

# Attitudes toward Accents in Less Commonly Taught Language Education: A Korean Case in Canada

Mihyon Jeon

*York University, Toronto*

## Abstract

This paper reports on a study of the attitudes toward accents in a university-level Korean language program in Canada. The study investigated how learners' attitudes toward foreign accents relate to learners' ethnic and linguistic backgrounds as well as subject matters. After brainstorming desirable characteristics of language instructors and classmates, the participants responded to a matched-guise questionnaire and open-ended questions. Learners evaluated negatively non-native speakers of English and Korean. Ethnic Korean learners judged accented Korean more negatively than did learners without a Korean ethnic background, while learners with English as first language judged accented English more positively than did learners with non-English as their first language. The majority of learners favored native speakers of the target language with accented English as their language instructors, while favoring native speakers of English as their content course instructors. This paper concludes with implications for language education.

**Key words:** language attitude; language ideology; accents; native speaker; bilingualism; less commonly taught language education.

## Introduction

Language learners' attitudes toward a target language and its speakers play an important role in language development. Overall, the attitudes held by language learners toward a target language have a great deal to do with whether and how learners develop proficiency in that language (Gaies & Beebe, 1991). In the field of language education, learner attitude has been recognized as one of the key variables in language development, as reflected in second language acquisition theories, such as the Acculturation Model (Schumann, 1978), Accommodation Theory (Beebe & Gaies, 1984; Beebe & Zuengler, 1983), and the "affective filter" in Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1983). Learners' attitudes are directed not only toward the target language and its speakers, but also toward the target language spoken with a foreign (non-native) accent. Furthermore, language learners themselves may produce the target language with an accent influenced by their first language. Thus, it is important to pay attention to learners' perceptions of accents.

This article reports on a study regarding attitudes toward non-native Korean speakers and non-native English speakers in a university-level Korean language program in Canada. In this context, learners' attitudes toward accented English and accented Korean<sup>1</sup> may influence their perception of others' as well as their own production of the target language. By utilizing a matched-guise technique, the study investigates learners' attitudes toward accented Korean spoken by their peers and toward accented English spoken by their instructors. It focuses on how learners' attitudes toward foreign accents relate to learners' ethnic and linguistic backgrounds as well as subject matters. There has been a lack of research in less commonly taught language (LCTL<sup>2</sup>) education on learners' attitudes

---

<sup>1</sup> In this paper, accented English refers to English spoken with a foreign accent that is produced by a non-native speaker of English. Likewise, accented Korean refers to Korean spoken with a foreign accent that is produced by a non-native speaker of Korean.

<sup>2</sup> In this study, the term "Less Commonly Taught Languages" (LCTLs) is used to avoid the tendency in multilingual and multicultural societies such as Canada and the USA to define "languages other than English" in a

toward accents in languages other than English. In light of an increasing interest in LCTL education, this study seeks to better understand learners' attitudes toward foreign accents.

In the following discussion, *accents* refers to “the pronunciation features of any spoken variety” (Finegan, 1999, p. 585), including pitch, duration, loudness, and other auditory features of a person's speech. Foreign accents are considered a normal consequence of second (or foreign) language learning, since a great deal of research has shown that most people who acquire another language after early childhood are likely to exhibit non-native patterns of pronunciation (Derwing & Munro, 2005) with a different degree of derivation from the native norm, depending on various factors (see Piske, MacKay, & Flege, 2001).

### **Accents and Language Education**

The “matched-guise technique” developed by Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner, and Fillenbaum (1960) has been utilized widely as a methodological tool in measuring listeners' attitudes toward languages, dialects, and accents in various contexts. The matched-guise technique is the use of recorded voices of people speaking first in one variety and then in another. The recordings are played to listeners who are not told that the speech samples are from the same speaker and who judge two guises of the speaker as though they were judging two separate speakers (Richards, Platt, & Weber, 1985). Listeners construct the speakers' traits based on their perceptions of certain groups of people who speak certain variations of languages. The technique has been used to investigate a variety of sociolinguistic, social-psychological, and educational issues (Gaies & Beebe, 1991): attitudes of foreign language learners toward target language speakers and community (e.g., Gardner & Lambert, 1972);

---

reductive manner. Such terms as “second languages,” “modern languages,” “world languages,” simply “languages” (Osborn, 2005) as well as “foreign languages” and “heritage languages” have been proposed and used. However, the term “LCTLs” is adopted in the current study because the term describes the language that both heritage learners and non-heritage learners pursue at the research site.

linguistic bases of teacher prejudice (e.g., Ford, 1984; Munro & Derwing, 1995); attitudes toward different language varieties and codes (e.g., Fremder & Lamber, 1973; Bourhis & Giles, 1976); attitudes toward the speech of non-native speakers or language learners (e.g., Cargile, 1997; Fayer & Krasinski, 1987); and the effect of speaker and hearer variables on comprehension, recall, or evaluation (e.g., Butler, 2007; Edwards, 1982; Markham, 1988; Tauroza & Luk, 1997; Rubin, 1992).

A number of matched-guise studies on language attitudes have shown that people prefer dialects or languages spoken by powerful groups (Berk-Seligson 1984; Lambert et al., 1960). Non-native speakers with accents are generally evaluated negatively (see Ryan, Carranza, & Moffie, 1977; Ryan & Sebastian, 1980, for Spanish-accented English; Ryan & Bulik, 1982, for German-accented English; Gill, 1994, for Malaysian-accented English). Much of the empirical research on language attitudes in educational settings has focused on both native English speakers' and non-native English speakers' attitudes towards varieties of English. A growing number of studies have examined learners' attitudes toward the non-native accents of foreign-born teachers and found that teachers with foreign accents are perceived by students to be less desirable than teachers without foreign accents (see Boyd, 2003, for the Swedish context; Butler, 2007, for the Korean context; Buckingham, 2015, for the Omani context). In their study of undergraduate students' attitudes toward non-native English speaking teaching assistants (NNSTAs) in an American University, Rubin and Smith (1990) found that 42% of the students had decided to drop or withdraw from at least one class, because they discovered their instructor was not a native speaker of English. They also judged the speakers to be poor teachers, if they perceived high levels of foreign accents from NNSTAs.

How do such connections between accents and positive or negative attitudes toward groups of speakers come to be established? To answer the question, the study draws from the concept of language ideology. While traditional matched-guise studies have focused on language attitudes at the individual and interpersonal levels, there has been an effort to relate matched-guise studies to a

more sociocultural orientation in linguistic anthropology (Lindemann, 2003). In this framework, individual and interpersonal perceptions and evaluations of language varieties are considered a part of the larger concept of language ideology (Kroskrity, 2000). This study adopts the definition of language ideologies proposed by Irvine and Gal (2000, p. 35) as “the ideas with which participants and observers frame their understanding of linguistic varieties and the differences among them, and map those understandings onto people, events, and activities that are significant to them.” The social meanings of linguistic forms, including accents, derive from language ideology through the interaction of a speaker’s beliefs about a particular linguistic feature and their perception of a particular social group (Woolard, 1998, 2000; Irvine, 2001).

The context of a Korean language class in a Canadian University shapes a unique ecology of language at the micro level, a context that includes a native Korean-speaking instructor, native English-speaking students, Korean heritage language learners with an ethnic Korean background, and students whose first language is other than English such as Chinese or Japanese. In the course of learning Korean, the participants bring with them and develop their own ideas and understanding of linguistic varieties (e.g., English-accented Korean or Korean-accented English in this particular context) and the differences among them. Furthermore, the participants map these ideas onto their instructor and classmates, class meetings, events, and instructional activities within these events. Negative or positive attitudes toward accents, part of the broader ideas of language varieties, play a critical role in drawing on the perceivers’ observations on the use of language to explain their own social world; in this case, the ecology of the Korean language class, including people, events, and activities. The utilization of the concept of language ideology for the current modified matched-guise study is an attempt to shed light on the association between language varieties and attitudes toward social groups.

## Methods

The current study examines attitudes toward accented English and accented Korean held by learners of Korean in a Canadian university as well as the language learners' attitudes towards the accented English of instructors of that languages other than English (LCTL<sup>3</sup> instructors) in comparison with the learners' attitudes toward content course instructors with English accents. The specific research questions examined in the current study are:

1. How are listeners' evaluations of speakers affected by accented English and accented Korean, respectively?
2. How do students' ethnic backgrounds (ethnic Koreans vs. non-Koreans) relate to their evaluation of those who speak accented Korean?
3. How do students' language backgrounds relate to their evaluations of those who speak with accented English?
4. Do learners hold different attitudes toward their instructors with foreign accented English based on the subject matters (LCTLs vs. other content courses)?

In the first phase of the study, the participants brainstormed desirable characteristics of language instructors and their classmates. The students were given a blank piece of paper and a pencil and were asked to write down any adjectives they thought desirable for language instructors and classmates to have. The identified characteristics have been classified into three categories of traits: status, solidarity, and communication. The status related traits include "knowledgeable" and "smart/intelligent"; the solidarity related traits include "approachable," "patient," "helpful,"

---

<sup>3</sup> In this study, the term "Less Commonly Taught Languages" (LCTLs) is used to avoid the tendency in multilingual and multicultural societies such as Canada and the USA to define "languages other than English" in a reductive manner. Such terms as "second languages," "modern languages," "world languages," simply "languages" (Osborn, 2005) as well as "foreign languages" and "heritage languages" have been proposed and used. However, the term "LCTLs" is adopted in the current study because the term describes the language that both heritage learners and non-heritage learners pursue at the research site.

“kind/friendly/nice,” “understanding,” “humorous/fun,” “cooperative,” and “well-mannered;” the communication related trait was “communicative.” These traits were used for the matched-guise questionnaire.

In the second phase of the study, the participants responded to a matched-guise questionnaire and open-ended questions. In the matched-guise questionnaire, after listening to audio files recorded by a single bilingual female speaker in both accented and non-accented Korean and English respectively, the participants were asked to rate traits of each voice related to status, solidarity, communication, and *nativeness* on a 5-point Likert scale from “very” to “not at all.”

The open-ended questions were designed to answer the last research question. There were three questions in this part:

1. Does accented English of language instructors without communication problems make them more or less preferable and effective and why?
2. Does accented English of (non-language) content course instructors without communication problems make them more or less preferable and effective and why?
3. Among the following types of teachers, which type would you choose for your Korean language instructor and Why?--Type A: a native Korean speaker with an accent in his/her English; Type B: a native English speaker with an accent in his/her Korean; and Type C: a bilingual speaker of Korean and English without an accent in either language.

## Participants

Seventy-five students with various ethnic and linguistic backgrounds participated in the study. They were all enrolled in a university-level Korean language program in Canada. A convenience sampling approach was used to select the sample for the study. Forty-eight students self-identified as ethnic Koreans (twenty-seven 2<sup>nd</sup> generation and twenty-one 1.5 generation), followed by nineteen Chinese, four Japanese, two Filipino and two Dutch. Twenty-two students were speakers of English as their first language (L1) and fifty-three spoke other languages than English as their L1.

## Findings

### *Desirable Characteristics of Language Teachers and Classmates*

In the first phase, the learners of Korean participated in brainstorming about the desirable characteristics of language instructors and classmates. The characteristics that received five or more counts were adopted for the study. Table 1 summarizes the results.

*Table 1.* Desirable Characteristics of Language Instructors and Classmates

For language instructors		For classmates	
Characteristics	Count	Characteristics	Count
Kind/friendly/nice	33	Kind/friendly/nice	34
Patient	21	Helpful	19
Helpful	16	Humorous/fun	14
Understanding	15	Well-mannered**	11
Humorous/fun	15	Cooperative**	10
Communicative	11	Communicative	8
Knowledgeable*	11	Patient	6
Approachable*	9	Understanding	5
Smart/intelligent*	7		

\* Specific to only language instructors \*\*Specific to language classmates

It is worth noting that there are a few characteristics specific to language teachers and to classmates, respectively. “Knowledgeable,” “smart/intelligent,” and “approachable” were specific only to language teachers. On the other hand, “well-mannered” and “cooperative” were specific to classmates. The results indicate that students do not expect their classmates to be

knowledgeable and smart/intelligent, while they expect them to be well mannered and cooperative. In other words, the status related traits are identified as desirable characteristics only for language instructors. Students are concerned about approaching teachers and working cooperatively with classmates, which implies that the nature of the relationship between students is more equal than that between teacher and student.

*Findings Related to Matched-Guise Questionnaire*

**Research Question 1.** How are listeners’ evaluations of speakers affected by accented English and Korean, respectively? To answer this research question, the following hypothesis was tested: Almost all listeners will report lower ratings for accented English and Korean than for non-accented English and Korean on traits related to status, solidarity, and communication. The effect of the accent on listeners’ evaluations of the speakers was very significant [ $F(1,64)=207.82, P < .0001$ ], with both English and Korean accented guises being rated lower on every trait than both native guises, except for “patient” and “kind” for the accented-English guise. The following figures summarize the average ratings for the guises in English and in Korean.

Figure 1. Average Ratings for English (Voice 2) and Accented English (Voice 1)

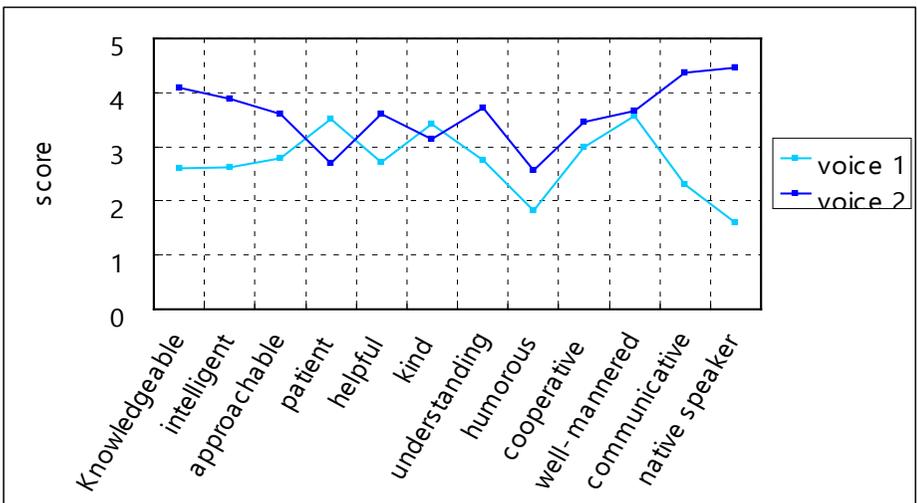
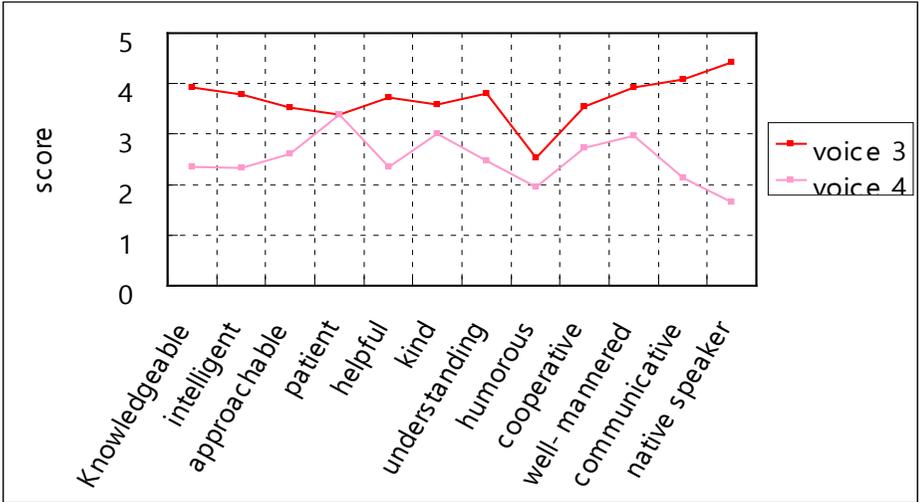


Figure 2. Average Ratings for Korean (Voice 3) and Accented Korean (Voice 4)



The paired samples t-test analysis revealed that the effect of the accent was at its weakest, but still significant, for the solidarity trait [ $F(1, 63) = 5.56, P < .0001$ ]. For status [ $F(1, 73) = 12.76, P < .0001$ ] and communication [ $F(1, 72) = 18.67, p < .0001$ ], the effect of the accent was at its strongest. The “native speaker” trait interacted with neither the trait variable nor the accent variable [ $F(4, 124) = 0.34, P = 0.8528$ ].

**Research Question 2.** How do students’ ethnic backgrounds (ethnic Koreans vs. non-Koreans) relate to their evaluation of those who speak accented Korean? To answer this question, the following hypothesis was tested: listeners with an ethnic Korean background will report lower ratings for the accented Korean speaker’s traits than listeners without a Korean ethnic background. The Korean listeners (forty-eight out of seventy-five participants) reported lower ratings for the accented Korean speaker’s traits (status, solidarity, and communication) than did non-Korean listeners (twenty-seven out of seventy-five participants) [ $F(1, 71) = 8.19, P < 0.0055$ ]. A repeated MANOVA (multivariable analysis of variance) revealed a significant

effect of the ethnicity of listeners on speaker's traits related to speaker's status [ $F(1, 71) = 8.19, P < 0.0055$ ]; to solidarity [ $F(1, 72) = 6.71, P < .0152$ ]; and to communication [ $F(1, 71) = 4.24, P = 0.0431$ ].

**Research Question 3.** How do students' language backgrounds relate to their evaluations of those who speak with accented English? The following hypothesis was tested: listeners with English as their L1 (native English speakers) will report lower ratings for the accented English speaker's traits than others (non-native English speakers). The results did not support the hypothesis. Native English speakers reported higher ratings than did non-native speakers for the accented English speaker's traits. Native English speakers (twenty-two listeners) reported higher ratings than did non-native speakers (fifty-three listeners) for the traits related to status, [ $F(1, 67) = 3.69, P = 0.0303$ ], to solidarity, [ $F(1, 67) = 4.89, P = 0.0104$ ] and to communication [ $F(1, 67) = 2.65, P = 0.0778$ ].

### *Findings Related to Open-Ended Questions*

**Research Question 4.** Do learners hold different attitudes toward their instructors with foreign accented English based on the subject matters (LCTLs vs. other content courses)? The opened-ended questions addressed this research question. The following table summarizes the answers to the first two questions about how favorably students perceive accented English of LCTL instructors and of content course instructors.

*Table 2.* Student Preference

	LCTL instructors	Content course instructors
More preferable	<b>24 (32%)</b>	1 (1%)
Less preferable	7 (9%)	<b>47 (63%)</b>
No difference	39 (52%)	24 (32%)
No response	5 (7%)	3 (4%)

The results demonstrate that 63 % of the students (forty-seven out of seventy-five students) reported that accented English spoken by content course instructors makes the instructors less

preferable. Only one student actually favored accented English by content course instructors. By contrast, one-third of the students (twenty-four out of seventy-five students) reported that accented English made LCTL instructors more preferable. Only seven students answered that accented English made language instructors less preferable. There is a significant difference in the number of students who reported that accented English did not make any difference in terms of their preference for instructors: thirty-nine students answered “no difference” for LCTL instructors, but only twenty-four students for content course instructors. The results demonstrate clearly that students exhibit more tolerance for the accented English of LCTL instructors than for that of content course instructors. Furthermore, one-third of the students even preferred LCTL instructors with accented English.

The following are the main reasons for students’ negative attitudes toward accented English by content course instructors: 1) “the accented English makes instructors’ speech difficult to understand;” 2) “it makes instructors seem less knowledgeable;” and 3) “it bothers me, agitates me, puts me asleep, or makes me uncomfortable.” The first reason is related to communication. Although the question clearly specified content course instructors “without communication problems,” the student responses reveal that they associate accented English with communication problems. The tendency to link accented English to a low level of intelligence or education has been observed frequently in the previous studies utilizing matched-guise techniques. In the current study, this attitude is expressed as “less knowledgeable.” The third reason connotes more of a personal intolerance toward accented English. Regardless of the content course instructors’ actual communication skills in English and their knowledge of the subject matter, students’ negative attitudes toward accented English might have a detrimental influence on the credibility of instructors. The only student who preferred accented English by content course instructors reported: “I feel more comfortable since I’m not a native speaker. They are more sympathetic.”

The reasons for students' preference for LCTL instructors with accented English are as follows: 1) English is not their first language, which means that they are native speakers of the language; 2) they are knowledgeable about the language with correct pronunciation; and 3) they are credible and authentic. The students' preference for LCTL instructors with accented English reveals a specific idea that bilingual speakers tend to be better at one language than the other, or that it is hard to find bilingual speakers who have native-like proficiency in the second languages. They excluded the possibility of having a language instructor who is equally good at both English and the language of instruction. The students' preference also reveals a commonly held idea that native speakers of a language are automatically good at teaching the language. Students entrust language instructors with accented English with an automatic association of the accent and the language teacher's native speaker status. Furthermore, students utilized the native speaker status as the presupposition for instructors' knowledge about and correct pronunciation of the language. Seven students who held unfavorable views on language instructors' accent in English reported that the accent made the instructors' speech difficult to understand. A few students reported that language instructors do not need to speak fluent English, because they do not need to explain complex ideas in comparison to content course instructors. The assumption is linked to the idea that native speakers of a language can teach the language even without professional training.

The third open-ended question provided more information on learners' attitudes toward instructors' accents. Forty-two students preferred Type A (a native Korean speaker with an accent in English) for their Korean language instructor, while only one preferred Type B (a native English speaker with an accent in Korean) and thirty students preferred Type C (a bilingual Korean and English speaker without strong accents in either language). Two had no preference. The students who preferred Type A gave the following reasons for that preference: The Type A instructor is knowledgeable, authentic, and credible, and possesses correct, exact, precise, or true pronunciation, from whom students can learn "real" Korean. The only student who preferred Type B did not provide the reason for

the preference. The learners who chose Type C expressed that a Type C instructor could teach them how to be a good bilingual speaker. One of the two students who accepted all three types said: Type A because the instructor knows problems and issues common to Korean students; Type B because the native English speaker can help students with tips for learning Korean as a second language (L2) based on their own experiences; and Type C because they can be a good role model for being a bilingual speaker. The other student said that she or he prefers Type A but that Types B and C are fine as long as the instructor has perfect Korean pronunciation. It is noteworthy that a significantly higher number of the students preferred Type A to Type C. These responses confirm students' preference for native speakers for language instructors even "with" an accent in English. Rather, language instructors' accent in English serves as a proof of their authority in the language and of their capability as a good language teacher.

## Discussion

This section will discuss how the ideology of *native speaker* is reflected in student perceptions. In recent years, the notion of the *native speaker* in English language education has been contested on different grounds. Phillipson (1992) labels the supremacy of the native speaker in English language teaching the "native speaker fallacy," whereas others assert that the very label "native speaker" is questionable (Canagarajah, 1999). According to Phillipson (1992, 1996), the native speaker fallacy is the belief that native English-speaking teachers are the ideal language teachers, which makes qualified non-native English-speaking teachers suffer from unfair treatment. The challenge to the supremacy of the native speaker in language education has been focused on English language teaching as a second language) and a foreign language, due to the widespread teaching of English worldwide. The current study reveals that the supremacy of native speakers is found not only in English language teaching but also in the teaching of other languages such as Korean. While English is spoken and taught by many "non-native" speakers, many less commonly taught languages including Korean are taught primarily by "native speakers" (although there are a handful of non-

native speaking teachers of Korean), which makes the native speaker supremacy/fallacy in less commonly taught language education even more powerful.

The focus of this discussion is not to validate the native speaker supremacy/fallacy or the label of “native speaker,” but rather to point to the fact that the ideology of the native speaker supremacy widely circulates in language teaching (see Valdes et al., 2003, for the case of Spanish departments in US universities). According to the ideology of native speaker supremacy, teachers and students who are “native” speakers of the target language are considered to be superior to those who are “non-native.” There have been only a handful of studies demonstrating the value of non-native speaking teachers, although mainly in the field of English as a second or foreign language. In his survey of native English-speaking teachers and non-native English-speaking teachers who teach English in ten countries, Medgyes (1996) concluded that compared to native English-speaking teachers who can be good “language models” for their students, non-native teachers can be good “learner models,” having gone through the experience of learning English as a second language. Non-native teachers have had to adopt language learning strategies during their own learning processes, that equip them to teach those strategies and to be more empathetic to their student’s linguistic challenges and needs. Likewise, Phillipson (1996) also argues for the value of non-native English speaking teachers in English language teaching.

Only one student in the current study apparently characterized the strength of the non-native speaking teacher of Korean as a good “learner model” in stating that these teachers can “help students with tips for learning Korean as a second language based on their own experiences.” This demonstrates that the value of non-native speaking language teachers is not widely appreciated either in English education or in LCTL education. Although there has been a movement to acknowledge the contribution and value of non-native English speaking teachers in English language teaching<sup>4</sup>,

---

<sup>4</sup> For example, in 1998, TESOL (an international professional association of teachers of English to speakers of other languages) approved the formation

similar movements in other language teaching have not been as visible. This may be due to the smaller size of the LCTL education field as well as the smaller number of non-native language teachers in LCTL education.

### Implications

The findings of the current study highlight a need for helping language learners raise critical awareness for attitudes toward accents and their relationship to language learning. Negative attitudes toward non-native speakers may lead people to reject their own share of the *communicative burden* (Lippi-Green 1994, 1997; Lindemann, 2002), that is, the *responsibility of mutual comprehension to ensure a successful communicative act*. Lippi-Green (1997) posits that accent is a major player in determining whether speakers would accept or reject the communicative burn and a speaker with an accent is forced to carry the majority of the responsibility in the communicative act. If language learners are not aware of such responsibility, they may fall into the trap of linguistic discrimination by being discriminated against or discriminating against others based on accents. Furthermore, since many LCTL learners themselves are non-native speakers of the target language, their negative attitudes toward non-native accents may prevent them from producing the target language.

It would be beneficial to provide learners with information about the rarity of attainment of native-like pronunciation of a target language and to discuss realistic goals for the target language pronunciation. Native-like pronunciation among learners who acquire a second or foreign language after early childhood is uncommon (Flege, Munro, & MacKay, 1995; Scovel, 2000) with some rare expectations reported (Bongaerts et al., 1997). This reality is closely link to the main reason for the learners of Korean in this study preferred native speaker of Korean with accented English as their language instructor. However, the majority of L2 learners set an attainment of native-like pronunciation as a desirable goal (Derwing,

---

of the NNEST Caucus, which has given nonnative teachers more visibility in the profession.

2003), which might have been partially encouraged by language education through overemphasis on only native-like pronunciation. As Murphy (2014) states, knowing that few non-native speakers will ever speak L2 with native-like pronunciation, it may be “unfair and perhaps even unethical to lead learners to believe they will ever be able to do so” (p. 259). The gap between the goal and the rarity of attaining native-like pronunciation, although not impossible, may cause frustration and disappointment. It is worth raising a question to learners whether attaining native-like pronunciation should be one of the goals in learning an L2 at all. Developing pronunciation that is intelligible and comprehensible (Murphy, 2014) can serve as an alternative goal to native-like pronunciation, depending on learners’ ultimate goal for learning the language. In order to raise language learners’ awareness to this alternative goal, intelligible and comprehensible non-native speech samples can be incorporated into the curriculum (Murphy, 2014).

In addition, a mini matched-guise session can be utilized in a classroom setting through which language learners are exposed to a critical reflection on their own language attitudes and prejudice towards accents. The session can be followed by a discussion in which learners share their life experiences about linguistic discrimination triggered by accents and their responsibility of sharing *communication burn* when they participate in communicating with a speaker with an accent and/or as a speaker with an accent.

## Conclusion

Through utilizing a modified matched-guise technique, this study has demonstrated the negative attitudes toward accents held by the learners of Korean at a university-level language program. It has revealed how learners' attitudes toward foreign accents relate to learners' ethnic and linguistic backgrounds as well as subject matters. Ethnic Korean learners judged all three traits – status, solidarity, and communication of the speaker with accented Korean more negatively than did learners without an ethnic Korean background. On the other hand, learners with English as their first language judged all three traits –status, solidarity, and communication--of the speaker with accented English more positively than did learners with non-English as their first language. The majority of students favored language instructors with accented English, while they preferred content course instructors without accented English. The same foreign accents of instructors were perceived differently depending on the subject matters that they taught: for content course instructors, their accented English undermines their credibility as teachers, while it does the exact opposite for language instructors. Language instructors' accents in English serve as a proof of “native speaker” status and authority over the target language.

Language education can promote the understanding of diverse people and cultures in the world, by creating an equal ground for mutual communication across cultural and linguistic differences. However, negative attitudes of language learners towards accents are in discord with an important function of language education - the construction of more just and equal human relationships without prejudice. In hopes of reducing detrimental consequences of negative attitudes toward accents in language education, the current study has suggested an approach to language pedagogy that engages students in developing critical awareness about linguistic discrimination and the responsibility of language users.

## References

- Beebe, L. M., & Gaies, H. (1984). Speech-accommodation theories: A discussion in terms of second-language acquisition. *International Journal of Sociology of Language*, 46, 5-32.
- Beebe, L. M., & Zuengler, J. (1983). Accommodation theory: An explanation for style shifting in second language dialects. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 195-213). Rowley, MA: Newbury House
- Berk-Seligson, S. (1984). Subjective reactions to phonological variation in Costa Rican Spanish. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 13, 415-442.
- Bongaerts, T., van Summeren, C., Planken, B., & Schils, E. (1997). Age and ultimate attainment in the pronunciation of a foreign language. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 447-465.
- Bourhis, R., & Giles, H. (1976). The language of cooperation in Wales: A field study. *Language Sciences*, 42, 13-16.
- Boyd, S. (2003). Foreign-born teachers in the multilingual classroom in Sweden: The role of attitudes to foreign accent. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 6 (3 & 4), 283-295.
- Buckingham, L. (2015). Shades of cosmopolitanism: EFL teachers' perspectives on English accents and pronunciation teaching in the Gulf. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 36(6), 368-353.
- Butler, Y. G. (2007). How are non-native-English-speaking teachers perceived by young learners? *TESOL Quarterly*, 41 (4), 731-755.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). Interrogating the “native speaker fallacy”: Non-linguistic roots, non-pedagogical result. In G. Graine (Ed.), *Non-native educators in English language teaching* (pp. 77-92). NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cargile, A. C. (1997). Attitudes toward Chinese-accented speech: An investigation in two contexts. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 16, 434-444.
- Derwing, T. M. (2003). What do ESL students say about their accents? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59, 545-564.
- Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2005). Second language accent and pronunciation teaching: A research-based approach. *TESOL Quarterly* 39, (3), 379-397.

- Eckert, P. (2000). *Linguistic variation as social practice: The linguistic construction of identity in Belton High*. Malden: Blackwell.
- Edwards, J. R. (1982). Language attitudes and their implications among English speakers. In E. B. Ryan & H. Giles (Eds.), *Attitudes toward language variation* (pp. 20–33). London: Edward Arnold.
- Fayer, M., & Krasinski, B. (1987). Native and non-native judgments of intelligibility and irritation. *Language Learning*, 37, 313-326.
- Finegan, E. (1999). *Language: Its structure and use*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace.
- Flege, J. E., M. J. Munro., & MacKay, I. R. A. (1995). Factors affecting strength of perceived foreign accent in a second language. *Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, 97, 3125–3134.
- Ford, C. E. (1984). The influence of speech variety on teachers' evaluation of students with comparable academic ability. *TESOL Quarterly*, 18(1), 25-40.
- Fremder, R. R., & Lambert, W. E. (1973). Speech style and scholastic success: The tentative relationships and possible implementations for lower class children. In R. Shuy (Ed.), *Sociolinguistics: Current trends and prospects* (pp. 237-271). Washington, DC.: Georgetown University Press.
- Gaies, S. J., & Beebe, J. D. (1991). *The matched-guise technique for measuring attitudes and their implications for language education: A Critical Assessment*. Reports Report: ED367168. 25pp. 1991
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House
- Gill, M. M. (1994). Accent and stereotypes: Their effect on perceptions of teachers and lecture comprehension. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 22, 349-361.
- Irvine, J. T. (2001). "Style" as distinctiveness: The culture and ideology of linguistic differentiation. In P. Eckert & J. Rickford (Eds.), *Style and sociolinguistic variation* (pp. 21-43). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Irvine, J. T., & Gal, S. (2000). Language ideology and linguistic differentiation. In P.V. Kroskrity (Ed.), *Regimes of language: Ideologies, politics, and identities* (pp. 35-83). Santa Fe, NM: School of American Research Press.

- Krashen, S. (1983). *The input hypothesis*. London: Longman.
- Kroskrity, P. V. (2000). *Regimes of language: Ideologies, politics, and identities*. Santa Fe, NM: School of American Research Press.
- Lambert, W. E., Hodgeson, R. C., Gardner, R. C., & Fillenbaum, S. (1960). Evaluational reactions to spoken languages. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 60 44-51.
- Lindemann, S. (2002). Listening with an attitude: A model of native-speaker comprehension of non-native speakers in the United States. *Language in Society*, 31, 419-441.
- Lindemann, S. (2003). Korean, Chinese or Indians? Attitudes and ideologies about non-native English speakers in the United States. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 7 (3), 348-364.
- Lippi-Green, R. (1994). Accent, standard language ideology, and discriminatory pretext in the courts. *Language in Society*, 23, 163-98.
- Lippi-Green, R. (1997). *English with an accent: Language, ideology, and discrimination in the United States*. New York: Routledge.
- Markham, P. L. (1988). Gender and the perceived expertness of the speaker as factors in ESL listening recall, *TESOL Quarterly*, 22, 397-406.
- Medgyes, P. (1996). Native or non-native: Who's worth more? In T. Hedge & N. Whitney (Ed.), *Power, pedagogy and practice* (pp. 31-42). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Munro, M. J., & Derwing, T. M. (1995). Foreign accent, comprehensibility, and intelligibility in the speech of second language learners. *Language Learning*, 45, 73-97.
- Murphy, J. M. (2014). Intelligible, comprehensible, non-native models in ESL/EFL pronunciation teaching. *System*, 42, 258-269.
- Osborn, T. A. (2005). *Critical reflection and the FL classroom*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Phillipson, R. (1996). ELF: The native speaker's burden. In T. Hedge & N. Whitney (Eds.), *Power, pedagogy & practice* (pp. 23-30). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Piske, T., MacKay, I. R., & Flege, J. E. (2001). Factors affecting degree of foreign accent in an L2: A review. *Journal of Phonetics*, 29, 191-215.

- Richards, J. C., Platt, J., & Weber, J. (1985). *Dictionary of applied linguistics*, London: Longman.
- Ryan, E. B., Carranza, M. A., & Moffie, R. W. (1977). Reactions toward varying degrees of accentedness in speech of Spanish-English bilinguals. *Language and Speech*, 20, 267-273.
- Ryan, E. B., & Bulik, C. M. (1982). Evaluations of middle class and lower class speakers of standard American and German-accented English. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 1, 51-61.
- Rubin, D. L. (1992). Non-language factors affecting undergraduates' judgments of non-native English-speaking teaching assistants. *Research in Higher Education*, 33, 511-531.
- Rubin, D. L., & Smith, K. A. (1990). Effects of accent, ethnicity, and lecture topic on undergraduates' perceptions of nonnative English-speaking teaching assistants. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14(3), 337-353.
- Ryan, E. B., & Sebastian, R. J. (1980). The effects of speech style and social class background on social judgments of speakers. *British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 19, 229-233.
- Schumann, J. (1987). *The Pidginization process: A model of second language acquisition*, Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Scovel, T. (2000). A critical review of the critical period research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 20, 213-223.
- Tauroza, S., & Luk, J. (1997). Accent and second language listening comprehension. *RELC Journal*, 28, 54-71.
- Valdes, G., Gonzalez, S. V., Garcia, D. L., & Marquez, P. (2003). Language ideology: The care of Spanish in departments of FLs. *Anthology and Education Quarterly*, 34 (1), 3-26.
- Woolard, K. A. (1998). Introduction: Language ideology as a field of inquiry. In B. Schieffelin, K. A. Woolard & P. V. Kroskrity (Eds.), *Language ideologies: Practice and theory* (pp. 3-47). Oxford: Oxford University Press.