast

Extract 42

1	Interviewer:	<+> (1) and <+> (1) is there anything else about her (.) pronunciation or (.)
2		something that
3	P21:	.hhh (.) <+> (.) her voice is <+> (1) nice but <sigh> (1) I think if (.) if she (2) try
4		to teach (.) Korean people (.) I think she needs <+> (.) little slow
5	Interviewer:	she needs to slow [down]
6	P21:	[yeah]

Extract 43

1	Interviewer:	how would you feel (.) if he was your teacher
2	P26:	what teacher
3	Interviewer:	if this person was your teacher

4 P26:   <+> (1) it's good (.) but (.) he's also low class (.) teacher [(.)] I think

5 Interviewer: [<+>]

Extract 44

1 P26:   <+> high level teacher (.) must have fast [(.)] I think

2 Interviewer: [<+>]

3 Interviewer: why

4 P26:   because (1) .hhh (.) when student (2) 계속 같은 그런 적당한 속도로 계속

5   하다 보면은 (.) 빠른 그런 (1) 빠르게 말하는 외국 사람을 만났을 때 (.)

6   이해 못 할 수도 있으니까 그거에 대해서 할려면 어떻게 보면은 좀 빠른

7   빠르게 교육하는 사람한테 더 좋다고 생각해요

8   *{because (1) .hhh (.) when student (2) if they listen to same speed all the time (.)*
9   *the fast (1) when they meet native speakers who speak quickly (.) they won't be*
10   *able to understand so in that sense I think it's better to learn from someone who*
11   *speaks a little fast}*

Extract 45

1 P40:   he was fast and <+> [(.)] a little bit (.) blurry

2 Interviewer: [<+>]

3 Interviewer: 불명확

4   *{unclear}*

5 P40:   yeah (.) 불명확 (.) unclear

6   *{yeah (.) unclear (.) unclear}*

7 Interviewer: ok (1) why do you dislike him

8 P40:   because (.) his speed and <+> (.) his <+> (.) his (.) intonation and maybe

9   pronunciation wasn't (.) <+> (.) was (.) difficult (.) to me (1) so (.) I don't like

10   this speaker

11 Interviewer: where is he from

12 P40:   <sigh> [(1)] I think he is American (.) A-American but (.) but (.) I don't like him

13 Interviewer: [@@@]

Extract 46

1 Interviewer: what do you think about this speaker

2 P17:   <+> (1) accent is (1) <+> (1) not not (.) <+> (.) abnormal

3 Interviewer: it's a little bit weird

4 P17:   yeah

5 Interviewer: yeah (.) how is it weird

6 P17:   <+>

7 Interviewer: you mean like in her pronunciation or the way she

8   P17:   <+> pronunciation

Extract 47

1   Interviewer: yeah (1) is there anything else about her voice

2   P17:   <+> (1) <+> (2) <+> Korean

3   Interviewer: <+> @@@

4   P17:   @@@ (.) 약간 (.) 좀 (.) 끄는 느낌이 있어요 [(1)] 딱딱 끊어 지는 게 아니고

5   (1) 좀 약간 (1) 듣기 좀 불편하게 (.) [uncomfortable]

6   *{@@@ (.) a little (.) bit (.) the feeling is like it's muddied/dragging into each*

7   *other [(1)] the words are not breaking clearly and (1) it's a little bit (1)*

8   *uncomfortable to listen to (.) [uncomfortable]}*

9   Interviewer: [<+>]   [yeah]

Extract 48

1   Interviewer: why do you (.) why do you like her a little bit

2   P17:   <+> (2) I think (.) she's accent is (2) soft

3   Interviewer: <+> [(.)] not strong

4   P17:   [not hard yeah]

Extract 49

1   Interviewer: ok (.) <+> (1) is there anything about (.) his pronunciation that

2   P16:   unclear

3   Interviewer: he's unclear

4   P16:   yeah

5   Interviewer: what do you mean

6   P16:   <+> (1) 좀 뭔가 (.) 그냥 (.) 굴러가는 거 (.) 이렇게 (.) 또박또박 말하는 것이

7   아니라 (.) 으으으

8   *{<+> (1) a little what is it (.) just (.) something is rolling (.) like that (.) rather*

9   *than speaking clearly (.) <gargle>}*

10   Interviewer: it's all (.) squashed [together]

11   P16:   [yeah]

12   P16:   so (.) bad (.) as a teacher

Extract 50

1   Interviewer: why do you think she would be good as a teacher

2   P49:   <+> (.) 속도가 (1) 듣기에 좋았던 좋은 속도 같아요 (.) 너무 빠르지도 않고

3   (.) 발음이 나쁘지도 않고 (.) <+>

4   *{<+> (.) the speed (1) it was good to listen to and I think it was a good speed (.)*

5   *not really fast and (.) not bad pronunciation (.) <+>}*

6	Interviewer:	발음이 나쁘지 않고 (.) does that mean not good or @@@
7		*{the pronunciation is not bad (.) does that mean not good or @@@}*
8	P49:	@@@
9	Interviewer:	what do you think about her pronunciation
10	P49:	이 (.) 이 지금 (.) 지금 이거의 발음이요
11		*{this (.) this now (.) this pronunciation now}*
12	Interviewer:	<+>
13	P49:	<+> 괜찮은 거 같아요
14		*{<+> I think it's ok}*
15	Interviewer:	@@@ just ok
16	P49:	yes
17	Interviewer:	what's good pronunciation
18	P49:	뭔가 뭉게지지 않고 잘 들리는 또박또박한
19		*{<+> it's not squashed together and I heard it well as word-by-word}*

Extract 51

1	Interviewer:	you said you dislike him
2	P61:	yeah
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that
4	P61:	<+> (2) too slow @@@
5	Interviewer:	<+>
6	P61:	<+>
7	Interviewer:	so if (.) he spoke faster [(1)] would your opinion change
8	P61:	[yes]
9	P61:	<+> (2) if he was faster and
10	Interviewer:	<+> if he was fast (.) do you think you would like him more
11	P61:	<+>
12	Interviewer:	you said (.) you dislike him because he's too slow
13	P61:	yes [and (.)] @@@ (1) and mmm mmm mmm
14	Interviewer:	[if (.) <+>]

Extract 52

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P54:	답답해요 (.) @@@
3		*{it's uncomfortable (.) @@@}*
4	Interviewer:	you or him
5	P54:	@@@ (.) both
6	Interviewer:	@@@ (.) why do you feel like that
7	P54:	음음 이래서

| 8 | | *{because of the umm umm}* |

Extract 53

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this person (1) their voice or (.) their personality
2	P30:	이 여자는 조금 (.) 바보 같았어요
3		*{this woman seems (.) like a bit of an idiot}*
4	Interviewer:	why do you think that
5	P30:	<+> (.) 자꾸 엄~ 음~ 이러면서 (.) 막 말을 잘 못하는 느낌 [(1)] 조금 (.)
6		부족한 사람 같았어요
7		*{<+> (.) she often ummms and ahhhhs so (.) I feel like she can't speak very well*
8		*[(1)] a little bit (.) like someone who is lacking ability}*
9	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 54

1	P60:	<+> he didn't speak (.) he didn't tell fl-fluently (.) fluently right
2	Interviewer:	<+>
3	P60:	yeah so I (.) feel he's not a kind of good teacher (.) yeah (2) just a teacher
4	Interviewer:	why do you think it was not fluent
5	P60:	pardon (1) ok do you want to @@@
6	Interviewer:	why do you think it was not fluent
7	P60:	just like (.) when he (.) when he talk about something (.) just (.) like (1) choppy (.) choppy right [(.)] his (.) his speaking was choppy (1) [like (.) umm (.) umm]
8	Interviewer:	[<+>] [stop start stop start]

Extract 55

1	Interviewer:	you said he would be bad a as teacher
2	P53:	<+>
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that
4	P53:	because when he (.) talk (.) tell about something (.) he said umm err 이렇게
5		말했어요 (.) 중간 중간마다
6		*{because when he (.) talk (.) tell about something (.) he said umm err he spoke*
7		*like that (.) in the middle every time}*
8	Interviewer:	when someone uses umm umm [(1)] do you think that's harder
9	P53:	[<+>]
10	P53:	<+>
11	Interviewer:	do you think that's more difficult to understand
12	P53:	no but (.) 어 중간 중간 마다 그게 있으면 (1) 어 깔끔하지가 않아요 근데 (1)
13		선생님 될려면 뭔가 정확하게 해야 정확하고 깔끔하게 말할 줄 알아야 돼요
14		(1) <cough>

15		*{no but (.) <+> if it's there in the middle every time (1) <+> then it's not clear*
16		*but (1) to be a teacher you have to say something clearly and you should know*
17		*how to say it clearly (1) <cough>}*

Extract 56

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P37:	<sigh> (1) I think she maybe from Korea (.) and (.) the reason why <lipsmack>
3		(.) she got (.) like (1) <+> she got to catch (.) main point (.) like directly (.) <+>
4		(.) like and then (.) she really worry about grammar (.) and (1) or grammar or
5		just speaking something she really thinking too much (.) and yep (.) that's all
6	Interviewer:	what makes you feel like she's thinking too much
7	P37:	<+> (1) I mean (.) when she like that (.) what is my feeling <+>
8	Interviewer:	no (.) why why do you think she's [thinking too much]
9	P37:	[<+> (.) <+> when] she spoke about the (.) where are they trying to spend time
10		(.) and then she she said like (.) they are trying to spend time (.) and (1) and yeah
11		she say ahh maybe outdoor and then (.) sheee (.) she thin- she does a little
12		laughing [(1)] so yeah
13	Interviewer:	[<+>]
14	Interviewer:	why do you dislike her
15	P37:	<+> (1) I can't I can't feeling (.) confident (.) from her voice [(1)] so I don't like
16		[(.)] that (.) yeah (1) like just (.) just my thinking (.) if the people can speak
17		English well (.) but (.) the doesn't matter about grammar because I think (.) just
18		speaking is important (.) just I think (.) so I think yeah (.) thinking too much I
19		don't like it @@@
20	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 57

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P53:	he (1) seems like stupid
3	Interviewer:	why do you think he sounds stupid
4	P53:	<sigh> (.) he speak too slow [(.)] and (1) he speak word to word to word to word
5	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 58

| 1 | Interviewer: | why do you like her |
| 2 | P56: | <+> she is (.) she speed is normal and (.) lots of time between the word |

Extract 59

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker's voice
2	P32:	good
3	Interviewer:	good

4	P32:	<+> (.) .hhh (.) he put some terms [(.) in] the sentence (.) and he (.) it is helpful
5		to understand this listening (.) so (.) yeah (.) I think (.) his voice and his saying
6		(.) is good
7	Interviewer:	[<+>]
8	Interviewer:	<+> (.) so what do you mean by terms
9	P32:	.hhh (.) like before the speakers [(1)] <+> they said like (.) I (.) I (.) I didn't
10		understand very well [(.)] but this speaker is (.) his term make (.) made me
11		understand easier
12	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]
13	Interviewer:	you mean the words he's choosing (.) or
14	P32:	no like [(.) time]
15	Interviewer:	[when] he stops
16	P32:	yeah stop
17	Interviewer:	ok (.) right (2) so you think he uses (.) good pausing (.) for you
18	P32:	yeah

Extract 60

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P53:	I don't like this speaker
3	Interviewer:	why
4	P53:	he talk just <gargle> (.) <+> (.) <+> 말하다가 중간에 혼잣말하고
5		*{he talk just <gargle> (.) <+> (.) <+> he talks to himself during the speaking}*
6	Interviewer:	how do you feel about that
7	P53:	<+>
8	Interviewer:	how do you feel about 혼잣말
9		*{how do you feel about talking to himself}*
10	P53:	혼잣말 (.) 별로 였어요
11		*{talking to himself (.) I don't really like it}*
12	Interviewer:	do you think it's harder to understand
13	P53:	yeah
14	Interviewer:	why
15	P53:	그 혼잣말이 아 막 혼잣말이 이 내용이 아 몰르겠어 막 이렇게 막 (1)
16		이사람이 혼잣말하는 건지 아니면 말하는 건지 (.) 그것도 헷갈렸고 (.) 그냥
17		마음에 않들었어요
18		*{the talking to himself <+> talking to himself this content <+> I just don't know*
19		*like this (1) whether this person was talking to himself or speaking (.) that made*
20		*me confused (.) I just didn't like it}*

Extract 61

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P60:	@@@ his speaking is weird (.) @@@ (.) yeah because (1) I didn't think about it
3		but (.) when he just say (.) by himself (.) like (.) maybe he just think about the
4		topic [(.)] and he just say (.) by himself (.) 혼잣말 (.) right @@@ (.) I just feel
5		awkward and then (.) it makes me awkward (1) but yeah (.) his accent is good
6		great (.) and
7		*{@@@ his speaking is weird (.) @@@ (.) yeah because (1) I didn't think about*
8		*it but (.) when he just say (.) by himself (.) like (.) maybe he just think about the*
9		*topic [(.)] and he just say (.) by himself (.) talks to himself (.) right @@@ (.) I*
10		*just feel awkward and then (.) it makes me awkward (1) but yeah (.) his accent is*
11		*good great (.) and}*
12	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 62

1	Interviewer:	can you explain the dislike (.) hard to understand and bad as a teacher
2	P44:	like (.) he is (.) his speaking or (.) how do I say (.) 전화 하듯이 아니면 (.)
3		혼잣말 [(.)] yeah (2) he (.) 영어는 잘 할 수 있는데 (.) can't be a good teacher
4		(1) to (.) explain something (.) for fail students [(.)] yeah so (.) because of that
5		reason <+> (.) I (.) dislike him (1) you know [(.)] he don't speak clearly (.) like
6		(.) <mumble> and 혼잣말 [(.)] yeah
7		*{like (.) he is (.) his speaking or (.) how do I say (.) like talking on the phone or*
8		*(.) talking to himself [(.)] yeah (2) he (.) can speak English well but (.) can't be a*
9		*good teacher (1) to (.) explain something (.) for fail students [(.)] yeah so (.)*
10		*because of that reason <+> (.) I (.) dislike him (1) you know [(.)] he don't speak*
11		*clearly (.) like (.) <mumble> and talks to himself [(.)] yeah}*
12	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

Extract 63

1	Interview:	what do you think about
2	P49:	<+> (1) 중간에 기침소리랑 한숨 소리가 많았어요
3		*{<+> (1) there were a lot of coughing sounds and sighing sounds in the middle}*
4	Interviewer:	how do you feel about that
5	P49:	기침소리에서 많이 놀랐어요
6		*{I was really surprised because of the coughing sounds}*
7	Interviewer:	<+> (.) does it make it harder to understand (.) or just (.) shocks you a bit
8	P49:	<+> (1) 그렇게 많이 어려운 거 같지 않고 (.) 듣다 보면 들릴 거 같은
9		*{<+> (1) I think that it wasn't that hard and (.) if I listened more I might get it}*

10	Interviewer:	fast slow normal
11	P49:	normal
12	Interviewer:	normal (.) why do you dislike him
13	P49:	기침소리 때문에 (.) @@@
14		*{because of the coughing sounds (.) @@@}*

Extract 64

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P24:	애는 (.) 목소리가 마음에 안 들어 (.) 이게 @@@
3		*{this person (.) I don't like this person's voice (.) this @@@}*
4	Interviewer:	what part of his voice don't you like
5	P24:	아 막 (.) 가래 낀 거 같은 (.) 담배피시나
6		*{<+> (.) it's like he has phlegm stuck (.) or he smokes}*
7	Interviewer:	he sounds like he smokes a lot of cigarettes
8	P24:	yeah (1) 막 (.) 엄청 허스키한 목소리인데
9		*{yeah (1) <+> (.) the voice is really husky}*

Extract 65

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P35:	<+> (.) hard accent and (1) speed and (.) 다 ok 인데 (.) 다 좋은데 (.) 목소리가
3		(.) 약간 울먹울먹 하는 거 같아요
4		*{<+> (.) hard accent and (1) speed and (.) it's all OK (.) all good but (.) the*
5		*voice (.) I think it sounds a little bit like crying}*
6	Interviewer:	does that make it harder
7	P35:	no
8	Interviewer:	does it change your feeling
9	P35:	<+>
10	Interviewer:	how do you feel
11	P35:	같이 우울해져요
12		*{we became depressed together}*
13	Interviewer:	@@@ (1) where do you think she's from
14	P35:	American
15	Interviewer:	<+> (1) why do you think she would be a bad teacher
16	P35:	<+> (.) not happy
17	Interviewer:	because she's not happy
18	P35:	yes (1) 목소리가 (.) 막 말할 때도 울먹울먹 우는 거 아니죠 (.) 월래
19		그런거죠 [[2)] 그래서 (1) 좋은 선생님 같진 않아요
20		*{yes (1) the voice (.) <+> when she speaks she sounds like she's crying (.) is it*

21		*just her voice [(2)] so (1) she wouldn't be a good teacher}*
22	Interviewer:	[@@@]
23	Interviewer:	<+> (.) how should a good teacher sound
24	P35:	(+) (1) 일단 / happy 막 이런 거 [(1)] 한국도 친구들 (.) 막 이렇게 하는 데 (.)
25		똑같지 않을까요
26		*{<+> (1) first (.) 'happy' <+> like this [(1)] in Korea 'hey friends' (.) <+>*
27		*they say it this way too (.) isn't it the same}*
28	Interviewer:	[@@@]
29	Interviewer:	<+> (.) is there anything else about a good teacher
30	P35:	<+> (.)재밌어야 해요
31		*{<+> (.) it should be fun}*

Extract 66

1	P24:	이 사람이 우는 거 같은데요
2		*{this person seems like they're crying}*
3	Interviewer:	how does it make you feel (.) if someone sounds (.) like this
4	P24:	sad
5	Interviewer:	it makes you feel sad as well
6	P24:	yeah

Extract 67

1	Interview:	if <+> you hear an accent for the first time [(.)] is that hard
2	P27:	[yes]
3	P27:	yes sure
4	Interviewer:	and when you hear it more and more (.) how do you feel
5	P27:	.hhh (.) 점점 듣다 보면은 (.) 익- 익숙해지면 이제 좀 편안해질 거 같아요
6		*{.hhh (.) as I hear it more (.) and become fam- familiar I think it would become*
7		*more comfortable}*

Extract 68

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P14:	<+> (.) he (.) he is very (.) good to (.) <+> good speaker to understand (.) <+>
3		even I don't know the word (1) <+> she speak very exact word so I can guess the
4		(.) word (1) word word [(1)] than other person and .hhh (.) <+> (.) this is first
5		time to (.) imagine the picture (.) so (1) I really like to (.) <+> I thought h- she is
6		good teacher (.) if she be the teacher and (.) <+> (1) I can understand (.) I cannn
7		understand what she said easy (.) and she has good accent because (.) <+> (.) I
8		don't (***) the other person (1) when I heard the other person recording I (.) feel
9		a little uncomfortable (.) but this is good

Extract 69

1	Interviewer:	[where do] you think she's from
2	P14:	maybe American

Extract 70

1	Interviewer:	who do you think has the best accent (.) which country
2	P44:	which country (2) country (1) country
3	Interviewer:	<+>
4	P44:	US (.) I don't know (.) 호주는 안 가봐 가지고 (.) 안 가봐서
5		*{US (.) I don't know (.) I haven't been to Australia (.) I haven't been}*
6	Interviewer:	so you would normally prefer an American teacher
7	P44:	yeah
8	Interviewer:	why is that
9	P44:	<+>
10	Interviewer:	why
11	P44:	why (.) 익숙해서 [(1)] I usually watch American drama yeah [(.)] sometime I
12		watch from England like Sherlock [(.)] or Dr Who (.) and it's really hard to
13		understand their accent (.) and also in Australia
14		*{why (.) because it's familiar [(1)] I usually watch American drama yeah [(.)]*
15		*sometime I watch from England like Sherlock [(.)] or Dr Who (.) and it's really*
16		*hard to understand their accent (.) and also in Australia}*
17	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

Extract 71

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about [this speaker]
2	P40:	[@@@] he is Asian (.) right [(.)] maybe I think (.) I think (.) I think <+> (.) he's
3		Asian (.) because (1) his (.) his <+> (.) his pronunciation and intonation or
4		several thing is the same with me (.) like (1) so (1) I could understand yeah (.) it
5		was it was easy to understand (.) because (.) @@@ (.) he was same with me (.)
6		I-I I felt
7	Interviewer:	[I don't know]
8	Interviewer:	so (1) if you hear someone that speaks (.) similar to you [(.)] you think that's
9		easier (.) or
10	P40:	[yeah]
11	P40:	.hhh (.) easier to me but (.) <+> (.) <+> (.) is same with me (.) it means <+> (.)
12		he (.) is (.) speaking ability is not (1) good [(1)] @@@ (.) I think (1) maybe
13		many (.) many (.) many Koreans or the other Asian country student (.) can
14		understand (.) easily (.) his speaks but (1) well (1) other the (.) other countries
15		using the English (.) maybe they (2) .hhh they can't understand his (.) speaking

16		(1) I think just
17	Interviewer:	[@@@]

Extract 72

1	Interviewer:	you said she's easy to understand
2	P46:	yes
3	Interviewer:	why do you think she's easy to understand
4	P46:	she is (1) <+> (.) 발음이 (2) 알아 듣기 쉬웠어요
5		*{she is (1) <+> (.) pronunciation (2) it was easy to understand}*
6	Interviewer:	where do you think she's from
7	P46:	<+> (.) Korea
8	Interviewer:	so (.) do you think Korean English is easy for you (.) to understand
9	P46:	yeah
10	Interviewer:	why do you think that
11	P46:	I teach (.) English (.) 계속 한국인한테 배웠어요 (.) 그래서 (.) 한국인이 하는
12		영어가 (.) 알아 듣기 쉬워요
13		*{I teach (.) English (.) I have continuously learnt English from Koreans (.) so (.)*
14		*Koreans speaking English (.) is easy to understand}*

Extract 73

1	Interviewer:	why do you think it's easy
2	P43:	왜 쉽냐고요
3		*{why is it easy}*
4	Interviewer:	yeah
5	P43:	그냥 (.) 그니까 이게 (.) 주위에는 한국 사람들이 많잖아요 외국인들이
6		친구들이 있는게 아니고 (.) 그래서 맨날 들었던 말이니까 이제 딱 듣고
7		바로 되는데 (.) 지금 앞에서는요 그 (.) 외국인 외국인 말 듣고 친구들끼리
8		외국인 이렇게 했다가 (.) 갑자기 바뀌니까 그게 좀 어려웠던거 같아요 (.)
9		계속 친근해져있는 것에 들으니까 쉽고 그렇지 (.) 그 차이인거 같아요
10		*{just (.) because this (.) in these surroundings there are many Koreans right*
11		*foreigners there are no foreign friends (.) so because I hear this all the time now*
12		*I can understand straight away but (.) when I'm in front of the (.) foreigner if I*
13		*hear foreigners talking like this (.) suddenly it changes and I think that's a little*
14		*difficult (.) but if I continuously become familiar with it it'd be easy and (.) I*
15		*think that's the difference}*

Extract 74

1	Interviewer:	<+> (.) you've said he was difficult to understand (.) why do you think that

2	P24:	억양이 좋긴 한데 (.) 잘 못 알아 듣겠 (1) 좋기만 해요 [(.)] 듣기만
3		*{the intonation is good but (.) I couldn't understand very well (1) but I like it*
4		*[(.)] just to listen to}*
5	Interviewer:	[<+>]
6	Interviewer:	<+> (1) why do you think that was difficult
7	P24:	익숙하지 않으니까 (1) 맨날 듣는 거는 (.) 수업하고 이럴 때는 다 (.)
8		영국발음보다 미국발음 [(1)] 많이 하니까 영국발음 듣는 것은 (.) 좀
9		힘들어요
10		*{because it's not familiar (1) we always listen to (.) when we have a class (.)*
11		*American pronunciation is used more than British pronunciation [(1)] since this*
12		*is the case listening to British pronunciation (.) is a little difficult}*

Extract 75

1	P40:	@@@ (.) 만약에 제가 영국 영어를 어렸을 때 부터 쭉 배워왔다면 (.)
2		영국영어를 들었을 때 그게 더 친숙해서 그게 더이해를 하기가 쉬웠을 것
3		같은데 (.) <+> 일단 그랬을 거 같구요 그리고 .hhh (.) 근데 약간 <+> 워터
4		라던가 그런 쉬운 단어를 들었을 때는 (.) 영국영어가 더 쉬울 거 같아요
5		왜냐면은 그게 w-a-t-e-r 이거를 정확하게 발음해 내기 때문에 (1) 근데
6		단어가 어려워 지고 그러면은 (.) 약간 (.) 제가 배웠던 영어능력에서는
7		익숙하지가 않기 때문에 (1) 그래서 좀 어려울 거 같긴해
8		*{@@@ (.) if I learned British English continuously from being young (.) then*
9		*when I hear British English it would be easier to understand because it would be*
10		*more familiar (.) <+> I think that would be the case and .hhh (.) but a little <+>*
11		*when I hear easy words like 'water' (.) I think they would be easy in British*
12		*English because that's just w-a-t-e-r and it's pronounced clearly (1) but the*
13		*more difficult words (.) a little bit (.) because they're not familiar to me with my*
14		*English ability (1) so I think they would be a bit hard}*

Extract 76

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about him
2	P16:	<+> (1) first (.) I cannot understand (.) what he (.) speaking
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that is
4	P16:	<+> (2) pronunciation is not (1) <+> (1) 친숙하지 않아요 많이 (.) 들어본게
5		아니라서 [(1)] 그래서 (.) 튕겨져 나가요 (.) 그냥 (.) 약간 (.) 중국어 듣는 거
6		같은
7		*{<+> (2) pronunciation is not (1) <+> (1) it's not familiar (.) I haven't heard it*

8		*very often [(1)] so (.) it just bounces out (.) it's just (.) a little bit (.) like listening*
9		*to Chinese}*
10	Interviewer:	[<+>]
11	Interviewer:	중국어
12		*{Chinese}*
13	P16:	yeah (.) 뭔가 (.) 영어를 듣는게 아니라 (.) 다른 외국어를 듣는 거 같아요
14		*{yeah (.) what is it (.) it's not like listening to English (.) I think I'm listening to*
15		*another foreign language}*

Extract 77

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P63:	<+> (1) she she (.) her voice is slow (1) anddddd (1) .hhh her (.) pronunciation is
3		not (.) hard to me (1) and (.) .hhh (1) yeah (.) it's not (1) <+> her voice is clear
4		(2) yeah
5	Interviewer:	how do you feel (.) when someone speaks this slow
6	P63:	good (.) @@@
7	Interviewer:	why
8	P63:	I hope (1) every (.) every people (.) who (.) has mother language .hhh (.) speaks
9		like this (.) @@@
10	Interviewer:	@@@ (1) do you think it's good for communication
11	P63:	yeah (.) @@@

Extract 78

1	Interviewer:	you said she is very easy to understand
2	P39:	yeah yeah
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that
4	P39:	she has <+> (.) pronunciation is very sure (.) and not fast
5	Interviewer:	what do you mean very sure
6	P39:	<+> (1) clearly (1) yeah (.) that is (.) I said it
7	Interviewer:	what do you mean clearly
8	P39:	명확
9		*{clear enunciation}*

Extract 79

1	P54:	@@@ (.) 이게 영어권 발음 같지 않은 (.) 막 한 단어 한 단어 굳이 말할려고
2		하는 거 같아요 [(1)] 자신감이 없어 보였어요
3		*{@@@ (.) this didn't sound like an English speaker's pronunciation (.) <+> I*
4		*think he's trying to say it word by word [(1)] he doesn't sound like he has*
5		*confidence}*

6	Interviewer:	[<+>]
7	Interviewer:	<+> (1) does that make it harder for you
8	P54:	yes
9	Interviewer:	why do you think that is
10	P54:	뭐라는 지 모르겠어요 @@@ (.) 마지막에 처음에는 괜찮은데 마지막에
11		갈수록 (.) 더듬거림이 심해지면서 자신감이 없어지니까 (.) 목소리가
12		작아져서 막 웅얼웅얼웅얼 @@@
13		*{I don't know what he is saying @@@ (.) the end at first it was OK but by the*
14		*end (.) because the muttering was getting worse and since he was losing*
15		*confidence (.) the voice became lower <+> mumble mumble mumble @@@}*

Extract 80

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P54:	너무 (.) 웅얼거려요 (.) 웅얼거려요 @@@ (.) 옹알옹알
3		*{really (.) mumbles (.) mumbles @@@ (.) mumble mumble}*
4	Interviewer:	why do you think that [(.) or why] do you think it was harder
5	P54:	[<+>] (.) 단어가요 [(.)] 이렇게 (.) 명확하게 끊기는 느낌이 아니라 다 이어진
6		거 같아서 (.) 이해 알아듣기 힘들었어요 뭐라고 하는지 모르겠어요
7		*{[<+>] (.) the words [(.)] I think they feel like they weren't separated or*
8		*enunciated clearly so (.) it was difficult to understand I don't know what she was*
9		*saying}*
10	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 81

1	Interviewer:	she seems to be your favourite
2	P54:	<+>
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that
4	P54:	제일 알아듣기 쉬었어요
5		*{it was easiest to understand}*
6	Interviewer:	why do you think she was the easiest
7	P54:	<+> (1) <lipsmack> 일단 목소리가 마음에 들어요 (.) @@@ (.) 목소리가
8		명료하고 밝고 (.) 망설임이 없잖아요 [(1)] 옹알거리지도 않았어요
9		*{<+> (1) <lipsmack> I like her voice first of all (.) @@@ (.) the voice is clear*
10		*and bright and (.) there's no hesitation [(1)] she also didn't mumble}*
11	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 82

1	P24:	<+> (.) 막 이상해 못 알아 듣겠어 말하는 게 (1) <sigh>

2		*{<+> (.) it's strange I don't understand what he is saying (1) <sigh>}*
3	Interviewer:	@@@ (.) why do you think you couldn't understand (.) very easily
4	P24:	약간 (.) 막 그런 거 보다 약간 좀 (.) 밝고 (1) 명랑하게 말하면 좀 듣기
5		쉽잖아요 (.) 약간 좀 톤 높은 소리로 말하면
6		*{a little (.) compared to that if it's a little (.) brighter and (.) cheerful when then*
7		*speak then listening is easier (.) if the tone of voice is a bit higher}*

Extract 83

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P35:	<+> (.) So fast (.) and (.) and (1) 그냥 빨라요 @@@ 너무 빨라요
3		*{<+> (.) so fast (.) and (.) and (1) it's just fast @@@ so fast}*
4	Interviewer:	is that why it was difficult for you
5	P35:	yes 하나도 모르겠어요
6		*{yes I don't know anything}*
7	Interviewer:	is there anything else that made it difficult
8	P35:	<+> (1) .hhh (.) Fast and (.) voice (.) voice is (.)소리가 화난 거 같아요 (1) 근데
9		이 주제가 되게 무거운 주제였어요 (1) Sign 막 이런 거 들었는데 그래서
10		그런가
11		*{<+> (1) .hhh (.) fast and (.) voice (.) voice is (.) I think it sounds angry (1) but*
12		*this theme is a very heavy one (1) I heard sign and that's why}*

Extract 84

1	Interviewer:	why do you like him and think he's easy to understand
2	P42:	because (.) he use many up and down (.) wooo @@@ (.) we need dessssk
3		@@@ (1) and so (.) when he use the up and down I (.) can catch the word [(.)]
4		clear clearly (.) so easy to understand
5	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 85

1	Interviewer:	<+> (.) so you prefer (.) do you usually prefer (.) when you're listening [(.)]
2		someone flat or someone (.) more up and down
3	P43:	[yeah]
4	P43:	if communication is up and down is better [(.)] but <+> it's class-classroom flat
5		pattern is [better]
6	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]

Extract 86

1	Interviewer:	why do you think he was hard to understand
2	P60:	<+> (.) his intonation is almost the same [(1)] usually almost same (.) yeah so

3	Interviewer:	[<+>]
4	Interviewer:	flat
5	P60:	yeah flat
6	Interviewer:	is that usually harder for you
7	P60:	yes (.) because I cannot catch (.) exact intonation [(1)] what vocabulary (.) they
8		are yeah
9	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 87

1	P35:	네 [(.)] 만약에 악센트가 안되고 그냥 한 음으로 쫙 얘기하니까 [(.)] 단어가
2		잘 안들리고 [(.)] 그리고 (1) 어~ 음~ 이게 너무 많았어요.
3		*{yes [(.)] if the intonation isn't there and because she just uses one tone when*
4		*she speaks [(.)] I can't hear the words very well [(.)] and (1) ohhh ummm she*
5		*used this kind of filler really many times}*
6	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]
7	Interviewer:	this (.) this person
8	P35:	yes
9	Interviewer:	so you think she's flat
10	P35:	yes
11	Interviewer:	does that make it harder for you
12	P35:	<+>
13	Interviewer:	if someone speaks with more intonation (.) is that easier
14	P35:	yes 왜냐하면 (.) because (.) 그래야 단어가 잘 들리는데 (1) 한 음으로 (.)
15		얘기하니까 (.) 오히려 막 단어가 이어서 들리는 그래서 잘 모르겠어요 [(1)]
16		<+> (.) 그리고 어 음 이런게 많으니까 집중이 잘 안됐어요
17		*{yes because (.) because (.) if it's like that I can hear the words better but (1)*
18		*since it's one tone (.) when she speaks (.) I heard it like the words were all*
19		*connected instead and that's why I couldn't understand [(1)] <+> (.) and since*
20		*there are so many ohhs and umms I couldn't focus very well}*
21	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 88

1	Interviewer:	why do you think she's so easy to understand
2	P36:	she speak slow [(1)] before (1) any speakers (.) she's the most slow speaker

Extract 89

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this person
2	P11:	<+> (.) was (.) veryyyy easy to understand
3	Interviewer:	why do you think it was easy

| 4 | P11: | was (.) <+> (.) not fast (.) was <+> good accent (1) <+> (1) pronunciation was |
| 5 | | good (.) <+> |

Extract 90

1	Interviewer:	<+> (.) and (.) why do you think he's hard to understand
2	P35:	<+> (1) 빨라요 빨라서 (.) 빨라서 잘 모르겠어요
3		*{<+> (1) fast fast so (.) it was fast so it's hard to understand}*

Extract 91

1	P13:	her voice is (1) 목소리는 너무 큰 건 없는데 [(.)] 약간 너무 빨리 말해서 (.)
2		제가 이렇게 (.) 이해할려고 했는데 (.) 그냥 정리가 안될정도로 너무 빨르게
3		말해서 (1) 문제가 말하고자 하는 걸 모르겠어요
4		*{her voice is (1) the voice in not loud but [(.)] she speaks a little too fast so (.) I*
5		*was like (.) trying to understand but (.) I just couldn't organise my thoughts*
6		*because she spoke too fast so (1) I don't know what the answers to the questions*
7		*were}*
8	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 92

1	Interviewer:	why do you think he's so hard to understand
2	P30:	너무 빠르고 발음도 잘 안 들리고 (2) 그래서 (.) 뭔 내용인지 하나도
3		모르겠어요
4		*{it was too fast and I couldn't hear the pronunciation very well (2) so (.) I*
5		*couldn't understand the content of what he was saying at all}*

Extract 93

1	P22:	@@@ (.) .hhh (.) <+> (.) someone speaks slow (.) I can understand more easier
2		so [(.)] but but (2) 너무 느리면은 (.) 너무 느린 것은 더 좋진 않지만 (.) <+>
3		(.) 적당히 (.) slow @@@
4		*{@@@ (.) .hhh (.) <+> (.) someone speaks slow (.) I can understand more*
5		*easier so [(.)] but but (2) if it's really slow (.) it's not good if it's really slow but*
6		*(.) <+> (.) a little (.) slow @@@}*
7	Interviewer:	[<+>]

Extract 94

1	Interviewer:	ok (1) since it's so slow (.) <+> (1) do you think it was easy to understand
2	P12:	no
3	Interviewer:	what was (.) why (.) what made it hard to understand
4	P12:	<+> (.) too slow (1) <+>

5	Interviewer:	so if it's too slow its harder (.) for you
6	P12:	yeah (.) 너무 느려가지고 (1) 뭘 말하고 싶은지 모르겠어요 (.) <+> 이거를
7		영어로 설명할 수 없네 [(.) @@@]
8		*{yeah (.) it's really slow and (1) I don't know what she wants to say (.) <+> I*
9		*can't explain this in English [(.) @@@]}*
10	Interviewer:	[@@@]

Extract 95

1	P18:	perfect @@@ (1) <+> (.) because she speak very slowly [(.)] make people can
2		understand (.) nobody <+> anybody can understand [(1)] if she explain (1) and
3		(.) she using very simple English (.) also <+> (1) her pronunciation (.) not that
4		bad [(.)] yeah so-so (1) <+> and easy to understand (1) but I don't know (.) <+>
5		I'm sure (.) she's not a good <+> she can be a good teacher some day (.) not now
6		not now (.) and (.) as a speaker English speaker she's very well (.) so I envy her
7	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

Extract 96

1	P18:	yeah but she she's not (.) she says not slowly [(.)] she's she's voice speed is
2		enough to fast anddd (.) she has little accent [(1)] she (.) using the English word
3		(.) <+> (1) 적당한 적당한 단어 (.) 적절한 단어로 했고 [(1)] <+> (.) and <+>
4		잘 쉬었어요 (.) 쉼이 딱 좋았어요 (.) 한 문장 말하고 딱 쉬고 한 문장 말하고
5		딱 쉬고
6		*{yeah but she she's not (.) she says not slowly [(.)] she's she's voice speed is*
7		*enough to fast anddd (.) she has little accent [(1)] she (.) using the English word*
8		*(.) <+> (1) enough enough vocabulary (.) the vocabulary is appropriate and*
9		*[(1)] <+> (.) and <+> she paused well (.) the pausing was good (.) saying one*
10		*sentence and pausing and saying one sentence and pausing}*
11	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

Extract 97

1	P27:	yes (1) <+> easy easier (.) <+> (.) .hhh (1) 말하고 말을 하는 그 사이 텀이
2		길어가지고 (.) 그 사이 동안 이제 (.) 말하는 게 이해 이해하는 시간을 가질
3		수 있었어요
4		*{yes (1) <+> easy easier (.) <+> (.) .hhh (1) the length of the pause between the*
5		*speaking is quite long (.) that period in the middle (.) I can understand what is*
6		*being said during the time taken in between speaking}*

Extract 98

1	P35:	<+> (.) 선생님이라고 했을 때 (.) <+> (.) 일단 빠르고 생각할 시간을 좀
2		안주는 거 같아요
3		*{<+> (.) as a teacher well (.) <+> (.) firstly it's too fast and I think she doesn't*
4		*give us time to think}*
5	Interviewer:	for you
6	P35:	yes (1) 지금 이게 설명하는 그런 거잖아요 (1) 근데 (.) 두서 없이 얘기해요
7		[(.)] 그 뭐라고 하지 (1) 그니까 (1) 어 그냥 (.) 어려워요
8		*{yes (1) so this is explaining something (1) but (.) there's no logic to the*
9		*speaking [(.)] what can I say (1) but (1) umm just (.) it's hard}*
10	Interviewer:	so you've said she's very fast [(.)] <+> (.) is there anything else
11	P35:	<+> (.) 이 사람도 그게 없어요 쉬는 거 [(.)] 그래서 잘 못 알아 듣는 거
12		같아요
13		*{<+> (.) this person doesn't have a pause [(.)] so I think that I can't understand*
14		*very well}*

Extract 99

1	Interviewer:	why do you think it's more hard (.) more difficult
2	P56:	<+> 자신감이 없으면 일단 목소리가 약간 조금해지고 (.) 단어가 또박또박
3		나오지 않고 [(1)] 약간 끝을 흐리게 되는 그런게 있어서
4		*{<+> if I don't have confidence firstly the voice is bit low and (.) it doesn't come*
5		*out word-by-word [(1)] the endings are a bit muddled together so that's why}*
6	Interviewer:	[<+>]
7	Interviewer:	why do you dislike him so much
8	P56:	I only think @@@ (2) I can't hear anything
9	Interviewer:	do you think you've heard (.) this kind of accent before
10	P56:	no
11	Interviewer:	no (.) this is maybe the first time
12	P56:	<+> .hhh (.) 사투리가 있는 영국사람 같은데 @@@
13		*{<+> .hhh (.) it sounds like a British dialect @@@*
14	Interviewer:	how do you feel about UK English
15	P56:	very hard to understand
16	Interviewer:	why do you think that difficult
17	P56:	어 내가 제가 공부했던 거랑 발음 자체가 달라서 [(1)] 아 똑같은 단어인데
18		다른 느낌
19		*{<+> it's different to what I've studied [(1)] it's the same words but a different*

20		*feeling}*
21	Interviewer:	[<+>]
22	Interviewer:	how is it different
23	P56:	뭐라 해야돼지 (.) th 발음 (.) 아하 (.) 으음 (.) .hhh 아 약간 발음 자체가 (.)
24		굴르는게 많아서 (.) 스무스 하게 넘어가는 게 많아서 알아듣기가 좀 힘든
		(1) .hhh 뭐라 해야돼지 @@@
25		*{what should I say (.) the TH sound (.) ahhh (.) umm (.) .hhh <+> a bit of*
26		*pronunciation itself (.) is rolling a lot (.) and there are many things skipping*
27		*smoothly so it's a bit hard to understand (1) .hhh what should I say @@@}*
28	Interviewer:	you went like this (.) do you you mean 억양
29		*{you went like this (.) do you you mean intonation}*
30	P56:	very smooth so (.) not (.) 이렇게 단어들이 끊어있지 않아서 (1) like a two
31		word [(.)] sound one
32		*{very smooth so (.) not (.) like these words aren't cut off (1) like a two word [(.)]*
33		*sound one}*
34	Interviewer:	[잘 끊지 않아]
35		*{[the words don't separate well]}*

Extract 100

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P56:	제일 알아 듣기 쉬웠던거 같애요 지금 4 명중에 제일 알아듣기 쉬웠던 거
3		같아요
4		*{I think he was the easiest to understand of the four I've listened to so far}*
5	Interviewer:	why do you think that
6	P56:	발음도 되게 또박또박 잘 끊어서 했고 약간 외국인이 듣기 좋게
7		*{the pronunciation was really word-by-word with well cut endings and this*
8		*foreigner was good to listen to}*

Extract 101

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about [this speaker]
2	P20:	[@@@] (.) last time same (.) best <+> (.) very <+> (.) easy understand and (.) so
3		(.) very slow speech (.) and I (.) easy (.) easy listening the word (.) very <+>
4		또박또박
5		*{[@@@] (.) last time same (.) best <+> (.) very <+> (.) easy understand and*
6		*(.) so (.) very slow speech (.) and I (.) easy (.) easy listening the word (.) very*
7		*<+> word-by-word}*
8	Interviewer:	everything's separate

9	P20:	yeah (.) <+> (.) two boys (.) <+> (.) cutting watermelon (.) yeah
10	Interviewer:	that makes it easier for you
11	P20:	yeah

Extract 102

1	Interviewer:	why do you think he's easy to understand
2	P55:	<+> 왜냐하면 <+> (.) 단어만 문장을 막 (.) 수식 안하고 딱 단어만 말했고
3		[(.)] 그리고 (.) <+> (.) 딱 잘 들렸어요 이렇게 맞물리지 않고 (.) 발음
4		*{<+> because <+> (.) just words the sentences were <+> (.) not modified and*
5		*were just purely words that he spoke and [(.)] and (.) <+> (.) I understood it*
6		*right away there's no overlap like this (.) in the pronunciation}*

Extract 103

1	Interviewer:	why do you dislike so much
2	P13:	she (.) speak (.) very slowly and (.) 문장 문장으로 끊어서 말해서 (.) 이해가
3		좀 많이 안되고
4		*{she (.) speak (.) very slowly and (.) because she's speaking sentence-by-*
5		*sentence (.) it's a bit not understandable}*

Extract 104

1	Interviewer:	why do you think you can't focus
2	P61:	can
3	Interviewer:	can't @@@
4	P61:	can't focus @@@
5	Interviewer:	@@@
6	P61:	<+> (1) he (1) when he say (1) he <+> (1) he he didn't say straight <+> (.) 아
7		뭐라 그래야 돼지 쭉 말 않하고 (.) 중간 중간 끊어서
8		*{<+> (1) he (1) when he say (1) he <+> (1) he he didn't say straight <+> (.)*
9		*<+> what should I say he doesn't speak continuously and (.) in the middle he*
10		*stops in the middle}*
11	Interviewer:	he doesn't finish the word
12	P61:	finish
13	Interviewer:	he stop start (.) stop start
14	P61:	<+>
15	Interviewer:	is that usually harder for you
16	P61:	<+> (1) no not (1) I (.) can <+> [(2)] 요점을 모르겠어 (.) 질문에 답을 해야
17		되는데 [(1)] 말을 하다가 멈추고 (.) stop start stop start (.) 집중 안돼요
18		*{<+> (1) no not (1) I (.) can <+> [(2)] I don't get the point (.) I have to answer*

19		*the questions but [(1)] he speaks and stops (.) stop start stop start (.) I can't*
20		*focus}*
21	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]

Extract 105

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P62:	<+> (.) I can't (.) I can't understand this speaker
3	Interviewer:	why do you think that
4	P62:	<+> because (.) she used simple language but (.) her pronunciation is (.) like (.)
5		more (.) bo-bop de-de
6	Interviewer:	can you explain that (1) bo-bop de-de
7	P62:	<+> (.) bo-bop de-de is like (.) he can (.) not speak very well (.) like (2) hesitate
8		[(.)] so I can't understand her (.) speaking
9	Interviewer:	[<+>]
10	Interviewer:	and if someone speaks (.) with a lot of hesitation [(1)] is that usually harder for
11		you
12	P62:	[<+>]
13	P62:	yes
14	Interviewer:	is she fast (.) slow (.) normal
15	P62:	<+> (1) slow
16	Interviewer:	if someone speaks slowly [(.)] do you usually think they're easy to understand
17	P62:	[yes]
18	P62:	<+> I think (.) if speaker's speaking speed is slow I can understand more easily
19		(.) but (.) now her speaking is just not slow (.) like [(.)] hesitate and slow [(.)] is
20		more (1) make confused (2) yes
21	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>]

Extract 106

1	Interviewer:	why is he hard to understand
2	P13:	첫 부분이 약간 아 음 이게 길어서 (.) 듣기 힘들었다
3		*{the first part has a few ahhh umm and these are too long (.) so it's hard to*
4		*understand}*

Extract 107

1	P49:	.hhh (1) 말을 하다가 중간에 (.) 음 (.) 이런 시간이 좀 [(.) 많았던 거]
2		*{.hhh (1) in the middle of his speaking (.) ummm (.) there was a lot of this}*
3	Interviewer:	[mmm mmm]
4	Interviewer:	if someone uses (.) lots of (.) mmm mmm (.) does that make it harder for you
5	P49:	<+> (.) 어렵진 않은데 (.) 집중이 잘 안돼서
6		*{<+> it's not harder but (.) I can't concentrate}*

319

Extract 108

1	Interviewer:	<+> (1) different reason [(.)] if there [are any] if there any different reasons
2	P43:	[<+>] [<+>]
3	P43:	<+> (.) it's <+> another reason is <+> (.) is <+> (.) 중간에 혼잣말 많이 한 거
4		같아요
5		*{<+> (.) it's <+> another reason is <+> (.) is <+> (.) I think he talks to*
6		*himself a lot in the middle}*
7	Interviewer:	how do you feel when someone speaks like that
8	P43:	그냥 it's not <+> (.) it's too hard to concentrate
9		*{just it's not <+> (.) it's too hard to concentrate}*

Extract 109

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P60:	yeahhhh (.) to understand (.) her speaking was difficult to me (.) yeah because (.)
3		suddenly (.) her voice was changed (.) maybe because of (.) she was to cough or
4		(.) yeah (.) because yeah (.) anddddd (.) because of that one (.) I cannot (.) I
5		couldn't understand well [(.)] yeah
6	Interviewer:	[<+>]
7	Interviewer:	why do you think
8	P60:	because (1) like (1) pardon (.) why do you think
9	Interviewer:	@@@ yeah I didn't finish the question (.) you just started speaking
10	P60:	@@@
11	Interviewer:	why why do you think (.) <+> (.) her changing her voice (.) made it harder for
12		you
13	P60:	just (1) I can not (.) be adapted her voice (.) her changed voice [(.)] yeah (1) like
14		(.) while someone talk to other other someone (.) yeah (1) to change the voice is
15		(.) makes someone (1) really weird (.) yeah (.) @@@ (1) like (1) for instance (.)
16		to me (.) I just (.) when I yeah (.) when I study TOEFL [(.)] TOEFL speaking (1)
17		and I just tried to record my voice before (.) and then (.) I listened (.) but (.) at
18		that time (.) I tried to speak English (.) for TOEFL (1) I (.) caught a cold (.) and I
19		just sneezed and coughed (.) and it makes my voice weird (.) and it cannot be
20		understandably [(.)] understandable yeah (1) it is sameee reason
21	Interviewer:	[<+>] [<+>] [<+>]

Extract 110

1	Interviewer:	what do you think about this speaker
2	P32:	<+> (2) it is hard to understand (.) and (.) it's not (2) <+> (.) 불명확 (.) [@@@]
3		(1) clear (.) it's not clear and [(1)] <+> (.) yeah
4		*{<+> (2) it is hard to understand (.) and (.) it's not (2) <+> (.) unclear*

5		*enunciation (.) [@@@] (1) clear (.) it's not clear and [(1)] <+> (.) yeah}*
6	Interviewer:	[@@@] [<+>]

Extract 111

1	Interviewer:	why do you think he was so hard to understand
2	P24:	이거 발 말이 막 발음이 정확하게 들리지 않아요 (.) 뭐라 웅얼웅얼 대는
3		느낌 옹알이 하는
4		*{this pron- speaking <+> the pronunciation isn't exact (.) I feel like he's*
5		*mumbling and unclear he's mumbling}*

Extract 112

1	Interviewer:	<+> (2) and you said he would be bad as a teacher (.) why do you think that
2	P59:	<lipsmack> (.) <+> (2) because <+> (1) if someone wants to teach (1) English
3		(.) <+> (.) I think (2) I think (.) he has to pronunci- pronunciate (.) properly [(1)]
4		but yeah (.) he couldn't do some parts (.) so (1) yeah (.) not (.) not really really
5		bad but (.) not really good
6	Interviewer:	what do you think is proper pronunciation
7	P59:	his proper
8	Interviewer:	<+> (.) what do you think is [proper pronunciation]
9	P59:	[<+>]
10	P59:	yeah (.) US [(.)] pronunciation or (1) UK [(.)] whatever yeah
11	Interviewer:	[<+>] [@@@]

Table 12.1

Like-Dislike Independent Samples Kruskal-Wallis H Test

	Like-Dislike Semantic Differential Item*							
Audio Recording	Amer. female	Amer. male	Aust. female	Aust. male	Brit. female	Brit. male	Can. female	Can. male
Chi-Square	1.139	6.617	1.524	4.023	3.361	8.671	2.329	2.215
Asymp. Sig.	.768	.085	.677	.259	.339	.034	.507	.529
Audio Recording	Ire. female	Ire. male	Kor. (mark) female	Kor. (mark) male	Kor. (weak) female	Kor. (weak) male	NZ female	NZ male
Chi-Square	.328	1.273	1.492	1.083	5.902	7.160	4.001	3.204
Asymp. Sig.	.955	.735	.116	.781	.116	.067	.261	.361
Audio Recording	Phil. (mark) female	Phil. (mark) male	Phil. (weak) female	Phil. (weak) male	S.Afr. (L1Afr.) female	S.Afr. (L1Afr.) male	S.Afr. (L1Eng.) female	S.Afr. (L1Eng.) male
Chi-Square	.099	2.025	3.871	7.112	.839	2.270	2.502	3.649
Asymp. Sig.	.992	.567	.276	.068	.840	.518	.475	.302

* df=3; *n=48*

Table 12.2

Like-Dislike Mean and Median

Audio Recording	Mean	SD	Median	IQR
American female	4.65	1.30	5.00	4.00-5.00
American male	4.46	1.60	5.00	3.00-6.00
Australian female	4.48	1.64	4.50	3.00-6.00
Australian male	3.79	1.66	4.00	3.00-5.00
British female	3.79	1.60	4.00	2.00-5.00
British male	5.02	1.59	5.00	4.25-6.00
Canadian female	4.35	1.56	4.00	3.00-6.00
Canadian male	3.88	1.55	4.00	3.00-5.00
Irish female	4.69	1.24	5.00	4.00-6.00
Irish male	2.73	1.33	2.50	2.00-3.75
Korean (marked) female	4.44	1.70	5.00	3.00-6.00
Korean (marked) male	3.38	1.25	3.00	3.00-4.00
Korean (weakly marked) female	4.71	1.52	5.00	4.00-6.00
Korean (weakly marked) male	4.23	1.59	4.00	3.00-5.00
New Zealand female	3.46	1.43	3.00	2.00-4.00
New Zealand male	4.63	1.10	5.00	4.00-5.00
Philippine (marked) female	3.04	1.46	3.00	2.00-4.00
Philippine (marked) male	4.48	1.35	5.00	4.00-5.00
Philippine (weakly marked) female	5.50	1.05	6.00	5.00-6.00
Philippine (weakly marked) male	4.40	1.18	5.00	3.25-5.00
South African (L1 Afrikaans) female	4.02	1.54	4.00	3.00-5.00
South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	2.42	1.41	2.00	1.00-3.00
South African (L1 English) female	4.69	1.57	5.00	4.00-6.00
South African (L1 English) male	4.98	1.30	5.00	4.00-6.00

Note. Mean and Median figures are drawn from a 7-point scale, with 1 representing the most negative response and 7 representing the most positive.

n=48

Table 12.3

Like-Dislike Frequency Distribution

Audio Recording	Dislike 3	Dislike 2	Dislike 1	Neutral	Like 1	Like 2	Like 3
American female	1	3	4	9	20	9	2
American male	2	4	9	6	12	12	3
Australian female	1	6	8	9	5	16	3
Australian male	5	5	12	10	8	5	3
British female	3	10	7	11	10	5	2
British male	0	2	3	7	19	14	3
Canadian female	3	2	9	11	9	12	2
Canadian male	3	7	10	11	8	8	1
Irish female	1	1	7	9	15	15	0
Irish male	8	16	12	7	4	0	1
Kor. (marked) female	1	9	5	5	14	9	5
Kor. (marked) male	3	7	20	7	9	2	0
Kor. (weak) female	1	6	2	9	11	17	2
Kor. (weak) male	1	8	7	9	13	6	4
NZ female	1	13	14	10	5	3	2
NZ male	0	2	5	13	18	9	1
Phil. (marked) female	5	15	14	6	4	3	1
Phil. (marked) male	1	4	4	14	14	9	2
Phil. (weak) female	0	0	2	7	11	21	7
Phil. (weak) male	0	3	9	11	16	9	0
S.Afr. (L1Afr.) female	4	4	9	10	13	7	1
S.Afr. (L1Afr.) male	13	18	8	6	0	2	1
S.Afr. (L1Eng.) female	3	3	4	5	17	13	3
S.Afr. (L1Eng) male	0	3	4	6	17	14	4

n=48

Table 12.4

Good-Bad Teacher Independent Samples Kruskal-Wallis H Test

	Good-Bad Teacher Semantic Differential Item*							
Audio Recording	Amer. female	Amer. male	Aust. female	Aust. male	Brit. female	Brit. male	Can. female	Can. male
Chi-Square	3.419	2.541	1.185	3.635	1.095	4.633	5.326	1.715
Asymp. Sig.	.331	.468	.757	.304	.778	.201	.149	.634
Audio Recording	Ire. female	Ire. male	Kor. (mark) female	Kor. (mark) male	Kor. (weak) female	Kor. (weak) male	NZ female	NZ male
Chi-Square	.678	.204	3.037	3.615	.898	2.799	2.908	2.843
Asymp. Sig.	.878	.977	.386	.306	.826	.424	.406	.416
Audio Recording	Phil. (mark) female	Phil. (mark) male	Phil. (weak) female	Phil. (weak) male	S.Afr. (L1Afr.) female	S.Afr. (L1Afr.) male	S.Afr. (L1Eng.) female	S.Afr. (L1Eng.) male
Chi-Square	4.010	2.430	4.401	2.044	2.607	2.746	2.628	7.599
Asymp. Sig.	.260	.488	.221	.563	.456	.432	.453	.055

* df=3; *n=48*

Table 12.5

Good-Bad Teacher Mean and Median

Audio Recording	Mean	SD	Median	IQR
American female	4.71	1.27	5.00	4.00-6.00
American male	4.54	1.50	5.00	3.00-6.00
Australian female	4.65	1.48	5.00	4.00-6.00
Australian male	4.04	1.43	4.00	3.00-5.00
British female	3.98	1.26	4.00	3.00-5.00
British male	4.94	1.02	5.00	4.00-6.00
Canadian female	4.63	1.21	5.00	4.00-6.00
Canadian male	4.10	1.64	4.00	3.00-5.00
Irish female	4.63	1.30	5.00	4.00-6.00
Irish male	2.88	1.23	3.00	2.00-4.00
Korean (marked) female	3.10	1.63	3.00	2.00-4.00
Korean (marked) male	3.40	1.43	3.00	2.00-4.00
Korean (weakly marked) female	4.15	1.56	4.00	3.00-5.00
Korean (weakly marked) male	4.02	1.64	4.00	3.00-5.00
New Zealand female	3.46	1.40	3.00	3.00-4.00
New Zealand male	4.50	1.20	4.00	4.00-5.00
Philippine (marked) female	2.81	1.30	3.00	2.00-4.00
Philippine (marked) male	4.15	1.60	4.00	3.00-5.75
Philippine (weakly marked) female	5.40	1.05	5.00	5.00-6.00
Philippine (weakly marked) male	3.81	1.45	4.00	3.00-5.00
South African (L1 Afrikaans) female	4.40	1.16	4.00	4.00-5.00
South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	3.13	1.61	3.00	2.00-4.00
South African (L1 English) female	4.73	1.47	5.00	4.00-6.00
South African (L1 English) male	4.69	1.46	5.00	4.00-6.00

Note. Mean and Median figures are drawn from a 7-point scale, with 1 representing the most negative response and 7 representing the most positive.

n=48

Table 12.6

Good-Bad Teacher Frequency Distribution

Audio Recording	Bad 3	Bad 2	Bad 1	Neutral	Good 1	Good 2	Good 3
American female	1	2	4	11	17	11	2
American male	0	5	9	9	8	14	3
Australian female	1	2	8	11	12	8	6
Australian male	1	8	5	18	8	6	2
British female	1	5	9	18	11	2	2
British male	0	1	3	10	19	14	1
Canadian female	1	1	5	15	13	12	1
Canadian male	2	8	8	9	10	8	3
Irish female	1	2	5	14	11	14	1
Irish male	7	11	17	8	4	1	0
Kor. (marked) female	7	13	11	10	2	2	3
Kor. (marked) male	3	11	14	9	7	3	1
Kor. (weak) female	1	8	8	10	11	7	3
Kor. (weak) male	4	4	9	14	9	3	5
NZ female	4	7	15	12	6	3	1
NZ male	0	1	10	14	12	9	2
Phil. (marked) female	6	17	12	8	4	0	1
Phil. (marked) male	1	7	10	12	6	8	4
Phil. (weak) female	0	0	2	7	16	16	7
Phil. (weak) male	3	7	9	12	12	4	1
S.Afr. (L1Afr.) female	1	1	7	17	14	7	1
S.Afr. (L1Afr.) male	7	12	13	7	4	3	2
S.Afr. (L1Eng.) female	1	3	7	8	9	18	2
S.Afr. (L1Eng) male	1	2	8	10	10	13	4

Note. Bad 3=Bad Teacher 3; Bad 2=Bad Teacher 2; Bad 1=Bad Teacher 1; Good 1=Good Teacher 1;

Good 2=Good Teacher 2; Good 3=Good Teacher 3.

n=48

Table 12.7

Good-Bad Accent Independent Samples Kruskal-Wallis H Test

	Good-Bad Accent Semantic Differential Item*							
Audio Recording	Amer. female	Amer. male	Aust. female	Aust. male	Brit. female	Brit. male	Can. female	Can. male
Chi-Square	2.748	1.924	.736	5.269	3.710	5.100	6.150	5.305
Asymp. Sig.	.432	.588	.865	.153	.295	.165	.105	.151
Audio Recording	Ire. female	Ire. male	Kor. (mark) female	Kor. (mark) male	Kor. (weak) female	Kor. (weak) male	NZ female	NZ male
Chi-Square	1.867	2.339	.410	.272	.029	2.466	2.659	1.887
Asymp. Sig.	.600	.505	.938	.965	.999	.481	.447	.596
Audio Recording	Phil. (mark) female	Phil. (mark) male	Phil. (weak) female	Phil. (weak) male	S.Afr. (L1Afr.) female	S.Afr. (L1Afr.) male	S.Afr. (L1Eng.) female	S.Afr. (L1Eng.) male
Chi-Square	5.323	1.950	4.216	4.217	.919	1.264	4.208	5.881
Asymp. Sig.	.150	.583	.239	.239	.821	.738	.240	.118

* df=3; *n=48*

Table 12.8

Good-Bad Accent Mean and Median

Audio Recording	Mean	SD	Median	IQR
American female	5.06	1.26	5.00	4.00-6.00
American male	5.04	1.47	5.00	4.00-6.00
Australian female	4.90	1.53	5.00	4.00-6.00
Australian male	4.69	1.53	5.00	3.25-6.00
British female	4.73	1.18	4.50	4.00-5.75
British male	5.06	1.04	5.00	4.00-6.00
Canadian female	5.27	1.16	5.00	5.00-6.00
Canadian male	4.50	1.44	5.00	3.00-6.00
Irish female	4.79	1.27	5.00	4.00-6.00
Irish male	4.23	1.46	4.00	3.00-5.75
Korean (marked) female	4.19	1.59	4.00	3.00-5.00
Korean (marked) male	3.35	1.38	3.00	2.00-4.00
Korean (weakly marked) female	4.46	1.46	5.00	3.00-6.00
Korean (weakly marked) male	4.10	1.51	4.00	3.00-5.00
New Zealand female	3.79	1.57	4.00	3.00-5.00
New Zealand male	4.75	1.41	5.00	4.00-6.00
Philippine (marked) female	3.83	1.43	4.00	3.00-5.00
Philippine (marked) male	4.65	1.38	5.00	3.25-6.00
Philippine (weakly marked) female	5.48	1.15	6.00	5.00-6.00
Philippine (weakly marked) male	4.46	1.20	4.00	4.00-5.00
South African (L1 Afrikaans) female	4.58	1.38	5.00	4.00-5.00
South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	3.60	1.67	3.50	2.00-5.00
South African (L1 English) female	5.00	1.37	5.00	4.00-6.00
South African (L1 English) male	4.94	1.30	5.00	4.00-6.00

Note. Mean and Median figures are drawn from a 7-point scale, with 1 representing the most negative response and 7 representing the most positive.

n=48

Table 12.9

Good-Bad Accent Frequency Distribution

Audio Recording	Bad 3	Bad 2	Bad 1	Neutral	Good 1	Good 2	Good 3
American female	0	1	5	10	11	16	5
American male	0	2	7	7	13	9	10
Australian female	0	5	5	6	13	12	7
Australian male	1	3	8	8	11	12	5
British female	0	0	6	18	12	7	5
British male	0	0	3	11	18	12	4
Canadian female	0	2	1	7	15	18	5
Canadian male	1	2	11	9	11	11	3
Irish female	1	1	5	11	14	14	2
Irish male	1	3	13	13	6	9	3
Kor. (marked) female	2	6	8	11	11	6	4
Kor. (marked) male	2	11	18	8	4	4	1
Kor. (weak) female	0	5	10	8	10	13	2
Kor. (weak) male	2	5	11	10	9	10	1
NZ female	2	9	12	10	6	7	2
NZ male	0	3	6	11	15	6	7
Phil. (marked) female	1	7	15	10	8	5	2
Phil. (marked) male	0	3	9	8	13	12	3
Phil. (weak) female	0	1	1	7	13	17	9
Phil. (weak) male	1	0	8	17	14	5	3
S.Afr. (L1Afr.) female	1	3	5	12	16	7	4
S.Afr. (L1Afr.) male	5	9	10	11	3	9	1
S.Afr. (L1Eng.) female	1	2	4	6	15	16	4
S.Afr. (L1Eng) male	0	3	2	11	17	9	6

Note. Bad 3=Bad Accent 3; Bad 2=Bad Accent 2; Bad 1=Bad Accent 1; Good 1=Good Accent 1; Good 2=Good Accent 2; Good 3=Good Accent 3.

n=48

APPENDIX D

Table 13.1

Easy-Hard to Understand Independent Samples Kruskal-Wallis H Test

	Easy-Hard to Understand Semantic Differential Item*							
Audio Recording	Amer. female	Amer. male	Aust. female	Aust. male	Brit. female	Brit. male	Can. female	Can. male
Chi-Square	4.407	7.385	.963	3.389	1.856	3.804	12.433	10.421
Asymp. Sig.	.221	.061	.810	.336	.603	.283	.006	.015
Audio Recording	Ire. female	Ire. male	Kor. (mark) female	Kor. (mark) male	Kor. (weak) female	Kor. (weak) male	NZ female	NZ male
Chi-Square	1.168	3.715	1.974	3.862	2.526	12.829	2.651	2.630
Asymp. Sig.	.761	.294	.578	.277	.471	.005	.449	.452
Audio Recording	Phil. (mark) female	Phil. (mark) male	Phil. (weak) female	Phil. (weak) male	S.Afr. (L1Afr.) female	S.Afr. (L1Afr.) male	S.Afr. (L1Eng.) female	S.Afr. (L1Eng.) male
Chi-Square	1.096	1.824	4.638	8.015	1.630	4.897	1.541	8.546
Asymp. Sig.	.778	.610	.200	.046	.653	.180	.673	.036

* df=3; *n=48*

Table 13.2

Easy-Hard to Understand Mean and Median

Audio Recording	Mean	SD	Median	IQR
American female	4.77	1.34	5.00	4.00-6.00
American male	4.48	1.57	5.00	3.00-6.00
Australian female	3.94	1.77	3.50	3.00-6.00
Australian male	4.00	1.80	4.00	2.25-5.75
British female	2.88	1.54	2.00	2.00-4.00
British male	5.08	1.41	5.00	5.00-6.00
Canadian female	3.69	1.69	3.00	2.25-5.00
Canadian male	4.60	1.62	5.00	3.00-6.00
Irish female	4.29	1.64	5.00	3.00-6.00
Irish male	2.52	1.17	2.00	2.00-3.00
Korean (marked) female	6.29	1.29	7.00	6.00-7.00
Korean (marked) male	3.58	1.79	3.00	2.00-5.00
Korean (weakly marked) female	5.02	1.62	5.00	4.00-6.00
Korean (weakly marked) male	5.04	1.53	5.00	4.00-6.00
New Zealand female	3.15	1.52	3.00	2.00-4.00
New Zealand male	4.94	1.33	5.00	4.00-6.00
Philippine (marked) female	4.15	1.69	4.50	3.00-5.75
Philippine (marked) male	5.06	1.41	5.00	4.00-6.00
Philippine (weakly marked) female	5.46	1.27	6.00	5.00-6.00
Philippine (weakly marked) male	5.29	1.22	6.00	5.00-6.00
South African (L1 Afrikaans) female	3.17	1.49	3.00	2.00-5.00
South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	1.88	1.23	2.00	1.00-2.00
South African (L1 English) female	4.73	1.74	6.00	3.00-6.00
South African (L1 English) male	5.85	1.03	6.00	5.00-7.00

Note. Mean and Median figures are drawn from a 7-point scale, with 1 representing the most negative response and 7 representing the most positive.

n=48

Table 13.3

Easy-Hard to Understand Frequency Distribution

Audio Recording	Hard 3	Hard 2	Hard 1	Neutral	Easy 1	Easy 2	Easy 3
American female	0	4	6	5	17	14	2
American male	1	6	8	5	12	14	2
Australian female	4	6	14	5	6	10	3
Australian male	4	8	10	3	11	9	3
British female	8	17	10	3	6	4	0
British male	1	3	3	3	17	16	5
Canadian female	5	7	15	2	10	8	1
Canadian male	2	4	7	6	12	13	4
Irish female	1	8	9	5	10	13	2
Irish male	7	21	14	1	4	1	0
Kor. (marked) female	0	3	0	1	1	14	29
Kor. (marked) male	6	9	11	7	6	6	3
Kor. (weak) female	1	5	2	7	10	15	8
Kor. (weak) male	0	4	6	4	12	14	8
NZ female	5	15	12	5	6	5	0
NZ male	0	3	5	6	16	14	4
Phil. (marked) female	0	11	11	2	12	8	4
Phil. (marked) male	0	1	9	4	14	12	8
Phil. (weak) female	0	1	5	2	12	19	9
Phil. (weak) male	0	1	6	1	15	20	5
S.Afr. (L1Afr.) female	7	11	12	5	11	2	0
S.Afr. (L1Afr.) male	23	15	8	0	0	1	1
S.Afr. (L1Eng.) female	2	5	8	2	6	22	3
S.Afr. (L1Eng) male	0	0	2	1	14	16	15

Note. Hard 3=Hard to Understand 3; Hard 2=Hard to Understand 2; Hard 1=Hard to Understand 1; Easy 1=Easy to Understand 1; Easy 2=Easy to Understand 2; Easy 3=Easy to Understand 3.

n=48

Table 13.4

Comprehension Independent Samples Kruskal-Wallis H Test

	Comprehension*							
Audio Recording	Amer. female	Amer. male	Aust. female	Aust. male	Brit. female	Brit. male	Can. female	Can. male
Chi-Square	1.216	3.517	3.065	2.335	8.290	.973	1.246	1.236
Asymp. Sig.	.749	.319	.382	.506	.040	.808	.742	.744
Audio Recording	Ire. female	Ire. male	Kor. (mark) female	Kor. (mark) male	Kor. (weak) female	Kor. (weak) male	NZ female	NZ male
Chi-Square	.763	6.668	2.218	2.723	2.488	2.249	.362	.407
Asymp. Sig.	.858	.083	.528	.436	.478	.522	.948	.939
Audio Recording	Phil. (mark) female	Phil. (mark) male	Phil. (weak) female	Phil. (weak) male	S.Afr. (L1Afr.) female	S.Afr. (L1Afr.) male	S.Afr. (L1Eng.) female	S.Afr. (L1Eng.) male
Chi-Square	3.472	.394	3.890	5.965	1.459	5.669	2.468	1.145
Asymp. Sig.	.324	.941	.274	.113	.692	.129	.481	.766

* df=3; *n=48*

Table 13.5

Comprehension Median and Mean

Audio Recording	Median	IQR	Mean	SD
American female	3.00	2.00-3.00	2.96	0.85
American male	3.00	2.00-4.00	2.69	1.21
Australian female	3.00	2.00-4.00	3.19	1.21
Australian male	4.00	3.00-5.00	3.71	1.67
British female	2.00	1.00-3.00	2.13	1.44
British male	4.00	3.00-4.00	3.71	1.05
Canadian female	3.00	2.00-4.00	2.92	1.18
Canadian male	4.00	3.25-5.00	4.00	1.09
Irish female	4.00	3.00-4.00	3.58	0.90
Irish male	2.00	2.00-3.00	2.46	1.17
Korean (marked) female	5.00	4.25-5.00	4.71	0.54
Korean (marked) male	3.00	3.00-4.00	3.06	1.02
Korean (weakly marked) female	4.00	2.25-4.00	3.27	1.16
Korean (weakly marked) male	4.00	3.00-4.00	3.56	1.05
New Zealand female	3.00	2.00-4.00	3.21	1.25
New Zealand male	4.00	3.00-5.00	3.85	0.87
Philippine (marked) female	3.50	3.00-4.00	3.44	1.03
Philippine (marked) male	4.00	3.00-5.00	3.73	1.01
Philippine (weakly marked) female	4.00	4.00-5.00	3.96	1.07
Philippine (weakly marked) male	4.00	3.00-4.00	3.44	0.92
South African (L1 Afrikaans) female	2.50	1.00-3.00	2.23	1.36
South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	2.00	1.00-3.00	1.88	1.30
South African (L1 English) female	4.00	3.00-4.00	3.60	1.03
South African (L1 English) male	4.00	3.00-5.00	3.81	1.02

Note. Median figures relate to comprehension as: 0-1=largely incomprehensible; 2-3=slightly comprehensible; 4-5=comprehensible.

n=48

Table 13.6

Perceived Comprehensibility and Comprehension Kendall's Rank Correlation Coefficient

Audio Recording	P.Comp-Comp Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
American female	0.168	0.200
American male	0.256	0.039
Australian female	0.302	0.015
Australian male	0.347	0.006
British female	0.072	0.565
British male	0.388	0.003
Canadian female	0.123	0.326
Canadian male	0.045	0.726
Irish female	0.105	0.417
Irish male	0.409	0.001
Korean (marked) female	0.200	0.154
Korean (marked) male	0.381	0.002
Korean (weakly marked) female	0.122	0.333
Korean (weakly marked) male	0.306	0.016
New Zealand female	0.240	0.055
New Zealand male	0.274	0.037
Philippine (marked) female	0.151	0.238
Philippine (marked) male	0.211	0.107
Philippine (weakly marked) female	0.452	0.001
Philippine (weakly marked) male	0.040	0.762
South African (L1 Afrikaans) female	0.511	0.000
South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	0.342	0.009
South African (L1 English) female	0.303	0.020
South African (L1 English) male	0.428	0.001

Note. P.Comp=Perceived comprehensibility and is represented by the Easy-Hard to Understand semantic differential item; Comp=Comprehension.

n=48

Table 13.7

Like-Dislike and Perceived Comprehensibility or Comprehension Kendall's Rank Correlation

Coefficient

Audio Recording	Like-P.Comp Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	Like-Comp Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
American female	0.443	0.000	0.071	0.585
American male	0.522	0.000	0.242	0.050
Australian female	0.660	0.000	0.272	0.030
Australian male	0.571	0.000	0.362	0.004
British female	0.398	0.001	0.028	0.822
British male	0.504	0.000	0.225	0.083
Canadian female	0.272	0.019	0.188	0.133
Canadian male	0.416	0.000	0.234	0.066
Irish female	0.467	0.000	0.064	0.630
Irish male	0.503	0.000	0.238	0.058
Korean (marked) female	0.384	0.002	0.106	0.414
Korean (marked) male	0.486	0.000	0.125	0.328
Korean (weakly marked) female	0.579	0.000	-0.008	0.951
Korean (weakly marked) male	0.501	0.000	0.257	0.042
New Zealand female	0.368	0.002	0.111	0.375
New Zealand male	0.306	0.011	0.099	0.459
Philippine (marked) female	0.339	0.004	0.141	0.274
Philippine (marked) male	0.366	0.002	0.065	0.620
Philippine (weakly marked) female	0.389	0.001	0.306	0.021
Philippine (weakly marked) male	0.189	0.121	-0.027	0.833
South African (L1 Afrikaans) female	0.517	0.000	0.494	0.000
South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	0.465	0.000	0.268	0.034
South African (L1 English) female	0.643	0.000	0.300	0.020
South African (L1 English) male	0.282	0.021	0.050	0.704

Note. Like=Like-Dislike semantic differential item; P.Comp=Perceived comprehensibility and is represented by the Easy-Hard to Understand semantic differential item; Comp=Comprehension. *n=48*

Table 13.8

Good-Bad Accent and Perceived Comprehensibility or Comprehension Kendall's Rank Correlation

Coefficient

Audio Recording	Accent-P.Comp Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	Accent-Comp Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
American female	0.551	0.000	0.166	0.203
American male	0.316	0.007	0.254	0.040
Australian female	0.560	0.000	0.172	0.169
Australian male	0.530	0.000	0.298	0.018
British female	0.034	0.774	0.271	0.031
British male	0.269	0.027	0.007	0.954
Canadian female	0.241	0.043	0.160	0.213
Canadian male	0.456	0.000	0.098	0.446
Irish female	0.338	0.004	0.350	0.008
Irish male	0.345	0.004	0.322	0.010
Korean (marked) female	0.319	0.010	0.034	0.793
Korean (marked) male	0.321	0.006	0.138	0.277
Korean (weakly marked) female	0.462	0.000	0.153	0.222
Korean (weakly marked) male	0.540	0.000	0.161	0.202
New Zealand female	0.509	0.000	0.376	0.002
New Zealand male	0.352	0.003	-0.124	0.340
Philippine (marked) female	0.298	0.011	0.172	0.178
Philippine (marked) male	0.487	0.000	0.049	0.708
Philippine (weakly marked) female	0.555	0.000	0.323	0.014
Philippine (weakly marked) male	0.247	0.043	0.198	0.128
South African (L1 Afrikaans) female	0.133	0.256	0.107	0.389
South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	0.219	0.072	0.013	0.914
South African (L1 English) female	0.217	0.069	-0.044	0.736
South African (L1 English) male	0.345	0.005	-0.016	0.900

Note. Accent=Good-Bad Accent semantic differential item; P.Comp=Perceived comprehensibility and is represented by the Easy-Hard to Understand semantic differential item; Comp=Comprehension. *n=48*

Table 13.9

Good-Bad Teacher and Perceived Comprehensibility or Comprehension Kendall's Rank Correlation Coefficient

Audio Recording	Teacher-P.Comp Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	Teacher-Comp Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
American female	0.543	0.000	0.281	0.031
American male	0.416	0.000	-.015	0.904
Australian female	0.635	0.000	0.328	0.009
Australian male	0.597	0.000	0.134	0.006
British female	0.174	0.141	0.140	0.263
British male	0.363	0.003	0.173	0.185
Canadian female	0.346	0.003	0.269	0.035
Canadian male	0.371	0.001	0.079	0.532
Irish female	0.262	0.026	0.212	0.108
Irish male	0.313	0.010	0.134	0.288
Korean (marked) female	0.035	0.777	0.062	0.635
Korean (marked) male	0.325	0.004	-0.081	0.518
Korean (weakly marked) female	0.381	0.001	-0.094	0.448
Korean (weakly marked) male	0.467	0.000	0.187	0.137
New Zealand female	0.413	0.000	0.084	0.500
New Zealand male	0.370	0.002	0.038	0.771
Philippine (marked) female	0.265	0.025	0.254	0.050
Philippine (marked) male	0.464	0.000	0.104	0.419
Philippine (weakly marked) female	0.419	0.001	0.278	0.035
Philippine (weakly marked) male	0.322	0.007	-0.075	0.558
South African (L1 Afrikaans) female	0.337	0.004	0.310	0.014
South African (L1 Afrikaans) male	0.238	0.051	0.198	0.109
South African (L1 English) female	0.473	0.000	0.113	0.382
South African (L1 English) male	0.300	0.013	0.127	0.325

Note. Teacher=Good-Bad Teacher semantic differential item; P.Comp=Perceived comprehensibility and is represented by the Easy-Hard to Understand semantic differential item; Comp=Comprehension. *n=48*