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A Study on the Linguistic Prejudice Against Korean-accented English*

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This study investigated the linguistic prejudice against Korean-accented English (KoE) among Korean speaking learners of English (KSLs). To achieve this aim, this study set two objectives: 1) to explore the factors forming the linguistic prejudice against KoE, and 2) to flesh out valid determiners of KSLs' linguistic prejudice. A questionnaire survey designed to measure prejudice toward foreign accented English by Ura, Preston, and Mearns (2015) was adopted and administered. Data were collected from seventy-eight KSLs, mostly first year college students. The questionnaire items containing 36 items were grouped thematically drawing on the five constructs: credibility, dynamism, social status, language-preference, and foreignness. Descriptive statistical analysis and comparisons between group means were performed for four factors validated with high internal consistency (α > .80). The findings suggest that the linguistic prejudices toward KoE are not always in line with past research showing somewhat negative attitudes toward KoE. Less proficient KSLs tended to be somewhat tolerant of KoE accented speakers. In addition, the degree of some factors in the linguistic prejudice was partially determined by study disciplines and self-assessed ratings in English speaking skills: KSLs majoring in English and who rated themselves at the moderate skill level showed their disapproval to KoE speech.

[Linguistic prejudice/language attitude/Korean-accented English]

I. INTRODUCTION

The wide usage of English as a lingua franca (ELF) has led to the development of

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multiple forms of English. As technology allows people to be hyper-connected across geographical borders, encounters with different varieties of English become even more frequent. Accordingly, theoretical discussions have been undertaken to address the possibilities of the current multilingual, and multicultural experiences. Kachru (1985) suggested a renowned three-circle model of English, world Englishes (WE) based on diverse sociolinguistic contexts. His WE model includes the inner circle (e.g., the native English usage in UK, and US), the outer circle (e.g., English as a second language context, as in Singapore and India), and the expanding circle (e.g., English as a foreign language context in China, Japan, and Korea). The WE paradigm tends to be recognized for paying attention to legitimating non-native speaker varieties, from the perspective of the outer circle (Matsumoto, 2011; Pennycook, 2003). That is, existing expanding circle varieties are somewhat excluded in WE discussions.

ELF is considered as an alternative model which has been widely used as a theoretical framework that is in parallel with the concept of WE. The notion of WE is disposed to identify English varieties according to national territories (Dewey, 2007; Pennycook, 2003) however ELF, underpinned by theories of language contact, is rather inclined to exploring fluidity and the hybrid and intercultural nature of modern languages (Jenkins, 2000, Seidlehofer, 2009). ELF interactions have been studied from a wide range of aspects: from phonetic and phonological features central to intelligibility (Derwing & Munro, 2015; Deterding, 2013; Jenkins, 2000; Rahimi & Ruzrokh, 2016), lexiogrammar (Kirkpatrick, 2008) and pragmatics (Cogo & Pitzl, 2016; Jenkins, 2000; Lindemann, 2002) to attitudinal studies (Ahn, 2014; Chan, 2013; Fraser, 2009; Ishikawa, 2017; Jenkins, 2007; Lee, Mo, Lee, & Sung, 2013; Lindemann, 2003; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2015). Of many research areas, the current study investigated the attitudinal aspect toward Korean-accent English (KoE) taking ELF into account, attempting to reveal what is concealed beneath the surface of linguistic prejudice against KoE.

Inarguably, English language education in South Korea remains affected by normative approach to English. Considering English as a native language (ENL), particularly American ENL, as the unquestionable norm in English language learning and teaching (Ahn, 2014; Chung & Bong, 2017; Lawrence, 2012; Lee & Green, 2016; Lee, et al., 2013), English language learners in Korea have been guided to form a somewhat defective concept of the English language. Thus, intended to provide a basis for understanding attitudes towards KoE, the current study set out to examine the properties of the prejudice against KoE and a potential determiner affecting their levels. This study was expected to yield meaningful insights because the prejudice toward KoE has been relatively little studied.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Language Attitude

The global spread of English has brought important debates often associated with affective variables (e.g., attitude, motivation, anxiety, perception, etc.) in consideration of their essential role in shaping views on multicultural interactions and worldviews. Having been a core topic in sociolinguistics, attitudes are described as consisting of three elements: (1) cognitive, (2) affective, and (3) behavioral components. First, the cognitive component concerns beliefs and thoughts. This component draws on the concept that attitudes are derived from past experiences, so attitudes are 'learned', and 'reinforced' (Garrett, 2010) by surrounding factors. The cognitive component is deemed to receive scant attention in attitudinal studies because it is often regarded as an opinion of a person. Second, the affective component, which much attitudinal studies of language has been largely focused on, deals with the attitudes of a person. It is concerned with the feelings or emotions of a person connected to various matters and it is often examined with bipolar adjectives. Chan (2016) stated that the test items used in this component mainly fall into the three dimensions developed by Zahn and Hopper (1985): status (e.g., intelligent, rich), solidarity (e.g., friendly, kind), and dynamism (e.g., active, confident). Third, the behavioral component is associated with how the attitude affect a person's behavior.

Given the three components, researchers have expanded attitudinal studies in myriad disciplines, and key features encompassing the attitudinal studies are portrayed. Ishikawa (2017) claimed common ground on attitudes as being (1) feasible to measure, (2) targeted to a psychological matter, and (3) implied and cannot be directly observed. In an effort to provide evidence of attitudinal study, the current research regards the linguistic prejudice as evaluative (Ishikawa, 2017) and capable of being approximated as to the level of the emotional accounts.

2. The Stigma of Non-Native Accents

Since the work of Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner and Fillenbaum (1960), a number of researchers have tried to adopt and extend matched guise and verbal guise techniques (referred to MGT and VGT, respectively) to formalize language attitudes. Non-native English varieties are likely to be stigmatized by both native English speakers and English language learners, represented by what is called as 'foreignness,' or 'accentedness' (Derwing & Munro, 2015). Lindemann (2003) conducted an experiment to thirty-nine native English speakers who were mostly undergraduate students in

freshmen year residing in the Midwest US. Language attitude was measured using adjectives related to status and solidarity on a seven-point Likert scale after listeners were presented with ten speech samples of Korean English speakers and native English speakers. They showed that Korean-accented English was identified as outgroup without being recognized by a specific ethnical background, while US native English was considered as dominant and ingroup. This led all Korean English speakers to be evaluated negatively both on the status and solidarity related factor than were their native English speaker counterparts. Gluszek and Dovidio (2010) went on to point out that speakers with a non-native accent would not only receive negative attitudes from native English speakers, but also in fact experience difficulties in communicative practices and lack of sense of belongings due to the outgroup accents.

It is interesting how the attitudes of second language (L2) speakers toward non-native accents have been depicted in a number of studies. In fact, a variety of L1-accented Englishes were found to be somewhat disapproved within East Asian boundaries, including Korean-accented English (Ahn, 2014; Lee & Green, 2016; Lee, et al., 2013; Lindemann, 2003), Japanese-accented English (Matsuura, 2012; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2015; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011), and Hong Kong-accented English (Chan, 2016). Along with the general negative attitudes toward non-native accents, L2 English speakers displayed a strong influence of traditional standard norms of English depending on context (reflecting historical, educational, political, economic, social status and other complex reasons). In Hong Kong, on one hand, students seemed to take British English as a correct form of language (Chan, 2016). On the other hand, language learners in Japan and Korea were likely to lean toward American English (Chung & Bong, 2017; Lawrence, 2012; Lee & Green, 2016; Lee, et al., 2013; Matsuura, 2007; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2015). Ahn (2014) and Jenkins (2007) explored teachers' attitudes, in particular, and revealed that L2 English speaking teachers indicated adherence to the 'standard' inner-circle varieties. At the same time, not all non-native accents have been viewed with negative filters. Some outer circle varieties, or so-called nativized Englishes, such as Indian and Sri-Lanka Englishes, are considered as positive to the speakers of each country (Bernaisch, 2012; Bernaish & Koch, 2016). However, it is likely to be undeniable that the language attitude in east Asian contexts have largely remain negative.

Jenkins (2007) has argued that the formation of negative attitudes toward a language has been attributed to a deeper-seated factor, prejudice, which has also been called a predisposition, stereotype, or fixed idea in some other studies (Ahn, 2014; Chan, 2013; Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010). However, the difference between attitude and prejudice has not been as well clarified so far (Ura, Preston, & Mearns, 2015): thus, it was difficult to identify the exact truth about the two. Of the few studies capable of articulating their

focus clearly on linguistic prejudice, Ura et al. (2015) developed a test instrument to measure the level of linguistic prejudice in particular. The current study, therefore, attempts to identify linguistic prejudice in Korea utilizing the questionnaire developed by Ura et al. (2015). Some speakers of ELF were deemed proud of their L1-accent (Jenkins, 2007). It is worth discussing what prejudice toward KoE should look like. The findings from this study may broaden understanding and provide evidence of what constitutes linguistic prejudice with special attention to Korean-accented English. Taken together, two research questions were created in the current study to analyze the prejudice against Korean-accented English.

1. What factors can be identified in linguistic prejudice toward Korean-accented English for Korean-speakers of English?

2. How do learner factors affect their prejudice levels against Korean-accented English?

III. METHODS

1. Participants

A total of 78 undergraduate students took part in the study. The participants included 45 males (57.7%) and 33 females (42.3%), with ages ranging from 18 to 27 (M = 18.8). They identified themselves as Korean, born and raised in Korea. All of them were freshmen-year students in three compulsory English classes as a part of their course of study at a university in Daejeon, South Korea. The participants majored in three disciplines: advanced material engineering (34.6%), industrial design (37.2%), and English language and literature (28.2%). Regardless of their majors, the participants were considered to have similar levels of English ability, as determined by their scores on the Oxford Placement Test 2 (Allan, 2004). No statistically significant difference in the English scores was found between participants' majors (F (2, 75) = .163, p = .850). At the same time, participants were asked to self-assess their English-speaking skills by marking a line at the point where the beginning of the scale represented the basic level (1 point) and the end of the scale represented the advanced level (5 points). There were 20 students (25.6%) who marked 1 as being at basic level, 28 students (35.9%) at 2, neither being basic nor intermediate, and 30 students (38.5%) at 3, being the average level in English-speaking skills. Interestingly, none of the participants described their own levels of English speaking to be higher than average, at 4 or 5 (advanced). In addition, most

participants (91%) indicated they did not have any experience abroad during their education. Only seven (9%) students revealed that they had gone abroad aiming to learn English for less than a year. Four of them had gone to expanding-circle countries to study English as a foreign language (e.g., China, or Japan), two other students had gone to inner-circle countries (e.g., Australia or the US) where English is spoken as a native language, and one to an outer-circle country (the Philippines) where English is spoken as an institutionalized second language. Nonetheless, the participants all shared similar general attributes, such as ethnographic background (Korean, and L2 English speaker), school year, and English language proficiency level at the time of the study.

2. Instruments

A survey questionnaire, developed by Ura et al. (2015), was adopted in this study. Intended to reveal the existence of linguistic prejudice toward accented English speakers, the original questionnaire contained 36 items. Some revisions were made from the original questionnaire, attempting to make it more relevant to the current study's goal. For example, instead of referring to the 'speakers with accents,' in general, the term 'Korean-accent speakers' was used for the participants to directly indicate the prejudice formed in response to KoE. Respondents were asked to mark each item upon a five-point Likert scale to indicate how much they endorse each statement from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The reliability of the questionnaire was tested to ensure the collected data were consistent and reliable in measuring linguistic prejudice, which was measured with use of Cronbach's alpha coefficient and was determined to be highly reliable with a value of 0.943.

In the fifth week of fall semester in 2017, the survey was administered within regular class hours. The data were collected using the Google Survey platform and by sending the link to the questionnaire to the participants' mobile phones. All the participants were informed about the condition and purpose of the study and read an informed consent online to collect the data. Then, they proceeded to complete the personal information form and the questionnaire on linguistic prejudice toward KoE. The questionnaire survey took no longer than 30 minutes to complete.

3. Data Analysis

The questionnaire survey yielded 78 respondents in total. In the original test battery (Ura, et al.,2015), there were five constructs stated to be taken into account in developing the test instrument: (a) *foreignness*, concerning the fact that accented English speakers are likely to be excluded from American society; (b) *language-preference*,

associated with the predisposition to native English accents (e.g., UK, Standard American English) in language learning; (c) *dynamism*, indicating a lack of initiatives on the part of accented English speakers, which could possibly be seen as passiveness; (d) *credibility*, related to the level of trustworthiness of sources given by speakers with foreign accents; and (e) *social status*, connected with how the accented speakers would likely to be assessed in terms of social class, education, economic position, and other lifestyle factors. The study (ibid.) has shown the five representative items corresponding to each construct, rather having stipulated the extent to which test item was to assess which of the constructs. The five representative items are summarized as follows: "Speakers with accents do not belong to American culture as much as native English speakers (item 36)" for *foreignness*, "Speaking native sounding English will bring more respect than speaking with accents (item 2)" for *language-preference*, "Speakers with accents are less outspoken than native English speakers (item33)" for *Dynamism*, "An eyewitness with an accent is less trustworthy than an eyewitness who is a native English speaker (item 17)" for *credibility*, and "Those speaking English with accents hold lower status than native English speakers (item 18)" for *social status*. Based on the given items standing for five factors, the remaining 31 items were repeatedly screened and were grouped in a search for similar conceptual categories by the author. The five factors, which were used throughout this study as generic terms, were then validated by conducting a Cronbach's coefficient test using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 24. The five factors with their thematically related questionnaire items were summarized with the item numbers included in each factor, the number of items contained in the factor, and Cronbach's alpha of each factor as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Cronbach Alpha, Questionnaire Item Numbers for Each Subscale

Subscale (Factor)	Questionnaire item numbers	*N* of Items	Cronbach α
1: Credibility	5, 8, 9, 17, 20, 26, 34	7	.876
2: Dynamism	3, 4, 6, 7, 12, 15, 16, 23, 24, 29, 30, 33	12	.852
3: Social status	11, 14, 18, 19, 21, 28, 32, 35	8	.822
4: Language-preference	1, 2, 10, 13, 22, 31	6	.729
5: Foreignness	25, 27, 36	3	.584

Note. See appendix for all questionnaire items in Korean.

The reliability coefficients of the factors were included in the analysis if the value appeared to have reasonably acceptable internal consistencies (Field, 2009). Four factors

included in the analysis were *credibility, dynamism, social status, and language-preference*. *Foreignness* was dropped from the analysis due to the low reliability of the items (Cronbach's alpha value = 0.584).

Subsequently, a one-way ANOVA and independent t-test were computed on the basis of three learner variables: (1) gender (male or female), (2) major of study the participant was pursuing at the time of the study, and (3) self-assessment in English speaking skills. Having been discussed in a number of studies as being prospect determiners on attitudinal behaviors (Ellis, 2008; Tomiyana, 1980), this study focused on the three independent variables as a source of explanations for linguistic prejudice by running a one-way ANOVA test.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. The Measurement of the Linguistic Prejudice against KoE

The results of questionnaire items with respect to the four factors are summarized with descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) in Table 2. Given that higher scores on the measure are indicative of greater linguistic prejudice against English speakers with accents (Ura et al., 2015), the overall mean score (M = 2.03, SD = .871) which fell below the scale midpoint (3) allows to determine that the KSLs do not show a strong prejudice on measures toward their L1-accented English, KoE.

TABLE 2

Descriptive Statistics of the Linguistic Prejudice Toward KoE Questionnaire

Factor	Questionnaire items		*M (SD)*
1: Credibility	5	Speakers using KoE are less informative than native English speakers.	1.87(0.877)
	8	It is irritating when a sales associate uses KoE.	
	9	It is frustrating to talk to someone who use KoE when I call customer service.	
	17	An eyewitness using KoE is less trustworthy than an eyewitness who is a native English speaker.	
	20	KoE speakers are less persuasive than native English speakers.	
	26	A politician using KoE is more annoying to hear than a politician with native English.	
	34	KoE speakers have more trouble interacting with others than native English speakers.	

2: Dynamism	3	KoE speakers are less assertive than native English speakers.	1.96(0.872)
	4	KoE speakers cannot develop relationships with their clients as well as native English speakers.	
	6	KoE speakers are less adapted to American culture than native English speakers.	
	7	KoE speakers cannot lead group discussions as well as native English speakers.	
	12	I can work better with an accent-free coworker than a coworker using the KoE accent.	
	15	KoE speakers should not attain as many management positions as native English speakers.	
	16	A car sales associate with the KoE accent cannot sell as many cars as a car sales associate who is a native English speaker.	
	23	It is annoying when my professor has the KoE accent.	
	24	Speakers using KoE accents are less confident than English native speakers.	
	29	I do not prefer to work under a boss with the KoE accent.	
	30	KoE speakers are more submissive than native English speakers.	
	33	KoE speakers are less outspoken than native English speakers.	
3: Social Status	11	A professor with the KoE accent is less effective than a professor with native English.	1.71(0.749)
	14	KoE speakers do not know much about spoken English.	
	18	Those speaking KoE hold lower status than native English speakers.	
	19	Those speaking KoE are less prestigious than native English speakers.	
	21	KoE speakers are less intelligent than native English speakers.	
	28	KoE speakers cannot speak English as well as native English speakers.	
	32	KoE speakers cannot express their opinions as well as native English speakers.	
	35	Speakers with the KoE accents are not as intellectual as native English speakers.	
4: Language-preference	1	I think that KoE speakers should learn to speak English better.	2.57(0.984)
	2	Speaking native sounding English will bring more respect than speaking with the KoE accents.	
	10	When speakers get rid of their KoE accent, they can be more successful in their career.	
	13	Native English speakers are better trained to teach than KoE speakers.	

	22	KoE speakers are more overbearing than native English speakers.
	31	I think that speakers with KoE accents should have positions that do not require much spoken English.
		Total 2.03(0.871)

Note. $N = 78$

The first factor included seven items, all of which indicated the reliability of people using KoE, and thus was titled 'credibility'. Sample items included "Speakers using the KoE are less informative than native English speakers (M = 1.96, SD = 0.874)", and "KoE speakers are less persuasive than native English speakers (M = 1.92, SD = 0.894)". The mean score ranged from 1.67 (item 17, "An eyewitness using the KoE is less trustworthy than an eyewitness who is a native English speaker") to 2.08 (item 34, "KoE speakers have more trouble interacting with others than native English speakers"). The mean score for the seven items in the first factor was 1.87 (SD = 0.877), which appeared to be far below the midpoint of the five-Likert scale.

The second factor included twelve items, all of which had to do with the idea that the personality traits of people using KoE are somewhat reserved and passive; thus, it was titled 'dynamism'. Sample items included: "KoE speakers cannot lead group discussions as well as native English speakers (M = 2.26, SD = 1.062)" as well as "Speakers using KoE accents are less confident than English native speakers (M = 1.77, SD = 0.821)". The mean scores ranged from 1.63 (item 29, I do not prefer to work under a boss with the KoE accent) to 2.47 (item 6, KoE speakers are less adapted to American culture than native English speakers). The mean scores for the twelve items in the second factor was 1.96 (SD = 0.872), which fell further below the midpoint of the five-point Likert scale, giving further evidence that KSLs show a subtle level of prejudice regarding the characteristics of people using KoE.

The third factor included eight items, all of which were related to social class, education, economic position, and other sociocultural factors of people using KoE; thus, it was titled 'social status'. Sample items included "Those speaking KoE hold lower status than native English speakers (M = 1.67, SD = 0.861)" and "KoE speakers are less intelligent than native English speakers (M = 2.01, SD = 0.974)". The mean scores ranged from 1.36 (item 21, KoE speakers are less intelligent than native English speakers) to 2.06 (item 14, KoE speakers do not know much about spoken English). The mean scores for the eight items in this third factor was 1.71 (SD = 0.749).

The fourth factor referred to 'language-preference' and included six items related to the language learners' tendency to believe that targeting a native English accent is crucial for learning English among KSLs. Sample items include "When speakers get rid

of their KoE accent, they can be more successful in their career (*M* = 2.79, *SD* = 1.155)" and "Native English speakers are better trained to teach than KoE speakers (*M* = 2.36, *SD* = 1.069)." Scores ranged from 1.64 (item 22, KoE speakers are more overbearing than native English speakers" to 3.46 (item 1, I think that KoE speakers should learn to speak English better). The mean scores for the six items was 2.57 with an SD of 0.984.

Data collected in the current study do not tell the whole story of linguistic prejudice toward KoE, but it provides valuable information indicating that KSLs are not necessarily pessimistic in viewing shared-L1 accent speakers, KoE speakers. Considering that higher scores represent greater prejudice (Ura, et al. 2015), the mean scores in general as well as those of each factor were relatively low, thus making it difficult to regard KSLs as prejudiced against KoE (*M* = 2.03, *SD* = 0.871). All in all, it is safe to assume that KSLs do not account for using KoE on the linguistic prejudice, specifically the four factors—credibility, dynamism, social status, and language-preference. In other words, it is seemingly sufficient to point out that KSLs themselves do not necessarily regard KoE in a negative way.

Such findings are the exact opposite of those of the examination on the attitudes toward KoE, which have been reported to be largely negative either from English native speakers and L2 English speakers (Ahn, 2014; Lee & Green, 2016; Lee, et al. 2013; Lindemann, 2003).

2. Determining Learner Variable on the Prejudice toward KoE

Subsequent analysis was carried out to extract the determining learner variable for each of the factors comprising linguistic prejudice. The learner variables examined in this study have been commonly identified as sociolinguistic factors that affect patterns of language choice and use (Ellis, 2008). The three variables, (1) gender (male or female), (2) major of study that the participant was pursuing at the time of the study, and (3) self-assessment in English speaking skills, were implemented as independent variables to explore the influential factor on the linguistic prejudice constructs.

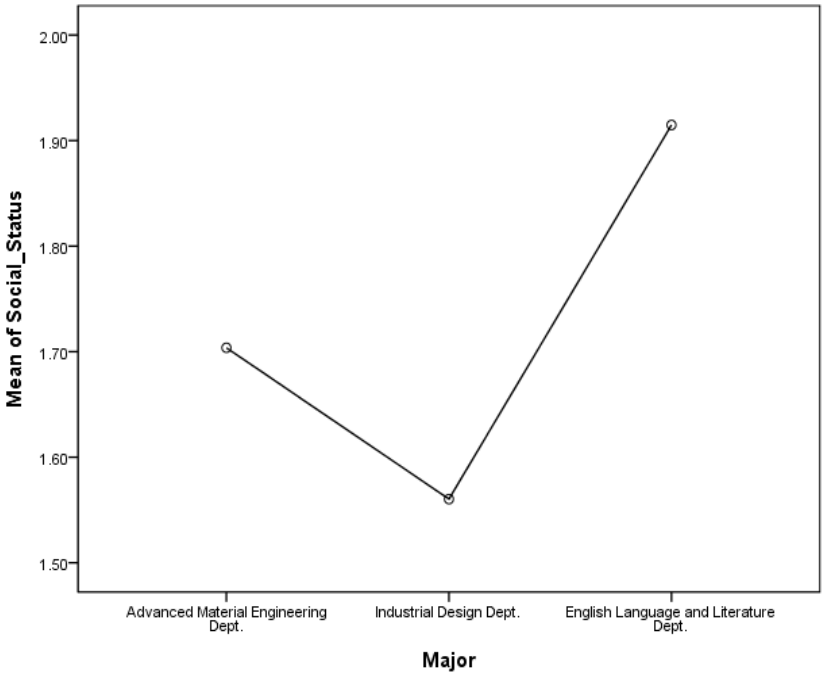
The first learner variable, gender, did not present any statistically significant difference for the four factors: *credibility* (t = 0.480, df = 76, p = 0.63), *dynamism* (t = 1.158, p = 0.88), *social status* (t = 0.980, p = 0.33), and *language-preference* (t = 1.159, p = 0.25). For both female and male KSLs, all sub-factors of linguistic prejudice toward KoE speakers were equally rated with low mean scores, meaning that KSLs were less prejudiced about KoE speakers, and gender was not a major determinant of their viewpoints.

One-way ANOVA tests also confirmed significant differences in some factors with one of the two learner variables; majors or self-assessment skills. Of four factors

comprising linguistic prejudice, the *social status* factor showed statistical differences among major of study (F (2, 75) = 3.210, p = 0.046). Tukey post-hoc comparisons showed that students majoring in English language and literature tended to agree more (M = 1.91, SD = 0.416) compared to industrial design majoring students (M = 1.56, SD = 0.588) in association with the statement that KoE speakers are likely to be assessed with lower social status than that of native speakers. This finding suggests that the more exposure to and interest in English, the more likely KSLs are to evaluate KoE speakers at a lower level of *social status*. Thus, field of study could be a determiner of linguistic prejudice. The results of the mean score differences for this factor with respect to fields of study are presented in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

Mean Differences between *Social Status* Factor Depending on Fields of Study



Aside from the *social status* factor, two other factors, *credibility* and *language-preference* showed statistically significant differences. The descriptive statistics measured for the learner variables of each factor are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
Descriptive Statistics for the Four Constructs by the Self-Assessed Speaking Skills

Subscales (factors)	1. Beginner	2. Low-intermediate	3. Intermediate
	Mean (SD)	*Mean (SD)*	*Mean (SD)*
Credibility	1.71 (0.656)	1.70 (0.505)*	2.14 (0.731)*
Language-preference	2.48 (0.669)	2.30 (0.518)*	2.88 (0.624)*

Note. Beginner (N = 20), low-intermediate (N = 28), intermediate (N = 30); $^{*}p < 0.05$

It was found that the determinant for these two factors was the self-assessment in English speaking skills by the participants (for *credibility*, F (2, 75) = 4.332, p = 0.017; for *language preference*, F (2, 75) = 7.038, p = 0.002). On both *credibility* and *language-preference* measures, students who self-reported as being intermediate level (third out of five levels) in their English-speaking skills were likely to display stronger agreement than those at the low-intermediate level (second out of five).

For each factor, KSLs in the intermediate level group were found to have the highest mean score, followed by beginner, and low-intermediate groups. Students in the low-intermediate group had the lowest mean score with a small variation between in-group members (SD > 0.6), meaning that the low-intermediate groups students would almost always rate low scores on both factors. This finding is shown in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2
Mean Differences between Two Factors Depending on Self-Assessment



For the *credibility* factor, on one hand, the difference between the low-intermediate and intermediate groups was 0.44 (p = 0.029). The mean score for this factor in the low-intermediate group was 1.70 (SD = 0.505) whereas the mean in the intermediate group was 2.14 (SD = 0.731). For the *language-preference* factor, on the other hand, the difference between the low-intermediate and intermediate groups was 0.58 (p = 0.001). The mean score in the low-intermediate group for this factor was 2.30 (SD = 0.518) while the mean score in the intermediate group was 2.88 (SD = 0.624).

Given that both differences are judged to be statistically significant, it is likely to be considered that KSLs at the low-intermediate level have less prejudiced perception toward KoE speakers with close attention to their *credibility* and *language-preference* than beginner or intermediate level students. Therefore, the self-assessed ratings in English proficiency could be another determiner of linguistic prejudice along with the major of study of KSLs. This finding is in line with a previous study conducted by Darvin (2017). Darvin showed differences in attitudes toward L1-accent English on the basis of how they position themselves by the social classes. Two participants from the same ethnical background and sharing similar English proficiency levels took part in the study. However, their social classes were in stark contrast: one lower extremity and one upper extremity. Indicating their ambivalent attitudes toward English aligning with their social status, Darvin (2017) argued that the divergent attitudes are likely to stem from "the sense of agency and linguistic confidence (p. 305)". Likewise, this *sense of agency and linguistic confidence* (Darvin, 2017) may have played a critical role in forming the linguistic prejudice against KoE.

V. CONCLUSION

This study utilized a questionnaire developed to investigate linguistic prejudice in particular (Ura et al. 2015) and attempted to study linguistic prejudice toward KoE that KSLs are likely to bear. This article has described the differences in levels of underlying factors comprising linguistic prejudice toward KoE and explored whether any determiners can be detected that can affect the level of the biased perception. Three primary findings were observed in the current study. First, four factors valid for the Korean context were identified: (1) credibility, (2) dynamism, (3) social status, and (4) language-preference. Second, based on the measured level of each factor, KSLs were deemed to be far from being prejudiced, and more likely to have a positive stance on KoE speakers. That is, KSLs tend to embrace the use of L1-accented English. Third, two possible determiners in varying the degree of linguistic prejudice were revealed: the field of study and the self-assessed ratings in English speaking skills. KSLs who are more

exposed to English during their coursework in undergraduate study as in an English department are likely to have stronger prejudice than those who are majoring in industrial design. At the same time, KSLs who self-evaluate their English-speaking skills at the intermediate level are likely to present greater prejudice than those at beginner and low-intermediate levels.

Undoubtedly, KoE and any other non-native accented English have been accused of being deficient and shaping negative attitudes to ENL speakers as well as English language learners themselves. The findings reported here, however, throw doubt on abundant confirmation of the stigmatized attitudes toward non-native English accents in outer and expanding circles, as reported in a number of studies (Ahn, 2014; Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010; Lee & Green, 2016; Lee et al, 2013; Lindemann, 2003). At the same time, the findings suggest that the negative attitudes, or linguistic prejudice in particular, should be viewed as gradual and progressive over time with a significant contribution from the linguistic confidence, which may be associated with academic discipline and self-assessment of English language proficiency. As Jenkins (2007) once argued, it should not be disregarded that the negative attitudes alone may limit the acceptance of an L1-accented English as legitimate English. That is where the importance of English learning environment comes to bear; my point is that, if it is too early to tell ELF should be taught, it calls for taking steps to cultivate the L2 learning environment aiming to promote ELF awareness. Given the limited input English input quality in Korea (Chung & Bong, 2017), it is high time to widen the scope of learning content, such as to develop learning materials with the inclusion of the authentic usages of diverse English varieties. If KoE were presented as a variety of English in the learning materials, and this general lack of non-native English varieties in the learning context at present could be fulfilled, it may begin to ease concerns of KSLs at any proficiency levels in regard to deepening the prejudice against KoE; and thereby to help KSLs to see themselves as legitimate ELF users.

Although the study has produced a number of useful results in better understanding linguistic prejudice against KoE, there are limitations that need to be noted. The present study only involved Korean English learners at the elementary level, specifically A2 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The research needs to be extended to include students from a wider range of English proficiency levels with a minimum number of thirty participants in each group. There also need to be further improvements in data analysis. In subsequent studies, using a statistical method to ensure the reliability of the thematic categorization of the items would be more fruitful than calculating Cronbach alpha coefficient alone.

English users are becoming increasingly diverse; nonetheless, the potential impact of linguistic prejudice against speakers with foreign accents has not been discussed as

explicitly as other individual differences. A unique aspect of the present study is that this research directly touched upon the topic of prejudice, which has been considered an influential factor to form attitudes. The current study also provided interesting evidence that linguistic prejudice against L1 accented English can be distinguished depending on which academic field speakers are engaged in and how they would rate themselves in English proficiency. For the linguistic prejudice against KoE to be fully examined, further study should investigate other valid subfactors underlying it, with constant follow up in measuring the degree of prejudice, as it is durable yet possibly transitory in nature.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire Survey in Korean (adapted from Ura, et al., 2015)

1 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 말하기를 향상시키기 위한 학습이 필요하다.
2 영어 원어민의 발음은 한국식 영어 발음보다 더 존중 받을 것이다.
3 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민보다 자기주장이 약하다
4 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민만큼 회사 고객들과 유대감을 형성하기 어렵다.
5 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민보다 유익한 정보를 주지 못한다.
6 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민보다 영미권 문화에 적응하기 힘들다.

7 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민만큼 그룹 토론을 이끌어 갈 수 없다.
8 판매 직원이 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하면 신경에 거슬린다.
9 서비스센터에 전화했을 때 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하면 언짢은 느낌이 든다.
10 한국식 영어 발음을 교정한다면 사회에서 더 성공할 수 있을 것이다.
11 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 교수님은 영어 원어민 발음을 가진 교수님보다 유능하지 못하다.
12 나는 영어 원어민 발음을 가진 회사동료와 일을 더 잘 할 수 있다.
13 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람보다 영어 원어민이 영어를 가르치는데 더 적합하다.
14 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어회화를 잘 하지 못한다.
15 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 원어민처럼 관리직에 근무할 수 없다.
16 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 차 딜러는 영어 원어민 차 딜러만큼 판매실적이 좋지 못하다.
17 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 목격자의 말은 영어 원어민 목격자의 말보다 신뢰하기 어렵다.
18 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 사회적 지위가 낮다.
19 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 권위가 낮다.
20 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 설득력이 약하다.
21 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 지적 수준이 낮다.
22 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 권위적이다.
23 교수님께서 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하면 신경에 거슬린다.
24 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어 원어민보다 자신감이 낮을 것이다.
25 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 미국시민이 될 수 없다.
26 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 정치가의 말은 영어 원어민 정치가의 말보다 더 듣기 힘들다.
27 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 미국 문화에 익숙하지 않다.
28 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 영어 말하기를 못한다.
29 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 상사와 함께 일하기 불편하다.
30 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 순응적이다.
31 한국식 영어 발음을 사용하는 사람은 영어회화가 필요하지 않은 직업을 가지는 것이 좋다.
32 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민처럼 자신의 의견을 표현할 수 없다.

33 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 덜 직설적이다.
34 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민보다 타인과 소통하는 데 어려움을 느낀다.
35 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민만큼 지적이지 않다.
36 한국식 영어 발음을 가진 사람은 영어 원어민처럼 미국인에 속하지 않는다.

Examples in: English
Applicable Language: English
Applicable Level: Tertiary

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