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**Attitudes towards Varieties of English
by Non-native and Native Speakers:
A Comparative View from Taiwan and the UK**

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Doctor of Philosophy**

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Abstract

Attitudes towards varieties of English have long been at the forefront of sociolinguistic research. Whilst most of these studies have concentrated on native varieties of English, in recent years, research has turned to non-native varieties that arose as English became the lingua franca across the globe. Research has demonstrated that whilst native varieties are generally viewed as being of a higher status, non-native varieties are sometimes considered more positively in terms of social attractiveness, or 'solidarity'. However, in recent years, non-native speakers have begun to outnumber native English speakers, thus attitudes towards these speakers may be changing.

This study contributes to research on attitudes towards native and non-native varieties of English by conducting a comparative investigation of the attitudes of 317 Taiwanese nationals living in Taiwan and 147 British nationals living in the UK towards different English accents. Online questionnaires utilising both direct (e.g., Likert scales and multiple-choice questions) and indirect (e.g., verbal guise test) methods were employed to examine Taiwanese and British attitudes towards varieties of English. The study examined seven varieties as categorised according to Kachru's (1992a) three concentric circles: the Inner Circle: Australian English, General American English and Standard Southern British English; the Outer Circle: Indian English; and the Expanding Circle: Japanese English, Spanish English and Taiwanese English.

Four key findings emerge from the study. First, both direct and indirect techniques of evaluation demonstrate that both Taiwanese and British respondents largely favour English varieties of the Inner Circle and the Outer Circle over those of the Expanding Circle. Second, the indirect attitude measurements of the verbal guise test demonstrate that both groups prefer the variety of General American English in terms of both status and solidarity. Third, the research found that a number of social variables (e.g., gender, occupation) had a significant effect on speaker evaluations. Fourth, although Taiwanese and British participants were very capable of distinguishing whether a speaker was native or non-native, there were generally no significant correlations between a speaker's ability to identify different English varieties and their having a favourable attitude towards these. Overall, the findings demonstrated that

Taiwanese and British people predominantly share similar attitudes towards varieties of English. Nevertheless, when the effects of the social variables and speaker identifications are considered, native and non-native speakers' perceptions of different varieties of English might differ.

These findings contribute to the understanding of the similarities and differences between native and non-native speakers' attitudes towards varieties of English in the context of an increasingly globalised world and the rise of the non-native speakers of English therein.

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Abbreviations

AE	Australian English
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CAT	Communication Accommodation Theory
EC	Expanding Circle
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
GAE	General American English
IC	Inner Circle
IE	Indian English
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
JE	Japanese English
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
NNS(s)	Non-native Speaker(s)
NS(s)	Native Speaker(s)
OC	Outer Circle
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
SAA	The Speech Accent Archive
SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Spanish English
SIT	Social Identity Theory
SSBE	Standard Southern British English
TE	Taiwanese English
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
TOEFL	The Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEIC	The Test of English for International Communication
VGT	Verbal-Guise Test
WE	World Englishes

Chapter 1

Introduction

In this introduction chapter, I set out the background of the present study. The chapter begins with a discussion of how English spread across the globe and how it has led to the emergence of different Englishes. I then go on to illustrate the reasons for studying people's attitudes towards varieties of English in Taiwan and the UK. I conclude by presenting an overview of the thesis as a whole.

1.1 The Evolution and Emergence of Different Englishes

Beginning with its arrival in the British Isles from Europe between the fifth and seventh centuries, English has always been a mobile language, first through the colonial expansion of the British Empire between 1600-1900 and, more recently, through a developing world economy led by the USA (e.g., Phillipson, 1992; Graddol, 1997; Bhatt, 2001; Rajagopalan, 2004; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Bolton, 2012). The mobility of the English language has led to the “emergence of unique varieties of English across time and space,” arising from the socio-historical context in which they have developed, including “migration patterns, settlement history, geographical factors and contact with other languages” (Smith, 2012:197).

In the UK, as English spread from the south upwards, different regional varieties of British English emerged, such as “Cockney, Geordie, Doric and Hiberno English” (Smith, 2012:200). Colonisation was at the heart of the further spread of English outside the UK, with waves of immigrant settlers from the sixteenth century onwards from different regions of the British Isles to North America, Australia and New Zealand amongst others. In these cases, the sheer number of immigrants, coupled with economic and political power, resulted in English replacing indigenous languages. In these contexts, English became the mother tongue for the majority of speakers, with distinctive L1 varieties emerging in this new context of use (Sergeant, 2012:31).

At the same time as the spread of English to countries where it became the L1, British colonial expansion to countries such as India and Pakistan had a rather

different outcome: in these cases, English was used alongside other local languages as an L2 (e.g., Kachru, 1992a; Jenkins, 2009; Seargeant, 2012). While English would be used in institutional settings, indigenous languages would continue to be used in, for example, the home (e.g., Kachru and Nelson, 2006; Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011). The total number of L2 speakers, i.e. those who have learned English as a second language in regions such as India, Pakistan, Nigeria, Ghana, Malaysia, the Philippines and Tanzania, is estimated to be 430 million (Crystal, 2003a: 68).

Thus historically, two different types of English can be identified: L1 and L2 (but see a more detailed discussion of varieties of English in Section 2.1.1). In recent decades, the diffusion of English has accelerated, as it has become the most important and most learned foreign language in countries such as Japan and most European countries for purposes of worldwide trade and cultural and political exchange (Schneider, 2011). In these contexts, English is predominantly spoken as a Foreign Language (EFL), for example, in China and Brazil (Schneider, 2011; Seidlhofer, 2011). As English becomes the primary means to transmit information and is widely spoken by interlocutors who do not share the same first language to facilitate communication (e.g., Crystal, 2003b; Kachru, 1983; Graddol, 2001; Widdowson, 2003; Kirkpatrick, 2007), it serves the role of a *lingua franca* (ELF) (Jenkins, 2012). According to Crystal (2003a: 69), EFL speakers are estimated to be around 750 million.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

The spread of English over the past two millennia has resulted in different varieties and different uses of those varieties. Perhaps most importantly for the present study, English is spoken more extensively as a second or foreign language than it is as a native language (e.g., Brutt-Griffler, 2002; McKay, 2002; Jenkins, 2003; Canagarajah, 2007; Crystal, 2008). In tandem with this growth, language attitudes¹ towards the different groups of Englishes are said to be changing. Ownership of English is shared now by NSs and NNSs communities alike, with a growing legitimization of non-native varieties of English (e.g., Kachru, 1997;

¹ A detailed discussion of what this study refers to as “language attitudes” can be found in section 2.2.

Widdowson, 1997; McKay, 2002; Jenkins, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Tsurutani, 2012).

Research has shown that whilst native English varieties such as General American and British English tend to be perceived as prestigious, non-native English varieties such as Spanish- and Chinese-accented English are often regarded as less prestigious and even somewhat inferior (e.g., Ryan and Carranza, 1975; Cargile, 1997). As numbers of NNS grow, is there a step towards change in such attitudes? In this thesis, I address this question by examining how speakers evaluate both native and non-native varieties of English² through an examination of both implicit and explicit attitudes towards them. To do this, I will focus on speakers in two locales: Taiwan in Southeast Asia and the UK³.

Taiwan has undergone significant technological development in the past few decades and thus the use of English in Taiwan has seen an unprecedented rise as the lingua franca for international communication, trade, and scholarly exchange in recent times (Chern, 2002). English is now the most commonly used language for communication with non-Taiwanese nationals, with the global prominence of the English language well recognised by both the government and Taiwanese people (Tsou and Chen, 2014). The Taiwanese Ministry of Education have put a number of policies in place to prioritise English language learning (Chen, 2010), with standard IC English such as American and British English being the favoured model (e.g., Chang, 2004; Cheng, 2009; Kobayashi, 2012). At the same time, Taiwanese are exposed to many different varieties of English: in schools, through business, in the media (e.g., Ho, 2013; Lee, 2014). Thus Taiwan presents an excellent research site for addressing the question of whether increasing exposure to different types of spoken English leads to a different conceptualisation of native and non-native English varieties.

I also include attitudes of native speakers based in the UK. Exposure to a wide range of L1 varieties characterises the situation in the UK, with certain varieties

2 In this research “Varieties of English” refers only to “accent” as it concentrates on the evaluation of different pronunciations rather than a focus on all three levels of variation across varieties: grammatical, lexical and phonological. In the present study, the term “accent” and “variety” are used interchangeably (see further in e.g., Trudgill, 2000; Kerswill, 2006; Lippi-Green, 2012).

3 Section 3.1 discusses more fully the sociolinguistics of Taiwan and the UK.

having high prestige and others low prestige (e.g., Giles, 1970; Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007). While the majority of speakers use English as a native tongue in this country, there may also be increasing exposure to non-native varieties through, for example, European migrants entering the UK labour market (e.g., Okolski and Salt, 2014) and international students coming to the UK for higher education (e.g., McKenzie, 2015a; 2015b).

By comparing and contrasting these two very different linguistic situations, I will be able to assess how non-native English varieties, such as the speech of Taiwanese EFL speakers, are perceived alongside standard native varieties of the USA or UK taught in English language classes. The second strand of my research is to provide a comparison between the attitudes of Non-native Speakers (NNSs) and Native Speakers (NSs)⁴ to native and non-native speech. To discover if different perceptions towards varieties of English exist between NNS and NS evaluators, I will also investigate the attitudes of NSs from the UK. By comparing and contrasting these two different groups of participants in their perceptions towards native and non-native English speech, this thesis will help to ascertain if and how Taiwanese and British people evaluate varieties of English differently, and more importantly, why.

1.3 Overview of the Thesis

Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 presents an extensive discussion of what is meant by the study of language attitudes. It begins by introducing the context of world Englishes and what this research refers to as language attitudes. Next, the importance of language attitudes and the different approaches to eliciting attitudes towards varieties of English are discussed. Later, the chapter provides a thorough discussion of the existing literature on the key findings of NSs' and NNSs' attitudes towards different English varieties. The review of previous research into the language attitudes of NS and NNS also highlights the value of Taiwanese and British studies, which provide a significant theoretical and empirical reference for the design and conduct of this project.

⁴ Section 2.1.2 discusses more fully the problems in differentiating NSs and NNSs.

In Chapter 3 I focus on the methodology behind the study and explain the reasoning behind the selection of the direct and indirect techniques for eliciting attitudinal data as well as the design of the research questionnaire. I also explain how the pilot study was conducted to test the validity of the questionnaire and how the questionnaire is constructed. This is followed by an illustration of how the research questionnaire is administered through an online survey. Lastly, the chapter discusses how different statistical techniques are employed to analyse the elicited data in order to provide a more vigorous quantitative account of the attitudes displayed towards varieties of English.

The primary aim of Chapter 4 is to discuss how Taiwanese respondents perceive different varieties of English, which can be gleaned from different sections of the research questionnaire. It reports on the main findings elicited from the data collected on Taiwanese participants' implicit and explicit attitudes towards different English varieties, followed by comparisons with relevant language attitude research. Chapter 5 takes the same format but reports on the findings of British participants' attitudes towards varieties of English.

A more in-depth discussion of the main findings relating to the central research questions set out in the study is given in Chapter 6. This brings together the findings in Chapter 4 and 5, allowing for a comparison and contrast of Taiwanese and British results.

Lastly, Chapter 7 presents a summary of the research and its key findings, which compare and contrast NNSs' and NSs' implicit and explicit attitudes towards English varieties of the IC, OC and EC in the context of Taiwanese and British case studies. It also highlights the significant contributions this research makes to the sociolinguistic field of research into language attitudes.

The introduction chapter has provided a background to the global spread of English and the rise of native and non-native English varieties, which underpins the rationale for investigating NNSs' and NSs' perceptions towards different English varieties among Taiwanese and British people. The next chapter discusses what language attitudes are and the primary findings in the existing literature of people's perceptions towards varieties of English in NSs and NNSs contexts.

Chapter 2

Language Attitudes Research

This chapter provides an overview of the context and terminology used in language attitudes research. This incorporates a discussion of the importance of studying language attitudes and the different approaches that have been used to measure them. Additionally, I review the key findings of the relevant NS and NNS language attitudes research. I also discuss how participants' language attitudes are affected by their identification of the speakers' origins and the sociodemographic information of the participants. Finally, the chapter outlines the research questions that are identified from gaps in the vast language attitudes literature.

2.1 The Context of World Englishes

Key to establishing speakers' attitudes to varieties of English is first to establish what the varieties are. This section reviews the relevant approaches of World Englishes (WE) (e.g., Kachru, 1992a; 1997; Bolton, 2004; 2008; 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Kirkpatrick and Deterding, 2013) that help to establish the context of studying people's attitudes towards varieties of English. According to Bolton's (2004:367) definition, WE reflect "the wide-ranging approach to the study of the (sic) English worldwide" and refer specifically to "localized forms of English found throughout the world". A number of frameworks have been put forward to explain the spread of English and its varieties across the globe, including Kachru's Circle Model (1992a), Moag's Life Cycle Model (1992), Gupta's Classification System (1997), McArthur's Circle Model of World English (1987) and Schneider's Dynamic Model of Postcolonial English (2007). In describing varieties of English in this thesis, I adopt Kachru's Circle Model (1992a), but note the objections raised to this model in other work (e.g., Quirk, 1990; Bruthiaux, 2003; Jenkins, 2009).

2.1.1 Kachru's Circles of English Language Use

Kachru (1992a, 1997) categorises the usage of English and its varieties in different nations according to its historical and contemporary development and function through a model of three concentric circles.

The “Inner Circle” (IC), also known as the circle of “norm-providing”, includes countries that use English as a first or native language (L1) e.g. the United States of America or the United Kingdom. The development of native English varieties, however, is largely explained through the history of the “settler communities” of British origin in America, Australia and New Zealand (Gorlach, 1998:21). In Gorlach’s (1998:21) words, the “interdialectal contact tends to speed up phonological change, and new social norms can easily change the acceptability of formerly stigmatized pronunciations”.

In the “Outer Circle” (OC), referred to as the “norm-developing” world, English is not the first language, nor necessarily an official language, but is spoken as a second language (L2). The OC consists of countries such as Nigeria and the Philippines. Thus, the innovation of different types of English, spoken by people who use English as a Second Language (ESL), is closely linked to colonisation. These distinctive ESL varieties of English are characterised by the phonological systems of the local dialects (Gorlach, 1998:24). Nevertheless, these L2 varieties that exhibit features of the speakers’ native language are sometimes downgraded in comparison to the standard variety such as the “educated speech of the South of England,” spoken by the ruling party (Gorlach, 1998:21).

The “Expanding Circle” (EC) is also known as the “norm-dependent” world. Here, Smith (2012: 228) suggests that English holds a “different status from that in the inner and outer circles: learnt primarily as the foreign language; and non-dependent, looking towards the inner circle for its linguistic models”. The EC encompasses countries such as Egypt and Japan where English is recognised as an important foreign language. After 1945, the worldwide spread of English affected countries of the EC, where English was predominantly used as a foreign language to serve communication purposes at the international level (Gorlach, 1998:30). Take the EC contexts of Taiwan, Japan and South Korea in Asia, for example: in these countries, the standard norms of the IC, such as educated Southern British English and General American English, are often perceived as the correct and more prestigious models to emulate when learning English (e.g., Kim, 2007; McKenzie, 2008a; Yang, 2013).

2.1.2 Native/Non-native Speakers of English

The labels *native* and *non-native* speakers of English are integral in describing Kachru's Circles of English. However, what these labels mean is open to debate, thus below I make clear the definitions that I will adopt in this thesis.

According to the dictionary definition, a "native speaker" is defined as "a person who speaks a language as their first language and has not learned it as a foreign language" (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2005:1015). One of the key issues that is closely linked to the discussion of different English varieties (World Englishes) is the distinction made between "Native Speakers" (NSs) and "Non-native Speakers" (NNSs) of English (e.g., Davies, 1991; Medgyes, 1992; Nayar, 1994) where the dichotomy between "NSs" and "NNSs" has been criticised mainly because it tends to focus only on the IC paradigm and fails to recognise NNSs as a group of speakers with their own attributes (e.g., Medgyes, 1992; Arva and Medgyes, 2000; Davies, 2004; Cook, 2005). In light of this, a number of definitions of NSs and NNSs have been put forward (e.g., Medgyes, 1992; Nayar, 1994; Davies, 2004). For example, Davies (2004:435-436) proposed that NSs of English tend to possess the following attributes: (a) they acquire English as the mother tongue in childhood; (b) they have intuitions about idiolectal grammar of English; (c) they have intuitions about the standard English grammar; (d) they have discourse and pragmatic control of English; (e) they have the capacity to write creatively in English; (f) they have the capacity to interpret and translate. To follow the definition proposed by Medgyes (2001:430), a NS of English in this thesis is defined as "someone who speaks English as his or her native language, also called mother tongue, first language, or L1". On the other hand, a NNS of English in this thesis refers to someone who does not speak English as his or her native language, also called mother tongue, first language, or L1. However, we should note the possible controversy in defining these groups (e.g., Medgyes, 1992; Arva and Medgyes, 2000; Davies, 2004; Cook, 2005).

2.1.3 Standard/Non-standard Speakers and Varieties of English

The other conceptual debates that are of high relevance to the discussion of how people perceive World Englishes is the distinction made between "standard" and "non-standard" varieties/speakers of English. According to The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics (2007:380), the standard variety of English is defined as

“learned and accepted as correct across a community or set of communities in which others are also used” and are generally connected to those with the “admired accents” of the upper social class, prestige, wealth, power, success and higher education (e.g., Milroy, 1999; Preston and Robinson, 2005: 134; Gupta, 2006). On the other hand, non-standard varieties are defined as “not standard, usually of ones proscribed in relation to a standard” (The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics, 2007) and “non-standard” English speakers are often referred to as those with accents that are “regionally and/or ethnically distinct” and are perceived as less socially prestigious (e.g., Milroy, 1999; Preston and Robinson, 2005: 134; Gupta, 2006). Although it has been argued that the binary terms of “standard” versus “non-standard” English varieties and speakers are often vague and problematic (e.g., Trudgill and Hannah, 2002; Campbell-Kibler, 2006; Gupta, 2006; Kerswill, 2006), these terms are adopted in the present study as previous work on language attitudes shows that people tend to evaluate “standard” and “non-standard” varieties of English quite differently (see Section 2.5). In this thesis, the arbitrary distinction between “standard” or “non-standard” varieties of English conceptualises an English accent that is socially and ideologically defined as either higher or lower status within a given community (e.g., Giles and Coupland, 1991; Milroy, 1999; Trudgill and Hannah, 2002; Campbell-Kibler, 2006). However, the use of these terms is not intended to bestow any legitimate distinctions and derogated judgments in the current study.

2.2 The Definitions of Language Attitudes

Arising from the discussion of WE, people associate NSs and NNSs and standard and non-standard speakers of English with different levels of prestige: this is what language attitudes are. The study of language attitudes has been at the forefront of sociolinguistic research for several decades, as research into attitudes towards English and its varieties provides valuable insight regarding the maintenance, spread, revival and attrition of different English varieties (e.g., Garrett et al., 1999; Garrett, 2001:630; Obiols, 2002; Holmes, 2008). Before specific discussion of these studies and their relevance to the present study, it is important to define from the outset what is meant by “language attitudes”.

2.2.1 What are Language Attitudes?

What is meant exactly by “language attitudes⁵”? A number of definitions of “language attitudes” have been put forward.

Myers-Scotton (2006:109) states that language attitudes are “assessments that speakers make about the relative values of a particular language”. Ryan and Giles (1982:7) note that language attitudes could be interpreted as “any affective, cognitive or behavioural index of evaluative reactions toward different language varieties or speakers”. Appel and Muysken (1987:16) propose that “languages are not only objective, socially neutral instruments for conveying meaning”, but are connected with group identities of their speakers.

In this thesis, I adopt the following definition in the discussion of language attitudes: attitudes towards language encompass “prejudice held against or in favour of regional or social varieties of language” as well as “allegiances and affiliative feelings towards one’s own or other groups’ speech norms and stereotypes of speech styles” within sociolinguistic communities (Garrett, 2005:1251). In relation to the other definitions of language attitudes (e.g., Appel and Muysken, 1987; Myers-Scotton, 2006), the definition proposed by Garrett (2005) specifically identifies “regional or social varieties of language”: this caters to the need of this study, which focuses on examining Taiwanese and British listeners’ perceptions of English varieties of different regional or social origins. In the case of different English varieties that evoke stereotypical reactions, which is when people perceive some English varieties to be more desirable than the others, Garrett’s (2005) definition has further highlighted that these are not only in response to the language itself but also to the members of the speech community that use it (e.g., Fasold, 1984; Baker, 1992; Trudgill, 1992; Garrett, 2010). In relation to the current research, Garrett’s (2005) definition, which constitute people’s favour and disfavour towards varieties of a given language and its speakers, provides a full account of what this study refers to as “language attitudes”.

⁵ It is noted the term “social stereotypes” is often used interchangeably with “attitudes” in the study of language attitudes. Social stereotypes refer to “cognitive processes in language attitudes that are likely to be formed by the individual and collective functions arising from stereotyping in relations between social groups” (Garrett, 2010:32). In this thesis I use the term “attitudes”.

2.2.2 Explicit and Implicit Attitudes

Following the definition of “language attitudes”, it is important to further explain what this study refers to as “implicit attitudes⁶” and “explicit attitudes” towards varieties of English. Explicit attitudes are defined as the “attitudes that people can report and for which activation can be consciously controlled” (Rydell and McConnell, 2006:995). Implicit attitudes, on the other hand, are defined as the “attitudes for which people do not initially have conscious access and for which activation cannot be controlled,”: these are therefore outside of awareness (ibid)⁷.

Empirical support can be found in previous research that shows that differences exist between explicit and implicit attitudes (e.g., Pantos, 2010; Pantos and Perkins, 2012; Watanabe and Karasawa, 2013). Specifically, what people report through explicit and implicit means differs. A case in point is the study by Watanabe and Karasawa (2013), which examined people’s explicit and implicit attitudes towards standard Japanese, and the Osaka dialect in Japan. While the explicit measure revealed that the Osaka dialect is preferred, the result of the implicit attitude study, obtained through the Implicit Association Test, showed a preference for the standard usage of Japanese (ibid). Another example can be found in a study examining university students’ perceptions of foreign accented English in the USA. Pantos and Perkins (2012) employed both an Implicit Association Test that used audio samples as stimuli to measure implicit attitudes and a self-report questionnaire to measure explicit attitudes. The study found that participants expressed an explicit preference towards the foreign accent, but further implicit testing demonstrated that they preferred the American accent. These findings exemplified that an individual’s explicit and implicit attitudes can be different from each other depending on different questioning methods.

Unlike explicit attitudes, it is generally said that implicit attitudes tend to be latent in nature and are less likely to be biased (e.g., Wilson et al., 2000;

⁶ The term “implicit attitude”, as used in this study, does not refer to the specific type of attitude that is retrieved from the “Implicit Association Test” (e.g., Greenwald and Banaji, 1995; Greenwald et al., 1998).

⁷ “Explicit” and “implicit” attitudes are also referred to as “overt” and “covert” attitudes (e.g., Fazio et al., 1995; Wilson et al., 2000; Fazio and Olson, 2003; Maegaard, 2005; McConnell et al., 2008). In this thesis, I adopt the terms “explicit” and “implicit” attitudes.

Ferguson and Fukukura, 2012). When respondents are not informed of the research purpose and when they are not aware that their attitudes are going to be measured, socially-desirability bias where respondents are inclined to give the responses that they think are socially appropriate is unlikely to take place (Oppenheim, 1992:139). On the other hand, when the respondents under investigation are aware of what the researcher is looking for, in this case, how they perceive varieties of English, they are likely to convert their responses and thus the explicit attitudes that have been yielded might not be as straightforward as the implicit ones (e.g., Fazio and Olson, 2003; Rydell and McConnell, 2006). These results highlight the importance of using different methods⁸ to capture these two types of attitudes, and thus both will be implemented in this study (e.g., Wilson et al., 2000; Dovidio et al., 2002; Fazio and Olson, 2003; Rydell and McConnell, 2006; Maio and Haddock, 2010; Pantos, 2010; Pantos and Perkins, 2012; Watanabe and Karasawa, 2013).

2.3 The Importance of Language Attitudes

Having defined “language attitudes” and “explicit/implicit attitudes” for the purposes of this study, I now move on to why it is essential to study such attitudes. Research in social psychology (of language) and in sociolinguistics has demonstrated repeatedly that language attitudes can have social, educational and economic implications for the speakers (e.g., Garrett et al., 1999; Cargile, 2000; Lippi-Green, 2012). For this reason, the following sections aim to discuss in more detail the importance of sociolinguistic studies of language attitudes on linguistic behaviours, education practices and language in workplace settings.

2.3.1 Implications for Linguistic Behaviours

Research has shown that language attitudes can have an impact on language maintenance, spread or decay (e.g., Garrett, 2001; Obiols, 2002; Holmes, 2008). For example, Obiols (2002:1) argued that the patterns of language attitudes are likely to have an impact on a number of linguistic behaviours including “the choice of a particular language in multilingual communities, language loyalty and language prestige of members of a given social group in terms of their use of

⁸ Section 2.4 discusses more fully the direct and indirect approaches to language attitude measurement.

linguistic varieties in bilingual and dialectal situations”. This is clearly shown in, for example, Dorian’s (1989) study of Scottish Gaelic, where institutional initiatives heightened negative attitudes towards the language, resulting in rapid obsolescence, and a multitude of other studies which map the demise of a language against the backdrop of negative attitudes (e.g., Jenner, 1875; Gregor, 1980; Calvet, 1998).

2.3.2 Implications for Education

Language discrimination based on someone’s accent in educational settings has been identified through a number of sociolinguistic studies. These have demonstrated that varieties of English accent play an influential part in teachers’ perceptions of pupils (e.g., Cheshire, 1982), equal educational opportunities (e.g., Lippi-Green, 2012) and classroom performance (e.g., Snell, 2013). Cheshire (1982:62) analysed the difference between standard English and the regional dialect of reading English and demonstrated how the teachers could view the children negatively as “hopelessly lazy and careless” based on their usage of the forms of Reading English, such as the “[l] is vocalised to [o]” in the words of “*shall, spell and owl*”. Evidence for the disadvantageous effect of a person’s non-standard accent in a school setting can also be found in the study of Snell (2013:120) which showed how a pupil’s “distinctive Teesside accent” triggered deficit attitudes from classroom peers and from the teacher. Snell (2013:122) further noted that the detrimental effect that results from negative perceptions towards some pupils’ non-standard accents leads to a loss of confidence in oral communication and group discussion. However, discrimination towards accent is not only found with students, but also instructors. Those teachers who spoke with a non-native English accent tend to be perceived less positively by students (e.g., Hernandez, 1993 cited in Nguyen, 1994:129; Butler, 2007). Similarly, the study by Ahn and Moore (2011), which addressed students’ attitudes towards an instructor’s accent, showed that students who evaluated the teacher’s Asian-accented speech unfavourably performed less well in the listening comprehension task. Ahn and Moore (2011) showed how students’ perceptions towards teachers’ English accents can influence the learning outcome of comprehensibility, and this can have profound effects both at school and in later life, as the next section shows.

2.3.3 Implications for the Workplace

Bias against speakers' different English accents is also manifested in employment contexts, both in terms of seeking employment and in employment.

In *seeking* employment, research has repeatedly and consistently shown that while speakers with a standard English accent are often favoured for higher status jobs, speakers with a non-standard accent tend to be considered for jobs of lower status (e.g., Hopper and Williams, 1973; Hopper, 1977; Cargile, 2000; Hosoda and Stone-Romero, 2010).

In employment, a person's accent might further impact on his or her success in a job. For example, in Tsalikis et al. (2001), it was demonstrated that salesmen with a standard English accent were perceived as having higher credibility and effectiveness than salesmen with a Greek accent by American audiences in a personal selling context. Accent alone can trigger bias in the success of marketing sales, and employment discrimination highlights the importance of considering how people evaluate varieties of English.

This section has discussed the sociolinguistic consequences of how people perceive different English accents in the society, education and workforce. This demonstrates that the study of language attitudes has far-reaching real world implications, particularly in the ever-globalising world of English. In light of this discussion, it is now imperative to consider methods of measuring and eliciting language attitudes, which further influence or determine social consequences.

2.4 How to Measure Language Attitudes?

Having defined the key terminology used in this study and discussed the importance of measuring language attitudes; I now turn to a review of the literature in this field. Previous research adopts three main approaches in gathering data on people's perceptions of varieties of English: direct, indirect and mixed, as detailed below.

2.4.1 The Direct Approach

In section 2.2.2, I discussed the difference between explicit and implicit attitudes. Not surprisingly, different methodologies are needed to gain access to these very different types of attitudes.

The direct approach is used to measure explicit attitudes, which mainly involves methods of asking for participants' attitudes towards varieties of English when they are aware that their attitudes are being assessed (e.g., Greenwald and Banaji, 1995; Fazio and Olson, 2003). This suggests that research using direct approaches often invites respondents to self-report their beliefs and feelings about language varieties and the speakers using them (Garrett, 2010). With this in mind, Ferguson and Fukukura (2012:176) noted that explicit attitudes, which are elicited through the direct questioning, also refer to "attitudes that people can verbalise". The implication is that when people are asked to self-report what their perceptions are through a direct approach to attitude measurement, it is likely that they will edit their attitudes and not reveal the real attitudes that they hold. For this reason, explicit attitudes that are elicited through questionnaires, survey or interviews are prone to be affected by the contextual influences that are built in to the direct measurement of language attitudes (e.g., Fazio et al., 1995; Maegaard, 2005; McConnell et al., 2008). Another commonly used tool for the direct measurement of attitudes is the Likert scale (Likert, 1932), which enables participants to explicitly indicate either an "agree" or a "disagree" opinion towards a set of statements along an even/odd point continuum (Oppenheim, 1992: 197). Cases in point include the use of Likert scale questions to examine people's explicit attitudes towards bilingualism in Wales (e.g., Baker, 1992), English language acquisition in South Korea (e.g., Kim, 2007) and varieties of English in Hong Kong (e.g., Zhang, 2010).

2.4.2 The Indirect Approach

The indirect approach, used to measure implicit attitudes, is a methodology conducted when there is no need to invite participants to directly state their evaluations and when respondents are not informed of what is being assessed (e.g., Ryan et al., 1982; Greenwald and Banaji, 1995; Fazio and Olson, 2003). Accordingly, it is said that the indirect approach is "tapping people's 'true' attitudes and preferences" (Ferguson and Fukukura, 2012:176). The indirect

approach has therefore been seen as an efficient way to measure people's real attitudes/feelings that are often subliminal (e.g., Fazio et al., 1995; Maegaard, 2005; McConnell et al., 2008; Ferguson and Fukukura, 2012).

The two indirect methods that have been extensively used to evoke people's implicit attitudes towards varieties of English are the Matched Guise Test (MGT) and the Verbal Guise Test (VGT) (Garrett, 2005:1252). Garrett (2010:229) explained the MGT as a "technique of eliciting attitudinal responses from informants by presenting them with a number of speech varieties, all of which are spoken by the same person". Extended from the design of the MGT, the VGT uses "a number of speech varieties, each of which is spoken by someone who is a natural speaker of the variety". In the words of Obiols (2002:2), the MGT/VGT allows a greater extent of self-"introspection" for the participants and thus delivers more "spontaneous" and "sincere" responses. It is therefore a popular methodological approach in language attitude studies.

2.4.3 The Mixed Approach

As shown in the previous two sections, the direct approach and indirect approach aim to tap into different types of attitudes - explicit and implicit. At the same time, both are important in gaining an understanding of language attitudes. Wilson et al. (2000) noted that an individual often holds both implicit and explicit attitudes when perceptions of language variation are examined. Attitudes are not only "explicit appraisals pro or contra a position, but also include an implicit stance against counter-positions" (Giles and Coupland, 1991:56). Ihemere (2006:196) shows that combining direct questioning and indirect methods allows for a direct comparison of both types, resulting in a more rounded view of listener perceptions. For this reason, this study will adopt the mixed approach to elicit both explicit and implicit attitudes in order to compare and contrast these very different systems of belief.

Before commencing on the analysis, I will first provide an overview of research in this area of language study.

2.5 Previous Research on Language Attitudes

What are the findings of the studies of language attitudes that have employed these different approaches with both NSs and NNSs? In the following sections, I concentrate on findings from native and non-native attitude studies of varieties of English. I first provide an overview, and then focus on research conducted in the two main countries investigated in this study, Taiwan and the UK. The research questions and the methodological design of this study are ultimately informed by the review of previous literature on language attitudes among NS and NNS.

2.5.1 Research into Native Speakers' Language Attitudes

Language attitudes research has a rich history in the IC countries, such as Australia (e.g., Gallois and Callan, 1981; Ball, 1983; Callan and Gallois, 1987; Bayard et al., 2001), Canada (e.g., Lambert et al., 1960; Lambert, 1967), New Zealand (e.g., Wilson and Bayard, 1992; Bayard et al., 2001), the USA (e.g., Flores and Hopper, 1975; Ryan and Carranza, 1975; Bradac and Wisegarver, 1984; Cargile and Giles, 1998; Lindemann, 2003; Bauman, 2013) and the UK (e.g., Cheyne, 1970; Giles, 1970; Giles and Powesland, 1975; Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Garrett et al., 2003; Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007). Two main findings are identified from the review of the vast body of literature on IC speakers' perceptions towards varieties of English: (1) standard varieties of English are perceived as prestigious by NSs, and (2) non-standard varieties of English are viewed as socially attractive by NSs. In this section, I review these findings in more detail.

2.5.1.1 Perceptions of Standard Varieties of English as Prestigious by NSs

One of the main findings from the existing research is that standard varieties of English are generally perceived as possessing more status and prestige. Language attitudes are often identified along two key measures of status and solidarity (Garrett et al., 2003:57; Garrett, 2010:57). The label of status is primarily associated with prestige, which often contains the evaluative traits of status, competence and education (Garrett, 2010). On the other hand, solidarity is the factor that concerns integrity, social attractiveness and friendliness (ibid). These two differing dimensions are important because they are the two widely

identified measures of evaluation that act as “paired opposites” of the personality traits (such as *friendly* and *unfriendly*), when individuals judge speaker voices on the bipolar semantic-differential scales in the Matched-Guise Test (MGT) or the Verbal Guise Test (VGT) (Preston and Robinson, 2005:135)⁹.

Along the dimension of status, people of the IC tend to favour the speakers of the standard variety that is associated with high culture (Fishman, 1971). In the words of Edwards (1982:25), the endorsement of standard varieties suggests that the associated prestige and competence of a variety may outbalance those of integrity concerns with regard to status-related dimensions. In a study that investigated inter-ethnic views of bilingual speakers’ covert attitudes to their own language, Lambert et al. (1960) aimed to examine privately-held perceptions as they believe that one’s intrinsically implicit attitudes cannot be elicited through direct approaches. As such, they conducted the first Matched-Guise Technique (MGT) study of language attitudes in Canada, in order to investigate how native listeners who are bilingual speakers of English and French implicitly reacted to the guises of these two languages (Lambert et al., 1960). The research finding of Lambert et al. (1960) revealed the community-wide social stereotypes of the “minority group reaction,” when the French-speaking informants regard themselves as the subordinate groups and perceive the speech of the dominant group as the standard (Edward, 1982:22). The MGT, which allows the greater extent of self-introspection for the participants and thus delivers more spontaneous and sincere responses, thus became one of the most applied indirect instruments of language attitude studies (Obiols, 2002:2). According to Giles (1970: 211), the MGT has shown that the “stereotyped impressions of an individual’s personality may be formulated by listeners when presented with a speaker’s voice whose vocal contours are representative of phonological patterns peculiar to specific group membership”.

In the USA, the study of Preston (1999a: 367), which applied the technique of perceptual dialectology¹⁰, demonstrated that whether the listeners are themselves standard speakers or not, standard American English such as the

⁹ See the example of the bipolar semantic-differential scales in Table 3.3.

¹⁰ As a derivative of the direct approach evolved from folk linguistics, the technique of perceptual dialectology has been applied extensively to uncover how judges identify and perceive regional divisions of English varieties (e.g., Preston, 1989, 1999a; Montgomery and Beal, 2011).

Mainstream American varieties spoken in Northern states of Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, North Dakota and South Dakota, are perceived as “correct” English and are highly regarded as the “vehicle for standardness, education, and widely accepted or mainstream values” (Preston, 1999a: 367). Furthermore, it was also widely found that the standard model of Mainstream American English is usually upgraded over various regional American dialects such as Mexican American English (e.g., Williams, 1976; Bradac and Wisegarver, 1984; Flores and Hopper, 1975), the Chicano dialect of English (e.g., Arthur et al., 1974), the speech of Mississippi Peers (e.g., Tucker and Lambert, 1969), Negro English (e.g., Irwin, 1977) and Spanish-accented English (e.g., Ryan and Carranza, 1975; Ryan et al., 1977) in terms of perceived status, prestige or level of education. Although regional IC speaker accents such as African-American English are also a target of prejudice (Lippi-Green, 1994), in-migrant minority languages tend to attract the most negative attitudes from majority language communities. For example, in comparison to standard American English, findings uniformly showed that NSs in the USA often evaluated non-native varieties spoken by ethnic migrants, including Spanish accented English (e.g., Ryan et al., 1977; Ryan and Sebastian, 1980), Chinese or Mandarin accented English (e.g., Cargile, 1997; Cargile et al., 2010; Bauman, 2013), Japanese accented English (e.g., Cargile and Giles, 1998) and Korean accented English (e.g., Lindemann, 2003; Bauman, 2013), negatively on the status dimension.

Turning to Australia, a number of studies have shown that the prestige accent of British RP is highly evaluated on the perspectives of status or competence (e.g., Gallois and Callan, 1981; Ball, 1983; Callan and Gallois, 1987). According to Callan and Gallois (1987:63), the finding that Anglo-Australians prefer RP, which is the traditional norm of standard usage and pronunciation of Southern British English, to the General Australian accent, indicated that British culture is highly regarded in the Australian society. In addition to RP, Australians considered the other standard variety of General American English as prestigious. A case in point is the Verbal Guise Test study of Bayard et al. (2001), which examined NSs’ reactions towards New Zealand English, Australian English, American English and RP within New Zealand, Australia and the United States. The VGT is very similar to the design of the MGT, with the exception that it employs different speakers

to represent their own speech (e.g., Giles and Coupland, 1991; Bayard et al., 2001). University students who are NSs of the three IC countries showed strong favour for American accents on the status and power dimensions, which indicated the possibilities of standard American English replacing the distinctively esteemed speech of RP as the preferred variety. Bayard et al. (2001) postulated that students' positive attitudes toward American English might result from the widespread exposure to media such as Hollywood movies or American TV programmes. The change of attitude from standard British English toward standard American English being perceived as the prestigious variety of the world implies that American English is now increasingly to be recognised as the international standard amongst NSs.

In contrast to NSs associating standard varieties with high prestige, evidence of discriminatory attitudes towards foreign-accented speakers has been widely reported across the IC territories of Australia (e.g., Gallois and Callan, 1981; Callan et al., 1983), the USA (e.g., Ryan et al., 1977; Ryan and Sebastian, 1980; Lippi-Green, 1994, 2012; Cargile, 1997; Cargile and Giles, 1998; Lindemann, 2003; Cargile et al., 2010; Bauman, 2013) and the UK (e.g., Giles 1970; Coupland and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2015b). The levels of accentedness of NNSs were shown to influence his or her perceived social status (e.g., Ryan and Carranza, 1977; Ryan et al., 1977; Cargile and Giles, 1998). Foreign-accented speakers are often regarded as less educated, less reliable and less interesting than a native English speaker is. The stronger a non-native accent is perceived to be, the more negative the attitude of listeners (Callan et al., 1983). This is closely linked with accent stereotyping, where listeners tend to make discriminatory judgments when hearing the unfamiliar accents that deviate from standard English speech despite being intelligible and comprehensible (Munro, 2003). For example, Australian language attitudes showed that foreign-accented speech such as Italian accented English (e.g., Gallois and Callan, 1981) and Greek accented English (e.g., Callan et al., 1983) are downgraded in comparison to standard IC varieties of British English or Australian English.

2.5.1.2 Perceptions of Non-standard Varieties of English as Socially Attractive by NSs

Despite being denigrated on the status dimension, it is found that non-standard English speech is repeatedly evaluated as admirable across traits related to personal integrity or social attractiveness, such as friendliness, honesty and trustworthiness, by NSs (e.g., Fishman, 1971; Ryan, 1979; Ryan and Carranza, 1977; Giles et al., 1981; Preston, 1999b; Bayard, 2008). Evoked by its role of marking community identity and language loyalty, the solidarity of non-standard varieties is reinforced when the judges are themselves speakers of a non-standard dialect (Giles and Billing, 2004). In other words, in-group¹¹ identity is an essential evaluative orientation towards non-standard English varieties across solidarity traits when listeners perceive voices that are representative of their own speech community with more favour than other regional accents (e.g., Giles, 1971; Edwards, 1982).

In comparison to the standard speech of the dominant group, speakers of a subordinate group or speakers of non-standard varieties are likely to prefer their own dialect as having more solidarity and intimacy value when ethnic pride comes into account (e.g., Ryan and Carranza, 1977; Preston, 1999c). Preston (1999a: 367) concurred that southern US English speakers view their regional speech as a marker of “solidarity, identity and local values,” and therefore judged varieties of English spoken in the South higher than those spoken in the North in terms of solidarity traits such as “casual”, “friendly” and “polite”. Similarly, it is owing to in-group affiliation that New Zealanders evaluated New Zealand English favourably on the traits of social attractiveness like warmth and acceptability when compared to the two conventional world standards of RP and North American English (e.g., Bayard et al., 2001; Bayard, 2008).

2.5.1.3 Summary

In summary, the results of previous studies of NSs’ language attitudes demonstrate rather homogeneous evaluations towards standard and non-standard varieties of English. While NSs usually evaluate Standard English varieties highly in terms of status and competence, regional or urban English varieties that are

¹¹ See the end of section 2.5.4 for the discussion of what this study refers to as “in-group” identity.

perceived as less standard tend to win greater favour for social integrity and attractiveness. Moreover, as to varieties of NNSs, IC speakers were found to prefer the speech of NSs.

2.5.2 British Language Attitude Research

A number of studies of attitudes towards varieties of English have been carried out in the UK, one of the research sites in the present study, thus I now focus on these. Concerning British perceptions, the discernment of standard versus non-standard varieties of English appeared to be the key index of varying attitudes (e.g., Giles, 1970; Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2015b). A number of scholars conducted a series of studies examining British listeners' perceptions towards different regional, ethnic, and social varieties of English and have repeatedly found that speakers with features of more prestigious dialects tend to receive a more positive evaluation than those exhibiting the less standard features (e.g., Giles, 1970; Bourhis et al., 1973; Giles et al., 1973; Carranza and Ryan, 1975; Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Giles and Billing, 2004; Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2015b).

One of the most widely referenced varieties when investigating British attitudes towards different English varieties is the non-regional accent of RP (e.g., Giles, 1970; Bourhis et al., 1973; Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007). Spoken by the elite social class, which constitutes roughly around three percent of the British population, RP is also known as BBC English or the Queen's English (McArthur 1992:851). Ryan and Carranza (1975:856) concurred that the level of prestige or competence that is assigned to an English variety usually discloses the associated relative socioeconomic status of the speaker. RP is frequently identified as the esteemed variant because of its association with education, wealth and power (Hernandez-Campoy, 2008:264). This further indicates that the systematic positive perception of RP lies in the "status" content which is the amount of prestige value inherent in this specific accent (Giles, 1970:212). Additionally, the favourable attitudes towards RP on the status dimension may also derive from its dominance in English Language Teaching (ELT) settings (Beinhoff, 2013:26). In comparison to RP, an image of "smoke, grime, heavy industry and work" is

associated with the British urban vernacular dialects of Birmingham, Liverpool or Glasgow (Hernandez-Campoy, 2008:264). Speakers of these dialects tend to be denigrated on the status or competence dimension by British people as a consequence of these industrialised cities often being stereotyped as working class communities (e.g., Giles and Coupland, 1991; Dixon et al., 2002; Hiraga, 2005; Hernandez-Campoy, 2008).

Regarding Scottish-accented speech, Cheyne (1970) demonstrated that RP speech received a more favourable status evaluation than Scottish accents from both groups of Scottish and English respondents. Another case in point is the study of Giles (1970) which explored how British children studying in secondary school perceive varieties of English speech: RP, affected RP, North American, French, German, South Welsh, Irish, Italian, Northern English, Somerset, Cockney, Indian and Birmingham. Results obtained from the British pupils suggest that they favoured standard varieties such as RP, Affected RP or North American English more than the regional accent of Somerset or urban accent of Birmingham in terms of status (*ibid*). Furthermore, the research of Milroy and McClenaghan (1977) showed that the evaluation pattern of Ulster people in North Ireland greatly resembled the finding of Giles and his colleagues (e.g., Giles, 1970; Giles et al., 1990). With regard to qualities reflecting status, which includes ambition, confidence and intelligence, Ulster listeners evaluated the RP accent relatively more positively when compared to Scottish English, Southern Irish English and Ulster English. In the words of Milroy and McClenaghan (1977:6), the positive attitudes towards the RP speaker can be supported by the “reflection of the Ulsterman’s perceptions towards the power of Englishmen in the British Isles”. A more recent study is the BBC Voices project, which collected a large scale of responses from an online language attitude survey (Coupland and Bishop, 2007), and demonstrated that the Queen’s English came to the fore on the prestige ratings when compared to other British indigenous varieties that are spoken in urban regions of Birmingham and Liverpool. In conclusion, these studies signify that British people’s preferences for the prestigious variety of the Queen’s English, or RP, are deeply retained in their stereotyped, ideological attitudes towards standard English speech (e.g., Giles, 1970; Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Coupland and Bishop, 2007).

One of the consistent patterns of British evaluations is that non-standard English varieties are perceived much more positively than standard speech on overall attractiveness (e.g., Cheyne, 1970; Giles, 1970; Giles, 1971; Giles and Powesland, 1975; Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Trudgill and Giles, 1978; Giles et al., 1981; Giles and Billing, 2004; Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007). Furthermore, studies of British language attitudes showed that non-standard English varieties are often perceived positively in terms of social integrity. The study of Giles (1971) illustrates how accent loyalty mediates British speakers' evaluations of regional dialects including South Welsh and Somerset speech with respect to solidarity. Respondents from South Wales and Somerset rated these dialects well above the standard variety of RP in terms of social integrity traits, which included "seriousness, talkativeness, good-naturedness and humorousness" (Giles, 1971:281). To explain these favourable evaluations of solidarity towards South Welsh and Somerset English, Giles (1971:281) commented that evaluative norms of a variety might depend on the "more diverse, yet nonetheless stereotyped, social qualities and temperaments characteristic of specific regional communities", in addition to judgments based on the social prestige and status maturity that are related to speaker status.

Although RP is typically positioned at the top ranking of speaker status or prestige, it is widely found to receive negative judgments on the solidarity dimension by NSs coming from the UK. For instance, the finding of Hiraga (2005) exemplified that the British rural dialect of Yorkshire was evaluated more favourably on the solidarity dimension than RP was on the status dimension. By the same token, the study of Coupland and Bishop (2007) found that the regional accents of Newcastle and Southern Irish English that are perceived as less standard than the Queen's English were judged more positively across solidarity traits. Consequently, it can be concluded that in comparison to the standard British speech of RP, which is often assigned with higher social status, British regional dialects are more likely to be praised on the solidarity dimension with the attributes of likeability and attractiveness (e.g., Cheyne, 1970; Giles et al., 1981; Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007).

British studies have identified the tendency for IC speakers to rate people speaking English with a foreign accent low in competence but higher in social attractiveness. In relation to IC Englishes, the accumulated findings

demonstrated British participants' general stigmatisation of the speech varieties of NNSs, such as Indian English (e.g., Giles, 1970; McKenzie, 2015b), French accented English (e.g., Giles, 1970; Coupland and Bishop, 2007), German accented English (e.g., Giles, 1970; Coupland and Bishop, 2007), Chinese accented English (e.g., McKenzie, 2015b) and Japanese accented English (e.g., McKenzie, 2015b). Take the L2 variety of Indian English for example: it was systematically downgraded more than the other British varieties of South Welsh English (e.g., Giles, 1970), Tyneside English and Scottish Standard English (e.g., Giles, 1970; McKenzie, 2015a) in both status and solidarity ratings. These findings indicate that the speech of NNSs is generally denigrated in comparison to British English dialects spoken by people in the UK.

To sum up, British studies of language attitudes uniformly showed that native listeners in the UK react positively to speech of the higher-status group. As for the non-standard varieties of the lower-status group, British evaluators tend to score these English varieties more highly on social integrity. The discussion of NSs' language attitudes demonstrates the value of examining British people's perceptions towards varieties of English that are emerging due to globalisation. These findings on NSs' attitudes will provide a useful grounding for this study to build on. The following sections discuss the studies of NNSs' attitudes towards varieties of English.

2.5.3 Research into Non-Native Speakers' Language Attitudes

As the spread of English leads to a growing number of NNSs as well as non-native varieties of English, this section endeavours to examine the principal findings of how NNSs perceive different English varieties. The review of NNSs' attitudes towards varieties of English are discussed according to the following two key findings: (1) standard varieties of English are perceived as prestigious by NNSs, and (2) NNSs tend to view non-standard varieties of English as socially attractive. The literature on NNSs' attitudes towards varieties of English is vast; however, the aim of the review will be to focus on research with reference to the Taiwanese context.

2.5.3.1 Perceptions of Standard Varieties of English as Prestigious by NNSs

The overall findings arising from language attitude studies of NNSs indicate that, just as with native speakers, standard IC varieties are usually evaluated more positively than the non-standard ones on the status continuum. In terms of social prestige, standard IC varieties such as General American English (e.g., Gibb, 1999; Friedrich, 2000; 2003; Cargile et al., 2006; Butler, 2007; Cheng, 2009; Liou, 2010; Zhang, 2010; Kobayashi, 2012; Lee, 2013; Yang, 2013), RP (e.g., Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; Ladegaard, 1998; Jarvella et al., 2001; Ladegaard and Sachdev, 2006; Kim, 2007; Yook and Lindemann, 2013) and cultivated Australian English¹² (e.g., Moloney, 2009) generally receive more favourable evaluations than the less-standard varieties of African American Vernacular English (e.g., Cargile et al., 2006), British Cockney English (e.g., Ladegaard, 1998), Glasgow Vernacular (e.g., McKenzie, 2006), British Tyneside English (e.g., Zhang, 2010), as well as General Australian English (e.g., Ladegaard, 1998; Moloney, 2009) and Broad Australian English (e.g., Moloney, 2009).

NNSs' positive attitudes towards standard IC English varieties of RP and GAE are likely to derive from educational and media exposure. For example, the RP accent, which is often employed as a learning model of English language for NNSs in Europe (e.g., Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; Ladegaard, 1998; Jarvella et al., 2001; Ladegaard and Sachdev, 2006) and in Asia (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; Kachru, 2005; Moloney, 2009), accounts for their preferential attitudes towards this variety of British English. In an in-depth VGT study to examine Japanese university students' attitudes towards six varieties of English, McKenzie (2008a: 75) postulated that the competence hierarchy wherein speakers of US English are preferred, followed by speakers of UK varieties and then Japanese speakers of English, might result from the "media-transmitted stereotypes" which had induced NNSs' ideological preferences towards standard varieties. NNSs' preference for the standard mainstream IC English varieties such as General American English over non-native varieties is particularly evident from the perspective of English language learning and teaching (e.g., Timmis, 2002; Jenkins, 2007).

¹² Cultivated Australian English is an approximation of Britain's Received Pronunciation (Moore, 2008 cited in Moloney (2009:57). See Moloney (2009:56) for the classification of three major varieties of the Australian English made by Mitchell and Delbridge (1965).

The other main finding of NNSs language attitude studies is that IC English speech such as General American English and standard British English are usually preferred over non-native varieties including Austrian English (Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997), Indian English (e.g., Jenkins, 2007; Kim, 2007; Matsuda, 2000), Hong Kong English (e.g., Forde, 1995; Zhang, 2010), Singaporean English (e.g., Jenkins, 2007; Matsuda, 2000), Philippines English (e.g., Kobayashi, 2008), Japanese English (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; McKenzie, 2010), Korean English (e.g., Kim, 2007) and Taiwanese English (e.g., Kim, 2007; Cheng, 2009; Lee, 2013; Yang, 2013).

NNSs' positive perceptions of native accents and negative stereotypes about non-native ones are largely to do with native speaker ideology and standard language ideology (Jenkins, 2007). In other words, NNSs generally see "correctness" as the most important criterion in judging varieties of English, which explains why a number of NNSs varieties that deviate from the native speaker norms are likely to be regarded as incorrect and are stigmatised (Jenkins, 2007:182). As an illustration, Matsuda (2000:123) showed that Japanese EFL speakers perceived American English as the sole "authentic" variety. Additionally, the "high vitality of American culture" across the world also contributes to NNSs' endorsement of the IC variety of American English as being trendy and cool when compared to non-native English speech (e.g., Ladegaard and Sachdev, 2006:104).

2.5.3.2 Perceptions of Non-Standard Varieties of English as Socially Attractive by NNSs

As discussed, non-standard varieties are generally considered more socially attractive than standard IC varieties (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; Ladegaard, 1998; Cargile et al., 2006; Ladegaard and Sachdev, 2006; McKenzie, 2008a; Zhang, 2010). This suggests that non-standard English speech tends to receive a more positive evaluation across solidarity traits when in-group identity is considered (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; McKenzie, 2008a).

A case in point is the finding that RP is evaluated negatively on the social attractiveness dimension despite being evaluated highly across the dimensions of status, competence and linguistic superiority (Ladegaard, 1998). Additionally, Danish NNSs were found to favour Scottish English for friendliness and helpfulness

on the social attractiveness scale (e.g., Ladegaard, 1998; Ladegaard and Sachdev, 2006). In the context of the USA, Cargile et al. (2006) found that although the speech of the female African American Vernacular English participant was stigmatised on the status dimension, it was perceived as socially more attractive than that of the male speaker of the standard variety of mainstream US English.

In Asia, despite the finding that standard American English was perceived as prestigious, a sample of 44 Hong Kong university students evaluated the non-native variety of educated Hong Kong English more positively where solidarity is concerned. Similarly, although non-standard IC English varieties such as Glasgow vernacular English was judged low across competence-related traits, it was evaluated by Japanese university students as the friendliest variety on the social attractiveness dimension (McKenzie, 2008a). Moreover, Japanese listeners value their own variety of heavily accented Japanese English as the most socially attractive variety, regardless of it being downgraded for competence (ibid). McKenzie (2008a) explained that the role of in-group identity contributes to Japanese university students' preference for Japanese English, where social integrity is concerned.

2.5.3.3 Summary

It can be summarised that the NNSs of the OC and the EC prefer the standard or mainstream IC speech of American and British English over non-native varieties when social status is considered, while non-standard IC English varieties or non-native English speech are sometimes upgraded on the solidarity scale.

2.5.4 Taiwanese Language Attitude Research

Extending the discussion to the research on language attitudes in Taiwan, another focus of the current study, it has consistently been shown that the standard variety of General American English is usually preferred (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Liou, 2010; Kobayashi, 2012; Lee, 2013; Yang, 2013) over the less standard IC varieties of Australian English (e.g., Lee, 2013) as well as non-native Philippine English (e.g., Kobayashi, 2008), Indian English (e.g., Yang, 2013) and Taiwanese English (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Liou, 2010; Lee, 2013; Yang, 2013). This finding is likely to be influenced by “native speakerism” (Holliday, 2006:385) and the “ideology of standard variety” (Milroy, 2001:532; Lippi-Green, 1997). For

example, in the university setting, American English was evaluated positively as sounding more fluent and educated when compared to the non-native speech of Indian and Taiwanese English (Yang, 2013:120). Similarly, Lee (2013) showed that university students in Taiwan evaluated the American English speaker most positively when compared to Australian English and Taiwanese English speakers reading the same lecture. The IC variety of standard American English is perceived as providing the standard cultural and linguistic models for EFL speakers in Taiwan. In this respect, the pronunciation of the standard American English speech, which has been reported as a “clear and easy-to-understand accent” (Wu, 2000:18), is usually applied as an instructional model for Taiwanese EFL learners (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Liou, 2010; Kobayashi, 2012; Lee, 2013; Wang and Ho, 2013). Furthermore, the Taiwanese preference for native speaker norms is also reflected in the tendency to favour native English-speaking teachers over non-native English-speaking teachers (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Wu and Ke, 2009; Yeh, 2012; Lee, 2013). A case in point is the finding that the majority of the sixth grade pupils in Taiwan prefer English language instructors who are American rather than Taiwanese (Cheng, 2009). The pupils ranked accent as second highest in their list of reasons. The endorsement of standard native English as the sole model is reinforced through education when many Taiwanese English teachers focus on the teaching of the “correct” use of English, which is usually standard American English, and neglect the fact that different varieties of English are intriguing and meaningful counterparts of standard English (Liou, 2010:154). Nevertheless, as globalisation has promoted Taiwanese NNSs’ exposure to diverse English accents, it is imperative to investigate whether there is a shift in Taiwanese attitudes towards varieties of English.

Due to the influence of different mother tongues, non-native English varieties are often judged difficult to understand (e.g., Jenkins, 2007; Kobayashi, 2008; Cheng, 2009; Yang, 2013). For instance, Taiwanese EFL learners studying at an intensive English course in the ESL environment of the Philippines evaluated the non-native Philippines English as different from the “correct varieties” of IC English varieties owing to the “heavy accent” (Kobayashi, 2008:90-91). Moreover, other Taiwanese language attitude studies demonstrated less positive attitudes towards non-native Taiwanese English speech (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Lee, 2013; Yang, 2013; Lau and Lin, 2014).

While the American-centric approach towards English language teaching prevails amongst NNSs, a number of scholars (e.g., Matsuda, 2000; Jenkins, 2007; McKenzie, 2010) emphasise the importance of the pluralistic view instead of promoting a single standard entity as the norm. A study by Yang (2013:107) offers a valuable example of how Taiwanese EFL speakers' awareness of non-native English speech can be enhanced by utilising the video of a song sung in the film "Three Idiots" as a teaching material. This gives university students exposure to the phonetic attributes of American English, Indian English and Taiwanese Mandarin English, which further contribute to more favourable perceptions of the Indian English accent. Yang's (2013:91) findings demonstrate that 84% of the participants gave positive responses in terms of their willingness to communicate with Indian people in English after instruction in the accents of Indian English in the class.

To sum up, the findings of research into Taiwanese language attitudes (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Lee, 2013; Kobayashi, 2012; Yang, 2013) manifest how native speaker ideology underpins Taiwanese speakers' endorsements of standard American English and denigration of Asian accented English. By means of in-group identity, NNSs sometimes evaluate non-native English varieties, as possessing a higher degree of social attractiveness (e.g., Ladegaard, 1998; Cargile et al., 2006; Ladegaard and Sachdev, 2006; McKenzie, 2008a; Zhang, 2010). The review of these NNSs' language attitudes studies is important in shaping the design of this study, which aims to examine whether Taiwanese EFL respondents share similar or different attitudes and identifications patterns to those key findings reported in the literature.

Arising from the review of previous research into NSs' and NNSs' language attitudes, it is worth noting two key theories that explain the underlying cause of negative or positive attitudes towards speakers of different English varieties: the Social Identity Theory (SIT) and the Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) (e.g., Giles et al., 1973; Giles and Powesland, 1975; Gallois and Pittam, 1996). The central component of SIT puts the emphasis on explaining people's intergroup attitudes towards speakers whose English accents sound like those of their own country (in-group identity) and those that do not (out-group identity) (Tajfel, 1974). Extended from the SIT, which also takes the standpoint of the intergroup relations, Giles, Mulac, Bradac and Johnson (1987) proposed the

Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT). The emphasis in CAT is on how social cognitive processes, such as attitudes towards another person or desires for social approval, determine the speech variation in social contexts (Giles and Byrne, 1982).

Having discussed the existing findings of the NSs' and NNSs' language attitudes as well as the SIT and the CAT theories that provide theoretical accounts of people's perceptions of different English varieties, I now move on to discuss how people's attitudes are influenced by their identification of speakers' origins and their sociodemographic information.

2.6 The Effect of Speaker Identification on Language Attitudes

Since one's accent provides significant cues for listeners to recognise the identity of a speaker (e.g., Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Wright, 1996), a number of studies have sought to scrutinise the extent to which listeners are able to recognise the origins of different English speech varieties. For instance, Preston (2004:481) maintained that assessing a "linguistically distinct area of listeners' mental map" that is linked to a given English variety would further reflect whether evaluators have correctly identified the provenance of the speakers. Whether people's evaluations of an individual English variety are based on correct or incorrect identification of speakers' origins is of great importance because listener-judges' misidentification of the speaker's origin could lead them to make stereotyped judgments based on the variety they believe they are hearing, instead of the variety they are actually hearing (Preston, 1989, 1999b, 2004). This is supported by the argument that positive or negative attitudes towards a speaker's accent are likely to depend on background information, such as nationality or ethnic group membership that is correlated with the speech (e.g., Callan et al., 1983; Rubin, 1992; Edwards, 1999). This is why researchers are interested in finding out whether listeners' knowing where the speaker comes from has an impact on the way they judge different forms of spoken English. The following sections will discuss the main findings of the relevant research, which showed various correlations between listeners correctly identifying different English speakers' origins and the corresponding evaluations they made.

2.6.1 The Correlations between Correct Identification and Positive Evaluation

The first main finding is that accurate identification of a speakers' provenance plays a positive influence on listeners' opinions of the variety of English being spoken (e.g., McKenzie, 2008b; Zhang, 2010). This suggests that when a speech sample is connected with the correct regional origin, it has a positive effect on listeners' judgements towards the speaker. This is illustrated by the study of McKenzie (2008b), which reports that the British and American English speakers were evaluated significantly more positively on the status dimension when Japanese respondents accurately identified their origins. This result might be the consequence of EFL speakers overwhelmingly perceiving IC English speech as the correct model for English language acquisition (McKenzie, 2008b). A parallel result was reported in Hong Kong: Zhang (2010) found that the two native varieties of RP and American English both received more positive evaluations when they were correctly pinpointed as being from their respective countries.

2.6.2 The Correlations between Correct Identification and Negative Evaluation

An interrelationship between accurate recognition of speakers' provenances and negative evaluations has also been reported, in the study of Yook and Lindemann (2013), where South Korean English was consistently downgraded on the dimension of status, despite almost two-thirds of the South Korean informants successfully identifying the nationality of the speaker.

2.6.3 The Correlations between Incorrect Identification and Positive Evaluation

The study of Zhang (2010) showed that a positive evaluation is sometimes still assigned to English speech even if evaluators assign the wrong ethnicity to the speaker. For example, while the majority of the Hong Kong university students in the study failed to assign the geographical origin of Australian English to the speaker, they classified it as an IC variety (Zhang, 2010). Zhang (2010:203) showed that 36.4% and 43.2% of the participants in Hong Kong miscategorised the origins of the first and second Australian English speakers respectively, as coming from the UK. In a similar vein, studies have consistently shown that although EFL speakers were not able to identify the origin of American English

speech, they generally showed a high preference towards it (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; Scales et al., 2006; Rivers, 2011; Yook and Lindemann, 2013). This finding showed that NNSs' preferences for the standard native variety of the USA does not necessary mean that they are able to pinpoint the origin of this variety accurately. One possible explanation of the finding is that NNSs' language ideologies¹³ towards IC English varieties may function without precise recognition of the nationality of the speaker but the connotation of IC varieties as the preferable standards.

2.6.4 The Correlations between Incorrect Identification and Negative Evaluation

The links between inaccurate speaker identification and negative stereotypes of English speech are exemplified in the research on both NSs (e.g., Lindemann, 2003) and NNSs (e.g., Ladegaard, 1998). Although most of the American respondents who were native users misidentified the Korean English speaker as belonging to another non-native group such as "Indian", "Latino", "Japanese" or "Chinese", they nevertheless attached a stigma to the Korean-accented English (Lindemann, 2003:354). Moreover, despite the findings that more than half of the Danish listeners misidentified the Cockney English speaker, they consistently allocated him with negative evaluations (Ladegaard, 1998). With respect to the study in the USA (e.g., Lindemann, 2003) and Denmark (e.g., Ladegaard, 1998), even if the listener did not recognise the speaker's provenance, the particular English speech variety may still be directly associated with negative characteristics. This suggests that although listeners sometimes fail to pinpoint the exact origin country of a given non-native English variety, they often make the association that the native language of that speaker is not English and consequently make a relatively unfavourable evaluation of it.

2.6.5 The Lack of Correlation between Identifications of Speakers' Origins and Evaluations

In turn, some studies (e.g., Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Ladegaard, 1998; Lindemann, 2003) demonstrate a tenuous correlation between the identification of speakers' origins and the evaluations of their speech variety. This signifies

¹³ Language ideology refers to "a pervasive set of beliefs about the superiority of an idealised language variety imposed by dominant social groups who are its speakers" (Garrett, 2010:229).

that, whether or not the knowledge of regional connotations of a specific English variety is valid, the stereotyped reactions towards different English speech varieties might inevitably depend on certain types of subconscious opinion (Ladegaard, 1998). In other words, whether or not listeners are consciously aware of the provenance of an English speech, it might inherently elicit prejudiced perceptions.

A case in point is the study of Milroy and McClenaghan (1997), which reported that IC respondents living in the Ulster region of North Ireland made the same stereotyped evaluations whether they identified the origins of Scottish English, southern Irish English, Ulster English and RP correctly or wrongly. This suggests that the biased judgments elicited by the accents of these four IC English varieties may still take place whether the Ulster listeners successfully or unsuccessfully recognised where the speaker comes from (ibid). The speaker of Scottish English in the study of Milroy and McClenaghan (1977) further exemplifies that, whether the ethnic origin of the Scottish English speaker is accurately or inaccurately pinpointed, the general perception of the speech of Scottish English is downgraded on traits of ambition, confidence and fluency that are associated with status. The findings of Milroy and McClenaghan (1977:9) clarify that: “accents may directly evoke stereotyped responses without the listeners first consciously assigning the speaker to a particular reference group”.

Along the same lines, Lindemann’s (2003) finding regarding American participants’ unfavourable attitudes towards Korean English with respect to status suggests that familiarity and knowledge of speaker origin are not criteria for the downgraded stereotype associated with Asian foreign accents, since the majority of respondents had misidentified the Korean speaker as coming from other East Asian countries (Lindemann, 2003:358). Although listeners may not be familiar enough with a specific English variety to make a direct link between the accent and the specific origin of the speaker, relatively consistent viewpoints towards the variety suggest that recognition may take place unconsciously (e.g., Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Lindemann, 2003).

2.6.6 Summary of Research into the Role that Identification of Speakers' Origins plays in Language Attitudes

The main findings of the interrelationships between identification of speakers' origins and evaluations of their speech can be summarised as follows. Firstly, a number of studies showed some correlations between accurate identification of speakers' origins and more favourable (e.g., McKenzie, 2008b; Zhang, 2010) or unfavourable (e.g., Yook and Lindemann, 2013) attitudes towards different English speech varieties. Moreover, inaccurate recognition of speakers' ethnicities might have both a positive (e.g., Zhang, 2010) and a negative (e.g., Ladegaard, 1998) effect on evaluation. This finding is of particular application to the present study, which examines whether Taiwanese and British research participants are likely to make social evaluations without necessarily identifying the specific origin of a variety of spoken English, but on a broader cluster of native or non-native distinction. The last finding shows that the correlation between the recognition of speaker ethnicity and evaluation is weak (e.g., Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Lindemann, 2003), which means that evaluators' biased perceptions of various forms of spoken English might take place below the level of conscious awareness of speaker provenance.

In light of these key findings, this study aims to extend the investigation of how Taiwanese and British listeners recognise the linguistic diversity of English, and whether different classifications of the provenance of individual speakers have a part to play in the corresponding positive or negative judgments made about their speech.

2.7 The Role of Evaluators' Social Factors on Language Attitudes

In addition to the role that speaker identification plays on speaker evaluation, a number of researchers have maintained the importance of exploring whether NSs' and NNSs' perceptions towards varieties of English are influenced by social characteristics such as age, sex, social class and the regional background of the evaluators (e.g., Cheshire, 1991; Milroy, 1987; Giles, 1970; Coupland et al., 1994; Starks and Paltridge, 1996; Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2010; Sykes, 2010; Zhang, 2010). Studies usually obtain listeners' sociodemographic variables through a questionnaire that requires them to

provide background information. The following subsections will focus specifically on the social factors of gender, occupation and self-perceived competence in English, as these are the sociodemographic variables on which information was gathered in the present study (see Section 3.3.1.3).

2.7.1 Gender

A substantial body of language attitudes research has shown that gender usually turns out to be a salient factor, which suggests that males and females differ systematically in how they perceive varieties of English speech (e.g., Giles, 1970; Callan et al., 1983; Wilson and Bayard, 1992; McKenzie, 2008a; Van Trieste, 1990; Coupland and Bishop, 2007; Moloney, 2009; Sykes, 2010). Nevertheless, some studies have not found the gender of the listeners to be a significant factor in language attitude variations (e.g., Gallois and Callan, 1981; Van Trieste, 1990; Hartikainen, 2000; Ihemere, 2006; Zhang, 2010).

Language attitude studies which found gender to be an influential factor demonstrated that female respondents are more loyal than male respondents in favouring standard speech over non-standard speech (e.g., Labov, 1966; 1972; Trudgill, 1974; Callan et al., 1983; Callan and Gallois, 1987; Milroy, 1987; Cheshire, 1991; Baker, 1992; Andrews, 2003; Bresnahan et al., 2002; Coupland and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2010). This is largely to do with the fact that “the language of women on average and allowing for other variables such as social class and age is closer to the prestige standard than is the language of men” (Ladegaard, 2000:217). According to Williams and Giles (1978), females’ fondness for overt prestige forms of English speech is likely to pave the way for them to achieve greater integration with males. On the other hand, males are generally less influenced by the social stigma against the non-standard forms than females and tend to prefer local accents (e.g., Trudgill, 1974; Giles and Powesland, 1975; Callan et al., 1983; Labov, 1990; Labov et al., 2006; McKenzie, 2010). In this respect, males are more likely to retain covert preference towards the broad speech within their mother-tongue community (Labov, 2001). For instance, Trudgill (1974) showed that while the females in his study favoured the standard variety of RP that is often associated with high status, males tended to desire the local vernacular and less standard pronunciation of Norwich English in

the UK. Possible gender effects will be investigated in this thesis in section 4.2.1 and section 5.2.1.

2.7.2 Occupation

The other salient social factor that affects evaluations towards varieties of English is listeners' occupation (e.g., Garrett et al., 1999; Garrett et al., 2003). A case in point is the finding that students and teachers who worked perceived British English varieties differently in the educational sector (e.g., Garrett et al., 1999). While Welsh teachers associated the prestige form of RP with success and a high level of education, Welsh students tended to identify with Welsh English as the variety that revealed a higher extent of in-group affinity than RP (Garrett et al., 1999). According to Garrett et al. (1999:345), while students are likely to move away from "family identity toward more individual and peer-group identity", people in professions or approaching employment tend to "move out of relatively stable and rooted socio-cultural environments and into more fluid-life-patterns". The study of Garrett et al. (1999) exemplified how attitudes towards varieties of English are likely to differ according to the various professions of the listener-judges.

2.7.3 Self-Perceived Competence in English

The social factor of self-perceived competence in English is particularly relevant to NNSs' attitudes towards English and its varieties (e.g., McKenzie, 2008a, 2010; Makewa et al., 2013). In this regard, the varied extent of ESL or EFL speakers' self-perceived English level is likely to account for the differentiated perceptions towards varieties of English. It is found that L2 Tanzanian students who tended to perceive themselves with a high level of English proficiency are more likely to hold a favourable attitude towards English (e.g., Makewa et al., 2013). Correspondingly, in the study of McKenzie (2008a), Japanese university students who perceived themselves with a higher level of English proficiency evaluated varieties of the IC such as Glasgow Standard English, Southern US English, and Midwest US English speakers significantly more positively than those who regarded themselves to have a lower proficiency. McKenzie (2008a) interpreted this finding to mean that Japanese EFL speakers who have higher levels of English proficiency are more likely than their counterparts to endorse IC English varieties. In conclusion, it is worth considering the variable of NNSs'

self-perceived English level as a potential determinant of attitude variations towards different forms of spoken English.

2.7.4 The Interaction Effects of the Social Factors

A number of studies (e.g., McKenzie, 2006; Callan et al., 1983; Kraut and Wulff, 2013) that have investigated the role of respondents' sociodemographic factors in the evaluations of English varieties also highlight the value of examining the interaction effects of these variables. In Wilson and MacLean's definition (2011: 416) the interaction effect is "the differing effect of one factor on the dependent variable, depending on the particular level of another factor". For instance, rather than being influenced by one exclusive social characteristic, research (e.g., Callan et al., 1983; Kraut and Wulff, 2013) has found that perceptions of different English varieties are determined by a complex interplay of the listeners' sociodemographic factors. There is also evidence to the contrary: McKenzie's study (2010) did not show this kind of interplay. To achieve a greater validity and legitimacy in interpreting the interconnection between social variables of the evaluators and their judgments of different English varieties, it is therefore worthwhile for this research to investigate both the main effects and the interaction effects of each social variable selected for the Taiwanese and British participants (see Section 3.3.1.3).

2.7.5 Summary of the Research into the Effect of Social Factors on Language Attitudes

Many studies examining the effect of participants' social factors on their evaluations of English speech (e.g., Coupland and Bishop, 2007; Sykes, 2010; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010) highlighted the value of taking into consideration the main effects and the interaction effects of the social variables when conducting language attitude research. Studies demonstrated that the social variables of the listeners sometimes generated a mixed result in mediating evaluators' stereotyped judgments towards different English varieties. To build a more profound understanding of the sociolinguistic framework in the context of Taiwan and the UK, the present study will examine both the main effects and the interaction effects of the social variables when analysing how Taiwanese and British respondents evaluate varieties of English (see Sections 4.2, 4.3, 5.2 and 5.3).

2.8 The Research Questions of the Study

In response to the gaps identified from a careful review of the existing NSs and NNSs studies towards varieties of English, there is empirical value in conducting further in-depth research on how Taiwanese and British people perceive variations in IC, OC and EC forms of English speech by addressing the following research questions. It should be noted that the sequence of the research questions is based on an order from implicit to explicit measurement of language attitudes.

1. What are the Taiwanese and British participants' implicit attitudes towards varieties of English?
2. Which social variables (if any) appear to be significant in determining the Taiwanese and British participants' attitudes towards varieties of English?
3. Are Taiwanese and British participants able to identify the origins of varieties of English?
4. What role does the Taiwanese and British participants' identification of speakers' origins play on their evaluations of the varieties of English?
5. What role do World Englishes play on the Taiwanese and British participants' attitudes towards varieties of English?
6. What are the Taiwanese and British participants' explicit attitudes towards varieties of English?

This chapter reviewed the main findings of NSs and NNSs attitudes towards varieties of English and set the primary research questions that this study seeks to answer. Before the discussion of the detailed methodology in the coming chapter, it will review the main approaches of examining language attitudes and explain the appropriate techniques that the present research adopts.

Chapter 3

Data and Methodology

Before moving on to discuss the main methodology used in the current study, I will introduce the two research sites of Taiwan and the UK, which this study focuses on. Following this, the chapter provides a comprehensive account of the research design employed in this study, which includes how the participants were chosen, how the varieties of English were selected and how language attitudes are elicited in both NSs and NNSs contexts. It is worth noting that different pilot studies were conducted to test the reliability of the research questionnaire and the various methodologies before the data collection took place (see Section 3.2).

3.1 The Research Site

In the introduction chapter, section 1.2 discussed why I had chosen Taiwan and the UK as the research contexts for this study. In this section, I will briefly introduce the demographic information of Taiwan and the UK, where the research samples were collected¹⁴. I then go on to discuss further the sociolinguistics of English in these two research sites.

3.1.1 Taiwan

Located in the east of Asia, Taiwan has a total population of over 23 million people (National Statistics of Taiwan, 2017). The official language primarily spoken and commonly understood in Taiwan is known as Guoyu, which refers to Modern Standard Mandarin (Mair, 2004). The other languages spoken in Taiwan include Taiyu¹⁵, Hakka and various aboriginal languages (Kloter, 2004; Mair, 2004). Although Taiwan has never been colonised by Britain or America, the rise of globalisation, internationalisation and technological developments taking place over the last few decades has brought a concurrent rise in English language usage and exposure to varieties of English over the same period (e.g., Bolton, 2008; Marsh, 2007; Chang, et al., 2011; Chou et al., 2012; Ho, 2013;

¹⁴ The detailed composition of the research sample will be discussed in section 3.3.1.2.

¹⁵ Taiyu is a “collective term for the group of Southern Min dialects spoken by people in Taiwan” (Kloter, 2004:1).

Chatterjee, 2016). The following section will provide a more detailed introduction into the sociolinguistics of English in Taiwan, based on the themes of English language education policy, varieties of English in education, varieties of English in the media and the social status of varieties of English.

3.1.1.1 English Language Education Policy

Seeing English as an important medium to approach the international stage, different policies regarding the implementation of English language education have been introduced by the Taiwanese government since the 1950s to promote its usage (Tsai, 2010b).

As early as 1949, English language was introduced to secondary school education in Taiwan with about three to six hours of lessons per week (e.g., Chern, 2002: 97; Su, 2006:266). One of the milestones in the development of English language policy was to officially include English as an additional subject in the standard curriculum from fifth grade upwards in elementary schools in 2001, and then from third grade upwards in 2002 (e.g., Chern, 2002; Su, 2006; Chen 2010; Tsai, 2010b). Following this shift, the Ministry of Education proposed a six-year National Development Plan under the “Challenge 2008” programme in 2002: this endeavoured to promote Taiwanese citizens’ English proficiency for international communication by offering oral skills training, for example, for those who regularly engage in conversations with foreigners (Chen, 2010: 90). With regards to the policy of which English variety should be employed for teaching and learning English, there is a consensus amongst Taiwanese governors on the importance of “international English”, which incorporates “all native varieties of English, e.g., American English, British English, and Australian English” (Chen, 2010:89).

The importance of English and its related policies have made English one of the compulsory tested subjects within education pathways, for example, in the Comprehensive Assessment Programme for junior high school students (aged from 13-15) and the College Entrance Examination for senior high school students (aged from 16-18) (e.g., Chern, 2002; Chou, 2017:420). In addition to English being a compulsory subject within the elementary and secondary school curriculum, English is also a required subject in the freshman year of Taiwanese

universities and colleges (e.g., Lu, 2011). Moreover, many Taiwanese universities and colleges now require students to take English proficiency tests such as the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) or the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and to have attained a benchmark level before completing their degrees (e.g., Wu and Lee, 2017).

Altogether, these policies have advocated learning English as a nationwide movement, which has further shaped Taiwanese people's positive attitudes towards this foreign language, when considering it as a substantial gateway to educational advancement (e.g., Chern, 2002; Su, 2006; Chen, 2010; Chou, 2017; Wu and Lee, 2017).

3.1.1.2 Varieties of English in Education

Alongside the government policies that endorse English language, Taiwanese people's interests in learning English have been unprecedented (Chen, 2010). Scholars have consistently noted that English language education in Taiwan is American-centred (e.g., Chen, 2010; Jou, 2010; Lin, 2012; Chang, 2016), which is likely to result from the "close relationship and frequent contact between Taiwan and the United States" in various international and intercultural settings (Liao and Hu, 2016:671). Moreover, since most of the English language textbooks originate from publishing houses in the USA or the UK (e.g., Ke, 2012; Su, 2016), Taiwanese people are mostly exposed to standard varieties spoken in the USA or the UK and largely "legitimate the hegemony of American English and British English as the only acceptable varieties or standard forms of the language" (Su, 2016:390). For example, *A Pronouncing Dictionary of American English* (Kenyon and Knott, 1944), known as the "KK system" amongst the Taiwanese people, provides "a phonemic transcription with a symbol for each distinctive consonant and vowel of General American English" and has been well-used in teaching English pronunciation and the language of English newspapers since 1969 in Taiwan (e.g., Tsai, 2010b; Lin, 2012; Chang, 2016).

In addition to the teaching materials, the finding of Ke and Cahyani (2014:29) demonstrates that Taiwanese people generally favour native English-speaking teachers that come from countries where English is used as a first language such as the USA and UK, reinforcing their perception of "English as an American or

British language”. English tests and exams are also said to uphold native speaker standards, which maintain the prevalence and popularity of the standard varieties of the US and the UK in Taiwan (e.g., Chen, 2010; Jou, 2010; Ke and Cahyani, 2014; Chang, 2016). These practices fuel the belief that English varieties other than General American English and standard British English are not correct.

In spite of the use of standard American/British English as the teaching model that has led to people’s preferences towards these varieties, Taiwanese people are increasingly exposed to different English varieties, thanks to the growing number of international students coming to study in higher educational settings in Taiwan (e.g., Chang et al., 2011; Chou et al., 2012; Pare and Tsay, 2014). The total number of international students to enrol in Taiwanese higher education has increased from about 50,000 in 2011 to 110,182 in 2015 (Ministry of Education, 2016). The ten largest groups of overseas students come from the following countries, Mainland China, ASEAN¹⁶ members, Hong Kong, Japan, Macao, South Korea, USA and France (ibid). This shows that Taiwanese students’ opportunities to interact with international students, who are likely to be NNSs, for academic exchange or social interaction inside or outside of the university campus, are growing.

In addition to fulfilling the objective of international cooperation between Taiwanese higher education institutions with overseas universities and colleges, different policies have been implemented to encourage instruction in the English medium for both undergraduate and postgraduate students since 2005 (Hou et al., 2013). Figures retrieved from the Ministry of Education in 2011 indicated that in 45 universities and colleges, a total of 246 degree programmes were delivered in English with a high proportion of international students enrolled on these (Hou et al., 2013:363). With Taiwanese higher education continuing to endeavour to promote educational and cultural exchange through academic cooperation in research, teaching practices and mutual study-abroad exchange programmes in the contemporary climate of internationalisation (e.g., Chang et al., 2011; Chou et al., 2012; Hou et al., 2013; Nagatsuka et al., 2013; Pare and

16 Member states of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) include Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam.

Tsay, 2014), it is likely that Taiwanese students will continue to experience increasing exposure to different native and non-native varieties of English.

3.1.1.3 Varieties of English in the Media

One of the main forces behind English becoming a global language is the accelerated growth of mass media and mass communication (e.g., Crystal, 2003a; Jan, 2009); this is also evident in Taiwan (e.g., Ho, 2013; Brown, 2014; Chang, 2014; Hung et al., 2016).

In consideration of the prominent role of American media in Taiwan, Taiwanese audiences are widely exposed to varieties of American English. For example, American news channels such as CCN (e.g., Hung et al., 2016), the International Community Radio Taipei radio station (e.g., Brown, 2014), and magazines such as *Time* and *Reader's Digest* (e.g., Su, 2016) are widely prevalent and consumed amongst all age groups and social classes within Taiwan. Films in Taiwan are also dominated by American Hollywood movies, which inevitably spread American English to Taiwanese citizens (e.g., Chang, 2014).

In spite of the dominance of American media, there is an increasing opportunity for Taiwanese people to be exposed to media sources of other English varieties and nationalities. In both spoken and written English, the rise of Internet surfing and interaction via electronic social media also offers extensive opportunities for Taiwanese nationals to communicate with speakers of native and non-native English varieties (e.g., Martin, 2006; Healey, 2007). Moreover, satellite and cable TV in Taiwan offer easy access to an extensive array of international programmes that include a growing number of English-speaking channels from Western Europe, and east and southeast Asia (e.g., Marsh, 2007: 37). This invariably introduces Taiwanese people to varieties of English, particularly through TV dramas from non-native English speaking countries such as South Korea (e.g., Ho, 2013; Lee, 2014) and Thailand (e.g., Ho, 2013; Snodin, 2014) that are becoming increasingly popular amongst Taiwanese audiences. Bollywood movies have also started to gain popularity in Taiwan, which promotes exposure to not only Indian and Hindi cultures but also their English language varieties (e.g., Rao, 2010; Chatterjee, 2016). As a whole, mass media serves as a great medium

for Taiwanese people to be exposed to varieties of English, both native and non-native alike.

3.1.1.4 The Social Status of Varieties of English in Taiwan

Having discussed the policy that promotes English language education and Taiwanese people's exposure to both native and non-native English varieties in the educational settings and the media, I now turn to the discussion of how varieties of English are associated with different types of socioeconomic status in Taiwan (e.g., Chen, 2010; Lee, 2011; Chung, 2015).

As an essential gateway to the world for Taiwanese people, a good command of English is often highly regarded as providing global competitiveness (e.g., Lee, 2011; Lu, 2011; Pan, 2015). However, good English proficiency goes beyond simply fulfilling a need for international communication; it is also regarded as "symbolic with socially significant meanings" (Lee, 2011:1). Although Taiwanese people are increasingly exposed to non-native English varieties in higher education settings and the media, research has consistently shown that proficient Taiwanese English speakers with convincingly native-like accents such as standard American English, are often considered as people of higher socioeconomic status (e.g., Chen, 2010; Lee, 2011; Lu, 2011; Pan, 2015). This is because families of a higher social class within Taiwanese society have more available resources to "invest in their offspring's skills in speaking English" (Tsai, 2010a: 236). For example, despite the fact that English language education is offered in state schools, Taiwanese people often attend cram schools for private English lessons in order to advance and succeed within education. However, extra English courses in cram schools are often costly, and are often accessible only to those families of middle and higher income in Taiwan (e.g., Chang, 2004; Tsai, 2010a; Chou, 2014; Pan, 2015). Moreover, it has also been demonstrated that Taiwanese people of a higher social class tend to have more access to learning English from native English-speaking teachers who are American or British and/or overseas education in English-speaking countries such as the USA or the UK (e.g., Chang, 2004; Pan, 2015; Chang, 2016). This explains why people of higher social class in Taiwan are more likely to acquire native-like competency of English language (e.g., Chen, 2010; Ke and Cahyani, 2014; Wu and Lee, 2017).

In addition, it is believed that the acquisition of a native-like proficiency or accent, such as General American English, will help Taiwanese people to attain the image of social advancement. This includes guaranteeing one's competitiveness and enhanced lifestyle in a Taiwanese society, which is deeply influenced by a contemporary political and cultural input from the USA (e.g., Chang, 2004; Tsai, 2010a; Chang, 2016). For instance, Taiwanese people with the ability to communicate in native varieties of General American English or Standard British English have better opportunities in career mobility and economic attainment (Tsai, 2010a). This explains why native varieties of standard American and British English have been regarded as of high social status in Taiwan.

While native varieties such as General American English and standard British English have been found to serve the instrumental role of social advancement in Taiwan (e.g., Chang, 2004; Chen, 2010; Tsai, 2010a; Pan, 2015), other studies have shown that spoken varieties of native English, especially for those Taiwanese who use it, do not always deliver social attractiveness (e.g., Chen, 2010; Lee, 2011; Chung, 2015). For instance, Chen (2010:97) maintained that Taiwanese nationals are less likely to consider the foreign language of English as a medium to express "group solidarity" (Chen, 2010:97); despite the function of English being continuously acknowledged as an instrumental tool for "cultivating global views" and "upward mobility". For example, Chung (2015) noted that their peers might perceive an English speaker from Taiwan who imitates General American English or an RP accent as a "show off". Along the same line, the study of Lee (2011:17) shows that Taiwanese English speakers who are of native-like proficiency and pronunciation can sometimes be perceived as "pretentious" and therefore often encounter prejudices in their communication with local citizens.

In comparison to the native varieties of standard American and standard British English that have been considered as being of high social prestige, non-native English varieties are often associated with lower social status (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Lee, 2013; Yang, 2013). In spite of the fact that people living in Taiwan would have many opportunities to be exposed to Taiwanese-accented English among their family, classmates or friends that help to show solidarity, the variety of Taiwanese English had been less well regarded from the perspective of social status from Taiwanese nationals (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Liou, 2010; Lee, 2013;

Yang, 2013). A case in point is the study of Lee (2013:37), in which Taiwanese university students perceived Taiwanese English as a “slightly irritating accent”. Taiwanese people’s negative perceptions towards the Asian non-native English varieties such as Japanese English (e.g., ETNEWS, 2016), Singaporean English (e.g., Kobayashi, 2008), Philippine English (e.g., Kobayashi, 2008) and Indian English (e.g., Yang, 2013) with regard to accent are not only found in scholarly research papers but also on the news or online social forums.

Taken together, it could be inferred that varieties of English are associated with different levels of social status/solidarity by Taiwanese people despite the on-going spread of English and legitimisation of different English varieties around the globe (e.g., Seidlhofer et al., 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Jenkins, 2009). The discussion of the sociolinguistic context of varieties of English in Taiwan provides a contextual background for this study to examine how Taiwanese perceive both native and non-native varieties of English. In the next section, I focus on describing the sociolinguistic context of English for the other research site, the UK.

3.1.2 UK

The UK is a country situated on the northwest coast of the European continent. The native language for British people is English, which is used predominantly in all areas of life across the country. The other languages spoken in the UK include Cornish, Gaelic, Irish and Ulster Scots, Scots, Welsh etc. (Trudgill, 1984). Across the UK, accent variations exist in different social or regional varieties of British English (Trudgill, 2002). Moreover, globalisation has led to growing contact or exposure to non-native English varieties for British people, thanks to e.g. the increasing numbers of European labour migrants and international students studying in the colleges or universities in the UK (e.g., Okolski and Salt, 2014; McKenzie, 2015a; 2015b). In this section, I will firstly discuss varieties of English in the media and the higher education in the UK. I then go on to discuss the social status of varieties of English in British society.

3.1.2.1 Varieties of English in the Media

In the mainstream British media, such as the BBC, standard varieties of English, in particularly the prestigious accent of RP, have been predominantly used (e.g.,

Giles, 1970; McArthur, 1992; Clark, 2007; Kerswill, 2006; Wotschke, 2008; Garrett et al., 2011). This is largely to do with the tradition that the majority of BBC newsreaders and commentators have adopted the esteemed pronunciation of RP that was “accepted in the most polite circles of society” (e.g., Hughes et al., 2005:2-3; Kerswill, 2006; Clark, 2007). The persistent usage of RP in public broadcasting meant that it was seen as “synonymous with BBC English” (Giles, 1970:212), which further contributes to its high social status amongst British people (Wotschke, 2008). However, in recent years, there are increasing representations of a diversity of regional standard, and nonstandard British English in the mass media (Milroy and Milroy, 1999). The BBC news is now being presented in different regional or social accents, such as Yorkshire English and Cockney English (e.g., McArthur, 1992:110; Wotschke, 2008: 118), despite being a “gatekeeper” of the standard RP speech in the early days (Clark, 2007:7). In addition to RP, global access to the audio and visual media of the other nations through multi-channel TV, films, radio stations, and social media on the Internet. This in tandem with immigration and a growing multiculturalism in British society has led British people to be exposed to different English varieties (e.g., Stuart-Smith et al., 2013; Kerswill, 2014). For example, the variety of “Jafaican English”, also known as the “Multicultural London English” has not only been mentioned but also spoken in the news, cultural reports, television dramas or soaps (Kerswill, 2014: 428-429). Another non-native variety that has gradually come to light in the media is Indian-accented English, largely because of the growing popularity of Bollywood films in the UK (Krämer, 2016). These examples show the continuous permeation of English language being spoken by people of different origins in mass media, which might eventually have an impact on how people living in the UK conceptualise varieties of English, native and non-native alike (e.g., Coupland and Bishop, 2007; Clark and Schlee, 2010; Schneider, 2011; Kerswill, 2014).

3.1.2.2 Varieties of English in British Higher Education

Besides the media, British people are increasingly exposed to varieties of English that are of non-native origin, thanks to the rising number of international students coming to study in the UK (e.g., Bamford, 2008; Hawkes, 2014). In recent years, British higher education institutes are currently undergoing a process of internationalisation, which has resulted in large numbers of overseas

students coming from non-EU countries such as China, India, Malaysia, Thailand, Japan and Taiwan (Universities UK, 2014). With English being the medium for different levels of courses and programs, the increasingly high intake of international students in British universities and colleges demonstrates that the opportunities to encounter English varieties spoken by non-British students are expanding (e.g., McKenzie, 2015a; 2015b). In view of the fact that language attitudes are likely to play a significant role in the intergroup relations between domestic and international students, this study will examine how British people perceive non-native English varieties that are likely to be spoken by the growing number of overseas students.

3.1.2.3 The Social Status of Varieties of English in the UK

Having considered British people's growing exposure to and recognition of different English varieties in the media and higher education, I now turn to the discussion of the social status and the social roles of varieties of English in the UK.

It has been widely reported that varieties of British English serve different social roles and are used by different social groups of UK nationals (e.g., Trudgill, 2002; Kerswill, 2006; Wotschke, 2008). The most known prestigious variety of British English is the "non-localizable accent" of RP (Wells, 1982:10), which is often seen as a marker of high socioeconomic status with authority, wealth and power (e.g., Milroy, 1999; Trudgill, 2002; Kerswill, 2006) and serves a social role in formal contexts such as education (e.g., Trudgill, 2002; Hughes et al., 2005) and news broadcasting (e.g., McArthur, 1992; Kerswill, 2006; Wotschke, 2008; Garrett et al., 2011).

Other standard varieties of British English spoken elsewhere in the UK, such as standard Scottish English (e.g., Milroy, 1999; Corbett and Stuart-Smith, 2012), standard Welsh English (e.g., Giles, 1971; Coupland et al., 1994) and standard Northern Irish English (e.g., Kallen, 2012) have often been characterised as the accent of those in the upper or middle class and therefore perceived as superior in terms of social status than the vernacular varieties spoken in these respective regions. For example, inferiority has often been associated with the speech of the industrial cities such as Birmingham (e.g., Strongman and Woosley, 1967;

Bishop et al., 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007), Glasgow (e.g., Stuart-Smith, 1999; Coupland and Bishop, 2007), Liverpool (e.g., Wells, 1982; Coupland and Bishop, 2007) and Newcastle (e.g., Schneider, 2011) for social status. On the other hand, speakers of regional Scottish or Yorkshire accents have been found to better express group solidarity with members of the same speech community (e.g., Strongman and Woosley, 1967; Cheyne, 1970).

In terms of non-native varieties of English, it has been consistently found that British people tend to downgrade NNSs from China (e.g., McKenzie, 2015b), Japan (e.g., McKenzie, 2015b) and India (e.g., Giles, 1970; McKenzie, 2015b) with low social status. However, with the continuing spread of different English varieties in mass media and in campus settings in a context of internationalisation, it is insightful to investigate how British people perceive both native and non-native varieties of English as well as the way in which attitudes to them have changed.

Having described the two research sites in the current study, I now turn to the methodology of this research and specifically, the pilot study.

3.2 Pilot Study

Pilot studies were undertaken before the main study of the present research project (see Section 3.3). Here I discuss what did and did not work in the preliminary pilot studies, and the amendments that were made to the main study according to valuable feedback and suggestions. All parts of the Taiwanese and British main research questionnaire were respectively piloted with Taiwanese and British people, who were chosen as appropriate judges.

3.2.1 The First Taiwanese Pilot Study

3.2.1.1 The Administration

The first Taiwanese pilot study was conducted with a sample of 20 Mandarin speakers (Chinese=10, Taiwanese=10; male=9, female=11) between the 1st and the 30th November 2012 to test the validity of the Taiwanese research questionnaire. The age of the first pilot study participants ranged from 19 to 43 (mean age was 26). The language of the first pilot questionnaire and the consent

form is in Mandarin, which was validated by two proficient speakers of Mandarin and English to minimise the potential effect of language-related misunderstandings (see Appendix G and H). On average, it took about 40-50 minutes for each participant to finish answering each section of the questionnaire. To ensure uniformity of measurement, the procedures involved with each pilot participant's visit were standardised.

The first pilot study consisted of the following stages:

1. In the introduction session, the pilot respondents were welcomed to the survey and informed of the general procedures of completing the questionnaires. Then, they were asked to sign the informant consent form (see Appendix D and H), which is approved by the College of Arts Ethics Committee of the University of Glasgow, before they started to answer the questionnaires. On the informant consent form, pilot participants were told the purpose of the questionnaire, and they were also informed of the future usage of their data provided in this survey. Pilot participants were encouraged to ask any questions regarding the research for clarification. The five different parts of the pilot questionnaire were presented to the participants separately.
2. In the very first section of the Taiwanese pilot questionnaire, participants were given instructions on how to complete the VGT task by evaluating the recorded speech samples of Southern Standard British English, General American English, African American Vernacular English, German English, Australian English, Indian English, Japanese English, Chinese English and Taiwanese English on the semantic differential scale, which is composed of the following nine traits: "competent", "intelligent", "educated", "dominant", "authoritative", "assertive", "attractive", "friendly" and "humorous". When evaluating the nine different English varieties, ample time was given between each recording. Out of these nine English varieties, the speech samples of Southern Standard British English, Indian and German English were not obtained from the Speech Accent Archive (SAA) but recorded in the sound laboratory of the English Language department at the University of Glasgow. The selection of the speakers

and the speech recordings for the first pilot study is similar to the procedure that will be discussed in the main study (see Section 3.2.2.2).

3. The second part of the questionnaire asked the pilot informants to listen to the recordings of the nine English varieties again and to try to identify the geographical origin of the speaker on a map (see Appendix C).
4. Pilot participants were then given instructions on how to complete ten Likert scale questions and two multiple-choice questions.
5. In order to control other potentially confounding factors and to fulfil the interest of taking into account the role of informants' social factors on evaluations, additional personal information was requested in the last part of the questionnaire, including the pilot respondent's nationality, native language, age and place of birth.
6. After completing the pilot questionnaire, informants were encouraged to share their feedback regarding the design of the research questionnaire.

3.2.1.2 The Problems Identified

The following issues arose from the first pilot study:

1. The researcher encountered the difficulty of recruiting pilot respondents to meet at a specific place and at a certain time to collect data and therefore it was decided that the questionnaire would be designed in an online format, to help to gather responses in a more efficient way.
2. The length of time taken to complete the pilot questionnaire was found to be too long. Pilot participants started to lose their concentration before the end. In response, the total number of English varieties included in the VGT was reduced to seven, and the traits of the semantic-differential scale was reduced to six sets to eliminate the issue of participant fatigue.
3. The odd number of the semantic differential scale of the VGT (1=the most unfavourable evaluation; 7=the most favourable evaluation) and the Likert

scale (1=total disagreement; 7=total agreement) were found to be problematic since the majority of the pilot respondents tended to choose the middle point of 4 instead of making a more positive or negative rating. Therefore, it was decided to change the semantic differential scale and the Likert scale into an even number of 6.

4. The feedback from the first pilot study suggests that the speaker origin identification task, which required the respondents to allocate each recorded speech sample to a region on a map might cause some geographical misconception that influences the validity of the responses. Consequently, it was decided that other methods would be used to replace the pre-designed map.
5. A potential issue was also found with the ordering of each section of the first pilot questionnaire. Instead of arranging the VGT as the very first task, the pilot respondents suggested moving the VGT section to the later part of the questionnaire so that the other sections can be utilised to prepare informants' readiness and concentration in answering the questions.

3.2.1.3 The Points to be Retained

The following points were found to function appropriately and were kept for the main study.

1. The passage of the recordings that was retrieved from the SAA proved to be a suitable stimulus in eliciting listeners' evaluations of varieties of English. Therefore, the same text was employed for the VGT and speaker origin identification task for the main research questionnaire (Section 3.3.2.4).
2. The SAA proved to be suitable resource in providing speech recordings of different English varieties.
3. Standard Mandarin was found to be an appropriate language for the first Taiwanese pilot study. Accordingly, the same language was used for the main Taiwanese research questionnaire.

3.2.2 The Second Taiwanese Pilot Study

The objective of this section is to discuss the management of the second Taiwanese pilot study. The focus will be on the relevant changes made, based on the findings and feedbacks of the first pilot study, in order to construct a more reliable methodological design of the research questionnaire for the main study.

3.2.2.1 The Administration

The online format of the second pilot study questionnaire has enabled the researcher to recruit respondents beyond the geographical scope of Glasgow. The preliminary version of the online survey was emailed to ten Taiwanese acquaintances of the researcher (male=2, female=8) on the 1st of March 2013, and ten completed online surveys were received by the 14th of March 2013. The respondents of the second pilot study age from 22 to 43 (mean age was 28). The language of the online questionnaire for the second Taiwanese pilot study is in standard Mandarin. The pilot respondents were invited and encouraged to give any comments regarding the content and the administration of the online survey. There was no major issue raised by the respondents and the general feedback on the online survey was positive.

3.2.2.2 Modifications Made

According to the lessons learned from the first pilot study (Section 3.2.1), the following changes have been made in the second Taiwanese pilot research questionnaire¹⁷.

1. In order to recruit a large number of respondents in an efficient manner, the second pilot study administered the research questionnaire via the online format, which has been employed in previous language attitude studies (e.g., Coupland and Bishop, 2007; Bauman, 2013; Litzenberg, 2013; Kraut and Wulff, 2013; Sasayama, 2013).
2. The respondents of the second pilot study were asked to evaluate seven different recorded varieties of American English (AE), General American

¹⁷ The Second Taiwanese Pilot Research Questionnaire is the same as the Taiwanese Main Research Questionnaire in Appendix A: it is not re-listed in the Appendices section to avoid repetition.

English (GAE), Standard Southern British English (SSBE), Indian English (IE), Japanese English (JE), Spanish English (SE) and Taiwanese English (TE), according to the criteria discussed in section 3.3.2.3. Except for the speech sample of SSBE and IE that were recorded in the phonetic laboratory of the University of Glasgow, the other recordings are chosen from the SAA.

3. The observation and the feedback indicated that the majority of the first pilot respondents were unfamiliar with the procedure of how to evaluate speakers of each English variety across the personality traits in the bipolar semantic differential scale. An extra guise with a female speaker of Southern British English speech is used as an “introduction example” to help the informants familiarise themselves with the process of completing the task of the VGT.
4. The six-point semantic differential scale of the second pilot study is composed of “confident”, “intelligent”, “educated”, “authoritative”, “friendly” and “lively” and their opposites (1 is the most unfavourable evaluation, while 6 is the most favourable evaluation).
5. According to the comments from the first pilot study (Section 3.2.1), participants of the second pilot study are given a pre-determined list of choices instead of a pre-designed map when answering the speaker origin identification task. The respective countries of the seven English varieties selected for the VGT are on the list along with three other options, which are “Russia”, “South Africa” and “not-known”.
6. The number of questions for the Likert Scale is reduced to seven in the second pilot study. In addition, to avoid the participants’ inclination to respond in the middle of the scale, the numbering of the Likert scale has been changed to six (while 1=Total Disagreement; 6=Total Agreement).
7. Two more multiple-choice questions have been added in the second pilot study questionnaire. The modified list of choices for the second pilot study is composed of the seven English varieties chosen for evaluation in

the VGT (i.e., AE, GAE, SSBE, IE, JE, SE and TE), “no preference” and “others”.

8. The Background Information section is moved to the beginning of the second pilot study (see Appendix A and C). Additionally, the identification of the origin of speakers is incorporated into the same section as the VGT in the second pilot study (see Appendix A and C). That is, respondents are requested to identify each guise’s origin immediately after they rate each speech sample on the bipolar scale of VGT.

3.2.2.3 The Points to be Retained

From the second pilot study of the Taiwanese research questionnaire, the following points were found to be appropriate for the main study.

1. The online format of the questionnaire is a productive tool in recruiting potential respondents efficiently, and thus a website was built for the research questionnaire of the main study.
2. Since the main study was operating the questionnaire online, the wordings of the instructions, the questions and the content of each section were found to be of great clarity and comprehensibility even without verbal explanation.
3. The listening recordings were found to be of authenticity and validity to exemplify the target English varieties of AE, GAE, SSBE, IE, JE, SE and TE chosen for evaluations.
4. The Taiwanese respondents of the second pilot study acknowledged that the six personality traits (i.e., “confident”, “intelligent”, “educated”, “authoritative”, “friendly” and “lively”) used in the bi-polar scale were culturally and socially salient for the judges to evaluate different English speech in the VGT (see Section 3.3.2.5).
5. The pre-determined choices list of the speaker origin identification task was found to be of a more appropriate design for the respondents, and thus the main study employed the same methodology.

6. The number of questions in each section of the second pilot questionnaire was found to be appropriate and therefore the same set of questions was retained to minimise the potential effect of listener fatigue in the main study (e.g., Dornyei, 2003; Sykes, 2010).
7. Structuring the second pilot questionnaire according a sequential progression from the more indirect to the more direct means of eliciting participants' attitudes was practical. Consequently, the structure of the research questionnaire of the main study was in the following order: background information; VGT and speaker origin identification task; Likert scale questions; multiple-choice questions (see Section 3.3 for the detailed description of the main research questionnaire).

3.2.3 The British Pilot Study

Following the two Taiwanese pilot studies, I proceeded to design the British pilot questionnaire. According to the lessons learned from the previous two pilot studies, the feedback collected from the British pilot questionnaire¹⁸ could contribute to not only the design but also the administration of the online survey. For the British main study, the administration of the online survey could benefit from recruiting a larger number of respondents. After piloting the online questionnaire with 10 British respondents, no major issues were raised from the subsequent comments. It was found that the British pilot informants consistently considered the questionnaire as appropriate in terms of the design and the number of questions, clarity of the wording for the instructions and the administration of the online survey. Furthermore, the fact that the British pilot respondents completed the experimental online survey with ease suggested that the questionnaire was suitable to be administered to the British research participants of the main study. Since the research questionnaire for the Taiwanese and British participants shared a similar design, it was evident that the British questionnaire had benefitted from the previous two piloting stages of the questionnaire for the Taiwanese participants.

18 The British Pilot Research Questionnaire is the same with the British Main Research Questionnaire in Appendix B: it is not re-listed in the Appendices section to avoid repetition.

To facilitate comparison between the Taiwanese and British participants' attitudes towards varieties of English, the design of the British main research questionnaire was mainly based on the one for the Taiwanese main study, with minor modifications to suit the British context. Since the details of the British questionnaire for the pilot study were identical to the one employed for the British main study, it is not described here in order to avoid repetition (see Section 3.3 for the full description of the main research questionnaire).

The different stages of the aforementioned Taiwanese and British pilot studies helped to ensure the credibility and practicability of the research questionnaire that would be employed to collect data in the main experiment (see Section 3.3).

3.3 The Design of the Main Research Questionnaire

The objective of present research design is to integrate both direct and indirect techniques for examining Taiwanese and British participants' attitudes towards different English varieties of the IC, OC and EC. The employment of the mixed approach allows the researcher to gather both evaluators' implicit and explicit perceptions so that their evaluations towards variations of different English accents can be better analysed. By doing this, the study aims to uncover both their underlying evaluations, which are unconscious, and their more accessible attitudes, that are conscious, towards different spoken Englishes.

In the following sections, I describe how the present study employs the mixed approach to obtain the relevant data, in an attempt to answer the main research questions listed in section 2.8. The following sections discuss the design and the operation of the main research questionnaire of the study, which are involved with the following data collection techniques: the Background Information section, the VGT and the Speaker Identification Task, the Likert Scale, and the Multiple Choice Questions of eliciting judgments of English speech variations.

In order to minimise the potential language-related misunderstandings, the research questionnaire used for the Taiwanese and British participants was in the respective native language of the two research groups. The Mandarin version of

the questionnaire for the Taiwanese respondents was tested in the pilot studies to ensure that the translation was of equivalent meaning to the original English version (see Sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2).

3.3.1 Part I The Background Information Section of the Participants

This section aims to discuss how the Background Information questions of the research questionnaire were formed and the justifications for selecting each of the social variables under investigation.

3.3.1.1 The Rationale of the Background Information Section

The reasoning behind the background information section was to acquire socio-demographical information about the research participants. By doing this, it helped the researcher to understand the composition of the Taiwanese and British research population. Moreover, the background information section enabled the researcher to select the social variables of the informants in order to test the correlation between listeners' background information (e.g., gender) and language attitudes. In view of the fact that the evaluators' social factors, including gender and occupation, are likely to play a part in governing attitudes, the section also requested additional personal information such as nationality and regional membership (e.g., Lambert et al., 1960; Giles, 1970; Callan, 1983; Coupland and Bishop, 2007).

3.3.1.2 The Research Sample

The compositions of the samples of the Taiwanese and British research participants are presented in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2 respectively. While prospective Taiwanese respondents were approached through the online survey during the period of twelve weeks from the 10th of June 2013 to the 10th of September 2013, potential British informants were accessed via the online survey in the six weeks' duration from the 18th of August 2014 to the 30th of September 2014 (see the discussion of the research questionnaire presented in the form of the online survey in Section 3.4). Both groups of potential Taiwanese and British respondents were recruited via advertisement on a friend-of-a-friend basis (Milroy, 1980). By the end of the data collection period, 317 questionnaires were completed by Taiwanese respondents and 147 were completed by British

respondents. The Taiwanese and British online surveys were closed to avoid receiving further responses in order to keep the data at the manageable scope (e.g., Dewaele and McCloskey, 2015). It was ensured that the Taiwanese sample consisted only of respondents of Taiwanese nationality, who speak Mandarin as the first language, and were born and raised in Taiwan. For the British sample, the research participants were British citizens who speak English as the mother tongue and were born and raised in the UK. It should be noted, however, that the final research sample of 317 Taiwanese and 147 British participants does not include the respondents who were invited to take part in the preliminary pilot studies.

3.3.1.3 The Selection of Social Variables of the Participants

This section addresses how the social variables of the research participants were selected. Following common practice (e.g., Baker, 1992; Starks and Paltridge, 1996; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010), this study endeavoured to choose social variables that are culturally relevant and socially bound to the respective groups of Taiwanese and British participants. The social characteristics chosen for the Taiwanese research sample are (1) gender (2) occupation (3) self-perceived English level and for the British research sample are (1) gender (2) occupation (3) self-perceived accent level. The rationale for selecting each of the social variables is as follows.

Table 3.1 The Composition of the Taiwanese Sample (N=317) (Number shown in bracket)

	Total Number of Taiwanese Participants (317)				
Gender	Male (117)		Female (200)		
Age	18-23 (130)	24-29 (125)		30 and above (62)	
Regional Origin	North Region of Taiwan (167)	Middle Region of Taiwan (40)	South Region of Taiwan (83)	East Region of Taiwan (3)	The Surrounding Islands ¹⁹ (24)
Length of learning English from Non-native Speaking Teachers	Less than 10 years (182)		More than 10 years (135)		
Length of learning English from Native Speaking Teachers	Less than 3 years (201)		More than 3 years (116)		

¹⁹ The surrounding islands of Taiwan, which include Penghu County, Kinmen County, Lienchiang County, Orchid Island, Lyudao Township, and Nanhaizhudao.

Table 3.2 The Composition of the British Sample (N=147) (Number shown in bracket)

	Total Number of British Participants (147)				
Gender	Male (34)			Female (113)	
Age	18-27 (60)	28-37 (36)		38 and above (51)	
Regional Origin	England (10)	Channel Islands (35)	Northern Ireland (7)	Scotland (93)	Wales (2)

Gender: In response to the discussion in section 2.7.1, which showed that the evaluators' gender was a salient factor in language attitudes variation (e.g., McKenzie, 2008a; Coupland and Bishop, 2007; Moloney, 2009; Sykes, 2010), it is critical to examine whether the Taiwanese and British respondents' gender differences affect their evaluation towards varieties of English. Although the variable of British participants' gender has been examined in previous research (e.g., Giles, 1970; Coupland and Bishop, 2007), this study is of particular value in gathering data regarding the role of the Taiwanese informants' gender in their perceptions of different English varieties.

Occupation: In light of the argument that different sectors of the research population might not share the same attitudes towards varieties of English (e.g., Chambers, 1995; Garrett et al., 1999), this study categorised the participants according to the occupations of students and workers (non-students) to perceive them as representing two distinctive social groups with different social networks and ways of life. The other reason for categorising them by occupation is the scant number of studies which have considered the variable of profession in mediating language attitudes. To collect attitudinal data towards varieties of English from university-level students is advantageous since this social group is often the one most likely to volunteer in language attitude research and tends to have most exposure towards a wide range of spoken English (e.g., McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010). Nevertheless, it is invaluable to consider not only the student population but also people of other occupational sectors. The finding of the present helps to illustrate whether or not the research participants' viewpoints towards varieties of English differ according to whether they are students or employed workers.

Self-Perceived English Level: Self-perceived English level can be defined as “a reflection of the individuals’ perception of his/her competence” in English (Dewaele, 2005: 124). This variable is examined only among Taiwanese participants who are EFL speakers. Given that NNSs’ attitudes towards English are linked to the success of language acquisition (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Starks and Paltridge, 1996:218; Csizer and Dornyei, 2005), it is speculated that the Taiwanese respondents’ self-perceived English level might influence how they evaluate different English accents. Therefore, it is imperative to inspect whether the Taiwanese participants’ perceptions of their English proficiency influence their attitudes towards different English accents.

Self-Perceived Accent Level: Studies of British people’s language attitudes have consistently shown that standard variety of British English such as RP is often perceived with high social prestige (e.g., Giles, 1970; Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007), while regional varieties of British English, such as those spoken in Scotland and Yorkshire, are more likely to be recognised as having high social attractiveness (e.g., Strongman and Woosley, 1967; Cheyne, 1970). The study of Cheyne (1970) demonstrated that when Glaswegian participants who are speakers of a regional dialect are asked to evaluate different regional accents of Britain, they tend to perceive the speaker with the local Scottish accent particularly positively on the solidarity continuum. The important implication of Cheyne’s (1970) finding is that if someone is the speaker of regional British English him/herself, he/she is likely to prefer regionally accented varieties, especially on the account of speaker solidarity. Based on this point, the variable of the British respondents’ self-perceived accents will allow me to examine how NSs in the UK consider the level of their own accent, and how it affects their attitudes towards varieties of English. For this reason, the British respondents were asked to select from the choices of “no accent”, “slightly accented”, “moderately accented” and “heavily accented” when answering the question of “how do you perceive your own English accent?” in the background information section of the British main questionnaire (see Appendix B).

This methodological design results in greater validity when interpreting the Taiwanese and British participants’ attitudes variations, taking into account the demographical diversity of the two research populations. Although it would be

desirable to examine a larger set of evaluators' social variables, this study will focus on the above factors so that the responses collected from each group of Taiwanese and British respondents are within the scope of the research (see Section 3.3.1.3). The two social variables of gender and occupation are kept consistent between the two research groups to provide comparability. The variables of self-perceived English level and self-perceived accent level are chosen to cater respectively for the Taiwanese participants as NNSs and the British respondents as NSs. Consequently, the Background Information section of the Taiwanese and British research questionnaires is composed of different sets of questions (see Appendix A and B).

3.3.2 Part II The Verbal-Guise Test

Following existing research into language attitudes, this study has applied the VGT as an indirect method to investigate Taiwanese and British participants' implicit perceptions, which tend to exist below the level of individual consciousness. Unlike the MGT, which often requests a single speaker to imitate different English accents and often leads to unnatural voice (Garrett, 2007), the design of the VGT helps to minimise the complexity of finding a single speaker to produce different English accents. Therefore, natural voices are utilised in the listening recordings for each English accent (e.g., Ryan et al., 1984; Garrett et al., 2003; Cargile et al., 2010). Similar to the MGT, judges evaluate different English varieties along personality traits on bipolar semantic-differential scales in the VGT studies. The application of the VGT enables the generalisability and comparability of the present findings with the existing studies discussed in Chapter 2.

Because of the gradable scale, which allows for the measurement of attitude intensity, the advantage of collecting scale data from the VGT is that the results can be analysed statistically (Garrett et al., 2003: 66). A number of scholars have highlighted the importance of language attitude intensity, as strong attitudes towards language are more likely to result in resistance to change, to persist over a longer period of time and to perform a specific action (e.g., Pomerantz et al., 1995:408; Bohner and Wanke, 2002:63; Perloff, 2003:56). The application of the VGT in this thesis will not only help to identify the perception of British and Taiwanese people towards the different accents of native and non-

native speakers, but also to measure the strength of their attitudes. The findings of this research will, therefore, demonstrate the link between English speakers' accents and how it affects evaluations and the level of stereotype that underlie the listeners' perceptual judgments.

This section aims to discuss the practical issues surrounding the formation of the VGT section of the research questionnaire (see Part 2 of the Appendix A and B). To enhance comparisons between the Taiwanese and British participants' evaluations of different English varieties, the questions in the VGT section are kept equivalent for both research groups. In the following section, I discuss:

1. The rationale for choosing each of the seven English varieties.
2. The selection of speakers and recordings for each listening stimuli.
3. The extraneous variables that are controlled for the recordings of the listening stimuli.
4. The chosen text of the speech stimuli.
5. The selection of the personality traits for the semantic differential scale.

3.3.2.1 The Selection of the English Varieties

This section justifies the rationale for selecting and naming each of the English varieties used in the study. I used Kachru's (1992a) Model of English as the basis²⁰, choosing a number of varieties to represent the Inner, Outer and Expanding Circles of use²¹. The English varieties have been chosen for different reasons; however, they are not monolithic (e.g., Garrett et al., 2003; Kirkpatrick, 2007). For this reason, I will also explain the labelling of each English variety that the research participants are invited to evaluate.

20 See section 2.1.1 where I discussed Kachru's (1992a) circles of English language use.

21 It would be ideal to include more than one speech example to represent each English variety; nevertheless, this study has only adopted the standard variant so that the experiment is within the research scope.

For the IC varieties, I selected Standard Southern British English (SSBE) as this was the variety traditionally taught in the classroom and largely considered to be the most prestigious amongst NSs (e.g., Giles, 1970; Bourhis et al., 1973; Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977; Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007) and NNSs (e.g., Ladegaard and Sachdev, 2006; Zhang, 2010). In this research, SSBE stands for the broader “educated pronunciation” of British English spoken in southern England (e.g., Kachru and Nelson, 2006:94; Bieswanger, 2008:30).

General American English (GAE) has seen a growth in prestige over the past few decades (Bayard et al., 2001; Hiraga, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Cheng, 2009). This, coupled with the sheer number of speakers and its predominance in the media, makes it an obvious candidate for representation of the IC (*ibid*). The recording of GAE used here refers to the mainstream (i.e., standard) speech of American English that does not contain distinguished regional or social accents of the US, but is characterised by the salient pronunciation feature of rhoticity (e.g., Ryan and Bulik, 1982; Wells, 1982).

Australian English (AE) has been perceived as a relatively “less standard variety” when compared to mainstream American and British English (Jenkins 2007:150), thus provides a good point of comparison with these varieties from both a native and non-native perspective. The speech recording of AE is equivalent to what scholars have referred to as the standard pronunciation of AE, which reflects the convergent variety spoken by the majority of the Australian population (e.g., Mitchell and Delbridge, 1965; Wells, 1982; Moloney, 2009).

Indian English was chosen for the OC variety given the large population of speakers (e.g., Kachru, 1997) and the exposure arising therein (e.g., Rao, 2010; Padwick, 2010). The recording of IE represents what Kirkpatrick (2007:92-93) referred to as the standard or cultivated variant of non-rhotic Indian English accent.

In terms of the English varieties of the EC, I included one European variety and two Asian varieties. A number of non-native features are noted which arise from the interference of the native language, providing distinctive phonologies associated with the speakers of Spanish English (SE) (e.g., Morrison, 2002; Cali,

2015), Japanese English (JE) (Carruthers, 2006:18) and Taiwanese English (TE) (e.g., Kirkpatrick and Xu, 2002; Deterding et al., 2008; Chung, 2015).

Spanish English (SE) was chosen because of the prevalence of NNSs with Hispanic origin across the world (e.g., Podberesky et al., 1990). The other purpose in selecting SE was to represent one of the non-native English varieties spoken in a European country where English has permeated in all sectors of Europe (e.g., Seidlhofer et al., 2006, Modiano 2009b).

This study also includes Japanese English (JE). In particular for the Taiwanese respondents, the variety of JE is of major historical and cultural importance. This is because Taiwan was colonised by Japan from 1895-1945 and Japanese immigrants had a significant influence on the spread and the usage of Japanese across the island (Chen, 2010). As previous research has shown Japanese-accented English has received unfavorable evaluations from NSs (e.g., Eisenclas and Tsurutani, 2011; McKenzie, 2015b) and NNSs (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; McKenzie, 2010), the inclusion of JE here will enable a comparison of how Taiwanese and British participants perceive JE with these previous findings.

The selection of Taiwanese English (TE) was made in the interests of examining how Taiwanese participants perceive their own non-native accent, which had been reported to be evaluated negatively (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Lee, 2013; Yang, 2013). Little previous British language attitudes research has included the Asian variety of TE in the empirical design of the MGT or VGT, so the inclusion of this specific variety will also offer a better insight into how British nationals perceive the non-native variety spoken by Taiwanese people.

3.3.2.2 The Selection of the Recorded Speech Samples

The majority of the recordings used in the experiment have been obtained from the Speech Accent Archive (SAA), which is developed and administrated by George Mason University. Since the recordings from the SAA have been used and tested in quite a number of language attitude studies, the selection of the speech samples from the SAA offers comparability of the findings of this study with the results of previous research (e.g., Hiraga, 2005; Cheng, 2009; Cargile et al., 2010; Eisenclas and Tsurutani, 2011). The other compelling rationale for

choosing the majority of the speech samples for the VGT from the SAA is the wide range of English recordings of different IC origins (e.g., Hiraga, 2005; Cargile et al., 2010). Despite the fact that the recordings have been contributed anonymously, they remain useful as speech stimuli, since basic ethnographic information of the speakers is provided. This includes native language, nationality, age, when the recording was made, and number of languages spoken (Weinberger, 2012). This enables the researcher to control for confounding factors that have been reported to affect attitude variations (e.g., Lambert, 1967; Gallois and Callan, 1981; Callan et al., 1983; Giles et al., 1990; Giles and Coupland, 1991).

While the recordings of the three IC varieties (AE, GAE and SSBE) and the three EC varieties (JE, SE and TE) were chosen from the SAA (Weinberger, 2012), the OC variety of IE available in the SAA was not used. The speakers of this variety recorded in the database had all lived away from India for a lengthy period of time and thus may not reflect typical Indian-accented English. Consequently, an IE speaker was recruited to produce a recording in the sound studio of the phonetics laboratory of the English Language and Linguistics department at the University of Glasgow. This ensured that the speech quality, such as voice volume, overall sound clarity and background noise of the IE recording, was as consistent as possible with the other recordings selected from the archive. Before the IE speech was recorded by the Indian contributor, he was required to answer a few background information questions, in line with the other recordings retrieved from the SAA.

In response to the comments obtained from the piloting stages of the research questionnaire (see Section 3.2), an extra female guise with an RP accent is included in the VGT experiment as the “practice example” so that the participants can familiarise themselves with the instructions and questions of the VGT. The reason why a female speaker is chosen for the practice example is to differentiate it from the male voices of the other seven speech samples that are subject to evaluation. The recording for the practice example was made using the same methodology as the IE speech recording. To enhance the authenticity and the validity of the recordings, they were listened to by a number of professional linguistic judges, who unanimously acknowledged that the speech samples exemplified each English variety in question and the

example RP variety. The detailed speaker background information of each speech sample is presented in Appendix E.

3.3.2.3 The Extraneous Variables Controlled for in the Speech Sample

To conform to the standard procedures of the VGT (e.g., Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010), a total of seven speakers was selected to represent each English variety in the experiment (see Sections 3.3.2.1 and 3.3.2.2). Although variations of voice qualities and speech features are likely to have an impact on the listener-judges' evaluations of the speakers (e.g., Brown et al., 1973; Street and Hopper, 1982; Stewart and Ryan, 1982; Ryan et al., 1984; Giles et al., 1990; Lindemann, 2003; Cargile et al., 2010; Zhang, 2009; McKenzie, 2010), a concerted effort has been made to ensure the consistency of the speech sample conditions for each English variety. In spite of the challenges of controlling the paralinguistic features of each voice of the speech sample, such as volume, speed, pitch, intonation, vocal quality, stress patterns, etc. (e.g., Brown et al., 1973; Cargile et al., 2010:64), the speech-related variables of the recorded speakers that the present research tries to keep consistent are as follows:

1. Gender: Except for the female guise of the practice example, the design of the VGT consistently employed male guises for the speech samples to eliminate potential "gender-linked language effect" of speakers on listeners' attitudes towards varieties of English (Bradac et al., 2001:144).
2. Age: It was taken into account that the variable of speakers' age might affect auditory sound (e.g., Gallois et al., 1984; Giles et al., 1990), so the voices presented to the listeners do not sound notably younger or older than the others. For the VGT, the speakers are aged between 27 and 43 years with a mean age of 34 (sd=5).
3. Native tongue: The speakers were selected based on the premise that they were born and brought up as native users of each English variety described in section 3.3.2.1.
4. The level of accentedness: As suggested by Eisenclas and Tsurutani (2011), it is ensured that the level of accentedness of each of the

recorded speech samples for the seven English varieties is broadly homogeneous.

5. Speech rate and length: Since the delivery rate of the speech is likely to affect the social evaluations of the speaker (e.g., Brown et al., 1973; Stewart and Ryan, 1982; Giles et al., 1990), each recorded sample is carefully selected for comparable speed. Additionally, the length of each listening recording is controlled, with the average duration of 26.2 seconds.
6. Hesitation pauses: The number of silent hesitation pauses in a given stretch of English speech is likely to affect the judgement of the speaker, since these can be understood as interruptions taking place between verbal turns. In this respect, fewer hesitation pauses by a speaker are likely to result in more positive evaluations (Street and Hopper, 1982:182). The speech samples of this study are consequently chosen to maintain consistent fluency.

Although the speech samples of the VGT are acknowledged with credence for validation and authenticity of the English variety in question, it is worth emphasising that the samples should be acknowledged merely as one exemplification of a particular social or regional variety of English. This is because other speakers of the given dialect might deliver distinctive speech depending on their age, sex, social class, etc. (e.g., Hiraga, 2005; McKenzie, 2010; Sykes, 2010).

3.3.2.4 The Selection and the Justification of the Read Speech Passage as Stimulus

The passage of the auditory stimulus consists of 69 words and is retrieved from the SAA as follows.

Please call Stella. Ask her to bring these things with her from the store: Six spoons of fresh snow peas, five thick slabs of blue cheese, and maybe a snack for her brother Bob. We also need a small plastic snake and a big toy frog for the kids. She can scoop these things into three red bags, and we will go meet her Wednesday at the train station.

The Speech Accent Archive (Weinberger, 2012)

The advantage of using spontaneous speech as the listening stimulus has been pointed out by a number of researchers (e.g., Matsuura et al., 1999; Garrett et al., 2003; McKenzie, 2010; Sykes, 2010). However, in this study I have chosen to use a read passage as the stimulus due to the fact that this can be controlled for a number of factors.

Compared to unscripted text, the use of a fixed passage as the stimulus helps to avoid potential lexical, syntactical and morphological variations of different English speakers that are likely to affect listeners' perceptions (e.g., Moloney, 2009; Jindapitak, 2010). The read speech of the SAA text has been successfully used as the listening stimulus in previous research, so keeping the same elicitation passage across each recorded speech sample enabled a comparison between the present findings and the results of previous research (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Episopo, 2009; Cargile et al., 2010; Eisenclas and Tsurutani, 2011; Yook and Lindemann, 2013). A review of previous research suggests that it is more straightforward to control the topic and the content of the stimulus as factually neutral and non-controversial with a pre-prepared stimuli text (e.g., Tresch, 2016; Roh, 2010). In other words, the read speech stimulus will enable the researcher to select a fixed passage that does not unveil any social identity information including nationality, L1 and place of birth, social class and educational background of a speaker that are likely to mediate the listeners' judgements towards different English accents (Rubin, 1992). This will make the respondents react to the speakers rather than to the text itself. Furthermore, the researcher can have better control over the length of the speech sample of different English varieties when speakers read the same elicitation paragraph. This not only provides participants with a satisfactory amount of time to establish their evaluations but also makes sure that they are given a similar amount of time to record their ratings (Cargile, 2002).

3.3.2.5 The Selection of the Personality Traits for the Semantic Differential Scale

The selection of personality traits to be used in the semantic differential scale is crucial in the study of language attitudes. Since the set of traits that are salient for a particular speech community might not work the same for another society (e.g., Garrett et al., 2003; Hiraga, 2005; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010), it was

crucial to ensure that they were first tested in the pilot study in order to establish whether they were suitable for the cultural context of the Taiwanese and British research populations (see Section 3.2). The six sets of bipolar traits²² includes confident/unconfident (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; McKenzie, 2010), intelligent/unintelligent (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; Hiraga, 2005; McKenzie, 2010; Sykes, 2010), educated /uneducated (e.g., Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; Sykes, 2010; Zhang, 2010), authoritative/not authoritative (e.g., Bayard et al., 2001), friendly/unfriendly (e.g., Sykes, 2010; Zhang, 2010), lively/boring (e.g., Maegaard, 2005; Zhang, 2010). These were selected on the basis of trait lists from previous studies that had been used to examine people's attitudes towards varieties of English. This means that the evaluation gathered from this study offers comparability with the findings of previous research.

The well-documented dimensions of status and solidarity in previous language attitude research highlighted the importance for this study to select traits representing both perspectives (e.g., Garrett et al., 2003; Garrett, 2010). Considering the empirical value, future research can therefore select an equal number of traits for both status and solidarity dimensions and compare the results with the finding of the present study. The individual traits that are used in the VGT were considered to be pertinent in representing the dimensions of both status and solidarity that are found to be salient factors of evaluation towards varieties of English in language attitude research (e.g., Carranza and Ryan, 1975; Ryan and Giles, 1982; Hiraga, 2005; Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010).

Moreover, it should be noted that the translation into Mandarin of the terms for the traits of the semantic-differential scale in the Taiwanese research questionnaire has been made carefully²³, to maintain the original English meaning as closely as possible.

22 Note that the number of personality traits for status and solidarity differ. This is due to the result of the pilot study where listener fatigue is noted (see Section 3.2.1.2). A number of previous studies (e.g., Bayard et al., 2001; Sykes, 2010) are also imbalanced.

23 Please see the translated traits in their respective Mandarin forms in Part 2 of the Appendix F: The Taiwanese Main Questionnaire in Mandarin.

This study chose a six-point bipolar rating scale, since Jenkins (2007:152) has argued that the use of an even number for the semantic-differential scale will obliquely “force respondents to evaluate each accent either positively or negatively and prevent them from adopting a neutral position”. The statistical analyses of the participants’ positive or negative responses on the semantic-differential scale were arranged by the same criteria: 1 indicates the least favourable rating, while 6 suggests the most favourable evaluation.

Table 3.3 The Semantic-Differential Scale of the Verbal-Guise Test

Unconfident	1	2	3	4	5	6	Confident
Unintelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	Intelligent
Uneducated	1	2	3	4	5	6	Educated
Not Authoritative	1	2	3	4	5	6	Authoritative
Unfriendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	Friendly
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	Lively

3.3.3 Part III Speaker Origin Identification Task

Returning to the discussion in section 2.6, the speaker origin identification task was designed to enable the study to investigate the Taiwanese and British participants’ abilities in recognising speakers’ provenances based on the recorded speech samples, in addition to the social evaluations of different English speech varieties. Following the argument of a number of scholars (e.g., Preston, 1989; Garrett et al., 2003), the purpose of asking the respondents to state where they think the speaker is from is to help to resolve the potential community-authenticity issue, since it allows the researcher to investigate how English speech samples presented in the VGT differ perceptually and descriptively across different regions. The review of the literature in section 2.6 suggests that a favourable or unfavourable perception towards a specific English dialect is likely to depend on where the informants believe speakers are from (e.g., Callan et al., 1983; Rubin, 1992; Edwards, 1999; McKenzie, 2008b, 2015b; Preston, 2010; Zhang, 2010; Yook and Lindemann, 2013). Consequently, the Taiwanese and British participants’ identification and misidentification patterns of different English speakers would further contribute to the legitimacy and validity of their subsequent evaluations of different English varieties.

After evaluating each variety of the English speech sample on the bipolar semantic differential scale, the Taiwanese and British informants were asked to listen to the recording again and try to identify the nationality of each speaker from a predetermined list of ten different options arranged in alphabetical order: “Australia”, “India”, “Japan”, “Russia”, “South Africa”, “Spain”, “Taiwan”, “UK”, “USA” and “Not Known”. The two filter options of “Russia” and “South Africa” are included to enhance the difficulty of the task, which would better reveal the participants’ abilities in recognising the origins of different English speech varieties.

Although open-ended questions are advantageous in allowing the informants to freely assign geographical or regional labels to the speakers (e.g., McKenzie, 2010; Yook and Lindemann, 2013), the feedback collected from pilot respondents suggested that the formatted map for the speaker origin identification question appeared to be quite challenging, and thus the majority did not complete the task (see Section 3.2.1.2 and Appendix C). Therefore, the present study provided the informants with a pre-determined list of options when identifying the origins of different English speakers.

3.3.4 Part IV Likert Scale Questions

In application of the mixed approach (see Section 2.4.3), the study used Likert scale questions as well as the VGT. While the VGT taps listeners’ implicit attitudes, the Likert scale questions aim to elicit the participants’ overt perceptions towards variations of English, including forms of native and non-native speech. When examining people’s evaluations of varieties of a specific language, which are “easily conceptualized units”, it is beneficial to employ a direct methodology to explore the participants’ explicit attitudes (Campbell-Kibler, 2006:60). It is posited that comparisons of the responses derived from the Likert scale questions, where participants were requested to respond directly, along with the data collected from the VGT would contribute to the robustness and trustworthiness of the data gathered. Likert-type scales, first developed by Renis Likert (1932), can be described as consisting of three or more ordinal (ranked) scale categories placed along a continuum with the item stem as either a question or statement which respondents judge in terms of evaluation, agreement, or frequency (Busch, 1993: 734). As a useful questionnaire to

measure attitude intensity when conducting surveys of opinions or beliefs (Garrett et al., 2003:41), expressing an attitude at either end of the Likert-type scale suggests a stronger degree of attitude intensity than choosing the scale closer to the middle. In the Likert scale section, both groups of the Taiwanese and British participants were asked to rate the scale as follows: 1=completely disagree; 2=disagree; 3=somewhat disagree; 4=somewhat agree; 5=agree; 6=completely agree. The option of “neither disagree nor agree” is not included, which forces respondents to state whether their opinions are towards disagreement or agreement.

Questions for the Likert scale task were mainly drawn from previous language attitudes research by Chiba et al. (1995), Kim (2007), Episcopo (2009), Liou (2010), Rousseau (2012) and adapted to suit the contexts of the present study. There are 7 Likert scale questions²⁴ for Taiwanese participants, and 5 Likert scale questions for British participants. Below, I summarise the questions into the following three main themes and the reasons for their inclusion.

The first key theme that I aim to study is whether people’s self-reporting of their attitudes and identification of varieties of English in the Likert scale questions are similar or different from the findings based on the accent cues of the speech samples. In terms of identifying speakers’ origins (*Question A: I can recognize the difference between native and non-native speakers. (Taiwanese and British participants)*), the main point of this question is that participants’ responses based on their conscious awareness of the difference between NSs and NNSs might not necessarily correspond to their actual recognition of these varieties (as discussed in Section 3.3.3). With regards to people’s attitudes towards varieties of English (*Question B: I am interested in learning/ knowing the differences that exist in different varieties of English such as Indian English, Philippine English, Singaporean English, etc. (Taiwanese and British participants)*), the main purpose here is that if participants indicated a strong interest in learning Asian-accented varieties, it also shows that there is likely to be a positive attitude towards these Englishes. In a similar vein, if the majority of the participants report that they think accents matter (*Question C: People’s*

²⁴ The two groups of the Taiwanese and the British participants were not presented with exactly the same research questions (see Part 3 of Appendix A and Appendix B).

accents do not really matter to me as long as I can understand the communication that takes place. (Taiwanese and British participants)), it shows that they are likely to have biased attitudes towards different English accents, especially to those of the non-native origins. Moving towards considering understanding others' accents (*Question I: In an increasingly globalized world, it is important to understand both native and non-native speakers of English. (British participants)),* participants' responses of agreement imply that they might hold increasingly favourable attitudes towards non-native English varieties, such as those spoken by foreign workers from Europe (e.g., Okolski and Salt, 2014) and international students from Asia (e.g., Universities UK, 2014) in interethnic communication in the UK.

The second main theme focuses on what people think of their own accent. If a majority of Taiwanese participants report that speaking Taiwanese-accented English will put them in less advantageous positions (*Question G: I feel I would be more successful if I speak English without the accent of Guoyu or Taiyu. (Taiwanese participants)),* this will further exemplify that Taiwanese people's attitudes are likely to be influenced by native speaker ideology, and they might still prefer to acquire a native-like accent (e.g., Chen, 2010; Ke and Cahyani, 2014; Wu and Lee, 2017). For British participants, if most of them explicitly indicate that they consider their accents to be intelligible to non-native users of English (*Question H: I feel that non-native speakers of English would have a problem understanding my accent. (British participants)),* this suggests that they might consider their own native speech as standard and thus have a favourable attitude towards it.

The last theme is related to how varieties of English are perceived from the perspectives of instrumental value and intergroup relations. If most of the Taiwanese participants indicate that they prefer teachers who speak English as the first language (*Question D: It is important for me to learn English from native English speaking teachers such as people from the USA or UK. (Taiwanese participants)),* this shows that there are correlations in their attitudes towards the social prestige of the English teachers who are NSs and their English speech as the "correct" model (e.g., Butler, 2007; Liou, 2010; Rousseau, 2012). Moving to the matter of academic advancement, which is often involved with different levels of testing for English language proficiency (*Question E: To pass exams in*

English (e.g., GEPT, TOEFL, TOEIC or IELTS etc.), I need to understand speakers of different varieties of English. (Taiwanese participants)), the Taiwanese participants' responses of agreement explicitly show that they are likely to hold a more positive attitude towards different English accents when considering the instrumental value of English in educational progression. When the integrative value of making international friends is taken into account (*Question F: To make friends from across the world, I need to understand both native and non-native speakers (Taiwanese participants)),* Taiwanese participants' self-reported answers will shed light on their explicit attitudes towards spoken Englishes of NSs and NNSs that are said to play a vital role in intergroup relations (e.g., Garrett et al., 1999; Cargile, 2000; Lippi-Green, 2012).

3.3.5 Part V Multiple-Choice Questions

The objective of the multiple-choice questions is to take a direct approach in examining explicitly whether Taiwanese and British respondents prefer a specific variety of English. The findings acquired from the responses of the multiple-choice questions will allow comparison with the conclusion drawn from the indirect approaches of the VGT and the speaker identification task.

The Taiwanese and British respondents were asked to choose their single most preferred English variety from a pre-determined list of options, which is composed of the seven English varieties chosen for evaluation in the VGT along with two more choices of "no preference" and "others". The option of "no preference" is for those participants who do not hold a particular preference for a certain English variety and "others" was added for the participants to specify a variety not included in the list. Similar to the design of the Likert scale questions, the composition of the multiple-choice section has taken the Taiwanese participants as NNSs and British informants as NSs into consideration and thus these two subject groups are not presented with the same set of questions.

For the multiple-choice questions, both groups of Taiwanese and British participants were firstly requested to explicitly state their favourite variety of English. Next, there is a question regarding the Taiwanese and British informants' most familiar English variety. Then, the Taiwanese participants were asked to choose an English variety, which they perceived as most appropriate for

daily social interactions. Lastly, the Taiwanese participants were requested to select the most favourable variety where education is concerned.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure of the Main Study

This section details the practices involved with the data collection stage of the research, which discusses the rationale, the administration and the potential issues of the online survey. For the respective groups of Taiwanese and British participants, two separate online surveys were designed and administered by the researcher.

3.4.1 The Rationale for Employing the Online Survey

The main reason for applying the questionnaire via the online format is due to its potential access to a large population across the wider geographical spread of Taiwan and the UK, while minimising the potential cost of time and money (e.g., Buchanan, 2007). The recruitment of the potential informants to take part in language attitude research through an online survey has been tested and promoted by studies of a similar nature (e.g., Coupland and Bishop, 2007; Bauman, 2013; Litzenberg, 2013; Kraut and Wulff, 2013; Sasayama, 2013). This provides valuable references to consult during the design and construction stage of the website for the present study.

For example, the BBC Voices project conducted by Coupland and Bishop (2007) in the UK successfully collected a sample of more than 5000 geographically diverse respondents by employing an online design for the research questionnaire. Although it is not possible for a research sample that has been recruited online to be fully representative of the general population, many researchers (e.g., Gosling et al., 2004; Denissen et al., 2010) have concurred that the benefits of online sampling outweigh its shortcomings, since it enables a more diverse sample of participants with regard to the social variables of gender and occupation (see Section 3.3.1.3).

Moreover, the survey allows participants to complete the questionnaire in their own free time so that pre-arrangement of a survey answering slot is no longer needed. Furthermore, the possibilities of scheduling conflicts would be scaled down, which allows the researcher to focus more on contacting gatekeepers and

advertising the online questionnaire so that a larger number of respondents can be recruited. With respect to Cargile's (2002:185) argument that an appropriate amount of time should be given for the respondents, the online survey format of the research questionnaire encourages respondents to answer each question at their own pace and thus further facilitates a thorough record of the responses.

3.4.2 The Administration of the Online Survey

For both websites of the Taiwanese and British online survey, prospective respondents were informed on an initial ethics consent page that the study would be completely anonymous and that the data obtained in the survey would only be applied for academic usage including a PhD thesis, possible publications and conference presentation. It should be emphasised that potential respondents could only proceed to answer the online survey by clicking the appropriate checkbox to consent their agreement to participate in the research. By agreeing to the informed consent, the respondents have complied with the requirement condition that they are over 18 years old.

After consenting to take part in the online survey and before they started answering the first section of the online questionnaire, participants were given a brief introduction regarding the purpose of the study. Instead of detailing the research objective of evaluating listeners' attitudes toward varieties of English, it was thought that a simple introduction saying that this study was about English language would help to prevent ideological preconceptions and expertise biases. Next, the following page provided brief guidance for completing the survey. There was also detailed guidance in each section of the survey regarding how to complete the questions. Participants were expected to click to move on when answering the online questionnaire after recording their responses to each set of questions. Once the respondents completed the questions on one page of the questionnaire, they could not return to that page.

In Part I of the online survey, respondents were required to provide personal background information with regard to gender, native language, nationality, etc. After completing the background information section, the following web page explained that respondents would be listening to an example along with seven other recordings of the same passage of spoken English, and that they would be

requested to answer the questions according to the instruction. Throughout the survey, the instructions of the questionnaire clearly encouraged the respondents to report their intuitive impression. This is particularly emphasised when the informants were invited to evaluate each of the recorded speakers and to guess the origin of these seven different English varieties.

Next, Part II of the online survey was the VGT section, which was divided up according to the practice example and then followed by the seven speakers of different English varieties with embedded audio players for the speech samples at the top of the web page. The listening stimuli that are available online were screened to ensure that the respondents could hear the recordings clearly. Participants were given a practice example, which aimed to help them become familiar with completing the VGT. Initially, respondents were requested to listen to the recording of a given English speech by clicking on numerical values of six-point semantic-differential scales for the six traits. Then, they were invited to listen to the same recording a second time to identify speaker provenance. Repetition of the recording was controlled on the website, with the recordings only able to be played once each for completing the semantic-differential scale and the speaker origin identification task. This further forced evaluators to report spontaneous judgements towards different English varieties. However, it is worth noting that ample time could be taken in-between the seven different recordings of each English variety, since participants could click on “next page” to continue answering the questionnaire at their own speed. Subsequently, respondents were guided to finish answering Part III and Part IV of the online questionnaire, which was comprised of the Likert scale and multiple-choice questions. On the last webpage of the questionnaire, participants were encouraged to contact the researcher if they had any concerns, comments or inquiry regarding the online survey.

3.4.3 The Potential Issues of the Online Survey

It is worth noting that some potential issues might emerge with the application of the questionnaire via the format of an online website. Firstly, the minimal distraction that takes place when the respondents are answering the survey is not within the control of the researcher. Nevertheless, the instruction of the VGT and the speaker origin identification task suggested that the respondents

used headphones when listening to the speech recordings so that external disturbance such as the ringing of phones or traffic noises could be reduced (e.g., Kraut and Wulff, 2013). Secondly, encouraging the respondents to complete the online survey on their own can be a challenge when administering a research questionnaire through the web. Since the present study recruited only those potential survey respondents who were above the legal adult age of 18, it is presumed that those who participated in the research did complete the survey alone since they would have been able to answer the questions listed in the survey independently. Moreover, the length of the online survey has been carefully designed to address the issue of possible fatigue effects that might have confounded the responses. The overall amount of time that a respondent was required to spend in completing the survey was an average of 20-25 minutes, which was considered an appropriate length for potential respondents to fully commit themselves to answering the questionnaire with complete concentration. Furthermore, although the possibility of respondents answering the questionnaire more than once was an insurmountable problem with the anonymous online survey, it was postulated that the chance of this occurring was improbable, as there was no monetary or course credit incentives offered for the research participants. Lastly, in relation to the web-based questionnaire, many researchers (e.g., Garrett, 2010; Dewaele and McCloskey, 2015) have noted the potential issues of participants' self-selection, which are likely to occur when respondents hold particular dispositional interests to take part in the survey or are especially interested in topics related to the English language. Consequently, the inevitable limitations of administering a research questionnaire online should be taken into account when interpreting the data obtained from the research sample.

3.5 Overview of the Statistical Techniques Employed in the Data Analysis

The data collected from the online survey will generate a large set of multiple responses from both groups of Taiwanese and British respondents. The use of a research questionnaire means that the responses would be quantitative and require pertinent selection of statistical techniques for analysing the data. In accordance with previous large-scale language attitudes studies (e.g., Coupland

and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2010; Bauman, 2013), the following summarises a number of statistical techniques applied for data analyses.

3.5.1 The Suitability of the Data for Parametric Tests

For large sets of quantitative data, several criteria should be met in order to conduct parametric tests of significance, which include Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) (see Field, 2013:165-176 for full discussion). Firstly, the data must have an interval or ratio level measurement (Pallant, 2010: 205). For the VGT and the Likert scale section of the research questionnaire, a continuous scale where the intervals between all points are equivalent indicates that the variables are of the interval type. Accordingly, the data collected is suitable for ANOVA and MANOVA analysis. Secondly, although the parametric test can only be applied when the population of the research sample is normally distributed, the criteria can be less restricted when the sample size is large enough (Field, 2013:270-171). In this respect, a relatively large sample of 317 Taiwanese and 147 British participants of this study that represent the wider population of Taiwan and the UK further suggest the applicability of the parametric test.

3.5.2 Analysis of Variance

To enhance the generalisability of the findings of the present piece of research with previous studies (e.g., Coupland and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010), two different types of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) are undertaken in order to examine the effect of English accent variation on its corresponding evaluation.

3.5.2.1 One-Way Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance

Firstly, this study conducted a one-way repeated measure ANOVA (within-subjects ANOVA) test to assess whether any of the English speakers' evaluations reached significant differences (see Section 4.1.3 and Section 5.1.3). A one-way repeated measures ANOVA test is suitable for use when comparisons between more than two repeated measures of the same research participants are needed. In other words, the ANOVA test will indicate whether the evaluators' ratings

towards the speech of the seven English varieties are significantly different from each other.

Before conducting the one-way repeated measures ANOVA test, SPSS executes a test known as “Mauchly’s test”. Since the researcher aims to calculate and compare the ratings of the seven English varieties as pairs, Mauchly’s test checks the sphericity assumption of whether the variance of the differences between pairs of evaluations is homogeneous (Kerr et al. 2002: 120-121, Pallant 2010: 280). Following Kerr et al. (2002: 121), when the significance value of Mauchly’s test is greater than 0.05 (i.e., $p > 0.05$), the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that the sphericity assumption is met or not violated. On the other hand, when the assumption of sphericity is violated, which indicates that the significance value associated with Mauchly’s test is less than 0.05 (i.e., $p < 0.05$), the Greenhouse-Geisser correction is then applied (ibid).

The test of the within-subject effects of the ANOVA will show whether there is any statistically significant difference between the evaluations of different English varieties. When a significant difference is found, a post-hoc test will be conducted to compare “the means of all combinations of pairs” that the seven speakers of different English varieties received (Field, 2005: 741). With the Bonferroni technique, which is commonly applied for pairwise comparisons in a post-hoc test, it will allow the researcher to examine which set of means is producing the significant effect. Additionally, when interpreting the output of ANOVA, it is also important to consider the “effect size” of a significant effect from the value of “partial eta squared”: 0.01=a small effect size; 0.06=a moderate effect size; and 0.14=a large effect size (Cohen, 1988:284-287). In contrast, the insignificant (i.e., $p > 0.05$) result of the test of the within-subject effects indicates that there is no need to examine the post-hoc test as the evaluations of the speakers failed to differ significantly. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that Cohen (1990 cited in Field, 2005:28) points out that “a non-significant result” should not be interpreted as “no-differences between the means” or “no-relationship between the variables”.

3.5.2.2 Between-Groups Analysis of Variance

The second type of ANOVA that this study will apply is the independent (between-groups/subjects) factorial design. Different from the one-way repeated measures ANOVA, the between-groups ANOVA is used when there are several independent variables and each has been measured using different entities (Field, 2013: 508). In this research, a three-way between-groups ANOVA is conducted to analyse whether there are potential significant interaction effects of the participants' social variables on speaker evaluations (see Section 4.3 and Section 5.3). For the analysis, the three independent variables of gender (female and male), occupation (student and employed workers) and self-perceived level of English (lower level of English and higher level of English) are consistent. The dependent variables are the Taiwanese/British participants' ratings of each English variety according to speaker status and solidarity. Following the advice of Wilson and MacLean (2011: 419), only three independent variables are selected: this is the optimum number for the between-groups factorial design ANOVA, so that the data will not become too complicated to interpret. In this case the three variables are the participants' social factors (see Section 3.3.1.3). Before the conduction of the between-groups ANOVA, Pallant (2010: 294) suggests that Levene's test of equality should be employed to test the assumption of equality of variance for each dependent variable, for which the significance value should exceed 0.05 (i.e., $p > 0.05$) in order to meet the homogeneity assumption.

3.5.3 Multivariate Analysis of Variance

MANOVA is an extension of the ANOVA test that is to be applied when there is more than one dependent variable (Pallant 2010: 283). Namely, MANOVA compares the groups and shows whether "the mean differences between the groups on the combination of dependent variables is likely to have occurred by chance" (ibid). MANOVA test is employed in the following two analyses of the present study.

Firstly, in light of previous research (e.g., Coupland and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010), a one-way between-groups MANOVA is applied so that the statistical result will show any significant correlations that exist between participants' social variables (the independent variables) and the evaluations of

different English varieties (the dependent variables) where scores for each speaker are measured on the same scale (see Section 4.2 and Section 5.2).

Secondly, to investigate whether there are significant correlations between identifications of speaker provenance and evaluations of different English varieties, one-way between groups MANOVA test will be conducted seven different times for each speaker (see Section 4.4.3 and Section 5.4.3). While the participants' status and solidarity ratings of each of the English varieties are the dependent variables, participants' identifications of each speaker are then categorised into two groups of "correct" and "incorrect" responses as the independent variables.

When interpreting the output of the MANOVA result, the very first step is to check that the data does not violate the assumptions of homogeneity of variance when the significance value exceeds 0.001 (i.e., $p > 0.001$) in the Box's test of equality of covariance matrices (Pallant, 2010: 294). Next, when the significance value exceeds 0.05 (i.e., $p > 0.05$) for the Levene's test of equality, the assumption of homogeneity of variance for each dependent variable is not violated. (Pallant, 2010: 294). When the significance for the Levene's test of equality is less than 0.05, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007: 86) suggest a more stringent alpha level of 0.025 or 0.01 rather than the conventional 0.05 level to be applied in the univariate F-test to determine the significant output for that specific variable.

Similar to the ANOVA test, a significant value (i.e., $p < 0.05$) of Wilks' Lambda (F test) indicates that there is a significant difference between the groups on the composite dependent variable (Pallant, 2010: 283). In the case where a significant effect is found, the result of the univariate test of ANOVA on each of the dependent variables should be consulted to identify which of the groups differ significantly from the other. It should also be noted that the Bonferroni adjustment (correction for a significance p value) would be applied in the univariate tests to control for the increased risk of a Type 1 error (Kerr et al., 2002; Pallant, 2010). According to Pallant (2010: 283), Type 1 error refers to "the likeliness of finding a significant result even if in reality there are no differences between your groups" when a larger number of comparisons in the multiple t-tests are run. As discussed in the ANOVA test (see Section 3.5.2.1), it is also

important to consider the strength of any significant effect (the effect size) from the value of “partial eta squared” that can be obtained in the Wilks’ Lambda result (Cohen, 1988:284-287).

3.5.4 Principal Component Analysis

To further examine the variance in the ratings of each English variety, a smaller set of factors can be extracted from the underlying correlation between the six personality traits of the semantic-differential scale in the VGT. To promote the generalisability of the present result with previous findings (e.g., Bayard et al. 2001; Hiraga, 2005; Kim, 2007; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010; Sykes, 2010; Eisenchlas and Tsurutani, 2011), Principal Component Analysis (PCA), a type of factor analysis, will be undertaken (see Sections 4.1.2 and 5.1.2).

PCA is a “data reduction” technique that helps to clarify the patterns underlying the correlations between a number of variables (Miller et al. 2002: 175). In other words, it takes a larger set of variables and tries to condense the data into a smaller set of components (Pallant, 2010: 181). As Tabachnick and Fidell (2007:613) suggest that the sample size of at least 300 participants will “yield good result” when PCA is conducted. The 317 Taiwanese and 147 British participants recruited in this study will therefore help to gain a high degree of confidence in the components matrix. Moreover, the components extracted will further affect the subsequent analysis of ANOVA in interpreting respondents’ responses of VGT. According to many (e.g., Miller et al., 2002: 174; Pallant, 2010: 181; Verma, 2013:365-366), there are three main stages involved in carrying out PCA.

1. Assessment of the suitability of the data for PCA: Firstly, the correlation matrix should reveal the presence of many component loadings of 0.3 and above (Pallant, 2010: 192). Secondly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure must exceed 0.5 to signify the adequacy of the sample for running the PCA (Verma 2013: 365). The closer the value of KMO to 1.0, the more adequate the sample size is to run the PCA. If the value of KMO exceeds 0.5, it is considered to be sufficient for conducting PCA (Verma 2013: 375). Bartlett’s test of sphericity is also applied to “test the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix” (Verma,

2013: 375). If the Bartlett's test shows the value is significant (i.e., $p < 0.05$), the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix and thus it can be concluded that the factor model is appropriate (Verma, 2013:375).

2. Component extraction: Following Kaiser's criteria, only those components having an eigenvalue that exceeds 1.0 should be retained (Verma 2013: 363). Moreover, Cattell's scree plot should also be examined when deciding how many components are to be retained.
3. Component Rotation and Interpretation: When the number of the components is determined, "Rotation" will be applied to help to clarify which traits (the six traits of the VGT) load on which components (Miller et al. 2002: 179). In light of previous studies (e.g. McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010), a kind of orthogonal rotation technique - the Varimax method will be employed.

The aforementioned statistical techniques will be applied systematically in the analysis of Taiwanese and British data in Chapter 4 and 5. The following two chapters aims to discuss the preliminary findings of Taiwanese (chapter 4) attitudes and British (chapter 5) perceptions towards IC, OC and EC English varieties.

Chapter 4

Data Analysis: Taiwanese Attitudes towards Varieties of English

4.1 The Results of the Verbal-Guise Test

This chapter discusses the main findings of the Taiwanese online survey responses, which serve as a comparison to the British attitudes towards varieties of English (see Chapter 5). The first section of Chapter 4 addresses the Taiwanese participants' perceptions of varieties of English through the data analysis of the VGT responses. To begin with, it presents how Taiwanese listeners evaluate IC, OC and EC varieties of English when all traits of the semantic-differential scale are considered. Then, PCA is conducted to extract the evaluative traits into different dimensions. Lastly, Taiwanese evaluations towards varieties of English will be investigated according to the two factors extracted from PCA: speaker status and solidarity.

4.1.1 Taiwanese Evaluations of the Seven English Varieties: All Traits

The Taiwanese participants' evaluations of seven English varieties are shown in Table 4.1, taking all traits into consideration. The most positive evaluation is 6 and the least positive evaluation is 1. Parallel to the results found in the other EFL contexts of South Korea (Kim, 2007) and Hong Kong (Zhang, 2013), GAE received the highest rating from Taiwanese participants, followed by SSBE (Table 4.1). Nevertheless, it is intriguing to see IE ranked in third place and that it was evaluated higher than the IC variety of AE as well as the other EC varieties of JE, TE and SE. However, when it comes to rating their own variety, Taiwanese informants evaluate the TE speaker lowly, and thus it is the second least favoured variety (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Taiwanese Evaluations of Each English Variety: All Traits (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Variety of English	Mean	Std. deviation
General American English*	4.11	0.69
Standard Southern British English*	3.82	0.72
Indian English*	3.70	0.73
Australian English*	3.57	0.73
Japanese English	3.14	0.79
Taiwanese English	3.03	0.77
Spanish English	2.91	0.78

Next, to examine whether significant differences existed in the Taiwanese informants' evaluations of the seven speakers, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted (see Section 3.5.2.1). The significance value of Mauchly's Test is 0, and so Greenhouse-Geisser was assumed (see Section 3.5.2.1). The results of the ANOVA test indicated that there are significant differences in the Taiwanese participants' ratings towards the seven English varieties: $F(5, 1721) = 230.585$, $p < 0.05$; partial eta square = 0.422 (Table 4.2). The post hoc test in Table 4.3 (with Bonferroni correction) revealed that there are four distinct varieties, GAE, SSBE, IE, AE (marked with * in Table 4.1). GAE is both the most highly evaluated and is distinct from the other six varieties. SSBE is evaluated with the second highest rating and is significantly different from IE, AE, JE, TE and SE. IE is rated significantly higher than AE, JE, TE and SE. AE is distinct from the three EC varieties with a rating higher than JE, TE and SE. For the three EC varieties, there are no significant differences in the ratings of JE and TE as well as TE and SE. However, JE is rated significantly higher than SE.

Table 4.2 Tests of Within-Subjects Effects (Greenhouse-Geisser; All Traits of Taiwanese Data)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F-Ratio	Partial eta squared
All traits	384.677	5	70.642	230.585	0.422
residual error	527.172	1721	0.306		

Table 4.3 Post Hoc Test: Pairwise Comparisons for Speaker (All Traits of Taiwanese Data)

(I) factor1	(J) factor1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
GAE	SSBE	.289*	.036	.000	.180	.399
	IE	.410*	.041	.000	.285	.535
	AE	.543*	.038	.000	.427	.659
	JE	.974*	.046	.000	.832	1.116
	TE	1.080*	.046	.000	.941	1.219
	SE	.226*	.041	.000	.101	.351
SSBE	GAE	-.289*	.036	.000	-.399	-.180
	IE	.121*	.036	.021	.010	.232
	AE	.254*	.041	.000	.130	.378
	JE	.685*	.043	.000	.553	.817
	TE	.791*	.043	.000	.660	.921
	SE	.911*	.043	.000	.780	1.041
IE	GAE	-.410*	.041	.000	-.535	-.285
	SSBE	-.121*	.036	.021	-.232	-.010
	AE	.133*	.042	.039	.003	.263
	JE	.564*	.042	.000	.436	.692
	TE	.670*	.042	.000	.541	.799
	SE	.790*	.044	.000	.655	.925
AE	GAE	-.543*	.038	.000	-.659	-.427
	SSBE	-.254*	.041	.000	-.378	-.130
	IE	-.133*	.042	.039	-.263	-.003
	JE	.431*	.041	.000	.305	.558
	TE	.537*	.045	.000	.400	.674
	SE	.657*	.042	.000	.529	.784
JE	GAE	-.974*	.046	.000	-1.116	-.832
	SSBE	-.685*	.043	.000	-.817	-.553
	IE	-.564*	.042	.000	-.692	-.436
	AE	-.431*	.041	.000	-.558	-.305
	TE	.106	.040	.175	-.016	.228
	SE	.226*	.041	.000	.101	.351
TE	GAE	-1.080*	.046	.000	-1.219	-.941
	SSBE	-.791*	.043	.000	-.921	-.660
	IE	-.670*	.042	.000	-.799	-.541
	AE	-.537*	.045	.000	-.674	-.400
	JE	-.106	.040	.175	-.228	.016
	SE	.120	.041	.079	-.006	.246
SE	GAE	-1.200*	.046	.000	-1.342	-1.058
	SSBE	-.911*	.043	.000	-1.041	-.780
	IE	-.790*	.044	.000	-.925	-.655
	AE	-.657*	.042	.000	-.784	-.529
	JE	-.226*	.041	.000	-.351	-.101
	TE	-.120	.041	.079	-.246	.006

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

4.1.2 Principal Component Analysis: The Reduction of the Taiwanese Data

In light of previous studies (e.g., Bayard et al., 2001; McKenzie, 2010; Eisenclas and Tsurutani, 2011), the next step is to carry out a PCA to examine whether the Taiwanese respondents' overall mean ratings of the seven speakers for each of the six traits in the VGT are clustered into different groups or dimensions (see Section 3.5.4).

The following criteria of the data are met which suggest the suitability of PCA. Firstly, the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above (Table 4.4). Secondly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was 0.790, exceeding the recommended minimum value of 0.5, which indicates the appropriateness of the sample size (Field, 2005:648). Thirdly, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance ($p=0.000<0.05$), which suggests PCA can determine which traits are significantly related to one another (Zhang, 2010:143).

Table 4.4 The Commonalities of the Six Traits for Taiwanese Data (Extracted Method: Principal Component Analysis)

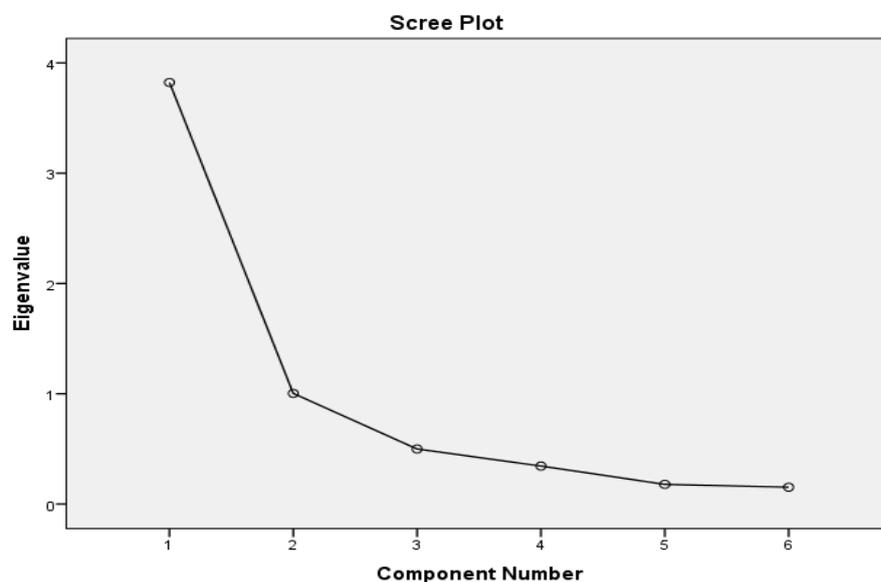
Traits	Initial	Extraction
confident	1	0.786
intelligent	1	0.874
educated	1	0.788
authoritative	1	0.628
friendly	1	0.856
lively	1	0.893

In accordance with Kaiser's criterion (Pallant 2010: 184), the result of PCA shows the loading of six traits on the two components with eigenvalues greater than 1, explaining 64% and 17% of the variance respectively, which together accounts for 81% of the variance (Table 4.5). In addition, the scree plot (Catell, 1966) revealed a clear break following the second component, which suggests that the two components can be retained (Figure 4.1).

Table 4.5 Distribution of the Total Variance Explained for Taiwanese Data

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.823	63.710	63.710	3.823	63.710	63.710
2	1.003	16.717	80.427	1.003	16.717	80.427
3	0.499	8.316	88.743			
4	0.345	5.742	94.485			
5	0.178	2.967	97.452			
6	0.153	2.548	100			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 4.1 Scree Plot of Principal Components Analysis for Taiwanese Data

The present finding of a very high total loading of variances (73%) looks similar to the PCA result reported in the study of Bayard et al. (2001:34). Bayard et al.'s result also exhibited an uneven percentage of variance that accounts for each extracted factor where the first factor of power explains 44% of the variance and is far higher than the rest of the other four factors of competence (11%), solidarity (7%), status (6%) and voice traits (5%). It is postulated that the similar high total loadings of this study and that of Bayard et al. (2001) are related to the methodology of collecting the participants' responses with an online questionnaire. However, further research into language attitudes that employs the VGT or the MGT technique will be helpful to confirm the connection between the method of online data collection and high loadings of total variance in the PCA.

Next, the result of Varimax rotation (with Kaiser normalisation) demonstrated that the traits “confident”, “intelligent”, “educated” and “authoritative” loaded substantially on the “status” group (component1) and the traits “friendly” and “lively” clustered in the “solidarity” group (component2) (Table 4.6; loadings less than 0.5 are not listed).

Table 4.6 The Varimax Rotated Component Matrix of the Taiwanese Data: All Traits

Traits	Component 1 (Status 64%)	Component 2 (Solidarity 17%)
confident	0.844	
intelligent	0.885	
educated	0.862	
authoritative	0.771	
friendly		0.858
lively		0.927

In summary, the results of the PCA confirmed the existence of the two distinctive dimensions of status and solidarity, which echoes previous studies conducted in other EFL contexts (e.g., McKenzie, 2010; Sykes, 2010; Zhang, 2010). The following analysis will investigate the Taiwanese participants’ attitudes towards varieties of English according to speaker status and speaker solidarity evaluations.

4.1.3 Taiwanese Evaluations of the Seven English Varieties: Analysis according to Speaker Status and Speaker Solidarity

This section analyses the Taiwanese participants’ attitudes towards the seven English varieties according to the two dimensions of status and solidarity that are extracted from the PCA.

4.1.3.1 Speaker Status

From the rankings of the status evaluations of the seven English varieties, the Taiwanese participants generally rated standard varieties from the IC (GAE, SSBE) more positively than the less prestigious NS variety of AE or the varieties from the OC (IE) and EC (JE, SE and TE) (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Taiwanese Evaluations of Each English Variety: Speaker Status (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Status (Confident & Intelligent & Educated & Authoritative)		
Variety of English	Mean	Std. Dev
General American English*	4.29	0.78
Standard Southern British English*	4.07	0.87
Indian English*	3.81	0.80
Australian English*	3.65	0.86
Japanese English	3.12	0.90
Spanish English	3.01	0.85
Taiwanese English	2.91	0.78

Next, to examine whether significant differences existed between Taiwanese evaluations of the seven English varieties on the status perspective, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was undertaken. The value of the Mauchly's Test=0.821 in the tests of within-subjects effects and consequently sphericity was assumed. The main results of ANOVA indicated that there were significant differences between the Taiwanese informants' ratings towards the seven speakers' status: $F(6, 1896)=243.816$, $p<0.05$; partial eta square =0.436 (Table 4.8). The results of the post hoc test in Table 4.9 (with Bonferroni correction) showed that there are four distinct varieties, GAE, SSBE, IE, AE (marked with * in Table 4.7). GAE is the most highly rated for speaker status and is distinct from the rest of the six varieties. SSBE had received the second highest status rating and is distinct from IE, AE, JE, SE and TE. IE is rated significantly higher than AE, JE, SE and TE on the status dimension. AE is distinct from the three EC varieties with a higher rating than the three EC varieties. When speaker status is considered, there are no significant differences in the ratings of JE and SE, SE and TE. Nevertheless, JE is rated significantly higher than TE.

Table 4.8 Tests of Within-Subjects Effects (Greenhouse-Geisser; Status Dimension of Taiwanese Data)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F-Ratio	Partial eta squared
All traits	564.189	6	94.032	243.816	0.436
Residual error	731.222	1896	0.386		

Table 4.9 Post Hoc Test: Pairwise Comparisons for Speaker (Status Traits of Taiwanese Data)

(I) factor1	(J) factor1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.b	95% Confidence Interval for Differencecb	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
GAE	SSBE	.227*	.044	.000	.093	.361
	IE	.480*	.046	.000	.340	.620
	AE	.640*	.047	.000	.497	.783
	JE	1.170*	.055	.000	1.002	1.337
	SE	1.281*	.050	.000	1.129	1.433
	TE	1.384*	.051	.000	1.228	1.540
SSBE	GAE	-.227*	.044	.000	-.361	-.093
	IE	.253*	.048	.000	.106	.401
	AE	.413*	.052	.000	.253	.573
	JE	.942*	.054	.000	.776	1.109
	SE	1.054*	.050	.000	.901	1.207
	TE	1.157*	.052	.000	.999	1.315
IE	GAE	-.480*	.046	.000	-.620	-.340
	SSBE	-.253*	.048	.000	-.401	-.106
	AE	.160*	.049	.025	.010	.310
	JE	.689*	.051	.000	.533	.845
	SE	.800*	.047	.000	.657	.944
	TE	.904*	.049	.000	.754	1.054
AE	GAE	-.640*	.047	.000	-.783	-.497
	SSBE	-.413*	.052	.000	-.573	-.253
	IE	-.160*	.049	.025	-.310	-.010
	JE	.529*	.050	.000	.376	.682
	SE	.640*	.050	.000	.488	.793
	TE	.744*	.052	.000	.586	.902
JE	GAE	-1.170*	.055	.000	-1.337	-1.002
	SSBE	-.942*	.054	.000	-1.109	-.776
	IE	-.689*	.051	.000	-.845	-.533
	AE	-.529*	.050	.000	-.682	-.376
	SE	.111	.048	.419	-.034	.257
	TE	.215*	.047	.000	.070	.359
SE	GAE	-1.281*	.050	.000	-1.433	-1.129
	SSBE	-1.054*	.050	.000	-1.207	-.901
	IE	-.800*	.047	.000	-.944	-.657
	AE	-.640*	.050	.000	-.793	-.488
	JE	-.111	.048	.419	-.257	.034
	TE	.103	.045	.472	-.035	.241
TE	GAE	-1.384*	.051	.000	-1.540	-1.228
	SSBE	-1.157*	.052	.000	-1.315	-.999
	IE	-.904*	.049	.000	-1.054	-.754
	AE	-.744*	.052	.000	-.902	-.586
	JE	-.215*	.047	.000	-.359	-.070
	SE	-.103	.045	.472	-.241	.035

Based on estimated marginal means
 *. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
 b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Taiwanese evaluations of the speaker status of the seven English varieties can be summarised as the following:

1. Taiwanese participants rated the two prestigious varieties of IC, GAE and SSBE, the highest and second highest respectively. The variety of the OC (IE) is evaluated significantly more positively than the less standard variety of the IC (AE) (Jenkins 2007: 150). AE is evaluated as significantly higher than the EC varieties (JE, SE and TE). While the three EC varieties are rated significantly lower than GAE, SSBE, IE and AE, it can be generally concluded that the Taiwanese participants evaluated varieties of the IC and OC more positively than those of the EC. This might result from the “media-transmitted stereotypes” that varieties of NSs are considered more legitimate than English spoken with NNS accents where speaker status is concerned (McKenzie, 2008a: 74-75).
2. As American and British English of the IC are commonly regarded as “legitimate” varieties for educational purposes (Kachru and Nelson 2006: 12), this might lead to the Taiwanese participants’ high estimation of GAE and SSBE in terms of status. This result for the Taiwanese participants is consistent with the previous studies that a variety of NSs, especially GAE, is always positively rated (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Kobayashi, 2012; Yang, 2013). Similarly, it could be explained that the application of GAE as the ELT model (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Liou, 2010) and the increasing media exposure to GAE (Bayard et al., 2001) contribute to the Taiwanese listeners’ positive attitudes towards American English.
3. No significant differences were found between the evaluation of JE and SE or SE and TE. Although JE, SE and TE are all varieties of the EC, JE was evaluated significantly more positively than the Taiwanese participants’ own variety of TE. The Taiwanese participants’ relatively stigmatised evaluations of TE are similar to previous findings, which showed that the least preferred English variety is the non-native accent of the EFL respondents in Austria (Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997) and Japan (McKenzie, 2010).

4.1.3.2 Speaker Solidarity

From the rankings of the solidarity evaluations of the seven English varieties, Taiwanese participants considered the varieties of IC (GAE, AE, SSBE) and OC (IE) as more socially attractive than the varieties of EC (TE, JE and SE) (Table 4.10).

Table 4.10 Taiwanese Evaluations of Each English Variety: Speaker Solidarity (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Solidarity (Friendly & Lively)		
Variety of English	Mean	Std. Dev
General American English*	3.75	1.06
Indian English	3.48	1.14
Australian English	3.40	1.02
Standard Southern British English	3.34	1.08
Taiwanese English	3.28	1.11
Japanese English	3.17	1.04
Spanish English*	2.71	1.04

Table 4.11 Tests of Within-Subjects Effects (Sphericity is Assumed; Solidarity Traits of Taiwanese Data)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F-Ratio	Partial eta squared
All traits	193.508	6	32.251	41.295	0.11
Residual error	1480.778	1896	0.781		

A one-way repeated measures ANOVA test is then undertaken to explore the probability of whether any of the Taiwanese participants' attitudinal differences are statistically significant on the dimension of speaker solidarity. The significance value of Mauchly's Test=0.868; therefore, sphericity was assumed. The main results of the ANOVA test demonstrate that there was significant difference between the Taiwanese informants' solidarity ratings of the speakers: $F(6, 1896) = 41.295$, $p < 0.05$; partial eta square=0.116 (Table 4.11). The post hoc test in Table 4.12 (with Bonferroni correction) revealed that there are two distinct varieties, GAE, SE (marked with * in Table 4.10). GAE is top rated and is evaluated significantly higher than the other six varieties. The mean ratings of IE, AE, SSBE and TE are not significantly different. There are no significant differences between the varieties of SSBE and JE, or TE and JE. The varieties of IE and AE are evaluated significantly higher than JE. SE is evaluated significantly lower than the other varieties.

Table 4.12 Post Hoc Test: Pairwise Comparisons for Speaker (Solidarity Traits of Taiwanese Data)

(I) factor1	(J) factor1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
GAE	IE	.270*	.071	.004	.052	.487
	AE	.349*	.069	.000	.137	.560
	SSBE	.413*	.069	.000	.203	.624
	TE	.472*	.077	.000	.237	.707
	JE	.584*	.076	.000	.351	.816
	SE	1.038*	.072	.000	.817	1.259
IE	GAE	-.270*	.071	.004	-.487	-.052
	AE	.079	.073	1.000	-.144	.302
	SSBE	.144	.069	.791	-.067	.354
	TE	.202	.071	.105	-.017	.421
	JE	.314*	.070	.000	.100	.528
	SE	.768*	.075	.000	.539	.997
AE	GAE	-.349*	.069	.000	-.560	-.137
	IE	-.079	.073	1.000	-.302	.144
	SSBE	.065	.071	1.000	-.154	.284
	TE	.123	.069	1.000	-.089	.335
	JE	.235*	.066	.009	.033	.437
	SE	.689*	.070	.000	.475	.904
SSBE	GAE	-.413*	.069	.000	-.624	-.203
	IE	-.144	.069	.791	-.354	.067
	AE	-.065	.071	1.000	-.284	.154
	TE	.058	.071	1.000	-.160	.277
	JE	.170	.068	.259	-.037	.378
	SE	.625*	.064	.000	.430	.819
TE	GAE	-.472*	.077	.000	-.707	-.237
	IE	-.202	.071	.105	-.421	.017
	AE	-.123	.069	1.000	-.335	.089
	SSBE	-.058	.071	1.000	-.277	.160
	JE	.112	.064	1.000	-.084	.308
	SE	.566*	.071	.000	.348	.784
JE	GAE	-.584*	.076	.000	-.816	-.351
	IE	-.314*	.070	.000	-.528	-.100
	AE	-.235*	.066	.009	-.437	-.033
	SSBE	-.170	.068	.259	-.378	.037
	TE	-.112	.064	1.000	-.308	.084
	SE	.454*	.067	.000	.250	.658
SE	GAE	-1.038*	.072	.000	-1.259	-.817
	IE	-.768*	.075	.000	-.997	-.539
	AE	-.689*	.070	.000	-.904	-.475
	SSBE	-.625*	.064	.000	-.819	-.430
	TE	-.566*	.071	.000	-.784	-.348
	JE	-.454*	.067	.000	-.658	-.250

Based on estimated marginal means
 *. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
 b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

The Taiwanese participants' evaluations of the seven English varieties on the solidarity dimension can be summarised with the following three points:

1. The finding that GAE was the most highly rated variety on the solidarity dimension, rather than a non-native variety, is in contrast to the study of McKenzie (2008a) in Japan. However, the present finding is similar to that of a study in Hong Kong, which reported that EFL speakers are subject to "the strong inclination and the pressure towards conformity to model native English - such as American English" (Zhang, 2013: 13). In this respect, Taiwanese participants who are NNSs are likely to attune to the standard variety of GAE by perceiving it as not only prestigious but also socially attractive.
2. When speaker solidarity is considered, the Taiwanese participants' evaluations towards IE and AE, SSBE and TE were not significantly different. This suggests those Taiwanese participants' attitudes towards the OC variety of IE and the IC variety of AE as well as the IC prestigious variety of SSBE and the EC variety of TE are more or less the same on the solidarity dimension. This finding seems to be different from that of previous studies in which the evidence suggested that non-standard varieties are usually preferred to standard varieties when solidarity is concerned (e.g., Giles 1970; Bayard et al., 2001; Hiraga 2005).
3. With regard to the three EC varieties (TE, JE and SE), while Taiwanese participants evaluated their own variety of TE similar to the variety of JE, which is of geographical proximity, they have evaluated TE significantly higher than the non-native variety of SE. This indicated that they considered the variety which they share the same origin with (i.e. TE) and the variety spoken by people living in Japan, which they have a historical connection with to have a similar level of social attractiveness. However, the Taiwanese participants' attitudes towards the non-native Asian variety of JE are distinctly more positive than towards the non-native European variety of SE.

4.1.3.3 Summary of Taiwanese Evaluations of the Seven English Varieties: Speaker Status and Solidarity

To summarise, GAE was the variety which received highest evaluations across status and solidarity traits from the Taiwanese participants. Nevertheless, the Taiwanese respondents' attitudes towards varieties of English do differ along the axes of speaker status and solidarity. The two IC varieties of SSBE and AE are evaluated significantly higher than the varieties of the EC across status traits. It should also be highlighted that the non-native variety of IE that is spoken in the OC is evaluated distinctly higher than the IC variety of AE on the status dimension. This shows that the non-native variety of IE is perceived as distinctively more prestigious than the variety of NSs from Australia, while the two mainstream IC varieties of GAE and SSBE are included in the same VGT. On the solidarity dimension, the Taiwanese participants' attitudes towards some of the native and non-native varieties are not significantly different. For example, significant mean differences were not found in the evaluations between IE and AE or SSBE and TE. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that, while Taiwanese participants considered JE and TE as showing a similar degree of solidarity on the solidarity dimension, JE is regarded as having distinctly higher social status than TE on the status dimension. The following section will explore the possible correlations between the Taiwanese respondents' social variables and their attitudes towards varieties of English.

4.2 The Main Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

Following on previous language attitude studies (e.g., Starks and Paltridge, 1996; McKenzie, 2008a; Zhang, 2010), the aim of this section is to analyse the effect of the Taiwanese participants' social characteristics (gender, occupation and self-perceived English level) on the evaluations of the speakers according to status and solidarity by employing a one-way between groups MANOVA (see Section 3.5.3). For the MANOVA test, the independent variables are the social variables of gender (female and male), occupation (student and worker) and self-perceived level of English (lower level of English and higher level of English). The dependent variables are the Taiwanese participants' status/solidarity ratings of the seven speakers.

4.2.1 The Main Effects of Gender on Taiwanese Evaluations

A number of studies (e.g., Milroy, 1987; Cheshire, 1991; Starks and Paltridge, 1996; Ladegaard, 2000) constantly demonstrated that gender differences exist along listeners' opinions towards varieties of English (see Section 2.7.1). This section will offer an examination of how the gender of the Taiwanese participants influences the way that varieties of English are evaluated. The distribution of the Taiwanese participants according to gender is presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13 Distributions of Taiwanese Participants: Female and Male

Gender	N	Percentage
Female	200	63%
Male	117	37%
Total	317	100%

4.2.1.1 Speaker Status

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.644 (i.e., $p > 0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's test for equality of variance for all seven speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. Although there were some differences between the status evaluations of the two groups of females and males to the seven speakers (Table 4.14), the results of the MANOVA test demonstrated there was no significant main effect of gender on evaluations of speaker status: $F(7, 309) = 1.293$, $p(0.253) > 0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.972; partial eta squared=0.028 (i.e., a small effect). As no significant overall effect was found, there was no need to apply further analyses on each individual speaker.

Table 4.14 Taiwanese Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Status According to Gender (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Female		Male	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
GAE	4.35(0.79)	GAE	4.19(0.76)
SSBE	4.06(0.86)	SSBE	4.07(0.88)
IE	3.87(0.78)	IE	3.71(0.83)
AE	3.69(0.87)	AE	3.58(0.85)
JE	3.14(0.91)	JE	3.10(0.88)
SE	3.00(0.84)	SE	3.03(0.86)
TE	2.92(0.78)	TE	2.88(0.80)

4.2.1.2 Speaker Solidarity

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.184 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's test for equality of variance for all seven speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. Although there were some differences between the solidarity evaluations of the two groups of female and male to the seven speakers (Table 4.15), no significant main effect of gender is found on evaluations of speaker solidarity in MANOVA test: $F(7,309)=0.869$, $p(0.531)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.981; partial eta squared=0.019 (i.e., a small effect).

Table 4.15 Taiwanese Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Solidarity according to Gender (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Female		Male	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
GAE	3.72(1.04)	GAE	3.80(1.08)
IE	3.45(1.15)	IE	3.53(1.13)
AE	3.43(1.02)	AE	3.35(1.03)
SSBE	3.36(1.13)	SSBE	3.29(0.99)
TE	3.27(1.11)	TE	3.29(1.13)
JE	3.19(1.07)	JE	3.12(1.00)
SE	2.65(0.98)	SE	2.81(1.13)

4.2.1.3 Conclusion of the Main Effects of Gender on Taiwanese Evaluations

In sum, the MANOVA test showed that there were no significant differences between Taiwanese male and female evaluations of the speakers of the seven different varieties of English on both status and solidarity dimensions. The finding that the Taiwanese participants' evaluations of these seven speakers do not significantly vary according to gender is in direct contrast to McKenzie's study (2010) in Japan, where female university students gave significantly higher ratings of competence than male students to IC varieties such as Glasgow Standard English and Mid-West United States English.

4.2.2 The Main Effects of Occupation on Taiwanese Evaluations

Based on the discussion in section 2.7.2, this section aims to present the effect of occupation differences on the Taiwanese evaluations of the seven speakers.

Since the study only recruited respondents who are aged over 18, those Taiwanese respondents who indicated that they are students would be studying in either colleges or universities. The Taiwanese participants' detailed responses of occupation are presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16 Distributions of Taiwanese Participants: Occupation

Occupation	N	Percentage
Student	194	61.20%
Freelancer	35	11.04%
Education Industry	21	6.62%
Service Industry	21	6.62%
Others	21	6.62%
Business industry	18	5.70%
Manufacture Industry	7	2.20%
Total	317	100.00%

From Table 4.16, it can be seen that more than 50% of the Taiwanese participants indicated that they are students, while the rest specified that they are working in different industries. Responses given by those Taiwanese informants who choose the "others" options include: writer, scientist, statistical analyst, designer, etc. For further analysis, this study decided to categorise Taiwanese participants according to the two main categories of student and employed workers, as presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Distributions of Taiwanese Participants: Student and Worker

Occupation	N	Percentage
Student	194	61%
Worker	123	39%
Total	317	100%

4.2.2.1 Speaker Status

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.508 (i.e., $p > 0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's test for equality of variance for all seven speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05) which indicates that the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated a significant main effect of occupation on Taiwanese evaluations of speaker status: $F(7,309)=4.210$, $p(0.000) < 0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.913; partial eta squared=0.087 (i.e., a moderate effect). This

suggests that significant differences in the evaluations towards any of the seven English varieties between Taiwanese students and workers exist. The test of between-subjects effects demonstrated that three (AE, GAE, IE) out of the seven varieties had significant differences (Table 4.19). This indicates the differences in the evaluations between Taiwanese students and workers are not significantly different towards SSBE, JE, SE, and TE. While the student group evaluates GAE and IE significantly higher, they evaluated AE significantly lower than the worker group.

Table 4.18 Taiwanese Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Status according to Occupation (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Student		Worker	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
GAE	4.37(0.75)	GAE	4.18(0.81)
SSBE	4.11(0.84)	SSBE	3.99(0.91)
IE	3.90(0.77)	AE	3.77(0.92)
AE	3.58(0.82)	IE	3.67(0.84)
JE	3.14(0.89)	JE	3.09(0.91)
SE	3.08(0.85)	SE	2.91(0.84)
TE	2.96(0.78)	TE	2.82(0.79)

From Table 4.19, when the results of the effects of occupation on the seven speaker status ratings were considered separately:

1. Australian English speaker: $F(1,315)=3.919$, $p(0.049)<0.05$, partial eta squared=0.012, which suggests a small effect.
2. General American English speaker: $F(1,315)=4.477$, $p(0.035)<0.05$, partial eta squared=0.014, which suggests a small effect.
3. Indian English speaker: $F(1,315)=6.534$, $p(0.011)<0.05$, partial eta squared=0.020, which suggests a small effect.

Table 4.19 Test of Between-Subjects Effects for Speaker Status according to Occupation: Taiwanese Data

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Occupation	AE	2.901	1	2.901	3.919	0.049	0.012
	JE	0.175	1	0.175	0.217	0.642	0.001
	GAE	2.693	1	2.693	4.477	0.035	0.014
	TE	1.535	1	1.535	2.504	0.115	0.008
	IE	4.145	1	4.145	6.534	0.011	0.020
	SSBE	1.029	1	1.029	1.372	0.242	0.004
	SE	2.144	1	2.144	2.994	0.085	0.009
Error	AE	233.192	315	0.740			
	JE	254.277	315	0.807			
	GAE	189.482	315	0.602			
	TE	193.062	315	0.613			
	IE	199.812	315	0.634			
	SSBE	236.300	315	0.750			
	SE	225.624	315	0.716			

4.2.2.2 Speaker Solidarity

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.202 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's test for equality of variance for all seven speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. Although there were some differences between the solidarity evaluations made by the two groups of students and workers (Table 4.20), the results of the MANOVA demonstrated no significant main effect of occupation on Taiwanese evaluations of speaker solidarity $F(7,309)=1.373$, $p(0.216)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.970; partial eta squared=0.030 (i.e., a small effect).

Table 4.20 Taiwanese Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Solidarity According to Occupation (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Student		Worker	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
GAE	3.68(1.05)	GAE	3.85(1.06)
IE	3.49(1.13)	IE	3.47(1.06)
AE	3.41(0.99)	AE	3.38(1.08)
TE	3.37(1.13)	SSBE	3.33(1.10)
SSBE	3.34(1.07)	TE	3.13(1.08)
JE	3.26(1.04)	JE	3.02(1.05)
SE	2.76(1.07)	SE	2.64(1.00)

4.2.2.3 Conclusion of the Main Effects of Occupation on Taiwanese Evaluations

In conclusion, from Table 4.18 and Table 4.20, it can be seen that in general, Taiwanese students are more generous than Taiwanese workers in rating different varieties of English on the dimensions of both status and solidarity. For example, across status traits, except for the AE speaker, Taiwanese participants who are students tended to give more generous ratings to the six English varieties than the participants who are working. Additionally, a similar pattern emerged when speaker solidarity is considered: except for the GAE speaker, the Taiwanese respondents who are students also gave higher ratings to the six English varieties than the participants who are working.

Nevertheless, the differences in the speaker status evaluations towards GAE, IE and AE were found to be significant between Taiwanese students and workers. In comparison to those Taiwanese participants who are working, those who are students evaluated the IC variety of GAE and the OC variety of IE significantly higher. On the other hand, Taiwanese students evaluated the IC variety of AE significantly lower than those who are working.

The finding of IE indicates that Taiwanese participants who are students tend to hold relatively more favourable attitudes than workers who have entered the job market. Moreover, Taiwanese students evaluated GAE significantly higher and AE significantly lower than workers did. The Taiwanese students' more favourable attitude towards GAE might result from the significant input of standard American English in ELT practices (e.g., Chang, 2004; Jou, 2010; Tsou, 2013). While attention towards other English varieties, such as the IC variety of AE is relatively limited in the classroom, it might explain why Taiwanese students evaluated AE significantly lower than their counterparts did.

4.2.3 The Main Effects of Self-Perceived English Level on Speaker Evaluations

In consideration of the discussion in section 2.7.3, this section details the effect of the Taiwanese participants' self-perceived English level on the evaluations of the seven speakers. A summary of the Taiwanese participants' responses is presented in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21 Distributions of Taiwanese Participants: Self-Perceived English Level

Self-Perceived English Level	N	Percentage
Beginner	33	10%
Intermediate	107	34%
Higher-Intermediate	137	43%
Advanced	40	13%
Total	317	100%

As the majority of Taiwanese participants described their self-perceived level of English as “Intermediate” and “Higher-Intermediate”, the Taiwanese respondents’ responses have been re-arranged into “lower level of English”, which includes participants who stated their level as “Beginner” and “Intermediate”, and “higher level of English”, which contains the two groups of “higher-intermediate” and “advanced” (see Table 4.22).

Table 4.22 Distributions of Taiwanese Participants: Lower Level of English and Higher Level of English

Self-Perceived English Level	N	Percentage
Lower English level	140	44%
Higher English Level	177	56%
Total	317	100%

4.2.3.1 Speaker Status

The sig. value of Box’s Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.068 (i.e., $p>0.001$) indicated no violation of the equal variance assumption. Except for the SSBE speaker ($p=0.004$), the probability associated with Levene’s test for equality of variance for the rest of the six speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. When the MANOVA test demonstrates a significant overall effect, a more strict alpha level of 0.025 is applied to SSBE at the univariate test (Tabachnik and Fidell 2007:80). Although there were some differences between the status evaluations made by the lower English level group and the higher English level group (Table 4.23), the results of the MANOVA test demonstrated a significant main effect of self-perceived level of English on Taiwanese evaluations of each speaker: $F(7,309) = 3.256$, $p(0.002) < 0.05$; Wilks’ Lambda=0.931; partial eta squared=0.069 (i.e., a moderate effect). This suggests that significant differences in the evaluations of the seven English varieties exist between those Taiwanese participants who perceived themselves

as having a lower English level and a higher English level. The test of between-subjects effects revealed significant differences in one (SSBE) out of the seven varieties (Table 4.24). This indicates the differences of the evaluations between Taiwanese participants who perceived themselves as having a lower English level and a higher English level is not significantly different with regard to GAE, AE, IE, JE, SE and TE. The group of those Taiwanese participants who regard themselves as having a higher English level evaluate SSBE significantly higher than their counterparts did.

1. Standard Southern British English Speaker: $F(1,315)=8.970$, $p(0.003)<0.025$, partial eta squared=0.028, which suggests a small effect.

Table 4.23 Taiwanese Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Status According to Self-Perceived English Level (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Lower English Level		Higher English Level	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
GAE	4.27(0.81)	GAE	4.31(0.76)
SSBE	3.90(0.95)	SSBE	4.19(0.77)
IE	3.80(0.84)	IE	3.82(0.77)
AE	3.72(0.88)	AE	3.60(0.85)
JE	3.17(0.94)	JE	3.09(0.87)
SE	2.92(0.85)	SE	3.08(0.84)
TE	2.88(0.85)	TE	2.93(0.73)

Table 4.24 Test of Between-Subjects Effects for Speaker Status according to Self-Perceived English Level: Taiwanese Data

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Self-Perceived English Level	AE	1.081	1	1.081	1.448	0.230	0.005
	JE	0.465	1	0.465	0.576	0.448	0.002
	GAE	0.094	1	0.094	0.154	0.695	0.000
	TE	0.152	1	0.152	0.246	0.621	0.001
	IE	0.063	1	0.063	0.098	0.755	0.000
	SSBE	6.571	1	6.571	8.970	0.003	0.028
	SE	2.049	1	2.049	2.860	0.092	0.009
Error	AE	235.013	315	0.746			
	JE	253.987	315	0.806			
	GAE	192.081	315	0.610			
	TE	194.445	315	0.617			
	IE	203.894	315	0.647			
	SSBE	230.758	315	0.733			
	SE	225.719	315	0.717			

4.2.3.2 Speaker Solidarity

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.212 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which suggested no violation of the equal variance assumption. Except for the GAE speaker ($p=0.004$), the probability associated with Levene's test for equality of variance for the rest of the six speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. When the MANOVA test demonstrates a significant overall effect, a more strict alpha level of 0.025 is applied to GAE at the univariate test (Tabachnik and Fidell 2007:80). Although there were some differences between the solidarity evaluations made by the two groups of lower English level and higher English level (Table 4.25), the results of the MANOVA test demonstrated no significant main effect of self-perceived level of English on evaluations of speaker solidarity: $F(7,309)=1.666$, $p(0.117)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.964; partial eta squared=0.036 (i.e., a small effect).

Table 4.25 Taiwanese Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Solidarity according to Self-Perceived English Level (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Lower level of English		Higher level of English	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
GAE	3.66(1.14)	GAE	3.82(0.99)
SSBE	3.34(1.15)	IE	3.62(1.06)
AE	3.32(1.07)	AE	3.47(0.98)
IE	3.31(1.21)	TE	3.34(1.08)
TE	3.20(1.15)	SSBE	3.33(1.03)
JE	3.08(1.10)	JE	3.23(1.00)
SE	2.58(1.07)	SE	2.81(1.00)

4.2.3.3 Conclusion of the Main Effects of Self-Perceived English Level on Taiwanese Evaluations

In conclusion, from Table 4.23 and Table 4.25, it can be seen that in general, Taiwanese participants who regard themselves as having a higher level of English are more generous in evaluating different varieties of English than Taiwanese participants who perceived themselves as having a lower level of English, on both the status (GAE, SSBE, IE, SE, TE) and solidarity (AE, GAE, SSBE, IE, JE, SE, TE) dimensions.

However, the MANOVA test demonstrated that the only significant difference is found in the status rating of SSBE, where those Taiwanese participants who believed they have acquired superior English proficiency evaluated this particular variety significantly higher than their counterparts. This finding is parallel to McKenzie (2010) in the way that the status evaluation of standard IC English speech of Mid-West US English received significantly more positive evaluations from Japanese university students who regarded themselves as having a high English level than from those who said they had a lower one.

4.2.4 Summary of the Main Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

The main findings of the effects of social variables on Taiwanese speaker evaluations of the seven English varieties can be summarised as the following:

1. Although the Taiwanese informants' evaluations of varieties of English do differ according to the social variables (i.e., gender, occupation and self-perceived English level), only occupation and self-perceived English level demonstrated significant main effects on speaker status evaluations in the MANOVA test.
2. When occupation is considered, Taiwanese participants who are students evaluated the three speakers of GAE and IE significantly higher on the status dimension than participants who are working. However, Taiwanese students gave significantly lower ratings to the variety of AE regarding the speaker status when compared to those participants who are working.
3. In terms of self-perceived English level, the Taiwanese participants who regard themselves as having a higher level of English tend to rate SSBE significantly more highly than those who perceive themselves as having a lower level of English on the status dimension.

4.3 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

This section presents the interaction effects analysis of the Taiwanese participants' social variables (i.e., gender, occupation and self-perceived level of English) on the evaluations of the different English varieties.

4.3.1 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

A three-way between groups ANOVA test was conducted to explore the interaction effect of the three social variables (gender, occupation and self-perceived English level) of the Taiwanese participants on the evaluations of the seven English varieties.

For the 2x2x2 factorial design of the ANOVA test conducted in the following subsections, the three independent variables of gender (female and male), occupation (student and employed workers) and self-perceived level of English (lower level of English and higher level of English) are consistent. The dependent variables are the Taiwanese participants' ratings of each English variety according to speaker status and solidarity. For GAE speaker solidarity and SSBE speaker status, a stricter alpha level of 0.025 was applied, since the Probability of Levene's test for equality of variance did not exceed 0.05 (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2007:80). For the rest of the subsequent ANOVA tests, assumption of equality of variance is not violated and will retain the alpha level of 0.5.

4.3.1.1 AE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for AE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.26. Table 4.27 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of AE speaker status.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=2.39$, $p(0.123)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.008, which suggests a negligible effect.

2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.67$, $p(0.413)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=1.65$, $p(0.200)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.005, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.52$, $p(0.472)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 4.26 Taiwanese Evaluations of AE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.6321	0.82276	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4961	0.74867	64
		Total	3.5577	0.78261	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	4.0122	1.03524	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.756	0.87039	42
		Total	3.8825	0.95823	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.7979	0.93561	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.5991	0.80525	106
		Total	3.6925	0.87242	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.4922	0.68828	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6833	1.00482	45
		Total	3.6039	0.88700	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.6964	0.87254	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4615	0.73380	26
		Total	3.5438	0.78219	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.5543	0.74519	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6021	0.91571	71
		Total	3.5833	0.84970	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.5794	0.77365	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.5734	0.86422	109
		Total	3.576	0.82368	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.9318	0.99821	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6434	0.82782	68
		Total	3.7724	0.91549	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.7179	0.88240	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6003	0.84874	177
		Total	3.6522	0.86437	317

Table 4.27 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Participants' Social Variables on the Evaluations of AE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	1.757	1	1.757	2.393	0.123	0.008
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	0.494	1	0.494	0.672	0.413	0.002
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	1.213	1	1.213	1.652	0.200	0.005
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.38	1	0.38	0.517	0.472	0.002
Error	226.911	309	0.734			

4.3.1.2 AE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for AE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.28. Table 4.29 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of AE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=0.06$, $p(0.814)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.04$, $p(0.850)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.01$, $p(0.935)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.03$, $p(0.855)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

Table 4.28 Taiwanese Evaluations of AE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3962	1.01128	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.5000	0.98400	64
		Total	3.4530	0.99348	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3049	1.17195	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4762	0.93673	42
		Total	3.3916	1.05648	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3564	1.07918	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4906	0.96110	106
		Total	3.4275	1.01793	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2344	1.05482	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4333	0.92072	45
		Total	3.3506	0.97692	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2500	1.13933	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4231	1.17211	26
		Total	3.3625	1.14907	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2391	1.06843	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4296	1.01170	71
		Total	3.3547	1.03403	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3353	1.02466	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4725	0.95461	109
		Total	3.4124	0.98568	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2909	1.15346	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4559	1.02482	68
		Total	3.3821	1.08280	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3179	1.07324	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4661	0.97932	177
		Total	3.4006	1.02287	317

Table 4.29 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Participants' Social Variables on the Evaluations of AE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.059	1	0.059	0.056	0.814	0.000
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	0.038	1	0.038	0.036	0.850	0.000
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.007	1	0.007	0.007	0.935	0.000
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.035	1	0.035	0.033	0.855	0.000
Error	328.108	309	1.062			

4.3.1.3 GAE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for GAE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.30. Table 4.31 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of GAE speaker status.

Table 4.30 Taiwanese Evaluations of GAE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	4.3915	0.76194	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.4180	0.75731	64
		Total	4.4060	0.75624	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	4.2622	0.92018	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.2976	0.74743	42
		Total	4.2801	0.83227	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	4.3351	0.83243	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.3703	0.75216	106
		Total	4.3538	0.78909	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	4.2656	0.67183	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.3333	0.79415	45
		Total	4.3052	0.74187	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.8750	0.87018	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.0096	0.67261	26
		Total	3.9625	0.73935	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	4.1467	0.75014	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.2148	0.76333	71
		Total	4.1880	0.75566	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	4.3441	0.72782	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.3830	0.77023	109
		Total	4.3660	0.75027	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	4.1636	0.91568	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.1875	0.72839	68
		Total	4.1768	0.81402	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	4.2732	0.80851	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.3079	0.75836	177
		Total	4.2926	0.77984	317

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=1.46$, $p(0.228)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.005, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.13$, $p(0.715)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.04$, $p(0.844)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.02$, $p(0.880)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

Table 4.31 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Participants' Social Variables on the Evaluations of GAE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.878	1	0.878	1.458	0.228	0.005
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	0.08	1	0.080	0.133	0.715	0.000
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.023	1	0.023	0.039	0.844	0.000
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.014	1	0.014	0.023	0.880	0.000
Error	185.99	309	0.602			

4.3.1.4 GAE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for GAE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.32. Table 4.33 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates there was a significant two-way interaction effect between gender and occupation on the evaluations of GAE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=5.41$, $p(0.021)<0.025$; partial eta squared=0.017, which suggests a small effect (see Figure 4.2).
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.00$, $p(0.960)>0.025$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.14$, $p(0.713)>0.025$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.19$, $p(0.668)>0.025$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 4.32 Taiwanese Evaluations of GAE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.4623	1.17198	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6484	0.78518	64
		Total	3.5641	0.97940	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.8537	1.17922	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.0238	1.01784	42
		Total	3.9398	1.09711	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.6330	1.18498	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.7972	0.89915	106
		Total	3.7200	1.04381	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.8281	1.05959	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.8889	1.20080	45
		Total	3.8636	1.13739	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.5000	1.03775	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.7692	0.94054	26
		Total	3.6750	0.97106	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.7283	1.05254	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.8451	1.10709	71
		Total	3.7991	1.08290	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.6000	1.13861	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.7477	0.98042	109
		Total	3.6830	1.05239	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.7636	1.14607	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.9265	0.98974	68
		Total	3.8537	1.06111	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.6643	1.14024	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.8164	0.98507	177
		Total	3.7492	1.05739	317

Table 4.33 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Participants' Social Variables on the Evaluations of GAE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	5.995	1	5.995	5.405	0.021	0.017
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	0.003	1	0.003	0.003	0.960	0.000
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.151	1	0.151	0.136	0.713	0.000
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.205	1	0.205	0.185	0.668	0.001
Error	342.727	309	1.109			

Figure 4.2 The Interaction Effect of Gender*Occupation on Taiwanese Evaluations of GAE Speaker Solidarity



The crossover interaction in Figure 4.2 illustrates that the Taiwanese respondents' social factors of gender and occupation together had a significant interaction effect²⁵ on the solidarity evaluation of GAE. It can be seen in Figure 4.2 that while the female students rated GAE significantly lower than the male students, female workers evaluated GAE speaker significantly higher than male workers on the solidarity dimension.

4.3.1.5 SSBE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for SSBE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.34. Table 4.35 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way and three-way interaction effects in Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of SSBE speaker status.

²⁵ Figure 4.2 shows the classic crossover effect whereby evaluation differences in the factors of gender and occupation cancel out the possibility of a main effect. Section 4.2.1.2 and section 4.2.2.2 explain in more detail that the social factors of gender and occupation were not found to demonstrate any significant main effect on Taiwanese participants' solidarity evaluations towards GAE.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=0.26$, $p(0.613)>0.025$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.22$, $p(0.642)>0.025$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.16$, $p(0.691)>0.025$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.65$, $p(0.421)>0.025$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 4.34 Taiwanese Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.8962	0.80029	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.2734	0.76079	64
		Total	4.1026	0.79813	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.9451	1.06729	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.0655	0.82466	42
		Total	4.0060	0.94834	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.9176	0.92122	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.1910	0.78948	106
		Total	4.0625	0.86266	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.9453	0.96037	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.2500	0.85114	45
		Total	4.1234	0.90469	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.7143	1.14714	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.1058	0.56202	26
		Total	3.9688	0.82273	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.8750	1.01345	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.1972	0.75701	71
		Total	4.0705	0.87706	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.9147	0.85874	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.2638	0.79556	109
		Total	4.1108	0.8398	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.8864	1.08207	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.0809	0.73103	68
		Total	3.9939	0.90619	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.9036	0.94906	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	4.1935	0.77445	177
		Total	4.0655	0.86663	317

Table 4.35 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on the Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.190	1	0.190	0.257	0.613	0.001
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	0.160	1	0.160	0.217	0.642	0.001
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.118	1	0.118	0.159	0.691	0.001
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.480	1	0.480	0.649	0.421	0.002
Error	228.686	309	0.740			

4.3.1.6 SSBE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for SSBE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.36. Table 4.37 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates there was a significant two-way interaction effect between gender and occupation on the evaluations of SSBE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=5.12$, $p(0.024)<0.05$; partial eta squared=0.016, which suggests a small effect (see Figure 4.3).
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.24$, $p(0.622)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=1.16$, $p(0.282)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.004 which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.99$, $p(0.321)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.003, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 4.36 Taiwanese Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3868	1.17113	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.1953	1.04887	64
		Total	3.2821	1.10521	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2927	1.28926	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6548	1.02105	42
		Total	3.4759	1.16845	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3457	1.21820	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.3774	1.05743	106
		Total	3.3625	1.13303	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.4688	1.03906	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4111	1.02408	45
		Total	3.4351	1.02389	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.0357	0.86523	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0000	0.88318	26
		Total	3.0125	0.86593	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3370	1.00030	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.2606	0.98872	71
		Total	3.2906	0.98969	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.4176	1.11763	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.2844	1.03942	109
		Total	3.3428	1.07360	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2273	1.19342	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4044	1.01576	68
		Total	3.3252	1.09766	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3429	1.14754	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.3305	1.02916	177
		Total	3.3360	1.08130	317

Table 4.37 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on the Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	5.945	1	5.945	5.121	0.024	0.016
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	0.283	1	0.283	0.244	0.622	0.001
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	1.346	1	1.346	1.159	0.282	0.004
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	1.149	1	1.149	0.989	0.321	0.003
Error	358.707	309	1.161			

Figure 4.3 The Interaction Effect of Gender*Occupation on Taiwanese Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Solidarity

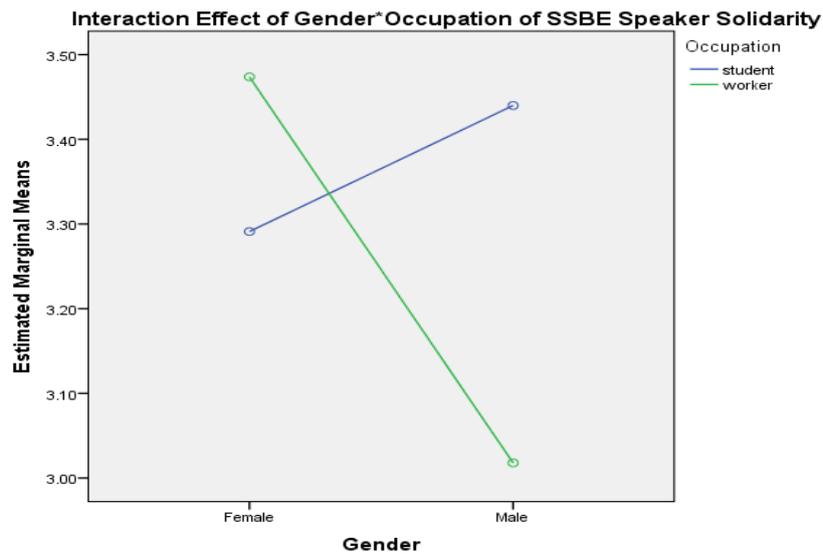


Figure 4.3 displays a significant interaction effect²⁶ of the two social factors of gender and occupation for Taiwanese respondents on the solidarity evaluation of SSBE. It shows that while female participants who are students evaluated SSBE significantly lower than the male students, female participants who are workers evaluated the SSBE speaker significantly higher than male workers across the solidarity traits.

4.3.1.7 IE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for IE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.38. Table 4.39 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of IE speaker status.

²⁶ Figure 4.3 shows the classic crossover effect whereby evaluation differences in the factors of gender and occupation cancel out the possibility of a main effect. Section 4.2.1.2 and section 4.2.2.2 explain in more detail that the social factors of gender and occupation were not found to demonstrate any significant main effect on the Taiwanese participants' solidarity evaluations towards SSBE.

Table 4.38 Taiwanese Evaluations of IE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.9292	0.75539	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.9883	0.64153	64
		Total	3.9615	0.69296	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.7134	0.94796	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.7738	0.82049	42
		Total	3.744	0.88084	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.8351	0.84684	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.9033	0.72175	106
		Total	3.8713	0.78177	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.7813	0.82489	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.8389	0.90478	45
		Total	3.8149	0.86736	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.5714	0.85726	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4808	0.67053	26
		Total	3.5125	0.73150	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.7174	0.83101	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.7077	0.83984	71
		Total	3.7115	0.83280	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.8735	0.78074	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.9266	0.76096	109
		Total	3.9034	0.76813	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.6773	0.92004	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6618	0.77479	68
		Total	3.6687	0.83929	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.7964	0.84051	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.8249	0.77495	177
		Total	3.8123	0.80339	317

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=0.12$, $p(0.728)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect .
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.15$, $p(0.701)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.14$, $p(0.711)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.14$, $p(0.706)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

Table 4.39 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on the Evaluations of IE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.077	1	0.077	0.121	0.728	0.000
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	0.094	1	0.094	0.148	0.701	0.000
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.088	1	0.088	0.138	0.711	0.000
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.091	1	0.091	0.143	0.706	0.000
Error	197.054	309	0.638			

4.3.1.8 IE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for IE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.40. Table 4.41 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of IE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=0.40$, $p(0.527)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggest a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.67$, $p(0.413)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggest a negligible effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.10$, $p(0.747)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggest no effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.06$, $p(0.812)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggest no effect.

Table 4.40 Taiwanese Evaluations of IE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3113	1.13182	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6250	1.14781	64
		Total	3.4829	1.14646	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.1585	1.25717	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6310	1.00644	42
		Total	3.3976	1.15494	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2447	1.18400	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6274	1.08904	106
		Total	3.4475	1.14786	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.4063	1.24069	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.5556	1.03475	45
		Total	3.4935	1.11949	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.5000	1.40055	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6731	1.03868	26
		Total	3.6125	1.16293	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.4348	1.27632	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.5986	1.03032	71
		Total	3.5342	1.13093	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3471	1.16758	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.5963	1.09814	109
		Total	3.4871	1.13292	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2455	1.29054	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6471	1.01135	68
		Total	3.4675	1.15719	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3071	1.21381	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.6158	1.06300	177
		Total	3.4795	1.14061	317

Table 4.41 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on the Evaluations of IE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.521	1	0.521	0.401	0.527	0.001
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	0.874	1	0.874	0.672	0.413	0.002
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.135	1	0.135	0.104	0.747	0.000
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.074	1	0.074	0.057	0.812	0.000
Error	401.663	309	1.300			

4.3.1.9 JE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for JE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.42. Table 4.43 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of JE speaker status.

Table 4.42 Taiwanese Evaluations of JE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.1745	1.02092	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0938	0.78994	64
		Total	3.1303	0.89875	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2439	0.99763	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0476	0.86644	42
		Total	3.1446	0.93307	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2048	1.00601	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0755	0.81735	106
		Total	3.1363	0.91085	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.1094	0.80055	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.1944	0.96072	45
		Total	3.1591	0.89306	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.0357	0.75229	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.9615	0.90469	26
		Total	2.9875	0.84533	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.0870	0.77856	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.1092	0.94087	71
		Total	3.1004	0.87719	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.1500	0.93954	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.1353	0.86169	109
		Total	3.1418	0.89429	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.1909	0.93907	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0147	0.87554	68
		Total	3.0935	0.90502	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.1661	0.93619	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0890	0.86655	177
		Total	3.1230	0.89734	317

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=0.54$, $p(0.462)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggest a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.41$, $p(0.521)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggest a negligible effect.

3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.38$, $p(0.54)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggest a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.01$, $p(0.922)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggest no effect.

Table 4.43 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on the Evaluations of JE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.442	1	0.442	0.541	0.462	0.002
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	0.337	1	0.337	0.413	0.521	0.001
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.307	1	0.307	0.376	0.540	0.001
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.008	1	0.008	0.010	0.922	0.000
Error	252.398	309	0.817			

4.3.1.10 JE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the ratings for JE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.44. Table 4.45 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of JE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender*Occupation: $F(1,309)=3.51$, $p(0.062)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.011, which suggest a small effect.
2. Gender*Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.98$, $p(0.322)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.003, which suggest a negligible effect.
3. Occupation*Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.34$, $p(0.56)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggest a negligible effect.
4. Gender*Occupation*Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.000$, $p(0.993)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggest no effect.

Table 4.44 Taiwanese Evaluations of JE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.217	1.11592	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.2344	1.0502	64
		Total	3.2265	1.07578	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.061	1.1247	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.2262	1.01334	42
		Total	3.1446	1.06648	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.1489	1.11642	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.2311	1.03089	106
		Total	3.1925	1.07001	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.1406	0.95237	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4111	0.99023	45
		Total	3.2987	0.97758	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	2.5	1.19293	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.9231	0.80861	26
		Total	2.775	0.96709	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	2.9457	1.06055	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.2324	0.95181	71
		Total	3.1197	1.0014	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.1882	1.05214	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.3073	1.02494	109
		Total	3.2552	1.03593	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	2.9182	1.15776	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.1103	0.94571	68
		Total	3.0244	1.04578	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.0821	1.09874	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.2316	0.99716	177
		Total	3.1656	1.04421	317

Table 4.45 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on the Evaluations of JE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	3.780	1	3.780	3.508	0.062	0.011
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	1.061	1	1.061	0.984	0.322	0.003
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.367	1	0.367	0.340	0.560	0.001
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.000	1	0.000	0.000	0.993	0.000
Error	333.046	309	1.078			

4.3.1.11 SE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for SE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.46. Table 4.47 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of SE speaker status.

Table 4.46 Taiwanese Evaluations of SE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.0472	0.83932	53	
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0625	0.79682	64	
		Total	3.0556	0.81282	117	
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	2.8293	0.97538	41	
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0179	0.79133	42	
		Total	2.9247	0.88667	83	
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	2.9521	0.90271	94	
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0448	0.79117	106	
		Total	3.0013	0.84454	200	
	Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.0078	0.71133	32
			Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.1833	1.02164	45
			Total	3.1104	0.90457	77
worker		Beginner-Intermediate	2.5179	0.74333	14	
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0673	0.69842	26	
		Total	2.8750	0.75320	40	
Total		Beginner-Intermediate	2.8587	0.74843	46	
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.1408	0.91294	71	
		Total	3.0299	0.85988	117	
Total		student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.0324	0.78943	85
			Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.1124	0.89397	109
			Total	3.0773	0.84854	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	2.7500	0.92546	55	
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0368	0.75219	68	
		Total	2.9085	0.84280	123	
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	2.9214	0.85352	140	
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0833	0.84092	177	
		Total	3.0118	0.84899	317	

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=0.67$, $p(0.414)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggest a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=1.54$, $p(0.216)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.005, which suggest a negligible effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=1.67$, $p(0.193)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.005, which suggest a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.23$, $p(0.633)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggest a negligible effect.

Table 4.47 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables towards the Evaluations of SE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.479	1	0.479	0.669	0.414	0.002
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	1.103	1	1.103	1.540	0.216	0.005
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	1.217	1	1.217	1.699	0.193	0.005
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.164	1	0.164	0.228	0.633	0.001
Error	221.349	309	0.716			

4.3.1.12 SE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for SE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.48. Table 4.49 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of SE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=0.01$, $p(0.905)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggest no effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=1.37$, $p(0.244)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.004, which suggest a negligible effect.

3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=1.27$, $p(0.261)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.004, which suggest a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=1.71$, $p(0.192)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.005, which suggest a negligible effect.

Table 4.48 Taiwanese Evaluations of SE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	2.7830	1.06297	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.6172	0.94172	64
		Total	2.6923	0.99751	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	2.3659	0.95541	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.8214	0.91613	42
		Total	2.5964	0.95782	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	2.6011	1.03326	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.6981	0.93268	106
		Total	2.6525	0.97995	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	2.5781	1.12242	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0444	1.16200	45
		Total	2.8506	1.16151	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	2.4643	1.27798	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.8846	0.95192	26
		Total	2.7375	1.08005	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	2.5435	1.15867	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.9859	1.08553	71
		Total	2.8120	1.13093	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	2.7059	1.08368	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.7936	1.05456	109
		Total	2.7552	1.06552	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	2.3909	1.03499	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.8456	0.92340	68
		Total	2.6423	0.99696	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	2.5821	1.07223	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.8136	1.00382	177
		Total	2.7114	1.03932	317

Table 4.49 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on the Evaluations of SE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.015	1	0.015	0.014	0.905	0.000
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	1.448	1	1.448	1.365	0.244	0.004
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	1.346	1	1.346	1.268	0.261	0.004
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	1.81	1	1.810	1.706	0.192	0.005
Error	327.901	309	1.061			

4.3.1.13 TE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for TE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.50. Table 4.51 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of TE speaker status.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=2.84$, $p(0.093)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.009, which suggest a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.04$, $p(0.848)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggest no effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=1.41$, $p(0.236)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.005, which suggest a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.14$, $p(0.707)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggest no effect.

Table 4.50 Taiwanese Evaluations of TE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	2.8443	0.76149	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0117	0.69068	64
		Total	2.9359	0.72528	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	2.9756	0.95001	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.8393	0.74043	42
		Total	2.9066	0.84798	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	2.9016	0.84658	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.9434	0.71238	106
		Total	2.9238	0.77662	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	2.9297	0.93807	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0611	0.81212	45
		Total	3.0065	0.86315	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	2.6607	0.62486	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.6346	0.60922	26
		Total	2.6438	0.60682	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	2.8478	0.85712	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.9049	0.76808	71
		Total	2.8825	0.80111	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	2.8765	0.82792	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.0321	0.73998	109
		Total	2.9639	0.78150	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	2.8955	0.88413	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.7610	0.69571	68
		Total	2.8211	0.78506	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	2.8839	0.84735	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	2.9280	0.73331	177
		Total	2.9085	0.78474	317

Table 4.51 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables towards the Evaluations of TE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	1.740	1	1.740	2.838	0.093	0.009
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	0.022	1	0.022	0.037	0.848	0.000
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.865	1	0.865	1.410	0.236	0.005
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.087	1	0.087	0.142	0.707	0.000
Error	189.439	309	0.613			

4.3.1.14 TE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the Taiwanese ratings for TE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 4.52. Table 4.53 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the Taiwanese social variables on the evaluations of TE speaker solidarity.

Table 4.52 Taiwanese Evaluations of TE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived English Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.3396	1.09093	53
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.3906	1.12500	64
		Total	3.3675	1.10522	117
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.0610	1.25098	41
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.2143	0.93797	42
		Total	3.1386	1.09965	83
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2181	1.16526	94
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.3208	1.05377	106
		Total	3.2725	1.10594	200
Male	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2188	1.16354	32
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.5000	1.16287	45
		Total	3.3831	1.16386	77
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.5000	1.07417	14
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.1538	1.06554	26
		Total	3.1000	1.05733	40
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.1522	1.12975	46
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.3732	1.13301	71
		Total	3.2863	1.13205	117
Total	student	Beginner-Intermediate	3.2941	1.11348	85
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.4358	1.13672	109
		Total	3.3737	1.12590	194
	worker	Beginner-Intermediate	3.0455	1.19905	55
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.1912	0.98128	68
		Total	3.1260	1.08188	123
	Total	Beginner-Intermediate	3.1964	1.15006	140
		Higher Intermediate-Advanced	3.3418	1.08337	177
		Total	3.2776	1.11388	317

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,309)=0.04$, $p(0.843)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggest no effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.17$, $p(0.677)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggest a negligible effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.00$, $p(0.964)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggest no effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level: $F(1,309)=0.17$, $p(0.679)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggest a negligible effect.

Table 4.53 The Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on the Evaluations of TE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.049	1	0.049	0.039	0.843	0.000
Gender * Self-Perceived English Level	0.216	1	0.216	0.174	0.677	0.001
Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.003	1	0.003	0.002	0.964	0.000
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived English Level	0.214	1	0.214	0.172	0.679	0.001
Error	385.144	309	1.246			

4.3.2 Summary of the Interaction Effects of Taiwanese Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

In conclusion, Table 4.54 summarises the interaction effect of social variables on Taiwanese evaluations and demonstrates that a two-way significant interaction effect was found for the speaker solidarity ratings of GAE and SSBE (see further discussion in Sections 4.3.1.4 and 4.3.1.6). While the female students rated GAE and SSBE speakers significantly lower than the male students, female workers evaluated GAE and SSBE speaker significantly higher than male workers on the solidarity dimension. The present finding of the interaction effect disclosed that the significant effect of gender on Taiwanese participants' solidarity ratings of GAE and SSBE depends on the social variable of occupation and vice versa. This suggests that there is an interplay of gender and occupation differentiation in the Taiwanese participants' attitudes towards GAE and SSBE. While this study

shows an absence of main effect²⁷ and the presence of the interaction effect for the two social factors of gender and occupation on Taiwanese participants' attitudes towards GAE and SSBE, the possibility of having a main effect and an interaction effect at the same time should be noted for the testing of other social variables in future studies in different contexts.

Table 4.54 Summary of the Interaction Effects of Social Variables on Taiwanese Evaluations of Speaker Status and Solidarity

Interaction Effect of Social Variables	Gender × Occupation	Gender × Self-Perceived English Level	Occupation × Self-Perceived English Level	Gender × Occupation × Self-Perceived English Level
Speaker Status	No Significance	No Significance	No Significance	No Significance
Speaker Solidarity	GAE* SSBE*	No Significance	No Significance	No Significance

4.4 Taiwanese Identifications of Speakers' Origins

This section aims to present the Taiwanese participants' identifications of speakers' origins for the seven English varieties. The analysis of the data will firstly discuss the Taiwanese informants' general recognition rates of the seven English varieties. Secondly, the Taiwanese respondents' detailed responses of speaker provenance for the seven English varieties will be discussed. Lastly, the effects of speaker origin identification on the Taiwanese listeners' perceptions of different English varieties will be examined.

4.4.1 Taiwanese Participants' Overall Correct and Incorrect Identification Rate

This section reports on how accurate Taiwanese EFL speakers were in identifying the origins of varieties of English. The percentage of correct identification for each English variety is shown in Graph 4.1.

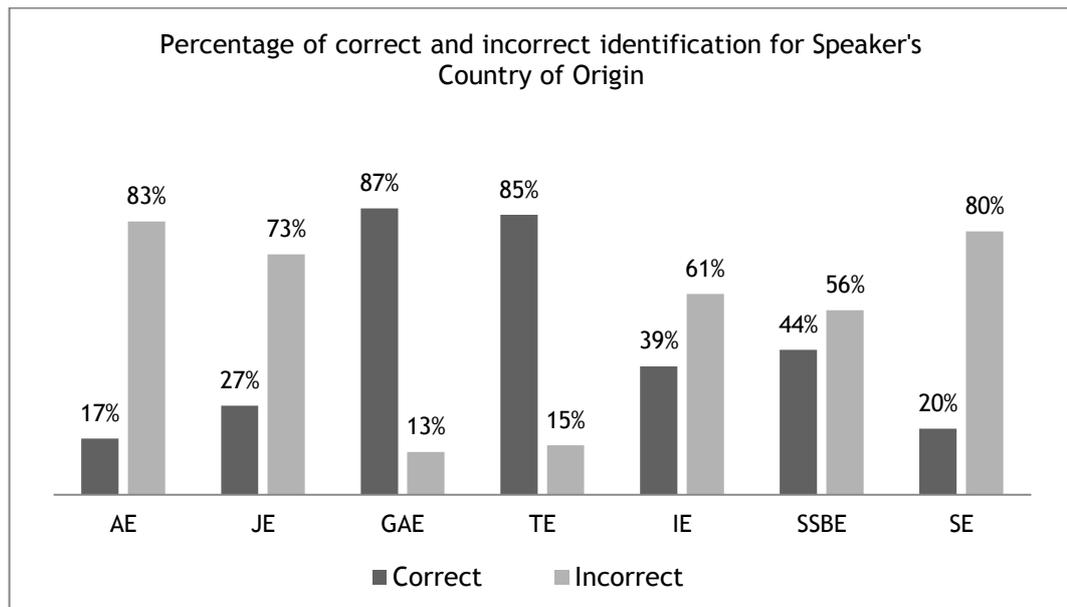
The speakers of GAE and TE were both more frequently correctly identified than incorrectly identified. In addition to exposure to standard American English in

²⁷ Section 4.2.1.2 and section 4.2.2.2 discuss more fully that the social factors of gender and occupation do not pose a significant main effect on the Taiwanese participants' solidarity evaluations towards GAE and SSBE.

pedagogical settings (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Liou, 2010), the increasing influence of American pop culture through American soap operas or Hollywood movies (Bayard et al., 2001) both explain the widespread use and recognition of GAE. Similar to McKenzie's study in Japan (2008b: 146), the "prevalence of American Culture" might also contribute to the high rate of identification of GAE. The Taiwanese participants' high identification of TE, with which they share ethnic origin, might be the consequence of hearing their friends and families using this variety in daily life.

Except for GAE and TE, the rest of English varieties were in general not well identified (see Graph 4.1). In contrast to the South Korean study in which the British English speaker received a slightly higher correct identification rate than the American English speaker (Yook and Lindemann, 2013), the correct identification rate of the SSBE speaker was less than 50%. This outcome can probably be explained by the Taiwanese informants' lesser exposure to British English compared to American English despite standard British English being a universally taught variety (e.g., Kachru and Nelson 2006: 94; Bieswanger 2008:30). The fact that the identification rate of the IE speaker (39%) was lower than GAE and TE is in direct contrast to other Taiwanese findings, where university students recognised IE more successfully than GAE and TE (Yang, 2013). Despite AE being a variety spoken by NSs, it received the lowest rate of correct identification (Graph 4.1). This parallels a study in South Korea where Australian English was the least correctly identified variety when compared to American and British English (Yook and Lindemann, 2013). In relation to the two mainstream IC varieties of GAE and SSBE, Taiwanese participants seem to be less familiar with AE. It should be noted that the predetermined list is composed of ten different options instead of seven (see Section 3.3.3), and this should be taken into account when interpreting the general low identification of AE, JE, IE, SSBE and SE.

Graph 4.1 Taiwanese Participants' Overall Correct and Incorrect Identifications of Speakers' Origins



4.4.2 Taiwanese Participants' Identification and Misidentification Patterns of Speakers' Origins

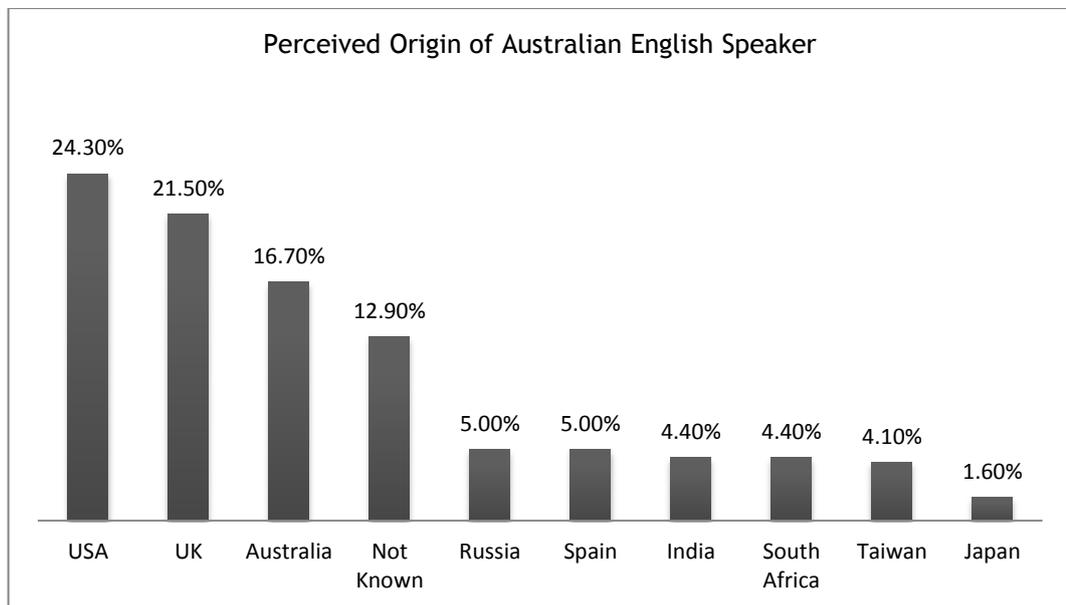
As it is likely for Taiwanese listeners who are unable to recognise the origin of a variety to misidentify it as an accent that they are more familiar with (e.g., Lindemann, 2003, 2005), the aim of this section is to investigate in what way Taiwanese participants perceive each variety to be based on the options (i.e., “Australia, India, Japan, Russia, South Africa, Spain, Taiwan, UK, USA and Not Known”) that are provided in the speaker origin identification task (see Section 3.3.3). The Taiwanese participants' detailed classifications of each speaker's variety will be discussed according to Kachru's (1992a) three-circle model.

4.4.2.1 Inner Circle Varieties

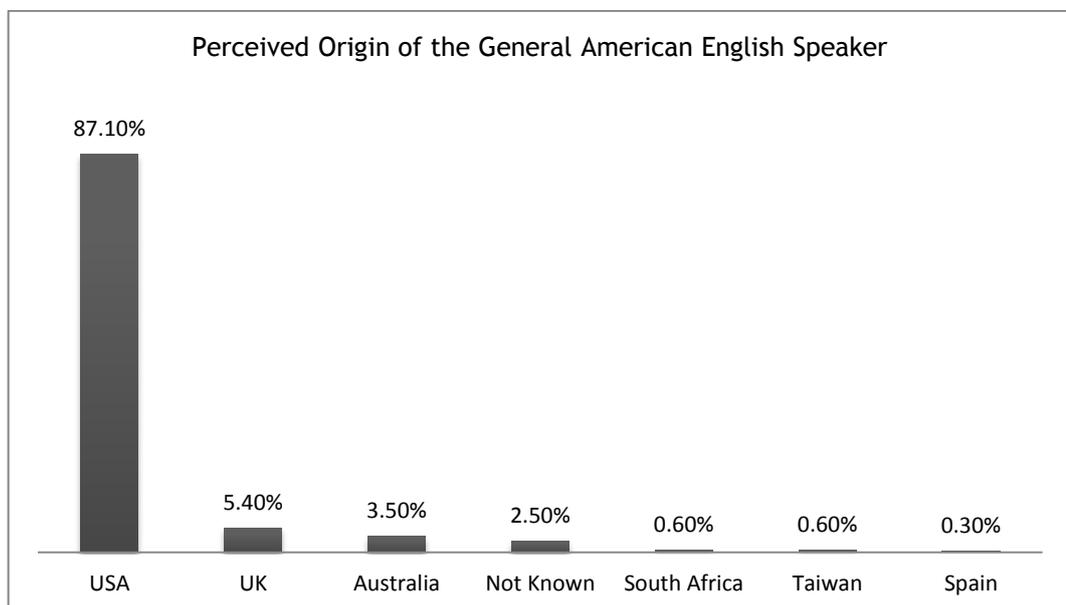
As shown in Graph 4.2, the AE speaker has been correctly identified by a relatively small number of Taiwanese participants (17% in total). In addition to AE being the least identified variety, 41.5% of the Taiwanese participants misperceived the AE speaker as coming from either the USA or the UK. This is similar to previous studies where EFL respondents often misidentify Australian English as being of either British or American origin (e.g., Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; Ladegaard, 1998; Zhang and Hu, 2008). This finding suggests that although

Taiwanese EFL speakers are confident in identifying AE as an IC variety, their ability to differentiate AE from SSBE and GAE is relatively limited.

Graph 4.2 Taiwanese Participants' Perceived Origins of AE Speaker



Graph 4.3 Taiwanese Participants' Perceived Origins of GAE Speaker

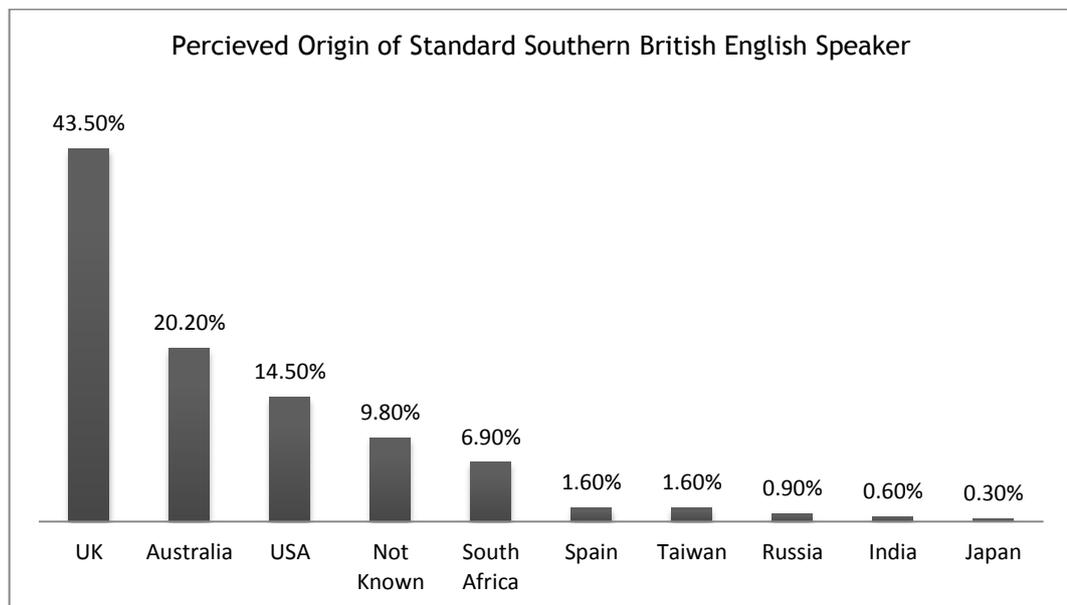


From Graph 4.3, it can be seen that the majority of Taiwanese participants (84.25%) correctly recognised the GAE speaker as coming from the USA, which suggests a well-established ability in differentiating this variety from other IC origins of the UK or Australia. The Taiwanese participants' frequent exposure to standard American English, which is often appointed as the ELT model, accounts

for the high identification rate of GAE (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Liou, 2010; Yang, 2013). Additionally, the influence of American media further contributes to the Taiwanese respondents' familiarities with GAE (Bayard et al., 2001), which leads to a high rate of accurate identification.

As for the SSBE speaker (see Graph 4.4), less than half of the Taiwanese informants (41.25%) accurately recognised him as British. The finding that 34.25% of Taiwanese participants misperceived SSBE as one of the other IC origins of either Australia or USA implies that they struggled to distinguish SSBE from AE and GAE, even though they successfully recognised SSBE as a variety spoken by NSs.

Graph 4.4 Taiwanese Participants' Perceived Origins of SSBE Speaker

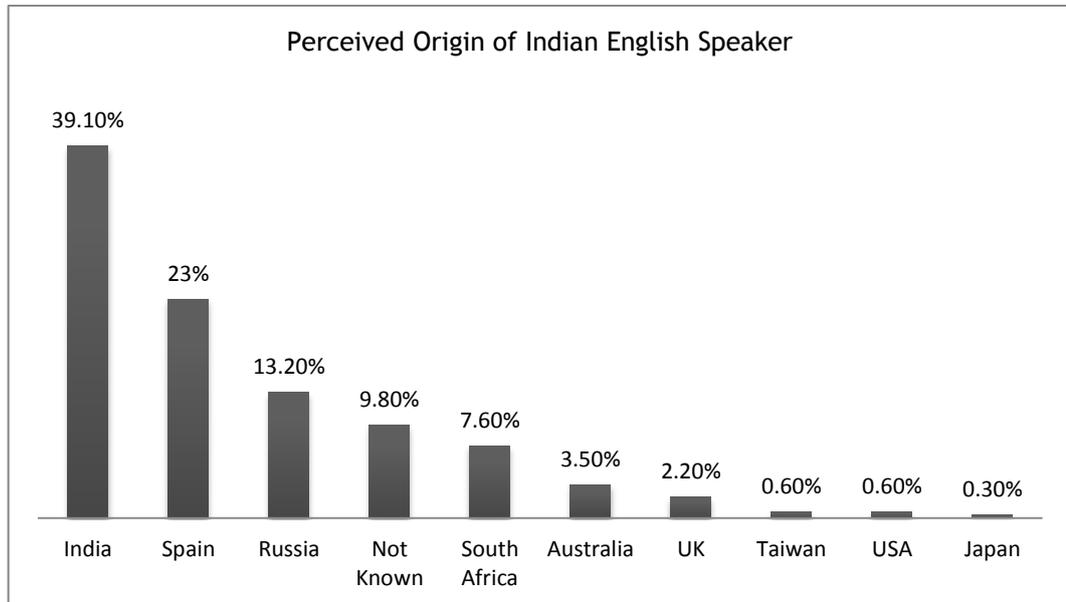


4.4.2.2 Outer Circle Varieties

As shown in Graph 4.5, 35.75% of Taiwanese participants correctly recognised that the IE speaker is from India, a higher rate than for the other varieties of NNSs such as JE and SE (see Graph 4.6 and Graph 4.7 respectively). Since 13.20% and 7.60% of Taiwanese participants inaccurately identified the IE speaker's origin as "Russia" and "South Africa" respectively, the low recognition rate of IE might be affected by the inclusion of these two "filter options" in the response list of the speaker identification task (see Section 3.3.3). Moreover, it is

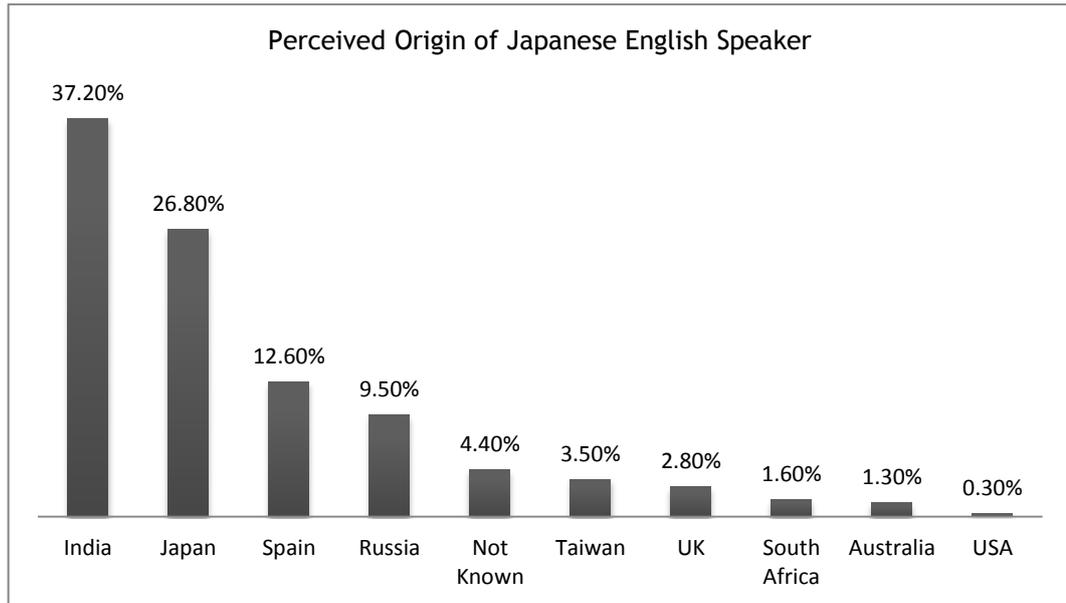
postulated that the small percentage of Taiwanese participants (6.30%) who mistakenly identified IE speaker as from one of the IC countries of Australia, UK and the USA might be a consequence of the IE speaker having been educated in English for many years.

Graph 4.5 Taiwanese Participants' Perceived Origins of IE Speaker

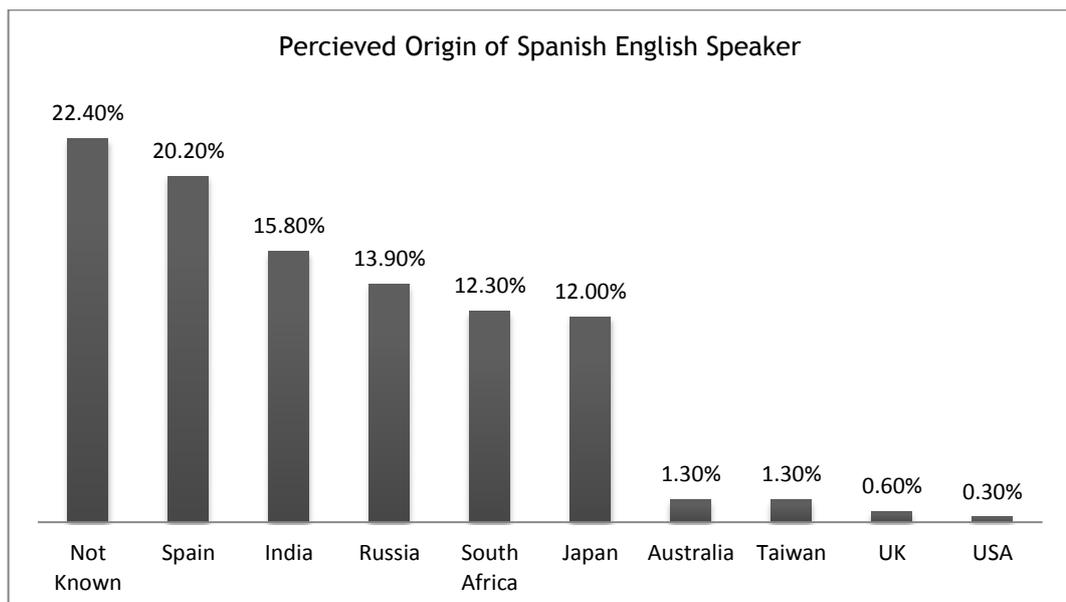


4.4.2.3 Expanding Circle Varieties

Graph 4.6 shows that the JE speaker received only 26.8% correct identification from the Taiwanese respondents. Although Japan and Taiwan interact closely in terms of trade and cultural exchange, the Taiwanese informants do not seem to be aware of JE, which is an Asian-accented speech. A high percentage of Taiwanese informants misidentified the JE speaker as being from India (35.25%) instead of Japan (26.80%). This finding indicates that although the Taiwanese participants are capable of categorising JE as a non-native origin, quite a high number of them could not identify the differences between JE and IE.

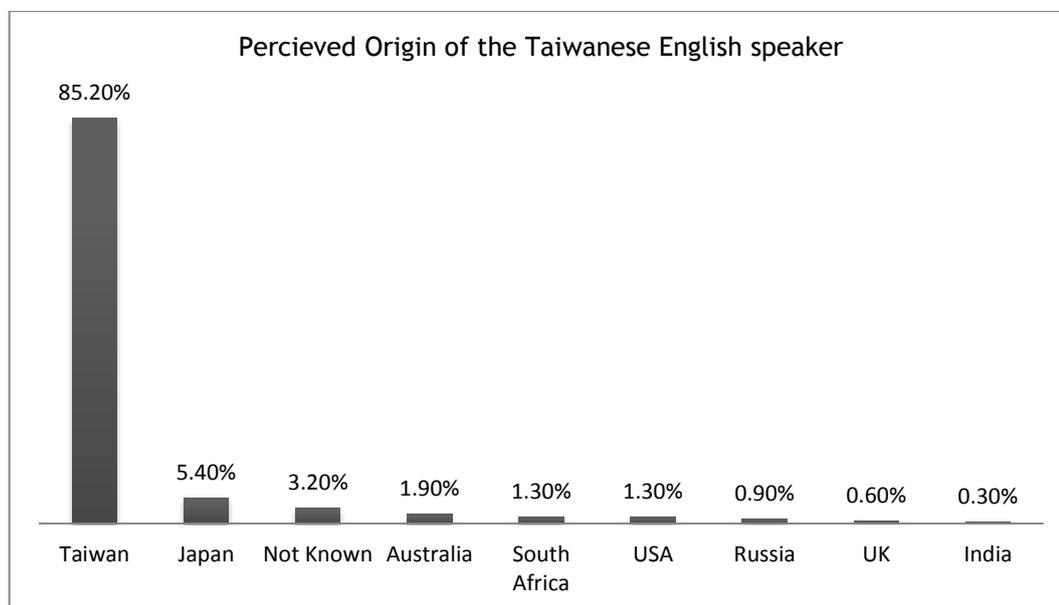
Graph 4.6 Taiwanese Participants' Perceived Origins of JE Speaker

Graph 4.7 demonstrates that less than a fifth of Taiwanese participants (18.5%) managed to identify SE. The range of responses that participants suggested for the SE speaker provenance suggests the Taiwanese informants' lack of familiarity with SE. Furthermore, SE is also the variety that received the highest percentage of "not known" responses from the Taiwanese respondents (see Graph 4.7).

Graph 4.7 Taiwanese Participants' Perceived Origins of SE Speaker

In relation to JE and SE, TE is the variety of EC receiving the highest accurate recognition rate (Graph 4.8). Since Taiwanese participants are very likely to encounter TE in daily interlocution, they are familiar with the variant.

Graph 4.8 Taiwanese Participants' Perceived Origins of TE Speaker



4.4.2.4 Summary of Taiwanese Participants' Identification and Misidentification Patterns of Speakers' Origins

In conclusion, for the IC varieties, GAE received the highest recognition rate (Graph 4.3) when in comparison to the other two IC varieties of AE (Graph 4.2) and SSBE (Graph 4.4), which is largely to do with the prevalence of standard American English in ELT and media. Furthermore, a substantial percentage of Taiwanese participants mistakenly perceived the origins of the SSBE and AE speaker as being from the USA, which shows that these listeners cannot identify SSBE and AE reliably. As for the NNSs varieties, Taiwanese participants are most familiar with TE (Graph 4.8) when compared to IE (Graph 4.5) JE (Graph 4.6) and SE (Graph 4.7). This finding generally demonstrates that the Taiwanese listeners' recognition of L2 English varieties appears to be low.

4.4.3 The Effects of Taiwanese Participants' Identification of Speakers' Origins on Evaluations

Section 2.6 discussed how correct and incorrect identification tends to mediate the way English speech is evaluated. This section aims to investigate whether

the Taiwanese participants' identification of the speakers' origins had a significant effect on their status and solidarity evaluations.

This section will firstly discuss the preliminary data of the Taiwanese participants' evaluations towards varieties of English based on accurate and inaccurate identifications of speakers' origins. Next, I discuss the one-way between groups MANOVA test (see Section 3.5.3), which was conducted seven different times for each speaker to investigate whether there are significant correlations between identification of speaker provenance and evaluations of different English varieties. For the MANOVA test, while the Taiwanese participants' status and solidarity evaluations of each English variety were the dependent variables, the identification responses of each speaker, categorised into two groups of "correct identification" and "incorrect identification", were the independent variables.

4.4.3.1 Speaker Evaluations according to Correct and Incorrect Identifications

In Table 4.55, descriptive data showed the differences of status and solidarity evaluations for each speaker according to correct and incorrect identification. Take GAE, TE and SE for example, Table 4.55 demonstrates that correctly identified speakers tend to be more highly evaluated than incorrectly identified speakers on the dimensions of both status and solidarity. No matter whether it is a variety of NSs or NNSs, it indicates that Taiwanese EFL speakers are more likely to have a positive perception of the speaker when they are familiar with and aware of his origin. Nevertheless, when the place of origin was correctly identified for the JE speaker, he constantly received lower status and solidarity evaluation from the Taiwanese participants. These findings suggest the value of conducting the MANOVA test to examine whether there is any significant correlation between positive/negative evaluations and accurate/inaccurate recognition of speaker provenance.

Table 4.55 Taiwanese Evaluations (standard deviation) of Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Correct/Incorrect Identifications (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Speaker	Recognition			
	Status		Solidarity	
	Correct	Incorrect	Correct	Incorrect
AE	3.63(1.02)	3.66(0.83)	3.69(1.06)	3.34(1.01)
JE	3.01(0.82)	3.16(0.92)	2.94(1.00)	3.25(1.05)
GAE	4.30(0.78)	4.27(0.79)	3.80(1.08)	3.40(0.80)
TE	2.91(0.76)	2.87(0.92)	3.30(1.09)	3.13(1.23)
IE	3.82(0.80)	3.81(0.81)	3.45(1.07)	3.50(1.19)
SSBE	4.26(0.84)	3.92(0.86)	3.28(1.12)	3.38(1.05)
SE	3.15(0.84)	2.98(0.85)	2.84(1.11)	2.68(1.02)

4.4.3.2 AE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.266 (i.e., $p>0.001$), which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for AE speaker status is significant ($F(1,315)=4.202$; $p=0.041<0.05$) which violated the assumption of equality of variance (the violation of the equal variance assumption does not affect the validity of the result since no significant effect of identification was found on AE speaker status evaluation) and for the AE speaker, solidarity is insignificant ($F(1,315)=1.226$; $p=0.269>0.05$), which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the Taiwanese participants' status and solidarity evaluations of AE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 4.56), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the AE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is insignificant: $F(2,314)=2.818$; $p(0.061)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.982; partial eta squared=0.018. It can be concluded that there is no significant effect of correct and incorrect identification on the Taiwanese evaluations of the AE speaker status and solidarity and therefore there is no need to examine the effect of identification on the two dependent variables separately (i.e., Taiwanese participants' status and solidarity ratings of the AE speaker).

Table 4.56 Taiwanese Evaluations of AE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

AE Speaker	Identifications	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	3.63	1.02	53
	Incorrect	3.66	0.83	264
	Total	3.65	0.86	317
Solidarity	Correct	3.69	1.06	53
	Incorrect	3.34	1.01	264
	Total	3.40	1.02	317

4.4.3.3 GAE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.078 (i.e., $p > 0.001$) which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for GAE speaker status is insignificant ($F(1,315)=0.058$; $p=0.810 > 0.05$), which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance and for the GAE speaker solidarity is significant ($F(1,315)=7.385$; $p=0.007 < 0.05$), which violated the assumption of equality of variance. (The violation of the equal variance assumption does not affect the validity of the result since no significant effect of identification was found on the GAE speaker solidarity evaluation).

Table 4.57 Taiwanese Evaluations of GAE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

GAE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	4.30	0.78	276
	Incorrect	4.27	0.79	41
	Total	4.29	0.78	317
Solidarity	Correct	3.80	1.08	276
	Incorrect	3.40	0.80	41
	Total	3.75	1.06	317

Although there were differences in the Taiwanese participants' status and solidarity evaluations of the GAE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 4.57), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the GAE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is insignificant: $F(2,314)=2.605$; $p(0.075) > 0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.984; partial eta square=0.016. It can be concluded that there is no significant effect of correct

and incorrect identification on the Taiwanese evaluations of the GAE speaker status and solidarity.

4.4.3.4 SSBE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.021 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for SSBE speaker status ($F(1,315)=0.006$; $p=0.938>0.05$) and speaker solidarity ($F(1,315)=1.742$; $p=0.188>0.05$) are both insignificant which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the Taiwanese participants' status and solidarity evaluations of the SSBE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 4.58), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the SSBE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is significant: $F(2,314)=7.225$; $p(0.001)<0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.956; partial eta squared=0.044 (which suggests a small effect). When the effects of identification on the two dependent variables of Taiwanese participants' evaluations of SSBE speaker status and solidarity were considered separately, only the difference in evaluations for the SSBE speaker status ($F(1,315)=12.646$, $p(0.000)<0.05$, partial eta squared=0.039 (which suggests a small effect) was of significant difference (Table 4.59). This suggests that those who correctly identified the SSBE speaker as British evaluated him significantly more positively than those who failed to recognise his origin.

Table 4.58 Taiwanese Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

SSBE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	4.26	0.84	138
	Incorrect	3.92	0.86	179
	Total	4.07	0.87	317
Solidarity	Correct	3.28	1.12	138
	Incorrect	3.38	1.05	179
	Total	3.34	1.08	317

Table 4.59 Test of Between-Subjects Effects for the Taiwanese Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
SSBE	Status	9.160	1	9.160	12.646	0.000	0.039
	Solidarity	0.793	1	0.793	0.678	0.411	0.002
Error	Status	228.169	315	0.724			
	Solidarity	368.677	315	1.170			

4.4.3.5 IE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as the follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.623 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for IE speaker status ($F(1,315)=0.210$; $p=0.647>0.05$) and IE speaker solidarity ($F(1,315)=1.021$; $p=0.313>0.05$) are both insignificant which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the Taiwanese participants' status and solidarity evaluations of the IE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 4.60), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the IE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is insignificant: $F(2,314)=0.122$; $p(0.885)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.999; partial eta square=0.001. It can be concluded that there was no significant effect of correct and incorrect identification on the Taiwanese evaluations of the IE speaker's status and solidarity.

Table 4.60 Taiwanese Evaluations of IE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

IE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	correct	3.82	0.80	124
	Incorrect	3.81	0.81	193
	Total	3.81	0.80	317
Solidarity	Correct	3.45	1.07	124
	Incorrect	3.50	1.19	193
	Total	3.48	1.14	317

4.4.3.6 JE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.662 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for JE speaker status ($F(1,315)=1.659$; $p=0.199>0.05$) and JE speaker solidarity ($F(1,315)=0.441$; $p=0.507>0.05$) are both insignificant which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the Taiwanese participants' status and solidarity evaluations of the JE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 4.61), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the JE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is insignificant: $F(2,314)=2.889$; $p(0.057)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.982; partial eta square=0.018. It can be concluded that there is no significant effect of correct and incorrect identification on the Taiwanese evaluations of the JE speaker status and solidarity.

Table 4.61 Taiwanese Evaluations of JE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

JE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	3.0118	0.82457	85
	Incorrect	3.1638	0.9209	232
	Total	3.123	0.89734	317
Solidarity	Correct	2.9412	1.00419	85
	Incorrect	3.2478	1.0486	232
	Total	3.1656	1.04421	317

4.4.3.7 SE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.691 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for IE speaker status ($F(1,315)=0.004$; $p=0.949>0.05$) and SE speaker solidarity ($F(1,315)=1.065$; $p=0.303>0.05$) are both insignificant which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the Taiwanese participants' status and solidarity evaluations of the SE speaker according to correct and incorrect

identification (Table 4.62), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the SE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is insignificant: $F(2,314)=1.193$; $p(0.305)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.992; partial eta square=0.008. It can be concluded that there is no significant effect of correct and incorrect identification on the Taiwanese evaluations of the SE speaker status and solidarity.

Table 4.62 Taiwanese Evaluations of SE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

SE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	3.15	0.84	64
	Incorrect	2.98	0.85	253
	Total	3.01	0.85	317
Solidarity	Correct	2.84	1.11	64
	Incorrect	2.68	1.02	253
	Total	2.71	1.04	317

4.4.3.8 TE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.154 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for TE speaker status ($F(1,315)=0.004$; $p=0.949 > 0.05$) and TE speaker solidarity ($F(1,315)=1.065$; $p=0.303>0.05$) are both insignificant which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the Taiwanese participants' status and solidarity evaluations of the TE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 4.63), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the TE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is insignificant: $F(2,314)=0.507$; $p(0.603)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.997; partial eta square=0.003. It can be concluded that there is no significant effect of correct and incorrect identification on the Taiwanese evaluations of the TE speaker status and solidarity.

Table 4.63 Taiwanese Evaluations of TE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (N=317; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

TE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	2.91	0.76	270
	Incorrect	2.87	0.92	47
	Total	2.91	0.78	317
Solidarity	Correct	3.30	1.09	270
	Incorrect	3.13	1.23	47
	Total	3.28	1.11	317

4.4.3.9 The Summary of the Effects of Taiwanese Correct and Incorrect Identifications on Speaker Evaluations

While the role of speaker identification did not demonstrate significant effects on the Taiwanese participants' evaluations of GAE, AE, IE, JE, SE, and TE, it was found that the SSBE speaker received a significantly higher status evaluation from those Taiwanese participants who correctly identified his origin. This might result from the influential power of the British Empire, which spread its culture, history and language worldwide, including Taiwan (e.g., Liao and Hu, 2016). The variety of SSBE, as a referential model in the policy that promotes the English language (e.g., Chen, 2010), through its appearance in English language textbooks (e.g., Su, 2016) and native English-speaking teachers from the UK (e.g., Tsou, 2013), is often perceived as the norm for English language instruction and acquisition in Taiwan. This is probably why those Taiwanese participants who managed to pinpoint the provenance of SSBE evaluated the speaker significantly higher on the status dimension. Therefore, it can be concluded that whether Taiwanese respondents can correctly recognise speaker origins or not generally did not have a significant effect on the relative evaluations of the different English varieties, except for the SSBE speaker on the dimension of status that is related to the high social status of standard British English in Taiwan.

4.5 The Role of World Englishes on Taiwanese Language Attitudes

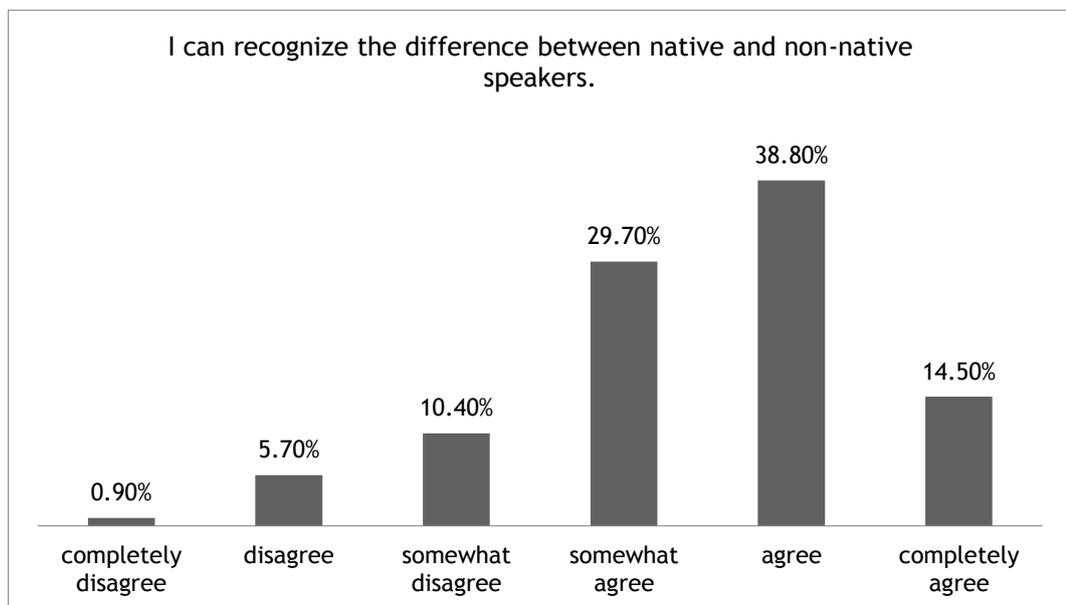
The aim of this section is to analyse the responses of the Likert scale task, which serves as a direct approach for investigating the role of WE on Taiwanese language attitudes. In answering the Likert scale questions, Taiwanese respondents were asked to indicate their degree of disagreement and agreement

from the scale of 1-6 (i.e., 1=completely disagree; 2=disagree; 3=somewhat disagree; 4=somewhat agree; 5=agree; 6=completely agree, see Section 3.3.4).

4.5.1 Likert Scale Question One

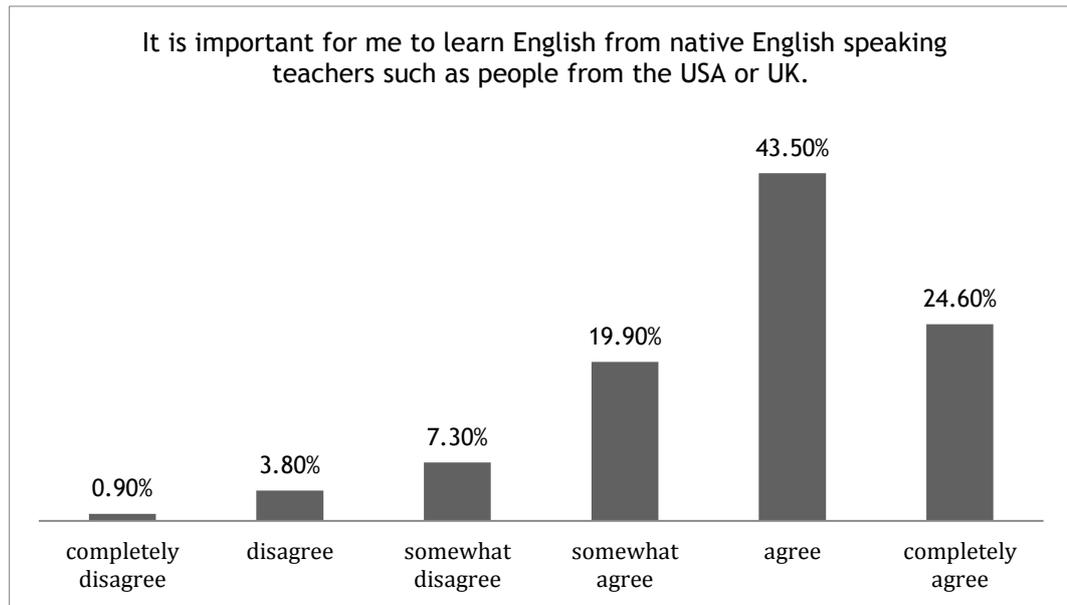
As shown in Graph 4.9, although with varying degrees of agreement, the majority of Taiwanese participants (83%) explicitly indicated that they are able to tell the difference between NNSs and NSs. This finding partially corresponds with the result of the speaker identification test, in which Taiwanese participants identified GAE and TE with a high level of accuracy and in which they had successfully categorised the majority of English varieties as of either NS or NNS origins (see Section 4.4.2).

Graph 4.9 Taiwanese Responses to the Likert Scale Question One



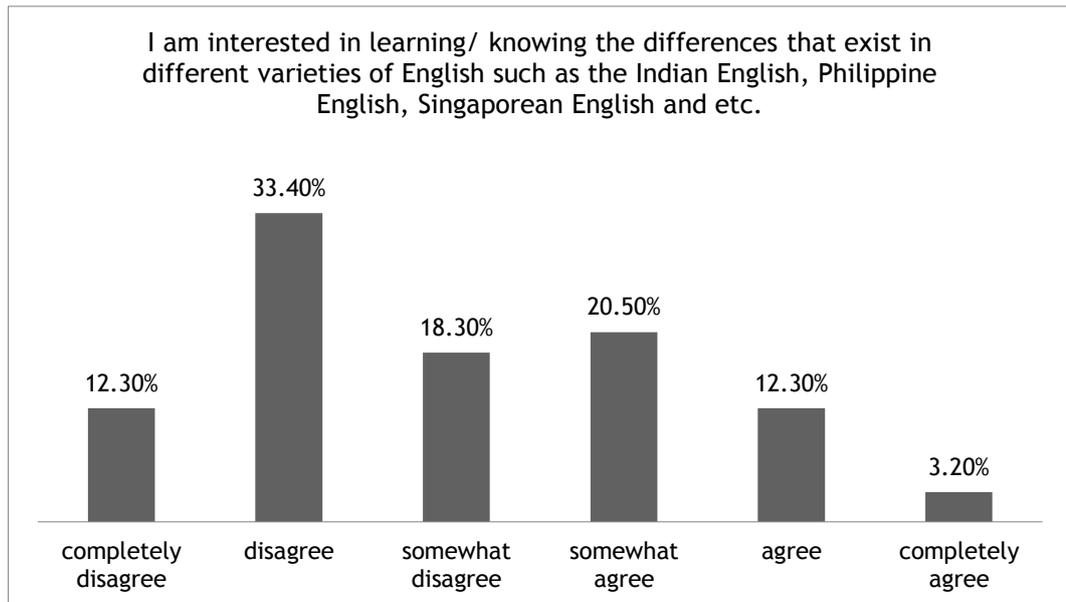
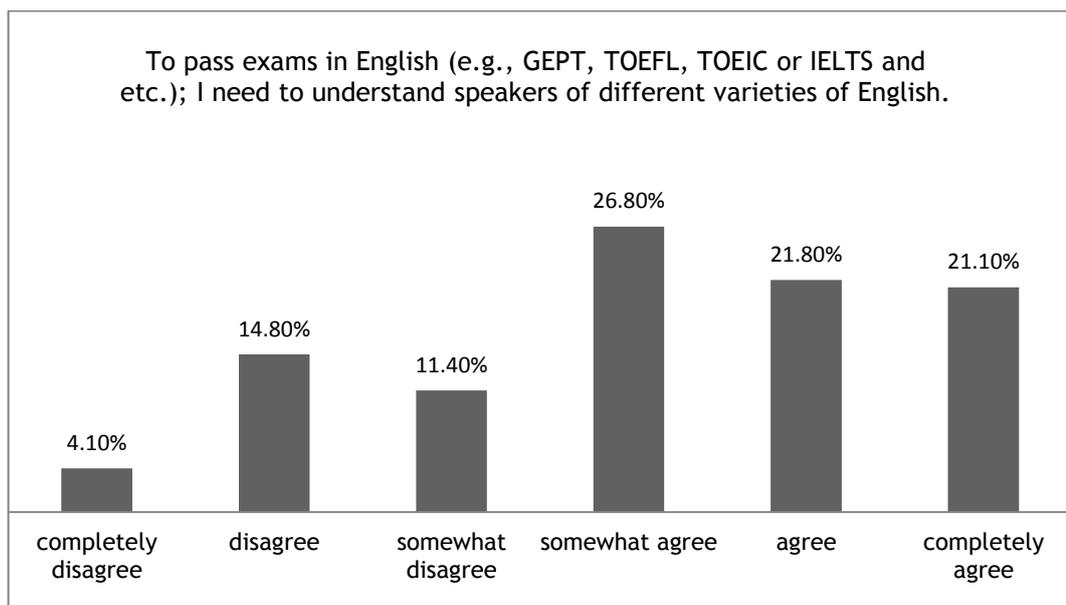
4.5.2 Likert Scale Question Two

As shown in Graph 4.10, although with varying extents of agreement, the majority of Taiwanese participants (a total of 88%) indicated their agreement with the importance of learning English from native English speaking teachers such as American or British people, which is likely to result from the biased desire to pursue a “native-like” accent. The Taiwanese finding corresponds with the conventional pan-Anglophone attitude where EFL speakers generally perceive English language teachers who are NSs as superior to NNSs (e.g., Kachru, 1992b; Brown, 1994; Jenkins, 2000).

Graph 4.10 Taiwanese Responses to the Likert Scale Question Two

4.5.3 Likert Scale Question Three

Graph 4.11 illustrates that the majority of Taiwanese participants (64% in total) indicated their disagreement in being interested to learn Asian varieties of Englishes such as the Philippines English, Singaporean English and Indian English. This finding is similar to the study of Kim (2007), in which the majority of South Korean adults expressed their disinterest in learning English varieties used in Asian countries. However, Kachru and Nelson (2006:126) maintain that the notion of IC varieties being “better” than non-IC ones is now “empirically invalid” and suggest that IC varieties need no longer be the sole standard in English acquisition. Although the Taiwanese participants expressed a general low interest in learning Asian varieties of English, Ballard (2013:49) notes that having knowledge in varieties of NNSs would promote comprehension of L2 English varieties which EFL speakers are likely to encounter in cross-cultural communications.

Graph 4.11 Taiwanese Responses to the Likert Scale Question Three**Graph 4.12 Taiwanese Responses to the Likert Scale Question Four**

4.5.4 Likert Scale Question Four

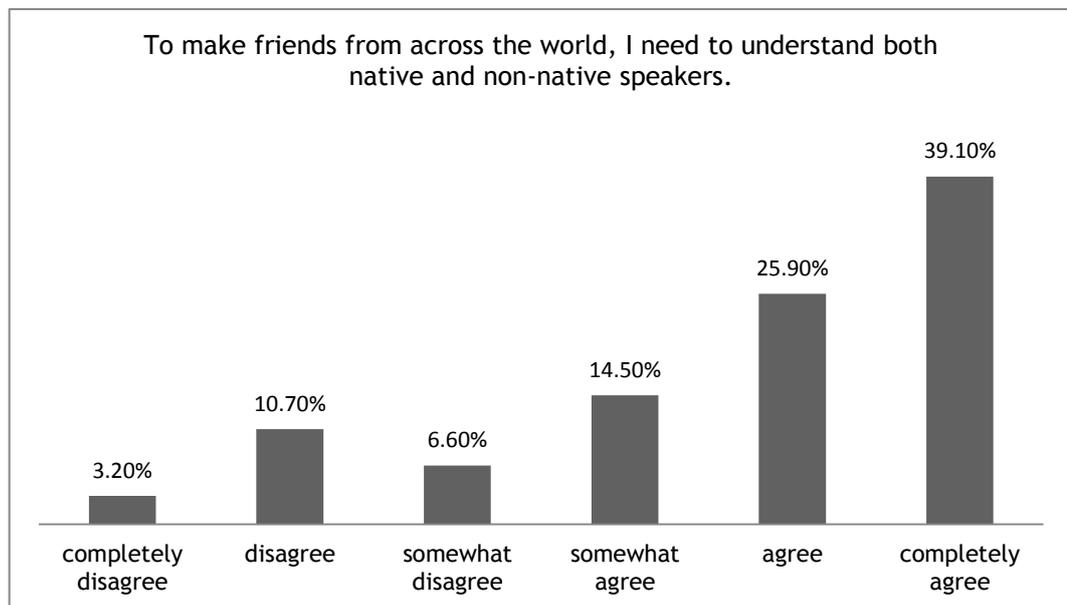
As shown in Graph 4.12, a majority (69.70%) of Taiwanese participants expressed their agreement, though with varying extents, in the necessity for them to understand varieties of NSs and NNSs in order to pass an English proficiency examination. As English language learning is often test-driven in Taiwan (Shih, 2009), this finding might be the consequence of Taiwanese people seeing passing

an exam as a means to pursue education and career advancement. To better reflect different varieties of English used in the globalised world, the listening comprehension section of some English proficiency tests such as TOEFL iBT and TOEIC has started incorporating different varieties of English (ETS, 2015a; ETS, 2015b), which further suggests the importance of learning and understanding different varieties of English.

4.5.5 Likert Scale Question Five

As shown in Graph 4.13, similar to the finding of seeing different varieties of English as important for passing tests, the majority of Taiwanese participants (79.50%) demonstrated their agreement, though with varying extents, in the necessity of understanding varieties of English to make friends across the world. The incentive of making friends has led the Taiwanese EFL speakers to acknowledge the importance of knowing both varieties of NSs and NNSs.

Graph 4.13 Taiwanese Responses to the Likert Scale Question Five



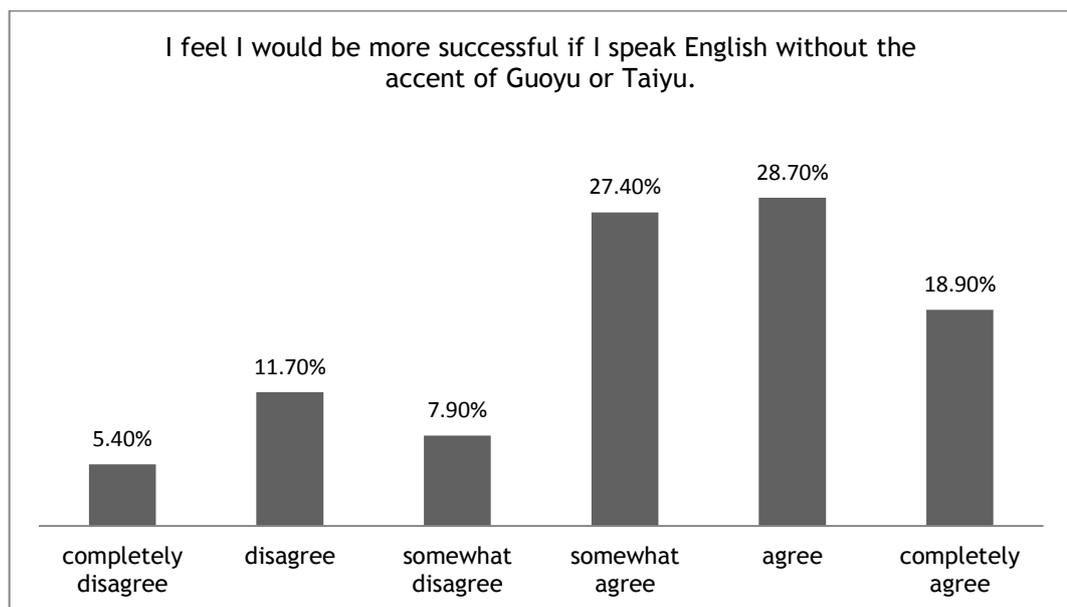
4.5.6 Likert Scale Question Six

From Graph 4.14, it can be seen that the majority of participants (75%) indicate their agreement, though with varying extents, in feeling they would be more successful if they spoke English without a Mandarin or Taiwanese accent. This finding parallels Taiwanese students' strong rejection of locally accented English in classroom contexts (Liou, 2010). In a similar vein, a study in South Korea also

demonstrated EFL participants' desire to avoid their own accents when speaking English (Rousseau, 2012:53).

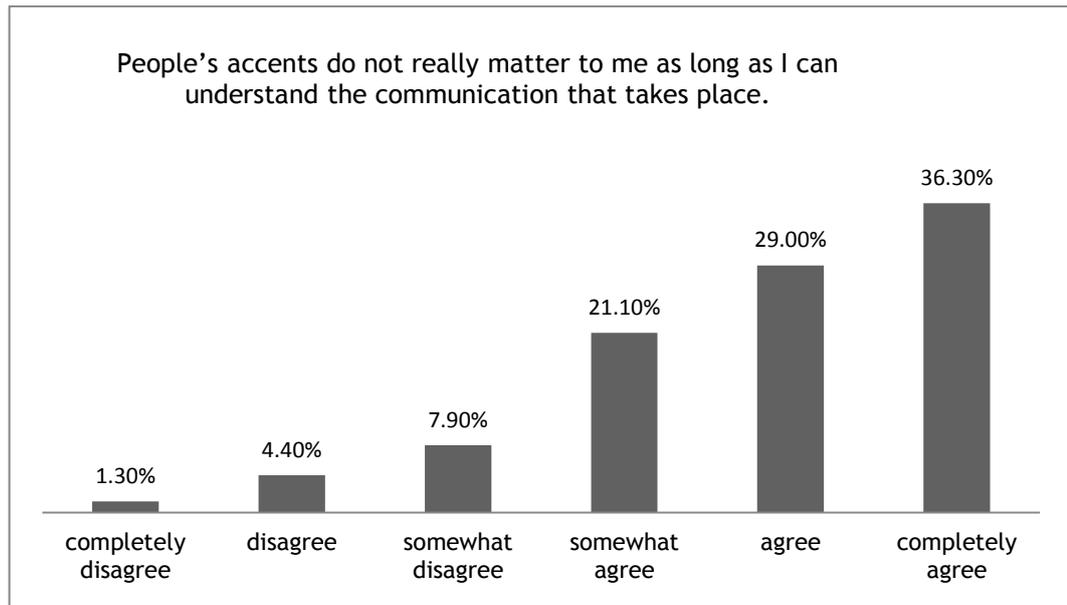
The result might serve as a possible explanation of why TE was highly recognised but seems to receive low evaluation in the VGT, as participants are likely to hold negative feelings towards speakers with the Guoyu (Modern Standard Mandarin) or Taiyu (Taiwanese Min) accents that they tend to avoid.

Graph 4.14 Taiwanese Responses to the Likert Scale Question Six



4.5.7 Likert Scale Question Seven

From Graph 4.15, it can be seen that quite a high percentage (86.40%) of Taiwanese participants indicated their agreement to the statement that one's accent does not really matter to them as long as they can understand the communication that took place. This result demonstrates that people are likely to hold two different attitudes, depending on how they have been elicited (see Section 2.2.2). In spite of the majority of the Taiwanese participants having self-reported that they do not think accents matter when their explicit attitudes are measured with the direct questioning in the Likert scale, the result of the VGT that taps into implicit attitudes, which are relatively hidden, revealed biased preferences for the standard variety of the IC, such as GAE, to those of the non-native origins, when speaker status is considered (see Section 4.1.3.1).

Graph 4.15 Taiwanese Responses to the Likert Scale Question Seven

4.5.8 Summary of the Role of World Englishes on Taiwanese Language Attitudes

In conclusion, the role of WE on Taiwanese EFL speakers' explicit attitudes towards varieties of English can be summarised as the following.

1. With regard to the Taiwanese participants' ability in identifying the origins of each speaker based on accent cues (see Section 4.4.2), the majority of the Taiwanese informants expressed explicitly that they are able to distinguish the differences between varieties of NSs and NNSs (see Section 4.5.1).
2. Moreover, the Likert scale responses showed that the majority of the Taiwanese participants explicitly endorsed IC (e.g., American and British English) rather than OC English varieties (e.g., Asian English varieties of Philippine English, Singaporean English and Indian English) as appropriate for learning English (see Section 4.5.2 and Section 4.5.3), and expressed a wish to eliminate their own accent when speaking English (see Section 4.5.6). These results reflect the Taiwanese respondents' implicit preferences for native rather than non-native English varieties in the VGT evaluations (see Section 4.1).

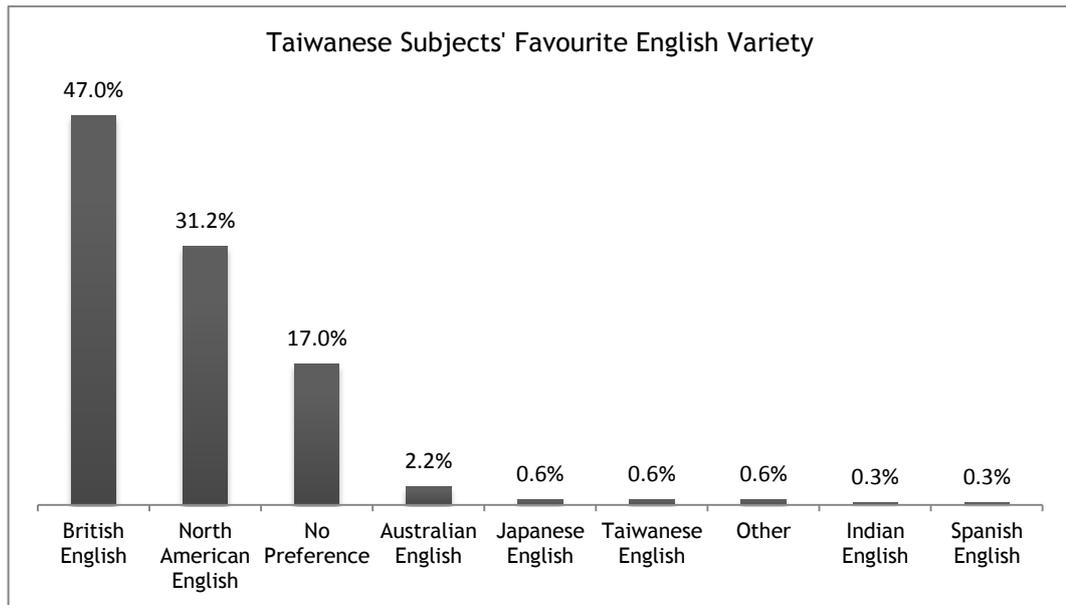
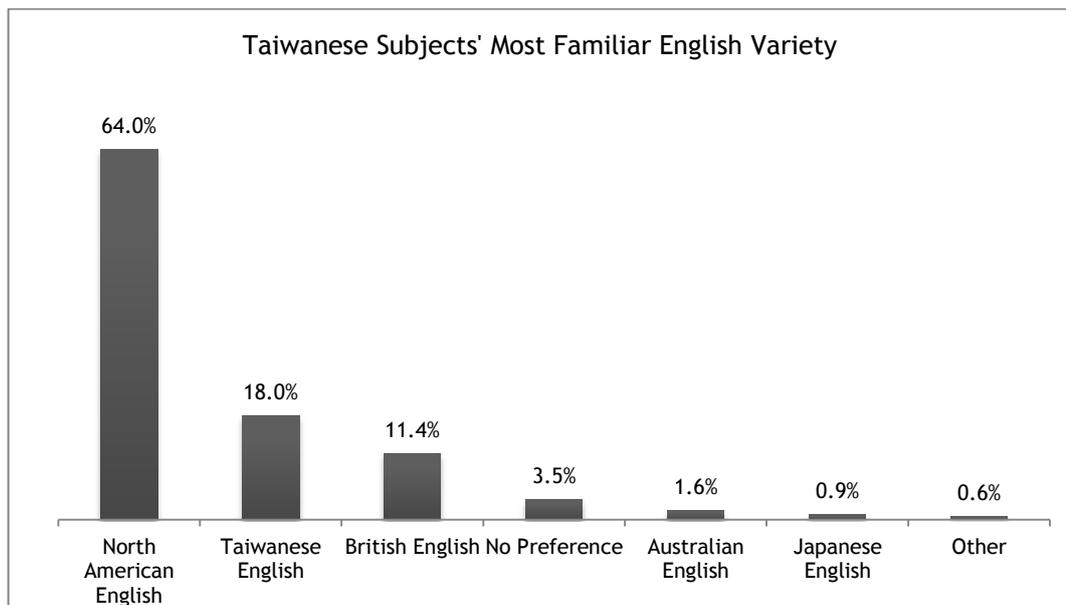
3. In consideration of the instrumental and social integration incentives, including passing exams and making friends, the majority of the Taiwanese participants explicitly agreed that understanding varieties of English is important (see Section 4.5.4, Section 4.5.5).
4. Finally, when consciously investigated, the Taiwanese informants believe that people's accents do not matter as long as communication takes places successfully (see Section 4.5.6). This finding is different from the Taiwanese EFL speakers' implicit perceptions, since the result of the VGT showed a marked difference in Taiwanese evaluations towards varieties of English (see Section 4.1)

4.6 Taiwanese Participants' Explicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English

The aim of this section is to discuss the Taiwanese participants' explicit attitudes towards varieties of English through their responses to the Multiple-Choice section (see Section 3.3.5).

4.6.1 Multiple-Choice Question One

It can be seen that most of the Taiwanese participants choose IC varieties of English as their favourite (Graph 4.16) over L2 or EFL varieties. In contrast to the result of the VGT, which shows the Taiwanese participants' overwhelming implicit preference for GAE (see Section 4.1.3), it can be seen that a higher percentage of participants demonstrated their overt preference for British English as their most favourite variety of English. Although it can be concluded that both the participants' explicit (result of Section 4.6.1) and implicit preference (result of Section 4.1.3) is for IC varieties, this finding suggests that some variation exists between the Taiwanese respondents' covert and overt preference for a certain variety.

Graph 4.16 Taiwanese Responses to the Favourite English Variety**Graph 4.17 Taiwanese Responses to the Most Familiar English Variety**

4.6.2 Multiple-Choice Question Two

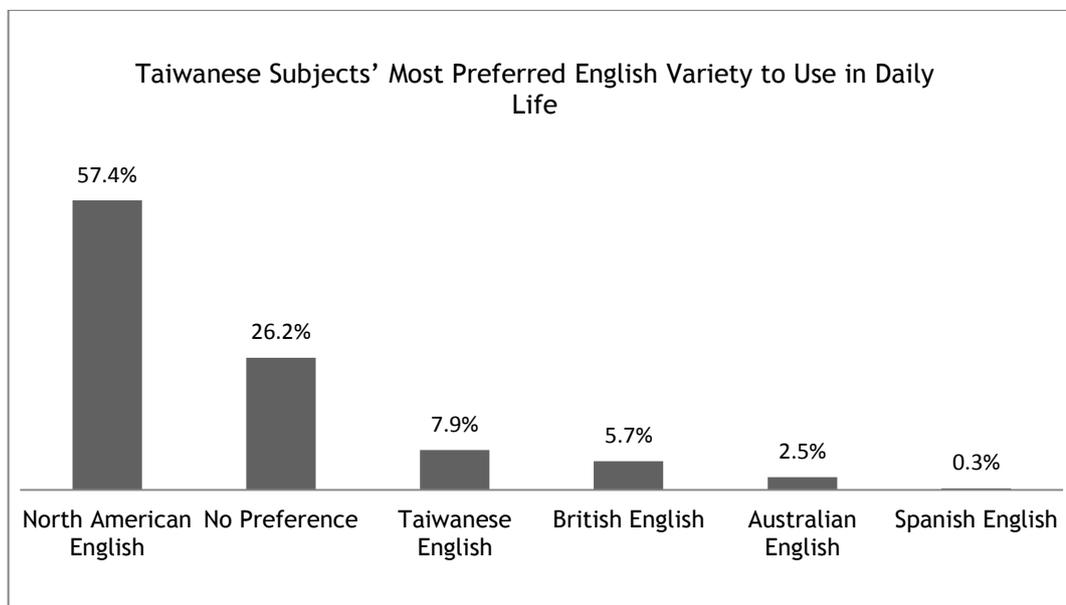
When asked explicitly, more than half of the Taiwanese informants demonstrated that North American English, followed by Taiwanese English, is the variety they are most familiar with (Graph 4.17). Thus, it is concluded that the Taiwanese respondents' explicit familiarity with American English and Taiwanese English corresponded to their ability to identify the origin of GAE and TE more

successfully than the rest of English varieties. The finding of the Taiwanese participants indicating they are most familiar with North American English and Taiwanese English is attributed to standard American English being applied as the pedagogical model and Taiwanese or Mandarin-accented English being used or spoken by the people in Taiwan.

4.6.3 Multiple-Choice Question Three

When the Taiwanese respondents were explicitly questioned, more than half of them showed their preference for North American English as the most suitable variety to be applied for daily life usage (see Graph 4.18). Although Taiwanese English might be the variant that the respondents themselves use the most, North American English is still much preferred. However, more than a quarter of the Taiwanese participants indicated they do not have a preference over a particular variety for daily life usage. This might be the result of English being predominantly used as a foreign language in Taiwan, and thus the participants do not seem to explicitly favour a certain English variety for daily communication.

Graph 4.18 Taiwanese Responses to the Most Appropriate English Variety for Daily Life Usage

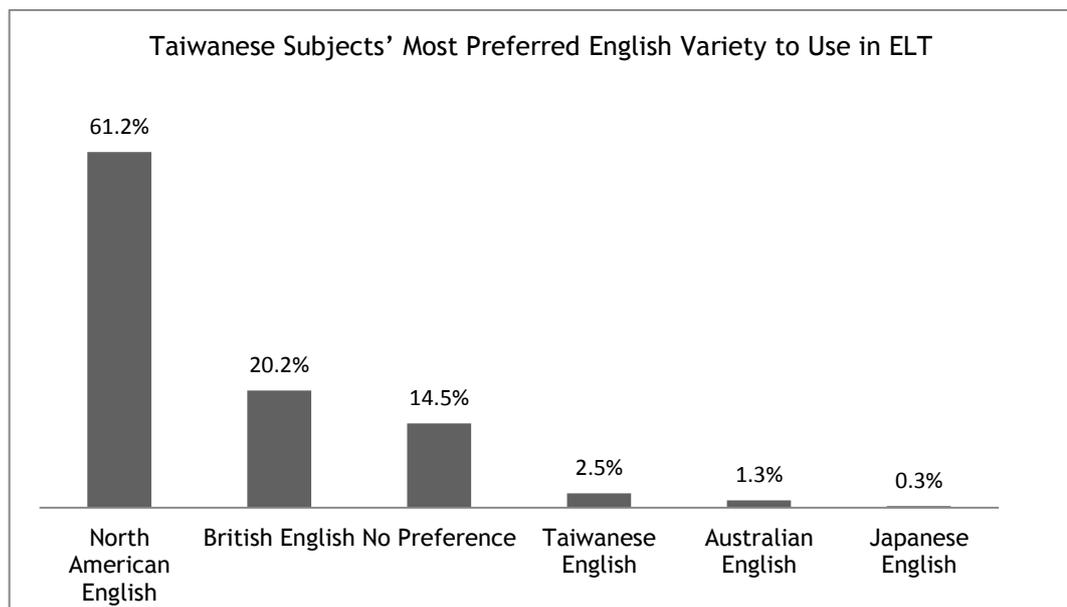


4.6.4 Multiple-Choice Question Four

From Graph 4.19, it can be seen that the majority of the Taiwanese participants perceived North American English as the most appropriate variety to be used in

learning English language, which might result from the influence of ELT in Taiwan that depends on standard American English as the norm provider (Liou, 2010). This result corresponds with Yook and Lindemann (2013: 285)'s finding that over three quarters of South Korean university students indicated their preference for learning American English when compared to other varieties such as Australian English, British English, Korean English, Indian English, Japanese English and Philippine English.

Graph 4.19 Taiwanese Responses to the Most Appropriate English Variety for Teaching and Learning Purpose



4.6.5 Summary of Taiwanese Participants' Explicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English

To sum up, while a majority of the Taiwanese participants indicated their preference for North American English for daily life usage and ELT application, quite a high number of the Taiwanese respondents indicated that their favourite English variety is British English when no specific function is considered. The finding of British English being endorsed as the favourite variety might result from the prestige and image of high culture that have been associated with standard British English. This suggests that the Taiwanese EFL speakers are not only able to recognise the provenance of the GAE speaker in the speaker identification task, they are also consciously aware that they are most familiar with this particular variety.

Chapter 5

Data Analysis: British Attitudes towards Varieties of English

5.1 The Results of the Verbal-Guise Test

This chapter aims to discuss the principal findings of the British participants' responses to the online survey. The first section of Chapter 5 reviews the British participants' overall evaluations towards varieties of English in the VGT (the most positive evaluation is 6). Next, I will describe how a PCA test was performed to extract the personality traits of the VGT into different dimensions. Finally, British listeners' status and solidarity evaluations of IC, OC and EC English speech will be addressed.

5.1.1 British Evaluations of the Seven English Varieties: All Traits

The overall mean ratings of the seven English varieties on all traits can be found in Table 5.1. In general, the results (see Table 5.1) demonstrate that British listeners tend to judge standard English varieties of the IC more favourably than the less prestigious NS variety of AE or the varieties from the OC (IE) and EC (JE, SE and TE) when all the six traits are considered together.

Table 5.1 British Evaluations of Each English Variety: All Traits (N=147; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Variety of English	Mean	Std. deviation
General American English*	4.81	0.63
Standard Southern British English	4.60	0.86
Indian English*	4.22	0.76
Australian English	4.12	0.70
Japanese English	3.64	0.79
Taiwanese English*	3.64	0.75
Spanish English	3.47	0.83

Table 5.2 Tests of Within-Subjects Effects (Greenhouse-Geisser; All traits of British Data)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F-Ratio	Partial eta squared
All traits	231.52	4.712	49.130	126.376	0.464
Residual error	267.476	688.020	0.389		

Table 5.3 Post Hoc Test: Pairwise Comparisons for Speaker (All Traits of British Data)

(I) factor1	(J) factor1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
GAE	SSBE	.587*	0.058	0.000	0.407	0.766
	IE	.209*	0.064	0.029	0.011	0.407
	AE	.684*	0.064	0.000	0.486	0.881
	JE	1.170*	0.064	0.000	0.971	1.368
	TE	1.336*	0.074	0.000	1.108	1.564
	SE	1.162*	0.068	0.000	0.953	1.372
SSBE	GAE	-.587*	0.058	0.000	-0.766	-0.407
	IE	-.378*	0.076	0.000	-0.611	-0.144
	AE	0.097	0.065	1.000	-0.103	0.297
	JE	.583*	0.072	0.000	0.361	0.806
	TE	.750*	0.078	0.000	0.510	0.990
	SE	.576*	0.067	0.000	0.368	0.784
IE	GAE	-.209*	0.064	0.029	-0.407	-0.011
	SSBE	.378*	0.076	0.000	0.144	0.611
	AE	.475*	0.068	0.000	0.266	0.684
	JE	.961*	0.065	0.000	0.759	1.164
	TE	1.127*	0.066	0.000	0.923	1.332
	SE	.954*	0.060	0.000	0.769	1.138
AE	GAE	-.684*	0.064	0.000	-0.881	-0.486
	SSBE	-0.097	0.065	1.000	-0.297	0.103
	IE	-.475*	0.068	0.000	-0.684	-0.266
	JE	.486*	0.057	0.000	0.308	0.663
	TE	.652*	0.068	0.000	0.443	0.861
	SE	.478*	0.063	0.000	0.283	0.674
JE	GAE	-1.170*	0.064	0.000	-1.368	-0.971
	SSBE	-.583*	0.072	0.000	-0.806	-0.361
	IE	-.961*	0.065	0.000	-1.164	-0.759
	AE	-.486*	0.057	0.000	-0.663	-0.308
	TE	.166*	0.050	0.022	0.013	0.320
	SE	-0.008	0.050	1.000	-0.161	0.146
TE	GAE	-1.336*	0.074	0.000	-1.564	-1.108
	SSBE	-.750*	0.078	0.000	-0.990	-0.510
	IE	-1.127*	0.066	0.000	-1.332	-0.923
	AE	-.652*	0.068	0.000	-0.861	-0.443
	JE	-.166*	0.050	0.022	-0.320	-0.013
	SE	-.174*	0.048	0.009	-0.323	-0.025
SE	GAE	-1.162*	0.068	0.000	-1.372	-0.953
	SSBE	-.576*	0.067	0.000	-0.784	-0.368
	IE	-.954*	0.060	0.000	-1.138	-0.769
	AE	-.478*	0.063	0.000	-0.674	-0.283
	JE	0.008	0.050	1.000	-0.146	0.161
	TE	.174*	0.048	0.009	0.025	0.323

Based on estimated marginal means
*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

In correspondence to the Taiwanese data (Section 4.1.1), a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to investigate whether the British respondents' evaluations of the seven English varieties were significantly different. The significance value of Mauchly's Test=0.000, and so, Greenhouse-Geisser was assumed (Section 4.4.2.1). The results of the ANOVA test indicate significant differences in the British informants' ratings of the seven English varieties: $F(5, 126) = 231.525, p < 0.05$; partial eta square=0.464 (Table 5.2). The post hoc test in Table 5.3 (with Bonferroni correction) revealed that there are three distinct varieties, GAE, IE, TE (marked with * in Table 5.1). GAE is rated distinctly higher than the rest of the varieties. SSBE is rated significantly higher than IE, JE, TE, SE but not AE. IE is rated distinctly higher than AE and the three EC varieties. AE is rated significantly higher than the three EC varieties of JE, TE and SE. For the three EC varieties, significant mean differences exist between JE and TE, TE and SE but not JE and SE.

5.1.2 Principal Component Analysis: The Reduction of the British Data

Next, PCA was employed to determine whether the British participants' evaluations of the traits of the VGT clustered into different dimensions.

The British data were firstly examined to see whether it is suitable to apply PCA (see Section 3.5.4). To begin with, the correlation matrix showed the presence of a good number of coefficients above the value of 0.3 (Table 5.4). Secondly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was 0.815, which indicates the adequacy of the sample size (Field, 2005:648). Moreover, the value of the Bartlett's Test reached statistical significance ($p=0.000 < 0.05$), which suggests that PCA can display which traits are significantly related with one another (Zhang, 2010:143).

Table 5.4 The Communalities of the Six Traits for British Data (Extracted Method: Principal Component Analysis)

Traits	Initial	Extraction
confident	1	0.813
intelligent	1	0.903
educated	1	0.888
authoritative	1	0.795
friendly	1	0.842
lively	1	0.881

With eigenvalues greater than 0.7 (Joliffe, 1972, 1986 cited in Field, 2005:633), the loading of the six traits on the two components indicates that most variance occurred within two principal factors and explains 71% and 15% of the variance respectively (Table 5.5). It is noted that the PCA result of the British data demonstrated very high total loadings of variances (86%), with the first factor (71%) accounting for a much higher loading than the second one (15%)²⁸.

An inspection of the scree plot (Catell, 1966) further revealed a clear break following the second component and thus the two components are retained (Figure 5.1). Additionally, Table 5.6 (loadings less than 0.5 are not listed) demonstrates that while the traits “confident”, “intelligent”, “educated” and “authoritative” indicated a commonality among the “status” group (component1), the traits “friendly” and “lively” are closely allied to the “solidarity” group (component2).

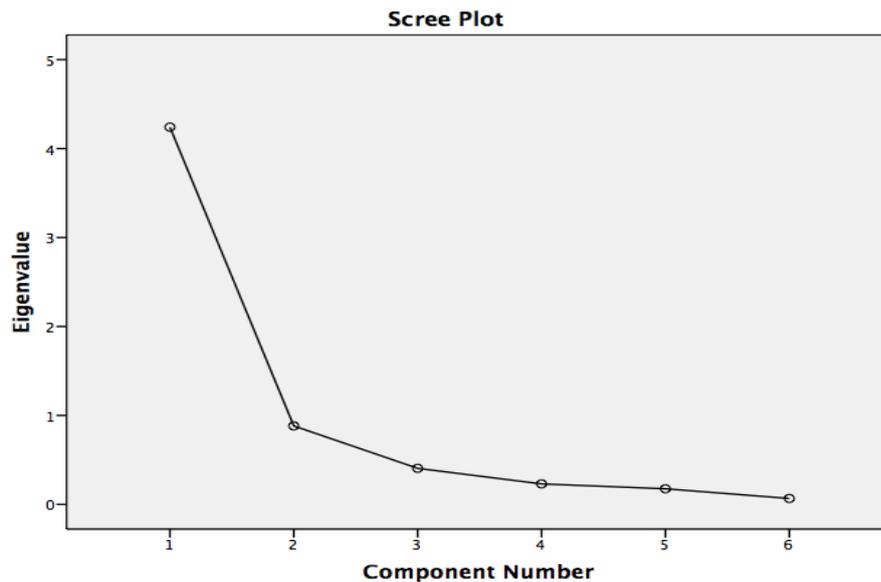
Table 5.5 Distribution of the Total Variance Explained for British Data

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.241	70.680	70.680	4.241	70.680	70.680
2	0.882	14.699	85.379	0.882	14.699	85.379
3	0.405	6.755	92.134			
4	0.230	3.836	95.970			
5	0.175	2.924	98.894			
6	0.066	1.106	100			
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

Table 5.6 The Varimax Rotated Component Matrix of the British Data: All Traits

Traits	Component 1 (Status 71%)	Component 2 (Solidarity 15%)
confident	0.856	
intelligent	0.898	
educated	0.916	
authoritative	0.736	
friendly		0.872
lively		0.895

²⁸ Please see section 4.1.2 for a more detailed discussion of the high total loadings of variances in the PCA result of the Taiwanese data.

Figure 5.1 Scree Plot of Principal Components Analysis for British Data

To sum up, the outcome of the PCA indicated the existence of two distinctive dimensions of status and solidarity, which is similar to the results of previous studies conducted in the British context (e.g., Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007). This finding further influenced the following analysis when examining the British participants' evaluations of different English varieties according to speaker status and solidarity.

5.1.3 British Evaluations of the Seven English Varieties: Analysis According to Speaker Status and Solidarity

5.1.3.1 Speaker Status

From the rankings of the status evaluations of the seven English varieties, British respondents tend to endorse IC varieties (GAE, SSBE, AE) more than the less prestigious EC varieties (JE, SE and TE) in terms of speaker status (Table 5.7).

Next, to examine whether significant differences existed in British evaluations of the seven English varieties on the status dimension, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was undertaken. The significance value of Mauchly's Test=0.000, and therefore, Greenhouse-Geisser was assumed (Section 3.5.2.1). The main results of the ANOVA indicated that there were significant differences between the British informants' status ratings towards the seven English varieties: $F(5,664)=142.817$, $p<0.05$; partial eta square =0.494 (Table 5.8). The

post hoc test in Table 5.9 (with Bonferroni correction) revealed that there are two distinct varieties, GAE, AE (marked with * in Table 5.7). GAE is rated significantly higher than the rest of the varieties. IE and SSBE are evaluated the same statistically. IE and SSBE are rated significantly higher than AE, SE, JE, TE. AE is rated significantly higher than SE, JE and TE. For the three EC varieties, significant mean differences do not exist between SE and JE, JE and TE, but do exist between SE and TE.

Table 5.7 British Evaluations of Each English Variety: Speaker Status (N=147; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Status (Confident & Intelligent & Educated & Authoritative)		
Variety of English	Mean	Std. Deviation
General American English*	5.03	0.69
Indian English	4.78	0.93
Standard Southern British English	4.74	0.83
Australian English*	4.16	0.78
Spanish English	3.80	0.89
Japanese English	3.65	0.88
Taiwanese English	3.49	0.95

Table 5.8 Tests of Within-Subjects Effects (Greenhouse-Geisser; Status Traits of British Data)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F-Ratio	Partial eta squared
All traits	333.409	5	73.299	142.817	0.494
residual error	340.841	664	0.513		

The following points summarise the findings of British evaluations towards varieties of English with respect to speaker status:

1. British participants rated standard varieties of the IC-GAE the most positively. This finding is similar to the study of Giles (1970:221), which maintained that British students' positive reactions to North American accents might result from the connotation of "famous cinema stars, power, technological and space age achievements".

Table 5.9 Post Hoc Test: Pairwise Comparisons for Speaker (Status Traits of British Data)

(I) factor1	(J) factor1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
GAE	IE	.247*	0.066	0.006	0.043	0.451
	SSBE	.291*	0.062	0.000	0.098	0.484
	AE	.871*	0.064	0.000	0.672	1.069
	SE	1.228*	0.072	0.000	1.005	1.45
	JE	1.378*	0.076	0.000	1.143	1.612
	TE	1.536*	0.083	0.000	1.279	1.793
IE	GAE	-.247*	0.066	0.006	-0.451	-0.043
	SSBE	0.044	0.081	1.000	-0.207	0.296
	AE	.624*	0.072	0.000	0.402	0.846
	SE	.981*	0.060	0.000	0.796	1.166
	JE	1.131*	0.072	0.000	0.908	1.354
	TE	1.289*	0.077	0.000	1.052	1.526
SSBE	GAE	-.291*	0.062	0.000	-0.484	-0.098
	IE	-0.044	0.081	1.000	-0.296	0.207
	AE	.580*	0.080	0.000	0.332	0.827
	SE	.937*	0.081	0.000	0.688	1.187
	JE	1.087*	0.088	0.000	0.815	1.358
	TE	1.245*	0.090	0.000	0.966	1.524
AE	GAE	-.871*	0.064	0.000	-1.069	-0.672
	IE	-.624*	0.072	0.000	-0.846	-0.402
	SSBE	-.580*	0.080	0.000	-0.827	-0.332
	SE	.357*	0.071	0.000	0.138	0.577
	JE	.507*	0.067	0.000	0.298	0.715
	TE	.665*	0.075	0.000	0.432	0.898
SE	GAE	-1.228*	0.072	0.000	-1.45	-1.005
	IE	-.981*	0.060	0.000	-1.166	-0.796
	SSBE	-.937*	0.081	0.000	-1.187	-0.688
	AE	-.357*	0.071	0.000	-0.577	-0.138
	JE	0.150	0.059	0.271	-0.034	0.333
	TE	.308*	0.057	0.000	0.132	0.484
JE	GAE	-1.378*	0.076	0.000	-1.612	-1.143
	IE	-1.131*	0.072	0.000	-1.354	-0.908
	SSBE	-1.087*	0.088	0.000	-1.358	-0.815
	AE	-.507*	0.067	0.000	-0.715	-0.298
	SE	-0.150	0.059	0.271	-0.333	0.034
	TE	0.158	0.061	0.224	-0.031	0.347
TE	GAE	-1.536*	0.083	0.000	-1.793	-1.279
	IE	-1.289*	0.077	0.000	-1.526	-1.052
	SSBE	-1.245*	0.090	0.000	-1.524	-0.966
	AE	-.665*	0.075	0.000	-0.898	-0.432
	SE	-.308*	0.057	0.000	-0.484	-0.132
	JE	-0.158	0.061	0.224	-0.347	0.031

Based on estimated marginal means
*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

2. Moreover, the OC variety of IE is statistically evaluated the same as the prestigious IC variety of SSBE. The high evaluation of IE corresponds to the finding of Giles (1970), which demonstrated that West Indian and Indian accents were perceived more favourably than the British regional dialects of the Birmingham accent across status traits.
3. Compared to the standard native varieties of GAE and SSBE and the non-native variety of IE, the reason why AE received a significantly lower rating is probably due to the perception of AE as the less standard variety of the IC (Jenkins, 2007:150). The EC varieties (JE, SE, TE) were the most negatively rated group with the non-native European variety (SE) being evaluated higher than the Asian variety of TE.

5.1.3.2 Speaker Solidarity

From the rankings of the solidarity evaluations of the seven English varieties, British participants considered the varieties of IC (GAE, AE) and OC (IE) as more socially attractive than the speech of EC (TE, JE and SE) and IC (SSBE) (Table 5.10).

Table 5.10 British Evaluations of Each English Variety: Speaker Solidarity (N=147; 1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Solidarity (Friendly & Lively)		
Variety of English	Mean	Std. Deviation
General American English	4.35	0.85
Indian English	4.22	1.04
Australian English	4.04	0.86
Japanese English	3.60	0.76
Taiwanese English	3.42	0.88
Spanish English	3.32	0.96
Standard Southern British English	3.18	1.18

Table 5.11 Tests of Within-Subjects Effects (Greenhouse-Geisser; Solidarity Traits of British Data)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F-Ratio	Partial eta squared
All traits	193.264	5	37.829	52.258	0.264
Residual error	539.950	746	0.724		

Table 5.12 Post Hoc Test: Pairwise Comparisons for Speaker (Solidarity Traits of British Data)

(I) factor1	(J) factor1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
GAE	IE	0.133	0.097	1.000	-0.169	0.434
	AE	.310*	0.090	0.015	0.032	0.587
	JE	.755*	0.083	0.000	0.498	1.012
	TE	.935*	0.092	0.000	0.652	1.219
	SE	1.031*	0.097	0.000	0.732	1.329
	SSBE	1.177*	0.103	0.000	0.859	1.494
IE	GAE	-0.133	0.097	1.000	-0.434	0.169
	AE	0.177	0.097	1.000	-0.123	0.477
	JE	.622*	0.090	0.000	0.344	0.901
	TE	.803*	0.089	0.000	0.526	1.079
	SE	.898*	0.104	0.000	0.575	1.221
	SSBE	1.044*	0.117	0.000	0.683	1.406
AE	GAE	-.310*	0.090	0.015	-0.587	-0.032
	IE	-0.177	0.097	1.000	-0.477	0.123
	JE	.446*	0.080	0.000	0.197	0.694
	TE	.6260*	0.084	0.000	0.366	0.886
	SE	.721*	0.084	0.000	0.460	0.982
	SSBE	.867*	0.101	0.000	0.556	1.179
JE	GAE	-.755*	0.083	0.000	-1.012	-0.498
	IE	-.622*	0.090	0.000	-0.901	-0.344
	AE	-.446*	0.080	0.000	-0.694	-0.197
	TE	0.180	0.061	0.077	-0.008	0.369
	SE	.276*	0.076	0.008	0.041	0.510
	SSBE	.422*	0.093	0.000	0.136	0.708
TE	GAE	-.935*	0.092	0.000	-1.219	-0.652
	IE	-.803*	0.089	0.000	-1.079	-0.526
	AE	-.626*	0.084	0.000	-0.886	-0.366
	JE	-0.180	0.061	0.077	-0.369	0.008
	SE	0.095	0.077	1.000	-0.141	0.332
	SSBE	0.241	0.101	0.386	-0.072	0.555
SE	GAE	-1.031*	0.097	0.000	-1.329	-0.732
	IE	-.898*	0.104	0.000	-1.221	-0.575
	AE	-.721*	0.084	0.000	-0.982	-0.460
	JE	-.276*	0.076	0.008	-0.510	-0.041
	TE	-0.095	0.077	1.000	-0.332	0.141
	SSBE	0.146	0.091	1.000	-0.136	0.428
SSBE	GAE	-1.177*	0.103	0.000	-1.494	-0.859
	IE	-1.044*	0.117	0.000	-1.406	-0.683
	AE	-.867*	0.101	0.000	-1.179	-0.556
	JE	-.422*	0.093	0.000	-0.708	-0.136
	TE	-0.241	0.101	0.386	-0.555	0.072
	SE	-0.146	0.091	1.000	-0.428	0.136

Based on estimated marginal means
 *. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
 b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

A one-way repeated measures ANOVA test will be conducted to examine the probability of whether any of the British participants' attitudinal differences are statistically significant when speaker solidarity is concerned. The value of Mauchly's Test=0.000, and therefore, Greenhouse-Geisser is assumed. The main ANOVA results indicated that there were significant differences between the British informants' solidarity ratings of the speakers: $F(5,46)=52.258$, $p<0.05$; partial eta square =0.264 (Table 5.11). The post hoc test in Table 5.12 (with Bonferroni correction) revealed that GAE is rated significantly higher than AE, JE, TE, SE, SSBE. Significant mean differences exist between GAE and AE, but not GAE and IE, or IE and AE. Both IE and AE are evaluated distinctly higher than the three EC varieties (i.e., JE, TE, SE) and the IC variety of SSBE. There are no significant differences in the evaluations between JE and TE, TE and SE, TE and SSBE, SE and SSBE. Moreover, JE is evaluated significantly higher than SE and SSBE.

With regards to speaker solidarity, the British participants' evaluations towards varieties of English can be summarised as the following:

1. While GAE is evaluated statistically the same as IE, GAE is rated significantly higher than AE, which has been considered the less mainstream variety of the IC on the solidarity dimension by British participants.
2. In comparison to the three IC varieties, IE is evaluated statistically the same as GAE and AE, but significantly higher than SSBE across solidarity traits. The finding of AE being rated significantly higher than SSBE, which is a traditionally prestigious variety for British participants on the solidarity perspective corresponds to previous studies (e.g., Giles, 1970; Bayard et al., 2001; Hiraga 2005), which found that non-standard varieties are sometimes preferred to standard varieties when solidarity is concerned.
3. When compared to the three EC varieties, the standard IC variety of SSBE is evaluated the same as SE and TE, but significantly lower than JE statistically on the solidarity dimension. This shows those British

participants' solidarity evaluations towards different non-native varieties might vary depending on their ethnic or geographical origins.

4. The statistically lower rating of SSBE than GAE, IE, AE, and JE further implies that when the British participants are evaluating the accent with which they share a similar native language, the marker of self-identity does not seem to have an effect.

5.1.3.3 Summary of British Evaluations of the Seven English Varieties: Speaker Status and Solidarity

In summary, the British participants preferred GAE on both status and solidarity dimensions. In general, British listeners favoured the IC varieties of GAE and AE over the EC varieties of JE, SE and TE across status and solidarity. Nevertheless, they demonstrated attitude variations according to the two evaluative traits, which implies a need to examine British evaluations towards different English speech according to the distinctive dimensions of status and solidarity. For example, while SSBE was evaluated quite positively on account of speaker status, SSBE was not associated with much social attractiveness when speaker solidarity was considered.

5.2 The Main Effects of British Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

This section addresses the effect of social variables (gender, occupation, self-perceived level of accent) on the British listeners' evaluations of the seven English varieties by applying a one-way between-groups MANOVA test. For the MANOVA test, the independent variables are the social variables of gender (female and male), occupation (student and worker) and self-perceived level of English accent (no accent and accented). The dependent variables are the British participants' status and solidarity ratings for the seven speakers.

5.2.1 The Main Effects of Gender on British Evaluations

In reference to section 2.8.1 that discussed how gender differences of the listener-subjects affect speakers' evaluations, this section will investigate whether male and female British respondents judge varieties of English

differently. The distribution of the British participants according to gender is presented in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Distributions of British Participants: Female and Male

Gender	N	Percentage
Female	113	77%
Male	34	23%
Total	147	100%

5.2.1.1 Speaker Status

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.049 (i.e., $p > 0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's test for equality of variance for all seven speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicated the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. Although there were some differences between the status evaluations for the seven speakers by the two groups of female and male (see Table 5.14), the results of the MANOVA test demonstrated that there was no significant main effect of gender on evaluations of speaker status: $F(7, 139) = 0.968$, $p(0.457) > 0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.954; partial eta squared=0.046 (i.e., a small effect). As no significant overall effect was found, there was no need to apply further analyses to each individual speaker.

Table 5.14 British Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Status According to Gender (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Female		Male	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
GAE	5.08(0.66)	GAE	4.88(0.77)
IE	4.86(0.94)	SSBE	4.65(0.83)
SSBE	4.77(0.83)	IE	4.54(0.90)
AE	4.25(0.79)	AE	3.88(0.67)
SE	3.85(0.95)	SE	3.63(0.65)
JE	3.72(0.87)	JE	3.44(0.92)
TE	3.56(0.99)	TE	3.27(0.80)

5.2.1.2 Speaker Solidarity

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.021 and the probability associated with Levene's test for equality of variance for all seven

speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicated the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. Although there were some differences between the solidarity evaluations of the two groups of female and male of the seven speakers (Table 5.15), no significant effect of gender was found on evaluations of speaker solidarity in the MANOVA test: $F(7,139)=0.738$, $p(0.640)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.964; partial eta squared=0.036.

Table 5.15 British Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Solidarity According to Gender (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Female		Male	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
GAE	4.39(0.82)	GAE	4.22(0.95)
IE	4.30(1.02)	IE	3.96(1.09)
AE	4.09(0.86)	AE	3.88(0.84)
JE	3.63(0.71)	JE	3.49(0.92)
TE	3.43(0.91)	TE	3.37(0.81)
SE	3.35(1.01)	SE	3.25(0.79)
SSBE	3.18(1.23)	SSBE	3.18(0.98)

5.2.1.3 Conclusion of the Main Effects of Gender on British Evaluations

From Table 5.14 and Table 5.15, it can be seen that British female and male respondents did make different evaluations in their ratings of varieties of English. For example, while female British listeners preferred IE to SSBE, male British respondents evaluated SSBE more highly than IE when speaker status is concerned (Table 5.14). This is in contrast to the belief that female participants are likely to favour varieties associated with high status more than male counterparts (e.g., Trudgill, 1974; Starks and Paltridge, 1996). Nevertheless, MANOVA tests demonstrated that there were no significant differences between the British male and female evaluations of the speakers of the seven different varieties of English on both status and solidarity dimensions. This finding is similar to Garrett et al., (1999), which showed no significant effect of gender on Welsh informants' perceptions towards varieties of English dialect.

5.2.2 The Main Effects of Occupation on British Evaluation

In light of section 2.8.2, this section discusses the effect of the British participants' occupation differences on the evaluations of the seven speakers.

The British participants' detailed responses of occupation are presented in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16 Distributions of British Participants: Occupation

Occupation	N	Percentage
Student	57	38.78%
Education Industry	27	18.37%
Service Industry	22	14.97%
Business industry	20	13.61%
Freelancer	24	16.33%
Total	147	100.00%

From Table 5.16, it can be seen that around 39% of the British participants are students, while the rest are working in different industries. As with the Taiwanese data, the British participants were categorised according to the two main categories of student and worker, as detailed in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17 Distributions of British Participants: Student and Worker

Occupation	N	Percentage
Student	57	38.78%
Worker	90	61.22%
Total	147	100.00%

5.2.2.1 Speaker Status

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.383 and the probability associated with Levene's test for equality of variance for all seven speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. Although there were some differences between the status evaluations for the seven speakers by the two groups of student and worker (Table 5.18), the results of the MANOVA demonstrated that there was no significant effect of occupation on the evaluations of speaker status: $F(7, 139)=1.208$, $p(0.302)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.943; partial eta squared=0.057 (i.e., a small effect).

Table 5.18 British Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Status According to Occupation (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Student		Worker	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
GAE	4.90(0.70)	GAE	5.11(0.67)
IE	4.69(0.92)	IE	4.84(0.94)
SSBE	4.68(0.84)	SSBE	4.78(0.82)
AE	4.02(0.73)	AE	4.25(0.79)
SE	3.64(0.94)	SE	3.90(0.85)
JE	3.46(0.90)	JE	3.78(0.86)
TE	3.41(0.98)	TE	3.55(0.94)

5.2.2.2 Speaker Solidarity

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.100 and the probability associated with Levene's test for equality of variance for all seven speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. Although there were some differences between the solidarity evaluations for the seven speakers by the two groups of student and worker (Table 5.19), there was no significant effect of occupation on the British evaluations of speaker solidarity in the MANOVA test: $F(7,139)=1.741$, $p(0.104)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.919; partial eta squared=0.081 (i.e., a small effect).

Table 5.19 British Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Solidarity According to Occupation (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Student		Worker	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
IE	4.21(1.03)	GAE	4.46(0.85)
GAE	4.18(0.83)	IE	4.23(1.06)
AE	3.91(0.92)	AE	4.13(0.81)
JE	3.46(0.78)	JE	3.68(0.75)
TE	3.32(0.92)	TE	3.48(0.85)
SE	3.26(1.04)	SSBE	3.39(1.23)
SSBE	2.84(1.01)	SE	3.36(0.91)

5.2.2.3 Conclusion of the Main Effects of Occupation on British Evaluations

In conclusion, from Table 5.18 and Table 5.19, it can be seen that British students and British workers do respond differently to varieties of English accents. For example, the British students found IE the most amiable while the workers perceived the voice of GAE the most desirable on the solidarity dimension (Table 5.19). However, the MANOVA test demonstrated that there were no significant differences between the British students and British workers' evaluations of different English varieties on both status and solidarity dimensions.

5.2.3 The Main Effects of Self-Perceived Accent Level on British Evaluations

This section examines the effect of the British participants' self-perceived level of English accent on the evaluations of the seven speakers. The British participants' detailed responses of their self-perceived level of accent can be seen in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20 Distributions of British Participants: Self-Perceived Accent Level

Self-Perceived Accent Level	N	Percentage
No Accent	20	13.61%
Slightly Accented	69	46.94%
Moderately Accented	47	31.97%
Heavily Accented	11	7.48%
Total	147	100.00%

From Table 5.20, the majority of the British participants indicated that they perceived themselves as speaking English with different degrees of accents. As detailed in Table 5.21, this study categorised the British participants according to the two main categories of "No accent" and "Accented" (Slightly Accented, Moderately Accented and Heavily Accented) for further analysis.

Table 5.21 Distributions of British Participants: No Accent and Accented

Self-Perceived Accent Level	N	Percentage
No accent	20	13.61%
Accented	127	86.39%
Total	147	100.00%

5.2.3.1 Speaker Status

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.275 and the probability associated with Levene's test for equality of variance for all seven speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. Although there were some differences between the status evaluations for the seven speakers by the two groups of 'no accent' and 'accented' (Table 5.22), the results of the MANOVA demonstrated that there was no significant main effect of the British respondents' self-perceived accent level on their evaluations of speaker status: $F(7,139)=0.913$,

$p(0.499) > 0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.956; partial eta squared=0.044 (i.e. a small effect).

Table 5.22 British Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Status According to Self-Perceived Accent Level (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

No accent		Accented	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
GAE	4.91(0.74)	GAE	5.05(0.68)
IE	4.70(0.88)	SSBE	4.80(0.80)
SSBE	4.35(0.89)	IE	4.80(0.95)
AE	4.18(0.72)	AE	4.16(0.79)
SE	3.61(0.78)	SE	3.83(0.91)
JE	3.59(0.80)	JE	3.66(0.90)
TE	3.35(0.83)	TE	3.52(0.97)

5.2.3.2 Speaker Solidarity

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.044 and the probability associated with Levene's test for equality of variance for all seven speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. Although there were some differences between the solidarity evaluations for the seven speakers by the two groups of 'no accent' and 'accented' (Table 5.23), the results of the MANOVA demonstrated that there was no significant overall effect of the participants' self-perceived accent level on their evaluations of speaker solidarity: $F(7,139)=1.067$, $p(0.962) > 0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.986; partial eta squared=0.014 (i.e. a small effect).

Table 5.23 British Evaluations (standard deviations) of Speaker Solidarity According to Self-Perceived Accent Level (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

No accent		Accented	
Speaker	Mean (Sd)	Speaker	Mean (Sd)
GAE	4.40(0.60)	GAE	4.35(0.89)
IE	4.15(1.06)	IE	4.23(1.04)
AE	4.03(0.90)	AE	4.05(0.85)
JE	3.55(0.71)	JE	3.61(0.78)
SE	3.50(0.99)	TE	3.43(0.88)
TE	3.38(0.90)	SE	3.30(0.96)
SSBE	3.33(1.21)	SSBE	3.15(1.17)

5.2.3.3 Conclusion of the Main Effects of Self-Perceived Accent Level on British Evaluations

In conclusion, from the descriptive statistics of Table 5.22 and Table 5.23, it can be seen that the British listeners' evaluations of English varieties vary according to their self-perceived levels of accents. For instance, the British informants who perceive themselves as accented English speakers evaluated the two standard varieties of GAE and SSBE slightly higher than those who regard themselves as having no accent. The finding that speakers of a less-standard English variant favour the sociolinguistic norm of the standard accent (e.g., Giles, 1971) might help to explain why British listeners who perceive their speech as accented tend to prefer standard varieties of English. However, the MANOVA test demonstrated that there were no significant differences in the status and solidarity evaluations of the seven English varieties between the two British groups of "no accent" and "accented".

5.2.4 Summary of the Main Effects of British Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

In summary, evaluations of varieties of English differ along the social variables of the British informants. Nevertheless, the MANOVA test revealed that there are no significant correlations between the British participants' (1) gender (2) occupation (3) self-perceived levels of accent and their status and solidarity evaluations of varieties of English. It can therefore be concluded that differences in the British participants' gender, occupation and self-perceived level of accent did not have a significant effect on the attitudes of British participants towards different English accents.

5.3 The Interaction Effects of British Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

This section aims to discuss the interaction effects of the British participants' social variables (i.e., gender, occupation and self-perceived level of English accent) on speaker evaluations of different English varieties.

5.3.1 The Interaction Effects of Social Variables on British Speaker Status and Solidarity Evaluations

Following the statistical analysis applied to the Taiwanese data (see Section 4.3.1), a three-way between groups ANOVA was applied to examine the interaction effect of the British social variables (gender, occupation and self-perceived level of English accent) on the evaluations of the seven speakers.

For the 2x2x2 factorial design of the ANOVA test conducted in the following subsections, the three independent variables of gender (female and male), occupation (student and employed workers) and self-perceived level of English accent (no accent and accented) are consistent. The dependent variables are the British participants' ratings of each English variety according to speaker status and solidarity. The Probability of Levene's test for equality of variance exceeded 0.05, which suggests the assumption of equality of variance is not violated and therefore the alpha level of 0.5 will be applied for the subsequent ANOVA tests.

5.3.1.1 AE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the British ratings for AE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.24. Table 5.25 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on the evaluations of AE speaker status.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=1.95$, $p(0.165)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.014, which suggests a small effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level : $F(1,139)=0.292$, $p(0.590)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=1.106$, $p(0.295)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.008, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation*Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.041$, $p(0.840)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

Table 5.24 British Evaluations of AE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	4.3750	0.6292	4
		accented	3.9737	0.8195	38
		Total	4.0119	0.8058	42
	worker	no accent	4.3636	0.6742	11
		accented	4.3875	0.7667	60
		Total	4.3838	0.7486	71
	Total	no accent	4.3667	0.6399	15
		accented	4.2270	0.8092	98
		Total	4.2456	0.7877	113
Male	student	no accent	4.2500	0.0000	1
		accented	4.0179	0.5044	14
		Total	4.0333	0.4898	15
	worker	no accent	3.4375	0.6575	4
		accented	3.8333	0.7943	15
		Total	3.7500	0.7683	19
	Total	no accent	3.6000	0.6755	5
		accented	3.9224	0.6652	29
		Total	3.8750	0.6664	34
Total	student	no accent	4.3500	0.5477	5
		accented	3.9856	0.7433	52
		Total	4.0175	0.7317	57
	worker	no accent	4.1167	0.7727	15
		accented	4.2767	0.7986	75
		Total	4.2500	0.7923	90
	Total	no accent	4.1750	0.7168	20
		accented	4.1575	0.7867	127
		Total	4.1599	0.7752	147

Table 5.25 The Interaction Effects of British Participants' Social Variables on the Evaluations of AE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender*Occupation	1.105	1	1.105	1.952	0.165	0.014
Gender*Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.165	1	0.165	0.292	0.59	0.002
Occupation*Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.626	1	0.626	1.106	0.295	0.008
Gender*Occupation* Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.023	1	0.023	0.041	0.84	0
Error	78.698	139	0.566			

5.3.1.2 AE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the ratings for AE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.26. Table 5.27 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on the evaluations of AE speaker solidarity.

Table 5.26 British Evaluations of AE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	4.0000	1.0801	4
		accented	3.8553	0.9220	38
		Total	3.8690	0.9243	42
	worker	no accent	4.2727	0.8475	11
		accented	4.2167	0.7939	60
		Total	4.2254	0.7964	71
	Total	no accent	4.2000	0.8824	15
		accented	4.0765	0.8596	98
		Total	4.0929	0.8597	113
Male	student	no accent	4.0000	0.0000	1
		accented	4.0357	0.9500	14
		Total	4.0333	0.9155	15
	worker	no accent	3.3750	0.8539	4
		accented	3.8667	0.7432	15
		Total	3.7632	0.7704	19
	Total	no accent	3.5000	0.7906	5
		accented	3.9483	0.8382	29
		Total	3.8824	0.8354	34
Total	student	no accent	4.0000	0.9354	5
		accented	3.9038	0.9238	52
		Total	3.9123	0.9167	57
	worker	no accent	4.0333	0.9155	15
		accented	4.1467	0.7917	75
		Total	4.1278	0.8092	90
	Total	no accent	4.0250	0.8955	20
		accented	4.0472	0.8532	127
		Total	4.0442	0.8559	147

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=1.585$, $p(0.210)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.011, which suggests a small effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.412$, $p(0.522)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.003, which suggests a negligible effect.

3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.230$, $p(0.632)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.008, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.105$, $p(0.747)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 5.27 The Interaction Effects of British Participants' Social Variables on the Evaluations of AE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	1.151	1	1.151	1.585	0.210	0.011
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.299	1	0.299	0.412	0.522	0.003
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.167	1	0.167	0.230	0.632	0.002
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.076	1	0.076	0.105	0.747	0.001
Error	100.972	139	0.726			

5.3.1.3 GAE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the British ratings for GAE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.28. Table 5.29 summarises the ANOVA test and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on the evaluations of GAE speaker status.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=0.333$, $p(0.565)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.810$, $p(0.370)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.006, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=2.761$, $p(0.099)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.019, which suggests a small effect.

4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.593$, $p(0.443)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.004, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 5.28 British Evaluations of GAE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	5.1875	0.5154	4
		accented	4.9145	0.7359	38
		Total	4.9405	0.7174	42
	worker	no accent	5.0455	0.6405	11
		accented	5.1750	0.6112	60
		Total	5.1549	0.6129	71
	Total	no accent	5.0833	0.5951	15
		accented	5.0740	0.6708	98
		Total	5.0752	0.6588	113
Male	student	no accent	5.0000	0.0000	1
		accented	4.7857	0.6854	14
		Total	4.8000	0.6628	15
	worker	no accent	4.2500	1.0607	4
		accented	5.1333	0.7311	15
		Total	4.9474	0.8603	19
	Total	no accent	4.4000	0.9779	5
		accented	4.9655	0.7188	29
		Total	4.8824	0.7717	34
Total	student	no accent	5.1500	0.4542	5
		accented	4.8798	0.7183	52
		Total	4.9035	0.7004	57
	worker	no accent	4.8333	0.8165	15
		accented	5.1667	0.6318	75
		Total	5.1111	0.6726	90
	Total	no accent	4.9125	0.7446	20
		accented	5.0492	0.6807	127
		Total	5.0306	0.6886	147

Table 5.29 The Interaction Effects of British Participants' Social Variables on the Evaluations of GAE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.153	1.000	0.153	0.333	0.565	0.002
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.373	1.000	0.373	0.810	0.370	0.006
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	1.270	1.000	1.270	2.761	0.099	0.019
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.273	1.000	0.273	0.593	0.443	0.004
Error	63.937	139.000	0.460			

5.3.1.4 GAE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the British ratings for GAE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.30. Table 5.31 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on the evaluations of GAE speaker solidarity.

Table 5.30 British Evaluations of GAE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	4.2500	0.6455	4
		accented	4.1447	0.8614	38
		Total	4.1548	0.8373	42
	worker	no accent	4.5909	0.6252	11
		accented	4.5250	0.8100	60
		Total	4.5352	0.7807	71
	Total	no accent	4.5000	0.6268	15
		accented	4.3776	0.8467	98
		Total	4.3938	0.8196	113
Male	student	no accent	4.5000	0.0000	1
		accented	4.2500	0.8716	14
		Total	4.2667	0.8423	15
	worker	no accent	4.0000	0.4083	4
		accented	4.2333	1.1782	15
		Total	4.1842	1.0569	19
	Total	no accent	4.1000	0.4183	5
		accented	4.2414	1.0231	29
		Total	4.2206	0.9550	34
Total	student	no accent	4.3000	0.5701	5
		accented	4.1731	0.8568	52
		Total	4.1842	0.8326	57
	worker	no accent	4.4333	0.6230	15
		accented	4.4667	0.8942	75
		Total	4.4611	0.8521	90
	Total	no accent	4.4000	0.5982	20
		accented	4.3465	0.8876	127
		Total	4.3537	0.8525	147

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=1.188$, $p(0.278)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.008, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.019$, $p(0.892)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.212$, $p(0.646)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.

4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.153$, $p(0.696)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 5.31 The Interaction Effects of British Participants' Social Variables on the Evaluations of GAE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.865	1	0.865	1.188	0.278	0.008
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.013	1	0.013	0.019	0.892	0.000
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.154	1	0.154	0.212	0.646	0.002
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.111	1	0.111	0.153	0.696	0.001
Error	101.134	139	0.728			

5.3.1.5 SSBE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the British ratings for SSBE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.32. Table 5.33 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on the evaluations of SSBE speaker status.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=0.671$, $p(0.414)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.005, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=2.106$, $p(0.149)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.015, which suggests a small effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.003$, $p(0.955)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.274$, $p(0.602)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 5.32 British Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	4.3750	0.7500	4
		accented	4.8224	0.8717	38
		Total	4.7798	0.8629	42
	worker	no accent	4.5909	0.8608	11
		accented	4.7875	0.8076	60
		Total	4.7570	0.8128	71
	Total	no accent	4.5333	0.8121	15
		accented	4.8010	0.8287	98
		Total	4.7655	0.8280	113
Male	student	no accent	3.5000	0.0000	1
		accented	4.4464	0.7015	14
		Total	4.3833	0.7188	15
	worker	no accent	3.8750	1.1273	4
		accented	5.1333	0.5891	15
		Total	4.8684	0.8715	19
	Total	no accent	3.8000	0.9906	5
		accented	4.8017	0.7239	29
		Total	4.6544	0.8326	34
Total	student	no accent	4.2000	0.7583	5
		accented	4.7212	0.8397	52
		Total	4.6754	0.8398	57
	worker	no accent	4.4000	0.9534	15
		accented	4.8567	0.7778	75
		Total	4.7806	0.8218	90
	Total	no accent	4.3500	0.8937	20
		accented	4.8012	0.8032	127
		Total	4.7398	0.8275	147

Table 5.33 The Interaction Effects of British Social Variables on the Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.438	1	0.438	0.671	0.414	0.005
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	1.375	1	1.375	2.106	0.149	0.015
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.002	1	0.002	0.003	0.955	0.000
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.179	1	0.179	0.274	0.602	0.002
Error	90.756	139	0.653			

5.3.1.6 SSBE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the British ratings for SSBE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.34. Table 5.35 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on the evaluations of SSBE speaker solidarity.

Table 5.34 British Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	2.6250	0.8539	4
		accented	2.7368	1.0951	38
		Total	2.7262	1.0661	42
	worker	no accent	3.6364	1.4507	11
		accented	3.4083	1.2264	60
		Total	3.4437	1.2551	71
	Total	no accent	3.3667	1.3689	15
		accented	3.1480	1.2167	98
		Total	3.1770	1.2337	113
Male	student	no accent	3.0000	0.0000	1
		accented	3.1786	0.7992	14
		Total	3.1667	0.7715	15
	worker	no accent	3.2500	0.6455	4
		accented	3.1667	1.2488	15
		Total	3.1842	1.1330	19
	Total	no accent	3.2000	0.5701	5
		accented	3.1724	1.0375	29
		Total	3.1765	0.9761	34
Total	student	no accent	2.7000	0.7583	5
		accented	2.8558	1.0353	52
		Total	2.8421	1.0096	57
	worker	no accent	3.5333	1.2743	15
		accented	3.3600	1.2263	75
		Total	3.3889	1.2288	90
	Total	no accent	3.3250	1.2061	20
		accented	3.1535	1.1743	127
		Total	3.1769	1.1760	147

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=0.872$, $p(0.352)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.006, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.019$, $p(0.891)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.151$, $p(0.698)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.003$, $p(0.960)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

Table 5.35 The Interaction Effects of British Social Variables on the Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	1.178	1	1.178	0.872	0.352	0.006
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.025	1	0.025	0.019	0.891	0.000
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.204	1	0.204	0.151	0.698	0.001
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.003	1	0.003	0.003	0.960	0.000
Error	187.734	139	1.351			

5.3.1.7 IE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the British ratings for IE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.36. Table 5.37 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on the evaluations of IE speaker status.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=1.347$, $p(0.248)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.010, which suggests a small effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.100$, $p(0.752)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.032$, $p(0.858)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.146$, $p(0.703)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 5.36 British Evaluations of IE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	4.4375	1.1793	4
		accented	4.7105	1.0043	38
		Total	4.6845	1.0092	42
	worker	no accent	5.0227	0.8097	11
		accented	4.9458	0.9009	60
		Total	4.9577	0.8824	71
	Total	no accent	4.8667	0.9155	15
		accented	4.8546	0.9443	98
		Total	4.8562	0.9365	113
Male	student	no accent	4.5000	0.0000	1
		accented	4.7321	0.6756	14
		Total	4.7167	0.6537	15
	worker	no accent	4.1250	0.6292	4
		accented	4.4833	1.1475	15
		Total	4.4079	1.0548	19
	Total	no accent	4.2000	0.5701	5
		accented	4.6034	0.9414	29
		Total	4.5441	0.9013	34
Total	student	no accent	4.4500	1.0216	5
		accented	4.7163	0.9209	52
		Total	4.6930	0.9234	57
	worker	no accent	4.7833	0.8497	15
		accented	4.8533	0.9648	75
		Total	4.8417	0.9425	90
	Total	no accent	4.7000	0.8796	20
		accented	4.7972	0.9458	127
		Total	4.7840	0.9348	147

Table 5.37 The Interaction Effects of British Social Variables on the Evaluations of IE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	1.177	1	1.177	1.347	0.248	0.010
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.088	1	0.088	0.100	0.752	0.001
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.028	1	0.028	0.032	0.858	0.000
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.128	1	0.128	0.146	0.703	0.001
Error	121.485	139	0.874			

5.3.1.8 IE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the ratings for IE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.38. Table 5.39 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on the evaluations of IE speaker solidarity.

Table 5.38 British Evaluations of IE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	3.8750	1.6008	4
		accented	4.2632	0.9846	38
		Total	4.2262	1.0371	42
	worker	no accent	4.4545	1.0596	11
		accented	4.3250	1.0161	60
		Total	4.3451	1.0163	71
	Total	no accent	4.3000	1.1922	15
		accented	4.3010	0.9993	98
		Total	4.3009	1.0211	113
Male	student	no accent	3.5000	0.0000	1
		accented	4.2143	1.0690	14
		Total	4.1667	1.0465	15
	worker	no accent	3.7500	0.2887	4
		accented	3.8000	1.2649	15
		Total	3.7895	1.1220	19
	Total	no accent	3.7000	0.2739	5
		accented	4.0000	1.1726	29
		Total	3.9559	1.0897	34
Total	student	no accent	3.8000	1.3964	5
		accented	4.2500	0.9976	52
		Total	4.2105	1.0306	57
	worker	no accent	4.2667	0.9612	15
		accented	4.2200	1.0819	75
		Total	4.2278	1.0578	90
	Total	no accent	4.1500	1.0650	20
		accented	4.2323	1.0443	127
		Total	4.2211	1.0438	147

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=0.332$, $p(0.565)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.131$, $p(0.718)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a small effect.

3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.715$, $p(0.399)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.005, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.011$, $p(0.917)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

Table 5.39 The Interaction Effects of British Social Variables on the Evaluations of IE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.366	1	0.366	0.332	0.565	0.002
Gender * Self-Perceived Level of English Accent	0.144	1	0.144	0.131	0.718	0.001
Occupation * Self-Perceived Level of English Accent	0.788	1	0.788	0.715	0.399	0.005
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Level of English Accent	0.012	1	0.012	0.011	0.917	0.000
Error	153.203	139	1.102			

5.3.1.9 JE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the ratings for JE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.40. Table 5.41 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on the evaluations of JE speaker status.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=1.418$, $p(0.236)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.010, which suggests a small effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.005$, $p(0.944)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.006$, $p(0.940)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.471$, $p(0.494)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.003, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 5.40 British Evaluations of JE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	3.1875	0.6885	4
		accented	3.4934	0.9769	38
		Total	3.4643	0.9509	42
	worker	no accent	3.9091	0.8160	11
		accented	3.8583	0.7843	60
		Total	3.8662	0.7836	71
	Total	no accent	3.7167	0.8284	15
		accented	3.7168	0.8776	98
		Total	3.7168	0.8676	113
Male	student	no accent	3.5000	0.0000	1
		accented	3.4464	0.8097	14
		Total	3.4500	0.7803	15
	worker	no accent	3.1250	0.7217	4
		accented	3.5167	1.1119	15
		Total	3.4342	1.0370	19
	Total	no accent	3.2000	0.6471	5
		accented	3.4828	0.9611	29
		Total	3.4412	0.9192	34
Total	student	no accent	3.2500	0.6124	5
		accented	3.4808	0.9273	52
		Total	3.4605	0.9024	57
	worker	no accent	3.7000	0.8462	15
		accented	3.7900	0.8622	75
		Total	3.7750	0.8555	90
	Total	no accent	3.5875	0.8041	20
		accented	3.6634	0.8988	127
		Total	3.6531	0.8843	147

Table 5.41 The Interaction Effects of British Social Variables on the Evaluations of JE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	1.092	1	1.092	1.418	0.236	0.010
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.004	1	0.004	0.005	0.944	0.000
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.004	1	0.004	0.006	0.940	0.000
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.363	1	0.363	0.471	0.494	0.003
Error	107.081	139	0.770			

5.3.1.10 JE speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the British ratings for JE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.42. Table 5.43 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on the evaluations of JE speaker solidarity.

Table 5.42 British Evaluations of JE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	3.1250	0.8539	4
		accented	3.4342	0.7638	38
		Total	3.4048	0.7670	42
	worker	no accent	3.6364	0.5954	11
		accented	3.7917	0.6593	60
		Total	3.7676	0.6482	71
	Total	no accent	3.5000	0.6814	15
		accented	3.6531	0.7194	98
		Total	3.6327	0.7135	113
Male	student	no accent	3.5000	0.0000	1
		accented	3.6429	0.8419	14
		Total	3.6333	0.8121	15
	worker	no accent	3.7500	0.9574	4
		accented	3.2667	1.0154	15
		Total	3.3684	0.9978	19
	Total	no accent	3.7000	0.8367	5
		accented	3.4483	0.9387	29
		Total	3.4853	0.9169	34
Total	student	no accent	3.2000	0.7583	5
		accented	3.4904	0.7827	52
		Total	3.4649	0.7784	57
	worker	no accent	3.6667	0.6726	15
		accented	3.6867	0.7657	75
		Total	3.6833	0.7475	90
	Total	no accent	3.5500	0.7052	20
		accented	3.6063	0.7757	127
		Total	3.5986	0.7645	147

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=0.979$, $p(0.324)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.007, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.641$, $p(0.425)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.005, which suggests a negligible effect.

3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.602$, $p(0.439)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.004, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.220$, $p(0.639)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 5.43 The Interaction Effects of British Social Variables on the Evaluations of JE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.559	1	0.559	0.979	0.324	0.007
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.366	1	0.366	0.641	0.425	0.005
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.343	1	0.343	0.602	0.439	0.004
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.126	1	0.126	0.220	0.639	0.002
Error	79.362	139	0.571			

5.3.1.11 SE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the British ratings for SE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.44. Table 5.45 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on the evaluations of SE speaker status.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=0.045$, $p(0.832)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.017$, $p(0.897)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.122$, $p(0.727)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.

4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.196$, $p(0.659)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 5.44 British Evaluations of SE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	3.6875	1.0483	4
		accented	3.6447	1.0775	38
		Total	3.6488	1.0622	42
	worker	no accent	3.6136	0.8167	11
		accented	4.0417	0.8626	60
		Total	3.9754	0.8641	71
	Total	no accent	3.6333	0.8445	15
		accented	3.8878	0.9660	98
		Total	3.8540	0.9512	113
Male	student	no accent	3.5000	0.0000	1
		accented	3.6429	0.5345	14
		Total	3.6333	0.5164	15
	worker	no accent	3.5625	0.6885	4
		accented	3.6500	0.8007	15
		Total	3.6316	0.7609	19
	Total	no accent	3.5500	0.5969	5
		accented	3.6466	0.6732	29
		Total	3.6324	0.6549	34
Total	student	no accent	3.6500	0.9117	5
		accented	3.6442	0.9566	52
		Total	3.6447	0.9449	57
	worker	no accent	3.6000	0.7606	15
		accented	3.9633	0.8599	75
		Total	3.9028	0.8511	90
	Total	no accent	3.6125	0.7758	20
		accented	3.8327	0.9107	127
		Total	3.6875	1.0483	147

Table 5.45 The Interaction Effects of British Social Variables towards the Evaluations of SE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.036	1	0.036	0.045	0.832	0.000
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.014	1	0.014	0.017	0.897	0.000
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.097	1	0.097	0.122	0.727	0.001
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.156	1	0.156	0.196	0.659	0.001
Error	110.928	139	0.798			

5.3.1.12 SE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the British ratings for SE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.46. Table 5.47 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on evaluations of SE speaker solidarity.

Table 5.46 British Evaluations of SE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	4.0000	1.0801	4
		accented	3.1447	1.1503	38
		Total	3.2262	1.1593	42
	worker	no accent	3.5455	0.9606	11
		accented	3.3917	0.9024	60
		Total	3.4155	0.9063	71
	Total	no accent	3.6667	0.9759	15
		accented	3.2959	1.0073	98
		Total	3.3451	1.0069	113
Male	student	no accent	2.5000	0.0000	1
		accented	3.4286	0.6157	14
		Total	3.3667	0.6399	15
	worker	no accent	3.1250	1.0308	4
		accented	3.1667	0.8997	15
		Total	3.1579	0.8983	19
	Total	no accent	3.0000	0.9354	5
		accented	3.2931	0.7736	29
		Total	3.2500	0.7906	34
Total	student	no accent	3.7000	1.1511	5
		accented	3.2212	1.0357	52
		Total	3.2632	1.0441	57
	worker	no accent	3.4333	0.9612	15
		accented	3.3467	0.9004	75
		Total	3.3611	0.9058	90
	Total	no accent	3.5000	0.9868	20
		accented	3.2953	0.9561	127
		Total	3.3231	0.9595	147

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=0.198$, $p(0.657)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=2.379$, $p(0.125)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.017, which suggests a small effect.

3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.021$, $p(0.885)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=1.532$, $p(0.218)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.011, which suggests a small effect.

Table 5.47 The Interaction Effects of British Social Variables on the Evaluations of SE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.184	1	0.184	0.198	0.657	0.001
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	2.211	1	2.211	2.379	0.125	0.017
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.019	1	0.019	0.021	0.885	0.000
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	1.424	1	1.424	1.532	0.218	0.011
Error	129.176	139	0.929			

5.3.1.13 TE Speaker Status

The means and standard deviations of the British ratings for TE speaker status according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.48. Table 5.49 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on evaluations of TE speaker status.

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=0.018$, $p(0.893)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.032$, $p(0.858)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.060$, $p(0.807)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.

4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.147$, $p(0.702)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 5.48 British Evaluations of TE Speaker Status According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	3.5000	1.1365	4
		accented	3.4408	1.0772	38
		Total	3.4464	1.0686	42
	worker	no accent	3.3409	0.9033	11
		accented	3.6833	0.9409	60
		Total	3.6303	0.9372	71
	Total	no accent	3.3833	0.9300	15
		accented	3.5893	0.9976	98
		Total	3.5619	0.9874	113
Male	student	no accent	3.2500	0.0000	1
		accented	3.3214	0.7301	14
		Total	3.3167	0.7037	15
	worker	no accent	3.2500	0.5401	4
		accented	3.2333	0.9704	15
		Total	3.2368	0.8838	19
	Total	no accent	3.2500	0.4677	5
		accented	3.2759	0.8487	29
		Total	3.2721	0.7986	34
Total	student	no accent	3.4500	0.9906	5
		accented	3.4087	0.9902	52
		Total	3.4123	0.9814	57
	worker	no accent	3.3167	0.8044	15
		accented	3.5933	0.9575	75
		Total	3.5472	0.9353	90
	Total	no accent	3.3500	0.8288	20
		accented	3.5177	0.9714	127
		Total	3.4949	0.9524	147

Table 5.49 The Interaction Effects of British Social Variables towards the Evaluations of TE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.017	1	0.017	0.018	0.893	0.000
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.029	1	0.029	0.032	0.858	0.000
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.055	1	0.055	0.060	0.807	0.000
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.135	1	0.135	0.147	0.702	0.001
Error	128.184	139	0.922			

5.3.1.14 TE Speaker Solidarity

The means and standard deviations of the British ratings for TE speaker solidarity according to the three social variables are detailed in Table 5.50. Table 5.51 summarises the ANOVA test, which demonstrated no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects of the British social variables on evaluations of SE speaker solidarity.

Table 5.50 British Evaluations of TE Speaker Solidarity According to Social Variables (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Gender	Occupation	Self-Perceived Accent Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	student	no accent	2.8750	1.1087	4
		accented	3.3158	0.9755	38
		Total	3.2738	0.9828	42
	worker	no accent	3.4091	0.9439	11
		accented	3.5500	0.8372	60
		Total	3.5282	0.8489	71
	Total	no accent	3.2667	0.9796	15
		accented	3.4592	0.8958	98
		Total	3.4336	0.9051	113
Male	student	no accent	3.5000	0.0000	1
		accented	3.4286	0.7810	14
		Total	3.4333	0.7528	15
	worker	no accent	3.7500	0.6455	4
		accented	3.2000	0.9024	15
		Total	3.3158	0.8694	19
	Total	no accent	3.7000	0.5701	5
		accented	3.3103	0.8389	29
		Total	3.3676	0.8101	34
Total	student	no accent	3.0000	1.0000	5
		accented	3.3462	0.9211	52
		Total	3.3158	0.9240	57
	worker	no accent	3.5000	0.8660	15
		accented	3.4800	0.8560	75
		Total	3.4833	0.8528	90
	Total	no accent	3.3750	0.9014	20
		accented	3.4252	0.8821	127
		Total	3.4184	0.8818	147

1. Gender * Occupation: $F(1,139)=0.399$, $p(0.529)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.003, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=1.035$, $p(0.311)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.007, which suggests a negligible effect

3. Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.433$, $p(0.512)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.003, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level: $F(1,139)=0.023$, $p(0.880)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

Table 5.51 The Interaction Effects of British Social Variables on the Evaluations of TE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * Occupation	0.315	1	0.315	0.399	0.529	0.003
Gender * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.817	1	0.817	1.035	0.311	0.007
Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.342	1	0.342	0.433	0.512	0.003
Gender * Occupation * Self-Perceived Accent Level	0.018	1	0.018	0.023	0.880	0.000
Error	109.736	139	0.789			

5.3.2 Summary of Interaction Effect of British Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

In summary, from the two-way and three-way ANOVA tests discussed above, it can be concluded that there was no significant interaction effect of gender, occupation and self-perceived level of English accent on the British respondents' evaluations of speaker status and solidarity. This further validates the result discussed in section 5.2.4, where gender, occupation and self-perceived level of English accent did not have any significant main effect on the evaluations of the seven English varieties.

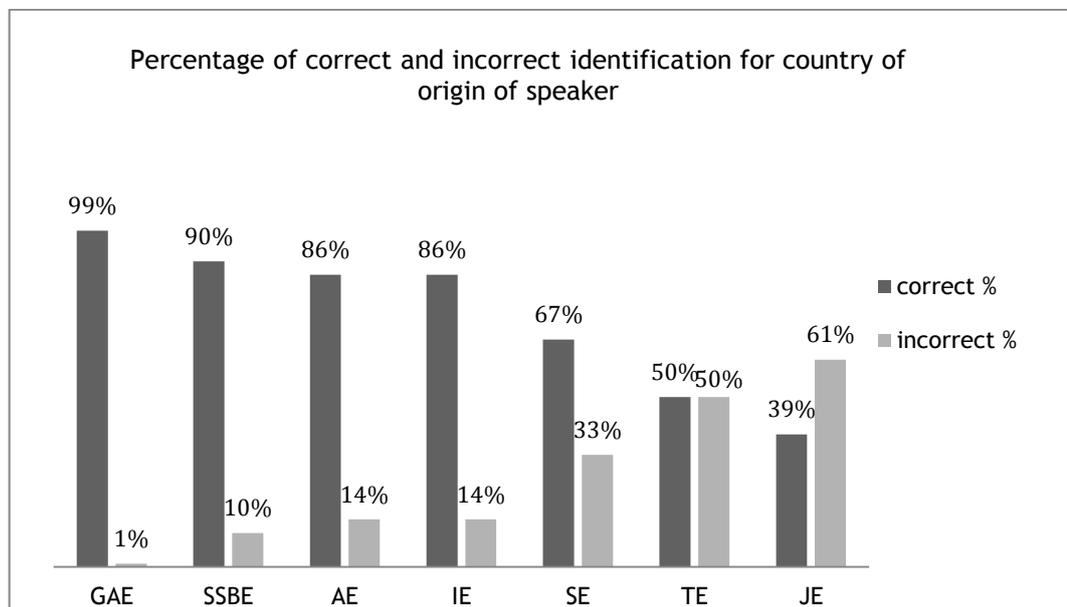
5.4 British Identifications of Speakers' Origins

The objective of this section is to discuss the British participants' identifications of speakers' origins for the seven English varieties. It will firstly report the British informants' general recognition rates of different English varieties. Next, the British respondents' detailed responses for speaker provenance will be analysed. Finally, the effects of speaker origin identification on the British listeners' attitudes towards varieties of English will be explored.

5.4.1 British Participants' Overall Correct and Incorrect Identification Rates

Here I present the British participants' overall rates of correct and incorrect identification of each English variety. In general, the British listeners are most familiar with IC, followed by OC and then EC varieties of English. From Graph 5.1, it can be seen that GAE received the highest recognition rate, followed by SSBE. In the middle ranking, the native variety of AE and the L2 variety of IE had the same percentage of correct identification. Lastly, the three EC varieties (SE, TE, JE) are the least well identified.

Graph 5.1 British Participants' Overall Correct and Incorrect Identifications of Speakers' Origins



5.4.2 British Participants' Identification and Misidentification Patterns of Speakers' Origins

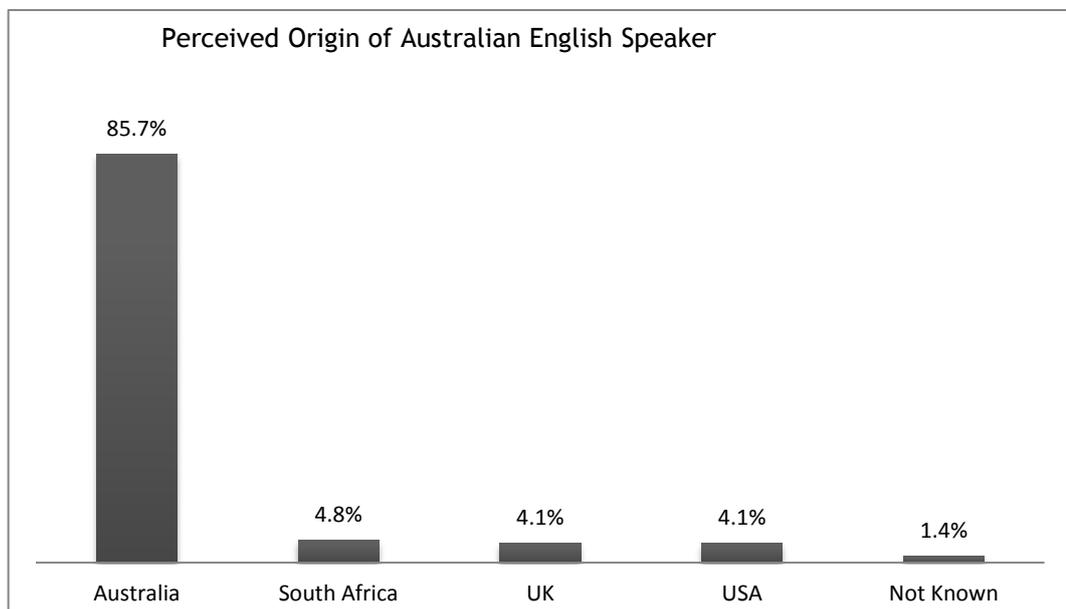
In order to show a clear pattern of how the British participants classified the seven speakers into different regions, the following analysis will discuss the identification and misidentification for each speaker according to IC, OC and EC varieties.

5.4.2.1 Inner Circle Varieties

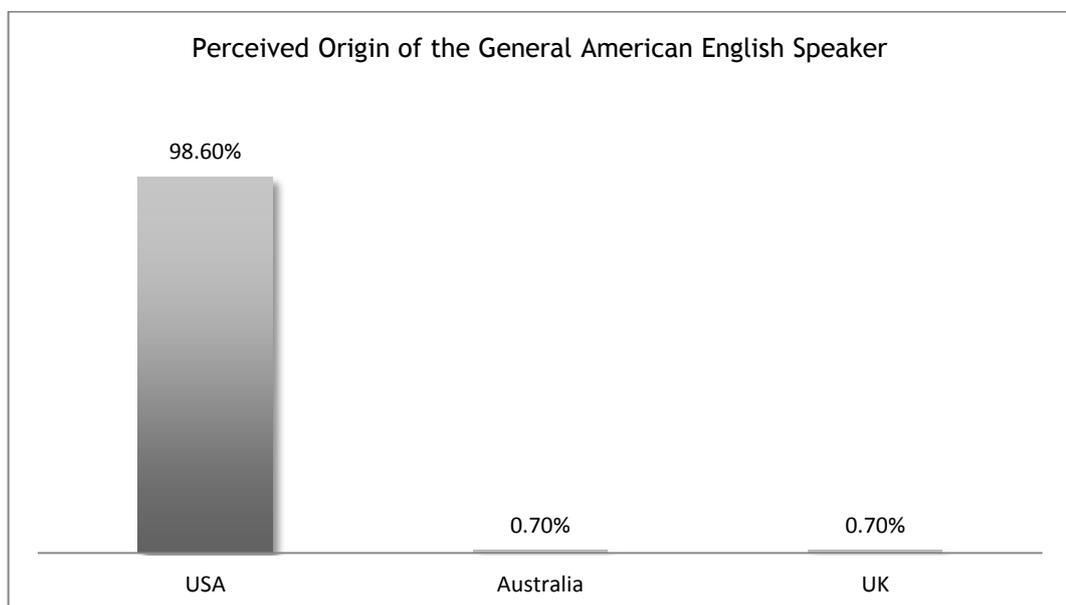
As shown in Graph 5.2, although the majority of the British participants (85.70%) correctly identified the origin of the AE speaker, a total of around 13% of British participants misattributed AE as the speech of South Africa, the UK or the USA.

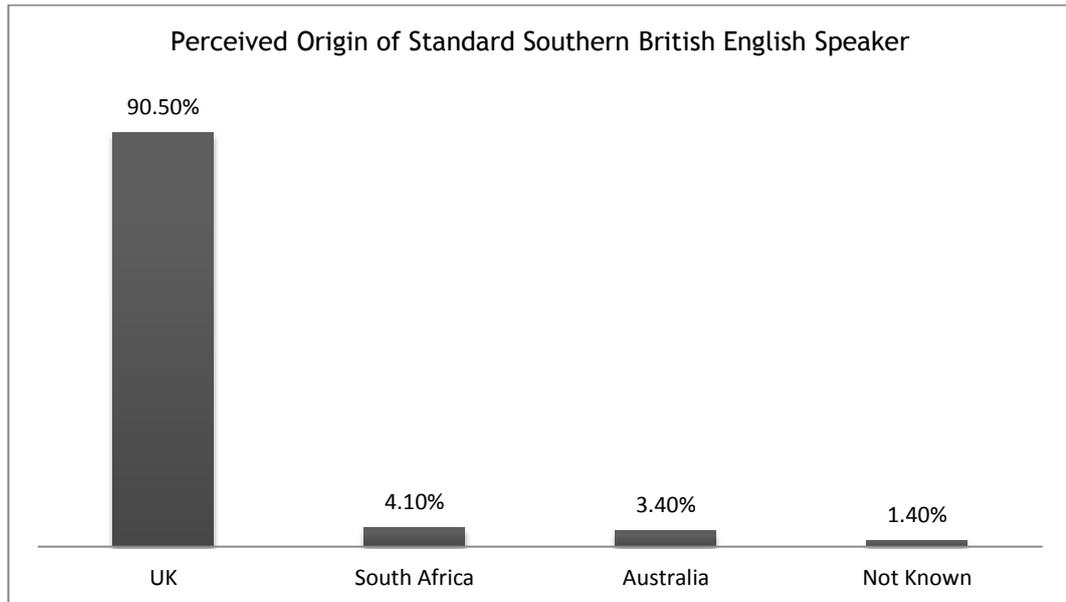
With regard to the identification of SSBE (see Graph 5.4), it is worth noting that 4.10% and 3.40% respectively of the British respondents misrecognised the SSBE voice as from either “South Africa” or “Australia”, despite the generally high correct rate of identification for the SSBE speaker. Compared to AE and SSBE, GAE is the most frequently correctly identified variety, with over 98% of the British listeners correctly recognising the speaker as an American (see Graph 5.3). While a small percentage of British listeners failed to identify AE, SSBE and GAE, they nevertheless demonstrated great capabilities in categorising the speaker origin of the three IC varieties as speech of IC.

Graph 5.2 British Participants’ Perceived Origins of AE Speaker



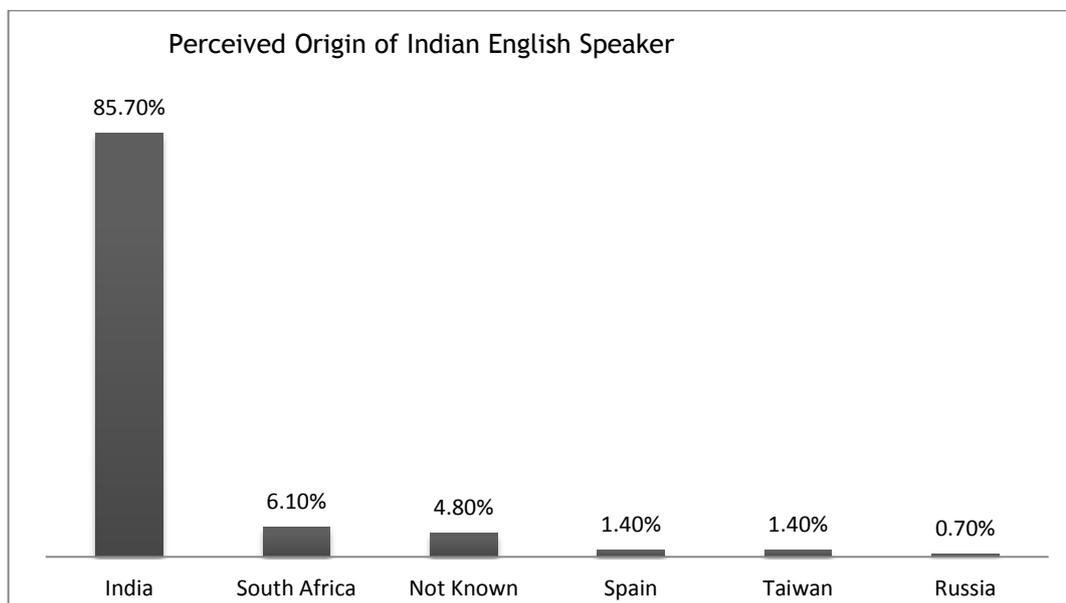
Graph 5.3 British Participants’ Perceived Origins of GAE Speaker



Graph 5.4 British Participants' Perceived Origins of SSBE Speaker

5.4.2.2 Outer Circle Varieties

From Graph 5.5, it can be seen that IE received a high recognition rate of 85.70%, which suggests that British listeners are familiar with Indian voices and are therefore able to associate this L2 speech with the speech group from the list of speaker origin choices. From the misidentification pattern, it can be concluded that those who did not identify IE correctly misperceived IE as one of the other OC (South Africa) or EC (Spain, Taiwan, Russia) varieties. This result suggests that although a small proportion of British participants are not aware of the provenance of IE, the majority of them are capable of categorising this OC variety as the speech of NNSs.

Graph 5.5 British Participants' Perceived Origins of IE Speaker

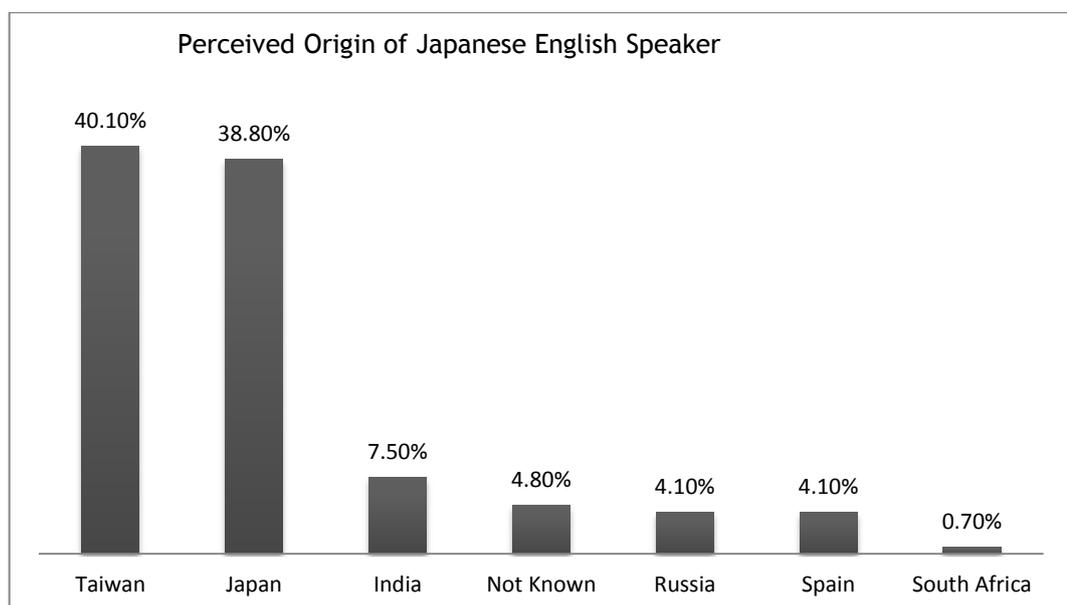
5.4.2.3 Expanding Circle Varieties

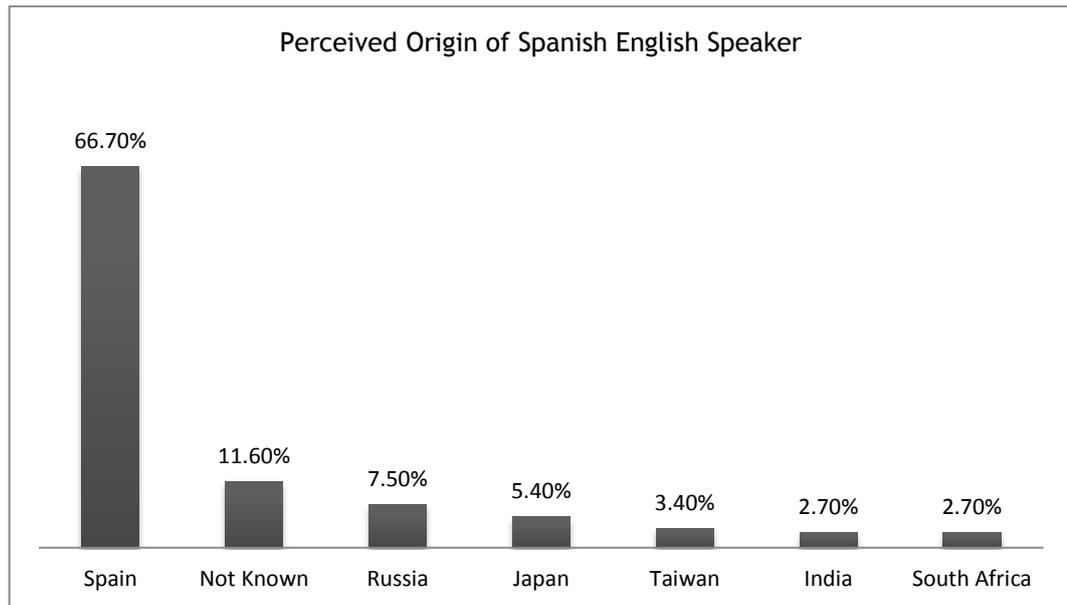
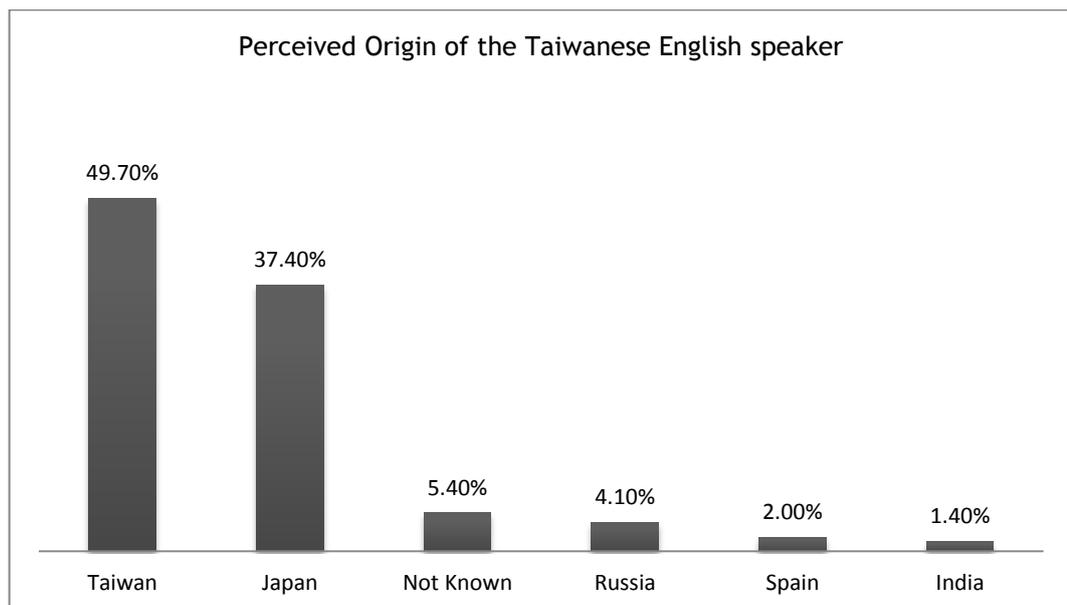
The British respondents' correct identification of the three non-native varieties of JE (Graph 5.6), SE (Graph 5.7) and TE (Graph 5.8) are a lot lower than their identification of the IC varieties (AE, GAE and SSBE) and the OC variety (IE), which suggests that British people are less familiar with European and Asian-accented Englishes. They were also less capable of identifying the two non-native varieties of Asian origin (JE and TE) than they were of identifying SE. The British participants who did not successfully pinpoint the provenance of JE, SE and TE tended to misidentify them as being of either OC (South Africa; India) or EC (Japan, Spain, Taiwan and Russia) but not IC (Australia, UK, USA) origins. This finding indicates that the distinction between the speech of NSs and NNSs is salient for British respondents.

5.4.2.4 Summary of British Participants' Identification and Misidentification Patterns of Speakers' Origins

In conclusion, this section offers an overview of the British respondents' identification and misidentification responses for each English variety. While British participants are most familiar with varieties of the IC, it was found that they hold less knowledge in differentiating varieties of the OC from the EC. Nevertheless, British listeners generally made good distinctions between the origins of NSs and NNSs varieties.

Graph 5.6 British Participants' Perceived Origins of JE Speaker



Graph 5.7 British Participants' Perceived Origins of SE Speaker**Graph 5.8 British Participants' Perceived Origins of TE Speaker**

5.4.3 The Effects of British Participants' Identification and Misidentification Patterns on Speakers' Evaluations

This section examines the role of speaker identification in the British participants' attitudes towards varieties of English. According to correct and incorrect identifications, the British evaluations of varieties of English will firstly be presented. Next, a one-way between groups MANOVA test will be applied to

explore whether the British participants' identifications of speakers' origins had a significant effect on their evaluations of each English speech sample. For the MANOVA tests, while the British participants' status and solidarity evaluations of the seven English varieties were the dependent variables, the independent variables were the British listeners' accurate and inaccurate identification for each speaker.

5.4.3.1 Speakers' Evaluations according to Correct and Incorrect Identification

Table 5.52 demonstrates that British participants who correctly identified speaker origin evaluated the seven speakers differently from those who incorrectly recognised each English variety. For instance, GAE was the most positively evaluated variety in terms of status and solidarity out of those that were correctly identified. As for the group that were not incorrectly identified, SSBE was the most positively evaluated variety for speaker status, while GAE received the most positive ratings for solidarity. These results imply the necessity to conduct a MANOVA test to investigate the role of speaker origin identification on the evaluations of the different English varieties.

Table 5.52 British Evaluations (standard deviation) of Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Correct/Incorrect Identifications (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

Speaker	Recognition			
	Status		Solidarity	
	Correct	Incorrect	Correct	Incorrect
AE	4.13(0.76)	4.35(0.86)	4.10(0.87)	3.74(0.68)
JE	3.84(0.89)	3.53(0.86)	3.74(0.76)	3.51(0.76)
GAE	5.04(0.69)	4.50(0.71)	4.36(0.86)	4.25(0.35)
TE	3.50(0.92)	3.49(0.99)	3.46(0.86)	3.38(0.91)
IE	3.82(0.80)	3.81(0.81)	3.45(1.07)	3.50(1.19)
SSBE	4.71(0.83)	5.00(0.76)	3.79(1.33)	3.18(1.18)
SE	3.86(0.86)	3.69(0.95)	3.47(0.98)	3.03(0.86)

5.4.3.2 AE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.033 (i.e., $p > 0.001$), which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for AE speaker

status ($F(1,145)=0.840$; $p=0.361>0.05$) and AE speaker solidarity ($F(1,145)=0.830$; $p=0.364>0.05$) are both insignificant, which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the British participants' status and solidarity evaluations of the AE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 5.53), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the AE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is significant: $F(2,144)=4.439$; $p(0.013)<0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.942; partial eta squared=0.058 (which suggest a small effect). When the effects of identification on the evaluation of speaker status and solidarity were considered separately, there is a marginal effect of solidarity ($p=0.077$) for the AE speaker (Table 5.54). It can be concluded that there is a weak effect of correct and incorrect identification on the British evaluations of the AE speaker solidarity.

Table 5.53 British Evaluations of AE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

AE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	4.13	0.76	126
	Incorrect	4.35	0.86	21
	Total	4.16	0.78	147
Solidarity	Correct	4.10	0.87	126
	Incorrect	3.74	0.68	21
	Total	4.04	0.86	147

Table 5.54 Test of Between-Subjects Effects for the British Evaluations of AE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identification

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
AE	Status	0.842	1	0.842	1.405	0.238	0.010
	Solidarity	2.296	1	2.296	3.181	0.077	0.021
Error	Status	86.901	145	0.599			
	Solidarity	104.667	145	0.722			

5.4.3.3 GAE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.033 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which did not

violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for GAE speaker status ($F(1,145)=0.017$; $p=0.896>0.05$) and GAE speaker solidarity ($F(1,145)=1.705$; $p=0.194>0.05$) are both insignificant which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the British participants' status and solidarity evaluations of GAE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 5.55), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the GAE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is insignificant: $F(2,144)=0.637$; $p(0.530)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.991; partial eta squared=0.009. It can be concluded that there is no significant effect of correct and incorrect identification on British evaluations of the GAE speaker status and solidarity and therefore there is no need to examine the effect of identification on the two dependent variables separately (i.e., British participants' status and solidarity ratings of GAE speaker).

Table 5.55 British Evaluations of GAE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

GAE Speaker	Identifications	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	5.04	0.69	145
	Incorrect	4.50	0.71	2
	Total	5.03	0.69	147
Solidarity	Correct	4.36	0.86	145
	Incorrect	4.25	0.35	2
	Total	4.35	0.85	147

5.4.3.4 SSBE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.857 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for SSBE speaker status $F(1,145)=0.300$; $p=0.585>0.05$) and SSBE speaker solidarity ($F(1,145)=0.229$; $p=0.633>0.05$) are both insignificant which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the British participants' status and solidarity evaluations of SSBE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 5.56), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between

identification and the SSBE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is insignificant: $F(2,144)=2.350$; $p(0.099)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.968; partial eta squared=0.032. It can be concluded that there is no significant effect of correct and incorrect identification on British evaluations of the SSBE speaker status and solidarity.

Table 5.56 British Evaluations of SSBE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

SSBE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	4.71	0.83	133
	Incorrect	5.00	0.76	14
	Total	4.74	0.83	147
Solidarity	Correct	3.11	1.15	133
	Incorrect	3.79	1.33	14
	Total	3.18	1.18	147

5.4.3.5 IE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.492 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for IE speaker status ($F(1,145)=1.829$; $p=0.178>0.05$) and IE speaker solidarity ($F(1,145)=0.817$; $p=0.364>0.05$) are both insignificant which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the British participants' status and solidarity evaluations of IE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 5.57), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the IE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is insignificant: $F(2,144)=0.972$; $p(0.381)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.987; partial eta squared=0.013. It can be concluded that there is no significant effect of correct and incorrect identification on British evaluations of the IE speaker status and solidarity.

Table 5.57 British Evaluations of IE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

IE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	4.80	0.92	126
	Incorrect	4.67	1.02	21
	Total	4.78	0.93	147
Solidarity	Correct	4.27	1.06	126
	Incorrect	3.93	0.94	21
	Total	4.22	1.04	147

5.4.3.6 JE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.488 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for JE speaker status ($F(1,145)=0.364$; $p=0.547>0.05$) and JE speaker solidarity ($F(1,145)=0.028$; $p=0.868>0.05$) are both insignificant which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the British participants' status and solidarity evaluations of the JE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 5.58), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the JE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is insignificant: $F(2,144)=2.558$; $p(0.081)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.966; partial eta squared=0.034. It can be concluded that there is no significant effect of correct and incorrect identification on British evaluations of the JE speaker status and solidarity.

Table 5.58 British Evaluations of JE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

JE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	3.84	0.89	57
	Incorrect	3.53	0.86	90
	Total	3.65	0.88	147
Solidarity	Correct	3.74	0.76	57
	Incorrect	3.51	0.76	90
	Total	3.60	0.76	147

5.4.3.7 SE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.555 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for SE speaker status ($F(1,145)=0.985$; $p=0.323>0.05$) and SE speaker solidarity ($F(1,145)=2.206$; $p=0.140>0.05$) are both insignificant which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Although there were differences in the British participants' status and solidarity evaluations of the SE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 5.59), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and the SE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is significant: $F(2,144)=3.543$; $p(0.031)<0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.953; partial eta squared=0.047 (which suggests a small effect). When the effects of identification on the two dependent variables of the British participants' evaluations of SE speaker status and solidarity were considered separately, only the difference in evaluations for SE speaker solidarity ($F(1,145)=7.118$; $p(0.008)<0.05$; partial eta squared=0.047 (which suggests a small effect) reached significant difference (Table 5.60). This suggests that British respondents who correctly identified the SE speaker as Spanish, evaluated him significantly more positively than those who failed to recognise his origin.

Table 5.59 British Evaluations of SE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

SE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	3.86	0.86	98
	Incorrect	3.69	0.95	49
	Total	3.80	0.89	147
Solidarity	Correct	3.47	0.98	98
	Incorrect	3.03	0.86	49
	Total	3.32	0.96	147

Table 5.60 Test of Between-Subjects Effects for the British Evaluations of SE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
SE	Status	0.871	1	0.871	1.089	0.298	0.007
	solidarity	6.289	1	6.289	7.118	0.008	0.047
Error	Status	115.908	145	0.799			
	solidarity	128.112	145	0.884			

5.4.3.8 TE Speaker

The assumption of equal variance before the MANOVA test is as follows. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.903 (i.e., $p>0.001$) which did not violate the equal variance assumption. Levene's test of equality for TE speaker status ($F(1,145)=0.134$; $p=0.715>0.05$) and TE speaker solidarity ($F(1,145)=0.300$; $p=0.585>0.05$) are both insignificant which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance.

Table 5.61 British Evaluations of TE Speaker Status and Solidarity According to Identifications (1 = lowest, 6 = highest)

TE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	3.50	0.92	73
	Incorrect	3.49	0.99	74
	Total	3.49	0.95	147
Solidarity	Correct	3.46	0.86	73
	Incorrect	3.38	0.91	74
	Total	3.42	0.88	147

Although there were differences in the British participants' status and solidarity evaluations of the TE speaker according to correct and incorrect identification (Table 5.61), the results of the MANOVA test showed that the link between identification and TE speaker's status and solidarity evaluations is insignificant: $F(2,144)=0.209$; $p(0.812)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.953; partial eta squared=0.003. It can be concluded that no significant effect is found of correct and incorrect identification on British evaluations of the TE speaker status and solidarity.

5.4.3.9 The Summary of the Effects of British Participants' Correct and Incorrect Identifications on Speakers' Evaluations

In summary, it can be concluded that the British listeners' identification of a speech variety did not have a significant effect on how they evaluated it, except for the solidarity rating of the SE speaker. Specifically, the SE speaker received a significantly higher evaluation of solidarity from the British respondents who correctly identified his speech origin.

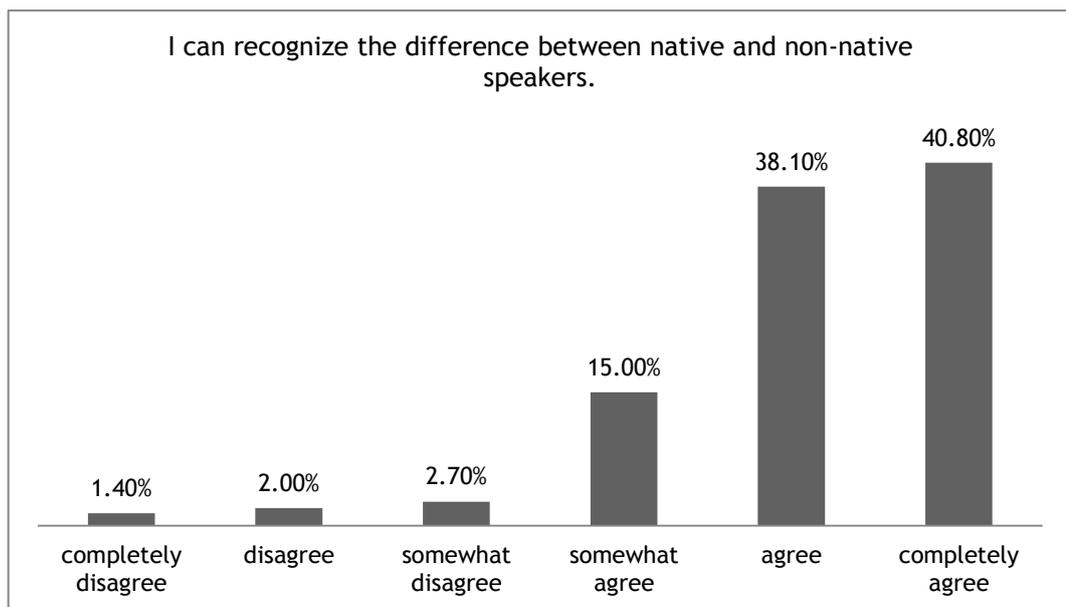
5.5 The Role of World Englishes on British Attitudes towards Varieties of English

The aim of this section is to discuss the British participants' overt perceptions towards varieties of English through the responses of the Likert scale task.

5.5.1 Likert Scale Question One

From Graph 5.9, it can be seen that the majority (93%) of the British participants explicitly expressed that they are able to distinguish NSs and NNSs. Therefore, the British respondents' overt perceptions of their abilities in distinguishing NSs and NNSs correspond with the results of the speaker origin identification task, which showed high rates of accuracy in distinguishing IC varieties from OC varieties.

Graph 5.9 British Responses to the Likert Scale Question One

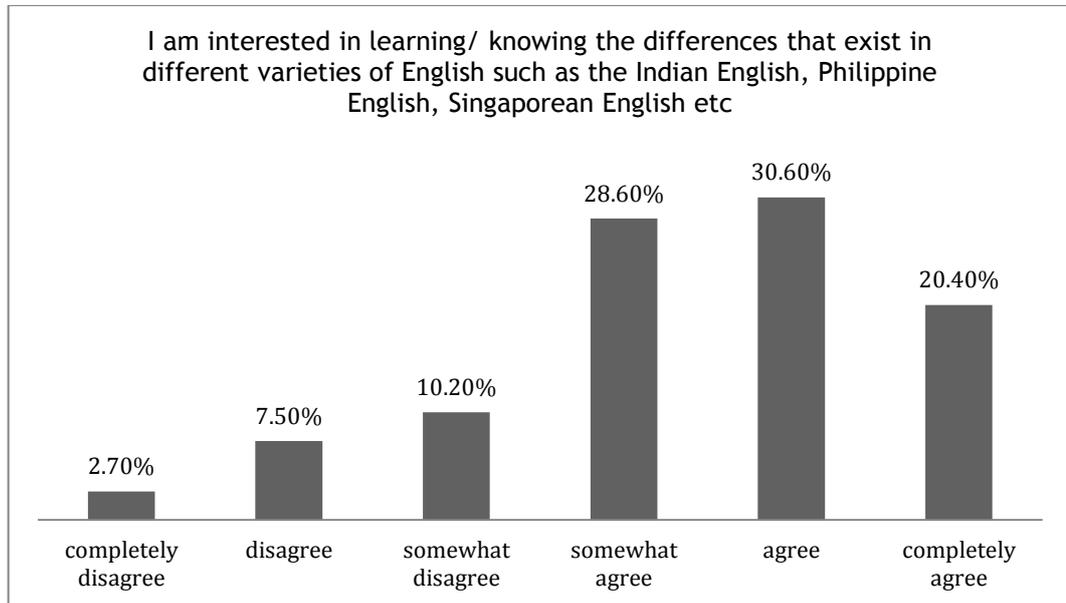


5.5.2 Likert Scale Question Two

As shown in Graph 5.10, a majority of British participants (71%) indicated their interest in learning or understanding different varieties of English, especially non-native Asian-accented Englishes. Despite the VGT finding that British participants tend to downgrade Asian English speech, this result suggests the

British listeners' overt willingness to acquire knowledge of the differences in Asian varieties of English.

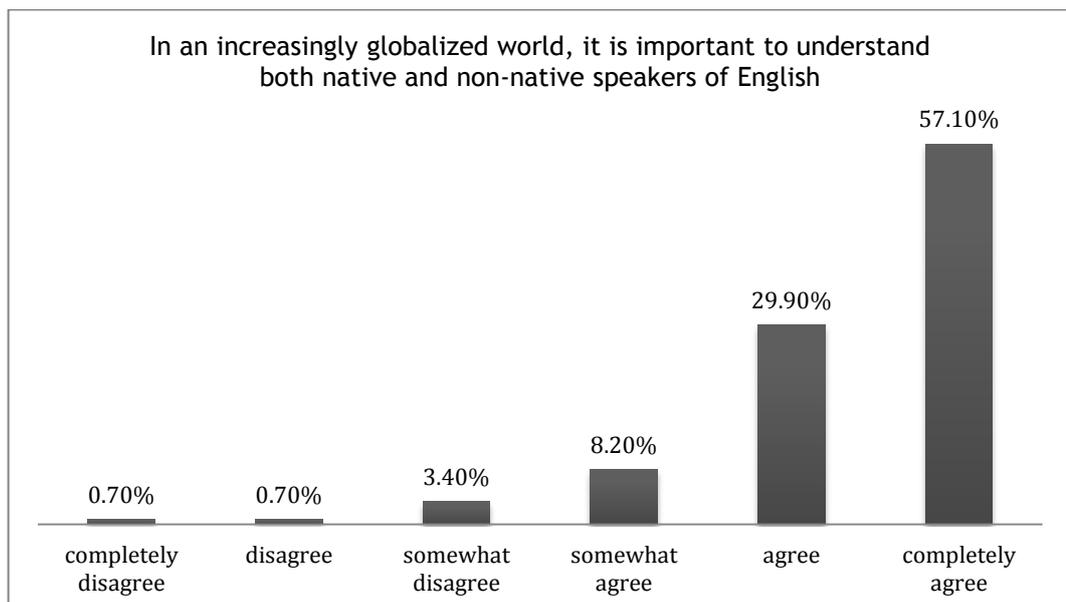
Graph 5.10 British Responses to the Likert Scale Question Two



5.5.3 Likert Scale Question Three

From Graph 5.11, it can be seen that the majority (95%) of British participants explicitly agreed to the importance of understanding both native and non-native English speech in an increasingly globalised world. This finding further shed light on the British listeners' overt awareness of the likelihood of communicating with both NSs and NNSs within or outside of British society.

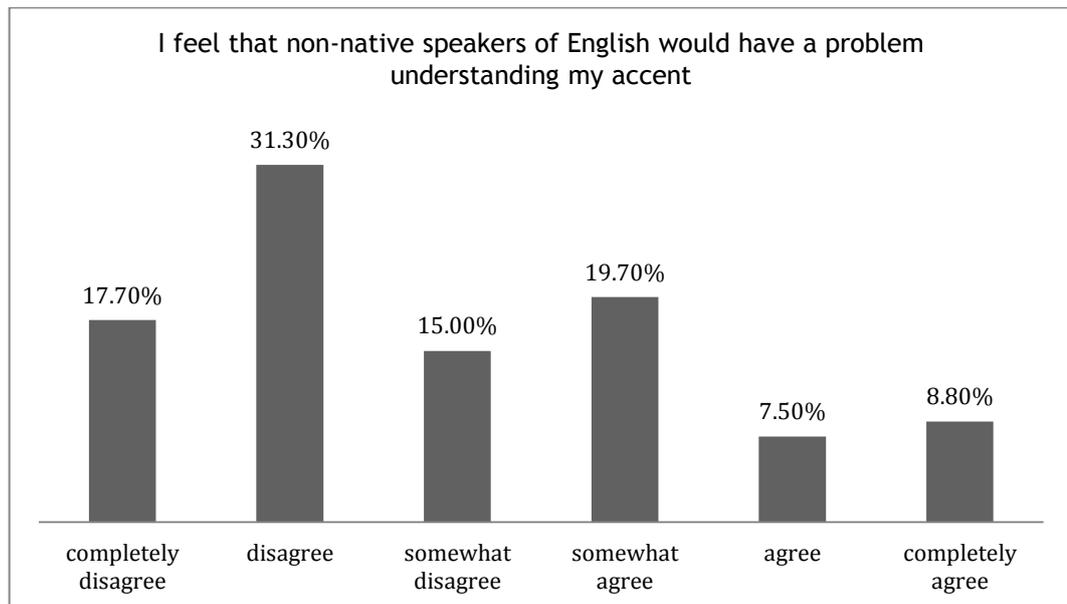
Graph 5.11 Responses to the Likert Scale Question Three British



5.5.4 Likert Scale Question Four

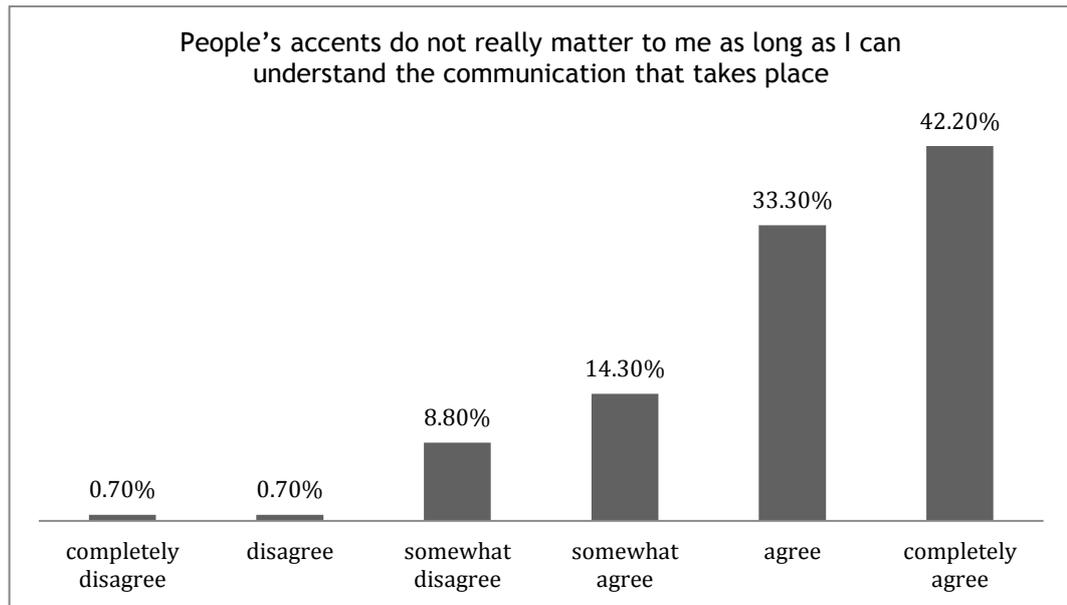
From Graph 5.12, it can be seen that the majority (64%) of British participants indicated their disagreement to the statement that NNSs would have a problem understanding their accent. The findings suggested that most of the British respondents show a high degree of certainty in perceiving their accent as unlikely to cause miscommunication when conversations are taking place with NNSs.

Graph 5.12 British Responses to the Likert Scale Question Four



5.5.5 Likert Scale Question Five

From Graph 5.13, it can be seen that the majority (90%) of British participants explicitly indicated their agreement that accent is a less important issue as long as conversation takes place successfully. Nevertheless, while the VGT result showed that British listeners tend to evaluate varieties of NSs more positively than those of the NNSs, this finding demonstrates the British participants' relatively open attitudes towards varieties of English accents.

Graph 5.13 British Responses to the Likert Scale Question Five

5.5.6 Summary of the Role of World Englishes on British Language Attitudes

The following point summarises the role of WE on the British participants' explicit attitudes towards varieties of English.

In parallel to the British participants' ability to identify the origins of each speaker based on accent cues (see Section 5.4.2), a majority of the British informants expressed explicitly that they are able to differentiate the speech of NSs and NNSs (see Section 5.5.1).

When questioned through the direct approach of the Likert scale questions, the majority of the British participants were generally open to accepting both varieties of NSs and NNSs, and expressed great interest in learning the differences in OC English varieties. They also had more forbearing perceptions towards people's accents, which suggest their readiness to interact and communicate with people who have different native languages. Nevertheless, these findings showed a different picture from the VGT responses, where the British respondents covertly evaluated varieties of NSs more favourably than those of NNSs.

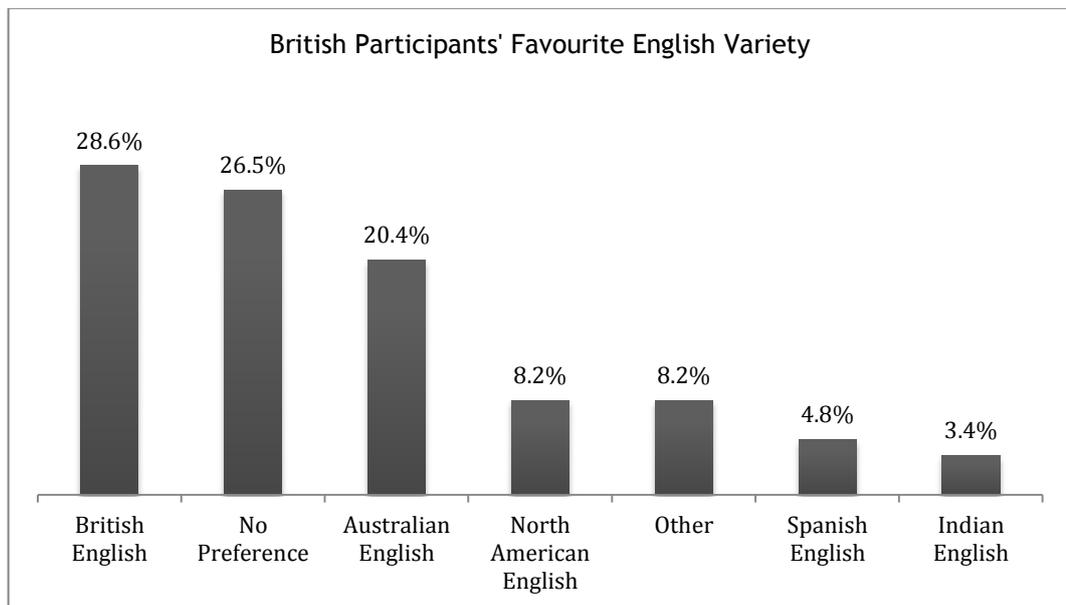
5.6 British Participants' Explicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English

This section endeavours to explicitly investigate the British participants' preferences for varieties of English via the two multiple-choices questions.

5.6.1 Multiple-Choice Question One

As shown in Graph 5.14, while the majority of British participants (28.60%) perceived British English as the most preferred variant, 26.50% of them indicated that they have no preference over a certain variety, which is different from the VGT finding, where GAE is the variety which received the highest evaluation on both status and solidarity dimensions. The differences between the result obtained from the VGT and the multiple-choice question implies that the British listeners' implicit and explicit attitudes towards English varieties differ.

Graph 5.14 British Responses to the Favourite English Variety

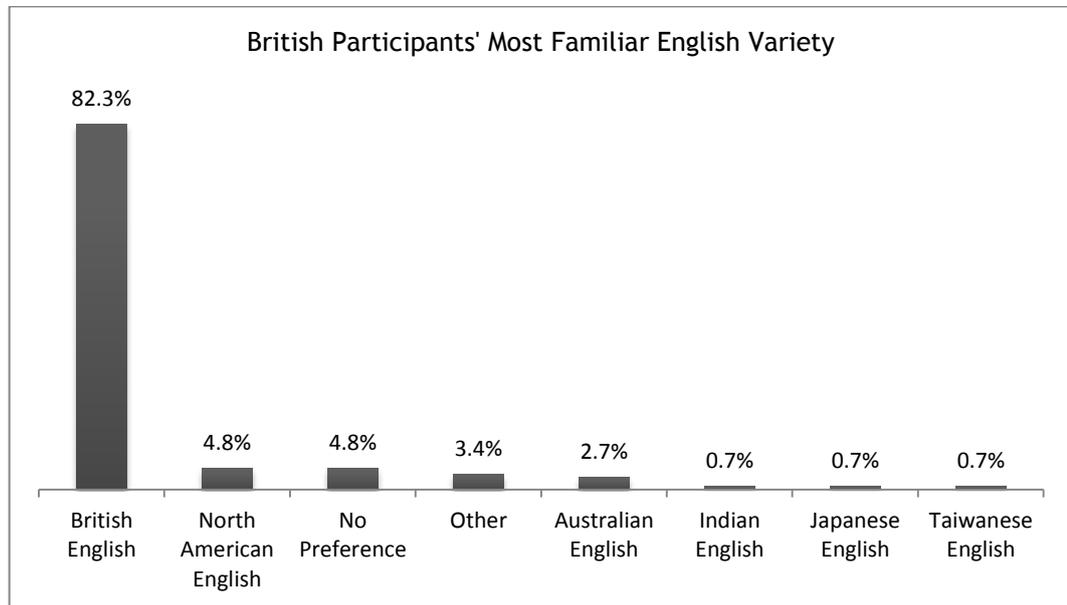


5.6.2 Multiple-Choice Question Two

From Graph 5.15, the majority (82%) of British participants indicated that they are most familiar with British English, with which they share the same origin. Despite the result obtained from the speaker origin identification task where GAE was the most frequently correctly identified variety, the responses of

multiple-choice question two reflect the 90% of the British respondents who identified the origin of the SSBE speaker correctly (see Section 5.4.1)

Graph 5.15 British Responses to the Most Familiar English Variety



5.6.3 Summary of British Participants' Explicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English

It can be summarised that the British Participants' favourite variety tends to differ when different techniques of attitude elicitation are employed. When asked explicitly, they choose the option of British English as their favourite variety, yet in the VGT they covertly evaluated GAE the most highly. Secondly, the British informants are not only able to identify the provenance of the SSBE speaker in the speaker identification task, they are also consciously aware that they are most familiar with the variety with which they share the same origin.

Chapter 6

Discussion and Implications of Findings

This chapter provides a comprehensive comparison of the major findings from the independent Taiwanese (Chapter 4) and British (Chapter 5) experiments, with synthesised interpretations and explanations. Since many of the findings are inevitably interrelated, a minimal degree of overlap is obligatory during the discussion of each research question.

Firstly, I will discuss the findings of the VGT section of the research questionnaire. The findings will help to answer the questions of how the Taiwanese and British participants' implicit attitudes towards varieties of English differed. Following this, I will then go on to discuss the findings of which social variables of the respondents pose a significant main effect on their perceptions towards varieties of English. Next, the findings with regard to the Taiwanese and British respondents' attitudes towards varieties of English will be discussed as well as the role of identification of speaker origin on the evaluations of these varieties. Finally, I will discuss the role of World English on the Taiwanese and British evaluators' explicit attitudes towards varieties of English.

6.1 Question One: What are the Taiwanese and British Participants' Implicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English?

The overall finding of the VGT confirmed that the Taiwanese and British participants generally concur that English varieties of the IC and the OC are preferred over those of the EC. The high number of Taiwanese and British participants that prefer the accents of the English language spoken in the IC and the OC to the varieties of the EC suggest that they do not perceive different English accents of NSs and NNSs equally. The results also show that the Taiwanese and British participants' evaluations towards varieties of English do differ along the two evaluative components of the status and solidarity dimension.

On the social construct of status, the Taiwanese and British participants have both similar and different evaluations towards the seven English varieties. Both groups of participants evaluated GAE distinctly higher than the rest of the English varieties on the status dimension. The OC variety of IE was evaluated significantly higher than the IC variety of AE and the three EC varieties of JE, SE, and TE across status traits by both groups of Taiwanese and British participants. Moreover, no significant difference was found in the status evaluations of JE and SE with both Taiwanese and British participants. Some variations exist between Taiwanese and British attitudes of speaker status evaluations towards varieties of English. While the Taiwanese participants perceived their own variant of TE similarly to SE when social status is considered, TE was rated significantly lower than SE by their British counterparts. For the British participants, their evaluations towards the two non-native Asian accented Englishes of JE and TE were not significantly different. Based on the social status ratings that the three EC varieties received, it can be inferred that the British listeners tend to prefer the non-native variety spoken in the European country of Spain to the two Asian accented Englishes of TE and JE. This might result from the influence of geographical proximity between Spain and the UK when compared to Japan and Taiwan. However, the Taiwanese participants regarded JE significantly higher than TE on the status dimension. Also, while SSBE was distinctively perceived as having more social status than IE by the Taiwanese participants, IE and SSBE were evaluated the same statistically by the British participants.

In terms of solidarity, while the Taiwanese participants perceived GAE distinctly higher than the rest of the English varieties, the British participants perceived GAE the same as IE statistically. More attitude differences were found in the evaluation of the two IC varieties of AE and SSBE. Statistical analysis demonstrates that the Taiwanese participants perceived AE and SSBE similarly, but the British participants evaluated the Commonwealth variety of AE significantly higher than SSBE and the other three EC varieties on the solidarity dimension. For the Taiwanese participants, there are significant differences in the level of solidarity between the IC varieties of AE and JE, and AE and SE, but not AE and TE. This shows that the Taiwanese participants perceived their own variant of TE as similar to the IC variety of AE from the perspective of social attractiveness. In this case, the intergroup approach of the SIT theory (e.g.,

Tajfel, 1974; 1981; Tajfel and Turner, 1986) helps to explain the conditions under which the Taiwanese participants and the speaker of TE belong to the same social group and share the same social identity. As the Taiwanese participants' attitudes towards TE inevitably express the link to the speaker of the same origin - Taiwan - this might be the reason why the TE speaker was evaluated slightly more positively on the basis of social attractiveness when compared to the status dimension by Taiwanese participants. The groundwork of SIT provides a theoretical account that when individuals view a given English accent that is representative of their own speech community, the sense of in-group membership and identity is likely to generate positive self-esteem as well as favourable solidarity attitudes towards the speaker (e.g., Giles, 1971; Tajfel, 1974; 1981; Edwards, 1982; Tajfel and Turner, 1986). For SSBE, which is the standard IC variety that has traditionally been associated with high prestige, no significant differences were found between SSBE and some of the EC varieties. For example, no distinct differences were found in the solidarity evaluations towards SSBE and TE, SSBE and JE from the Taiwanese participants as well as SSBE and TE, SSBE and SE from the British participants. For the non-native varieties of the EC, both groups of the Taiwanese and British participants evaluated JE similarly to TE and evaluated JE significantly higher than SE. While the Taiwanese participants evaluated TE significantly higher than SE, these two non-native varieties were evaluated the same by the British listeners.

Taken together, it can be concluded that varieties of the IC and OC tend to receive more positive evaluations than the EC ones across the traits of status from Taiwanese and British participants. The present finding is in partial accordance with the findings from an extensive range of language attitudes research where native English speech is endorsed above non-native speech on the status dimension (e.g., Giles, 1970; Chiba et al., 1995; Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; Coupland and Bishop, 2007). The findings of this research further illustrate that English varieties of different non-native origins can be evaluated differently. For example, it is shown that both groups of Taiwanese and British participants perceive the non-native variety of the OC-IE as having more status than the non-native varieties of the EC-JE, SE and TE. Different from the finding of the status evaluations, English varieties of the OC and the EC are sometimes evaluated significantly higher than some of the IC varieties when Taiwanese and

British participants are asked to evaluate how friendly and how lively these accents are. The most notable finding of this are the British participants' evaluations of the standard variety of SSBE where it received significantly lower solidarity ratings than the OC variety of IE and the EC variety of JE. The result suggests that the standard variety of IC-SSBE is distinctively preferred over AE and the other three EC varieties regarding speaker status, but is not necessarily judged as distinctly favourable regarding speaker solidarity by British participants. This finding is partly consistent with the results of previous research (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; Bayard, 2008; Hiraga, 2005; Cargile et al., 2006; Ladegaard and Sachdev, 2006; Coupland and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2010), which has found that standard varieties are often endorsed from a status perspective, whilst non-standard varieties are likely to be judged more favourably from a solidarity perspective. However, it is worth bearing in mind that the selected speech sample of SSBE should be seen as just one example of the standard form of southern British English, and other speakers of the same variety may be perceived differently. On this subject, therefore, it is of empirical value to incorporate more than one recording stimulus to represent the variety of SSBE, which will strengthen the reliability of the research participants' perceptions towards different English accents.

It is said that naïve listeners tend to be unaware of the complicated interrelationship between accent variations and the connoted stereotypes, and yet accents automatically elicit the perceived characteristics of the speakers (e.g., Giles, 1970; Garrett et al., 1999; Coupland and Bishop, 2007). The Taiwanese and British participants of this study inevitably reveal their implicit attitudes towards different English varieties through the measurement of the VGT. Consequently, the findings indicate that the VGT is a practical design that can be used to indirectly examine the underlying perceptions of the Taiwanese and British respondents towards different English accents across the IC, OC and EC. With the informants' ratings for each of the personality traits later grouped into status and solidarity factors, it is intriguing to see how the linguistic variables of accent cues from the speech samples of the VGT evoke perceptions that disclose the social beliefs and the prestige levels associated with different speech communities.

The results obtained from the VGT are in agreement with Edwards' (1982:20) argument that "people's reaction to language varieties reveals much of their perception of the speakers of these varieties". The demonstration that English accent variations carry complex social meanings for the evaluators, who are non-linguistic experts, shows the importance of conducting language attitude studies. Furthermore, the results of this study clearly illustrate that both Taiwanese and British research groups distinctly differentiate one English variety from another when they are requested to judge the speakers from a list of personal characteristics.

Since little research has been conducted to compare NNSs and NSs evaluations of language variations (e.g., Barona, 2008; Clark and Schlee, 2010), this result is, therefore, pioneering in showing that both NNSs in Taiwan and NSs in the UK predominantly share similar attitudes towards the seven English varieties that are under investigation in this study. In consideration of the lingua franca role that English serves amongst people whose first language is not English, this study contributes to furthering knowledge of the comparative language attitudes of NNSs and NSs by showing the Taiwanese and British participants' covert perceptions of, and relative willingness to accept, different English varieties. This section mainly discussed the Taiwanese and British participants' attitudes towards the seven English varieties according to the status and solidarity dimensions. The following sections will compare their evaluations towards different English accents according to the IC, OC and EC.

6.1.1 Taiwanese and British Participants' Implicit Attitudes towards the IC English Varieties

In terms of status and solidarity, the Taiwanese and British participants' attitudes towards English accents of the IC are generally positive. In particular, both groups of respondents clearly expressed that they favoured GAE the most when considering the traits of status and solidarity. This finding echoes previous studies in both Taiwan (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Kobayashi, 2012; Lee, 2013; Yang, 2013) and in the UK (e.g., Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007).

While a standard variety is often represented in media broadcasting (e.g., Fishman, 1971:25; Kerswill, 2006; Clopper and Bradlow, 2008), both subject groups' preferences for GAE speech might be the consequence of the widespread

availability of mass media from the USA, including Hollywood movies, American sitcoms and pop music across the globe (e.g., Ladegaard, 1998; Bayard et al., 2001; Kirkpatrick, 2007). The international reach of the standard form of American English via the media further illustrates that “the expansion of language contributes to the prestige of the culture behind it”, which explains why GAE is highly evaluated by the groups of both Taiwanese and British respondents (Kahane, 1992:232 cited in Kirkpatrick, 2007:55).

According to Bex and Watts (1999:7), the standard variety has been described as “the variety of a language used by educated speakers with high respect of a community in speech and writing”. Considering the fact that a great number of people from the middle and upper classes within Taiwanese society have studied abroad, with the USA being the top destination of preference (Chang, 2004), this might partially explain the firm establishment of standard American English in Taiwan and why it is perceived as the most desirable variety to acquire in order to attain socioeconomic success and advancement. Moreover, since the Taiwanese educational bureau has a policy statement promoting the standard form of American English (Chang, 2004), it is widely reported that EFL learners in Taiwan primarily prefer standard American English for ideological reasons and as an instructional model, which is likely to influence their liking for other English varieties (e.g., Kobayashi, 2008; Lee, 2013; Yang, 2013).

Despite the fact that SSBE speech was evaluated less positively than GAE, it is still considered a prestigious variety across status traits for EFL informants in Taiwan and respondents in the UK due to its closeness to RP, which is still considered the most prestigious form of British English. Moreover, this fondness may stem from the growing appeal of British media such as the TV series *Downton Abbey*, despite the dominant influence of American media. Taiwanese and British people are also likely to perceive the educated variety of British English spoken in the UK as the standard, which is associated with the variety spoken by the Royal Family and thus with a refined and esteemed British lifestyle (e.g., Stewart et al., 1985). Along with standard American English, the prevalence of standard British English as a favoured pronunciation model in commercial ELT materials illustrates why SSBE is extensively perceived as a prestigious variety by EFL speakers (e.g., Butler, 2007; Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997).

In comparison to the high status and solidarity with which GAE has been accredited by both participant groups, SSBE, being close to the non-regional accent of RP, received positive ratings for status but not necessarily for solidarity. The high status rating that Taiwanese participants appointed to SSBE, although still lower than GAE, is similar to the finding of Buckingham (2014:9) where Omani university students in the Gulf region assigned a higher status rating to US speakers than to British speakers. This finding reflects how the standard form of American English is perceived as the norm amongst English users of the EC. The British-sounding accent of SSBE, despite being a standard form of English speech, was perceived, particularly by native English users born and raised in the UK, as containing a significantly lower level of social attractiveness when compared to the other native accents of GAE, AE and non-native accents of IE, JE under investigation. This finding, that SSBE is rated highly on the status factor but not the solidarity factor, is similar to the NSs and NNSs studies investigating the prestigious accent of RP (e.g., Giles, 1970; Giles, 1971; Hiraga, 2005; Clark and Schlee, 2010).

The Taiwanese and British participants rate the IC variety of AE significantly less positively than the IC variety of GAE and the OC variety of IE on speaker status. The marginalised evaluation that AE has received from the Taiwanese participants reflects the stereotyped belief that IC accents other than the mainstream American and British English are often seen as peripheral sub-standard varieties by NSs (e.g., Delbridge, 1999:260) and NNSs (e.g., Jenkins, 2007). The General Australian English accent is sometimes downgraded as the phonological features, such as the mix of diphthongs of /ai/ and /ei/, can be perceived as an incorrect or less-standard model of pronunciation (Kirkpatrick, 2007:71). Regardless of geographical proximity, the finding shows that EFL speakers in Taiwan distinctly perceived AE as a less preferred English accent that is not as socially attractive as GAE. In relation to GAE, the comparably lower ratings of AE by Taiwanese participants is similar to findings of previous studies of NNSs attitudes in the context of other Asian countries such as South Korea (Gibb, 1999; Kim, 2007), Japan (Moloney, 2009), Hong Kong (Zhang, 2010), Thailand (Jindapitak, 2010) and Taiwan (Lee, 2013), in which the mainstream varieties of standard American were identified as the legitimate pronunciation model rather than General Australian English.

Irrespective of their colonial connection with Australia, the result that the British participants prefer the mainstream IC varieties of GAE and SSBE to AE across status-related attributes corresponds with the consistent findings of NSs' denigration of Australian English compared to mainstream American and British English in the UK (e.g., Coupland and Bishop, 2007; Garrett, 2010), the USA (e.g., Bayard et al., 2001; Garrett, 2010), Australia (e.g., Bayard et al., 2001:36) and New Zealand (e.g., Bayard et al., 2001:36; Garrett, 2010).

With regard to solidarity, the evaluation of AE by the British group of listeners was more positive than that of the standard British speech of SSBE. The finding that AE was evaluated more favourably in terms of solidarity than in terms of status is identical to the Danish finding, where Ladegaard (1998: 267) contends that the English speech of Australia is conventionally associated with friendliness. Nevertheless, the current result that British participants assign AE with higher solidarity ratings than SSBE but lower ratings than GAE deviates from the research findings of Coupland and Bishop (2007), where the majority of British listeners perceived Australian English as more attractive than North American English, but less attractive than the Queen's English in terms of social integrity.

6.1.2 Taiwanese and British Participants' Implicit Attitudes towards the OC English Variety

The OC variety of IE is generally received well and scores favourably on the status dimension, with higher speaker status ratings than the three EC accents of the SE, JE and TE by both groups, the Taiwanese and British listeners. Moreover, both Taiwanese and British participants perceived IE as possessing similar solidarity with the native variety of AE. In consideration of speaker status, IE is evaluated significantly higher than AE, which is the variety of the IC. Characterised with distinctive phonological features and often labelled as speech with a "strong accent" (Arun, 2013 cited in Aziz, 2013:250), the finding of the present study, that IE is highly endorsed, is in contrast to the negative perception of the English spoken by Indian people given previously by British participants (e.g., Giles, 1970; Coupland and Bishop, 2007), and those from South Korea (e.g., Kim, 2007), Taiwan (e.g., Lai, 2008; Yang, 2013), Thailand (e.g., Jindapitak, 2010) and Saudi Arabia (e.g., Al-Dosari, 2011). The Taiwanese

and British respondents' positive attitudes towards IE might be explained by the gradual incorporation of non-standard English dialects into media broadcasting (e.g., Milroy and Milroy, 1999), including the popularity of the Indian Bollywood motion-picture industry around the world.

As the speech of IE is sometimes stereotyped as having “less emphasis on prescriptive notions of correctness” (Chand, 2009:410), accent reduction when speaking English has been reported to be an imperative issue for many Indians because of the institutionalisation of standard language ideology (e.g., Chand, 2009; Aziz, 2013:250). Nevertheless, this study demonstrates an important finding with regards to IE in that despite typically being unpopular; both the Taiwanese and British participants implicitly show favour to it. This indicates that it is likely to progressively gain acceptance amongst NSs and NNSs alike. This finding is also in line with Coupland and Bishop (2007), who argue that the gradual increase in favour towards the conventionally downgraded accents indicates potential changes in the way that people process and evaluate accents, moving away from pervasive prescriptivism as a means of judging speakers of different English varieties.

6.1.3 Taiwanese and British Participants' Implicit Attitudes towards the EC English Varieties

In contrast to the varieties of the IC and the OC, the EC varieties (SE, JE, TE) were generally rated negatively for status and solidarity attributes by both the Taiwanese and British informants. This finding may be the result of the listeners detecting prosodic patterns that deviate from the norms of standard IC English, and associating them with the speech of EFL speakers, which evokes derogatory connotations (e.g., Flege et al., 1995:233; Felps et al., 2009).

The finding of the VGT, that British participants rated SE significantly lower than the three IC varieties of AE, GAE, SSBE and the OC variety of IE for speaker status, echoes the findings of Coupland and Bishop (2007). In relation to the native varieties of AE, GAE, SSBE and the non-native variety of IE, the Taiwanese participants' significantly less favourable perceptions of SE in terms of status and solidarity resemble the findings of Sykes (2010:98), in which Singaporean respondents downgraded the Spanish English speaker. It is proposed that the Taiwanese participants' unfamiliarity with the phonological and prosodic

characteristics of Spanish English might account for their less favourable attitudes towards the SE sample in this study. Compared to the other two accents of the EC, SE was evaluated similar to the Asian varieties of JE and TE on the status dimension, but significantly less favourable than these two varieties on the solidarity dimension by the Taiwanese participants. However, as Spain is a popular holiday destination for people in the UK (The Guardian, 2017), British listeners tend to perceive SE distinctly more positively than the other non-native accent of TE from Asia for speaker status. Moreover, the growing numbers of Spanish people working in the UK provides further evidence of the British participants' comparative familiarity with the English accent of Spanish people, and explains why they regard SE as sharing a similar level of social attractiveness with SSBE for speaker solidarity (Okolski and Salt, 2014).

With regard to JE, both the Taiwanese and British participants implicitly evaluated this EC variety significantly lower than the two IC varieties of GAE and AE on speaker status and solidarity. This finding is similar to previous reports of Taiwanese students' disapproving attitudes towards other varieties of Asian-accented English, such as that of Philippines English (e.g., Kobayashi, 2008) when compared to standard American English. Taiwanese participants covertly judge JE as more favourable than the other non-native variety of TE on the status dimension, which might be owing to the geographical proximity of Taiwan to Japan. The findings of the British evaluation further demonstrate that British listeners perceive JE as less appealing in status and solidarity than the standard IC English varieties spoken in the USA and Australia. It is hypothesised therefore, that the British listeners' generally less favourable attitudes towards JE are likely to result from their relative unfamiliarity with Asian-accented English spoken in Japan.

TE was evaluated significantly lower than the standard variety of GAE by both the Taiwanese and the British participants, on both status and solidarity dimensions. Being coloured by the Taiwanese participants' native language, they commonly regard TE as a deficient form of English, spoken by EFL learners in Taiwan (Cheng, 2009). Additionally, the imposed norm hypothesis and the norm driven hypothesis, whereby social pressures cause speakers to emulate the mainstream varieties of the IC (e.g., Giles et al., 1975; Van Bezooijen, 2002:14), might also affect the Taiwanese listeners' preferences for the conventional

standard American over TE, despite sharing the same origins. However, it is worth noting that both the Taiwanese and the British listeners' attitudes toward TE are similar to their perceptions towards the prestigious IC variety of SSBE along the solidarity continuum when investigated indirectly through a VGT.

6.1.4 Summary of Research Question One

In summary, the findings regarding the first research question demonstrate how accent cues, and the intuitive feelings they evoke, can trigger Taiwanese and British participants' implicit judgements about the personal qualities of the speakers of different English varieties. In light of the SIT (Tajfel, 1974; 1981; Tajfel and Turner, 1986), this study has also shown that the language attribute of accent is a key signal of the level of status and solidarity that is associated with the group membership of the NSs and NNSs.

The main results confirm that the VGT is a robust technique in eliciting the informants' attitudes towards a range of English accents. The Taiwanese and British findings with regard to attitudes towards different English accents demonstrate that while English varieties of the IC and the OC are evaluated more favourably than the EC on speaker status, some varieties of the OC and the EC are perceived similarly to those of the IC on speaker solidarity. With regard to speaker status, both groups of Taiwanese and British participants evaluated GAE the most highly. While Taiwanese respondents evaluated SSBE significantly higher than IE, British counterparts perceived SSBE similarly to IE. Both groups of Taiwanese and British participants favoured IE significantly higher than AE and the other EC varieties. With regard to social attractiveness, the Taiwanese and British participants' solidarity evaluations differed more or less from their status perceptions of different English varieties. While both groups of participants distinctly favoured GAE on the status dimension, the British listeners perceived this standard accent of the IC to be similar to IE on the solidarity dimension. Additionally, TE and SSBE are statistically evaluated alike across solidarity traits by both the Taiwanese and British participants.

Taken together, the findings indicate that although Taiwanese and British participants can sometimes share identical attitudes towards varieties of English, their perceptions can sometimes be different. It is therefore important

to consider how NNSs and NSs evaluate English accents of the IC, OC and EC differently according to the two evaluative factors of status and solidarity. However, as a number of scholars argue, one's assessment of a speaker's competence and friendliness based on voice cannot always be attributed to just linguistic factors, but is also due to other factors that come into play, such as political and/or social convention (e.g., Lippi-Green, 1997; Derwing and Munro, 1997; Scales et al., 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Jindapitak, 2010). For this reason, I suggest that the findings of this study cannot be over-generalised with respect to which particular accent is considered prestigious and aesthetically superior or inferior to the others.

6.2 Question Two: Which Social Variables (if any) Appear to be Significant in Determining the Taiwanese and British Participants' Attitudes towards Varieties of English?

This section aims to summarise the findings of how the social variables of the Taiwanese and British participants influence their evaluations of different English varieties (see Section 4.2 and Section 5.2).

6.2.1 Main Effects of Social Variables on Taiwanese and British Participants' Evaluations

There are three key findings regarding the effect of the Taiwanese and British participants' sociodemographic factors on judging different English accents.

The first result suggests that the two social variables of occupation (AE, GAE and IE) and self-perceived English level (SSBE) significantly influence the evaluation of IC and OC varieties of English given by Taiwanese participants. Next, it was found that the social variable of gender does not have any significant effect on either the Taiwanese or British participants' evaluations. Lastly, whilst Taiwanese students assigned a significantly more positive evaluation to AE, GAE and IE than the evaluators who are workers, Taiwanese participants who said they had a higher level of English had a distinct preference for the SSBE variety, in contrast to those who said they had a lower level of English.

The following subsections will discuss in turn the effects of the social variables of gender, occupation, self-perceived accent level (British participants) and self-perceived English level (Taiwanese participants) on the informants' evaluation of different English varieties.

6.2.1.1 Gender

The main finding for gender shows that, depending on the other social factor of occupation, gender was found to be a salient factor in the Taiwanese participants' attitudes towards GAE and SSBE on speaker solidarity. The finding shows that female Taiwanese students perceived the two IC varieties of GAE and SSBE significantly less positively than males. On the other hand, female Taiwanese workers evaluated these two accents significantly higher than their male counterparts did. This result suggests that, instead of a straightforward gender differentiation in the Taiwanese participants' attitudes towards GAE and SSBE, there is instead an interplay between gender and occupation in the evaluation of the different varieties. This is in line with findings in sociolinguistics more generally where, for example, gender, class and style may all interact in governing language attitudes (e.g., Giles, 1970; Giles and Coupland, 1991; Coupland and Bishop, 2007). Where the evaluative patterns of the male and female listeners towards varieties of English do not always conform to each other in different speech communities, it is surmised that the respective ideological social constructs linked to males and females may vary across cultures. This would suggest that future research into language attitudes is worth undertaking to examine whether the evaluators' judgments towards different English varieties varies significantly according to the gender variables of male and female.

6.2.1.2 Occupation

Occupation was found to influence significantly the status evaluation given to the two IC varieties (AE and GAE) and the OC variety (IE) by the Taiwanese participants (see Section 4.2.2). For the British participants, on the other hand, occupation was not found to be a significant factor. The findings of this study revealed that Taiwanese students evaluated GAE and IE significantly higher across status-related traits than participants who are working. It is speculated

that as Taiwanese students tend to have more exposure to GAE through schooling, this helps to explain why it leads to more favourable attitudes towards this particular variety (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Chen, 2010; Jou, 2010; Lin, 2012). With regard to evaluating another IC variety of AE, Taiwanese students evaluated this accent significantly lower on the status dimension than workers did. This is likely a result of native speaker ideology whereby English language education in Taiwan is permeated by the standard form of American English as the preferred model (e.g., Chen, 2010; Jou, 2010; Lin, 2012; Chang, 2016; Liao and Hu, 2016). The results imply that the ELT practices that put the focus on standard American English to students of different levels of schooling in Taiwan have inevitably influenced the judgement and preferences of the Taiwanese respondents who were students. Furthermore, when compared to Taiwanese participants who are working, students in Taiwan demonstrate higher levels of positive evaluations to the varieties of IE that are generally perceived as less prestigious in Asia (e.g., Jindapitak, 2010; Yang, 2013). It could be inferred that Taiwanese students are likely to hold a more accepting attitude towards English varieties that are spoken by Indian people. However, further study will be needed to confirm whether occupational difference leads to variations in attitude towards non-native varieties such as IE.

Since most studies of the language attitudes of NNSs focus mainly on university students (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; Sykes, 2010; Jindapitak, 2010), this finding is intriguing in that it shows that evaluators of different occupational sectors, in this instance, students and employed workers, can have different perceptions of the same English speech. Therefore, further study should divide respondents' occupations into more specific classifications, such as those working in the business sector, to see how these compare with the evaluations of those working in the educational sector.

6.2.1.3 Self-perceived English Level

When considering the Taiwanese respondents' self-perceived English level, the only significant effect was that Taiwanese participants who regard themselves as having a higher level of English competency are more influenced by the perceived prestige image of SSBE. Specifically, they evaluated SSBE significantly

more favourably on status than those who perceived themselves as having a lower level of English.

This result correlates with the findings of the study by McKenzie (2008a) where a self-perceived competence in English significantly influenced the ratings given by Japanese university students to Glasgow Standard English, Southern US English and Mid-West US English speakers. These two sets of findings, both MacKenzie's (2008a) and those from the current study, suggest that EFL speakers who perceive themselves as having more English language skills tend to place more importance on the standard forms of the IC varieties of English, compared to participants who perceive themselves as having a lower degree of competency in English.

By way of explanation, a number of researchers argue that English learners who are NNSs are likely to acquire social stereotypes that are shared amongst NSs when their proficiency in English is substantially improved (e.g., Eisenstein, 1982; Bohner and Wanke, 2002:86). In light of this finding on attitude variations, the implications for ELT suggest that standard British English speech might be the variant that a certain section of Taiwanese EFL speakers desire to acquire more than the commonly used model of standard American English when learning English.

6.2.1.4 Self-perceived Level of English Accent

Looking at the role of the British participants' self-perceived accent level, no significant differences were found between those who perceived themselves to have no accent and those who did consider themselves to have an accent. Taking this into account, the variable of the British informants' self-perceived level of English accent therefore does not appear to have significant impact on the evaluations given to any of the English varieties on either status or solidarity dimensions.

6.2.2 Interaction Effects of Social Variables on Taiwanese and British Participants' Evaluations

In summary, when considering the interaction effect of the Taiwanese and British participants' social variables and how they perceive the different varieties of

English of the IC, OC and EC, there is one significant finding. Specifically, the most significant interaction effect was found in gender and occupation where female Taiwanese students rated GAE and SSBE speakers significantly lower on the solidarity dimension than their male counterparts, whereas female Taiwanese workers evaluated the two standard forms of IC English speech significantly higher than their male counterparts. With regard to the British participants, no significant effects were found amongst the three social variables (gender, occupation and self-perceived level of English accent) on the status or solidarity evaluations. As a consequence, this finding confirms the importance of taking the interaction effect into account when researching how the evaluators' social variables impact on the way they evaluate varieties of English.

The following subsections will discuss whether any interaction effects exist between the Taiwanese (gender, occupation and self-perceived English level) and British (gender, occupation and self-perceived accent level) participants' social variables and the status or solidarity evaluations (see Section 4.3 and Section 5.3).

6.2.2.1 Taiwanese Participants

With regards to the Taiwanese participants, there was no significant effect on the status evaluations of any English variety apart from the solidarity rating of the two IC varieties of GAE and SSBE (see Section 4.3).

More specifically, the social factors of gender and occupation both demonstrated a significant interaction effect on the judgements of the Taiwanese respondents towards GAE and SSBE across solidarity traits. Regarding the solidarity dimension, whilst Taiwanese female students perceived GAE and SSBE significantly lower than their male student counterparts, Taiwanese females who are working regarded both English speech varieties of the IC significantly higher than their male worker counterparts. This interconnectedness between the effect of gender and occupation is likely to be of particular importance in determining the solidarity attitude of the Taiwanese respondents towards the two standard IC varieties (GAE, SSBE), which are often employed as reference models in English language instructions across the world.

The current findings confirm that neither gender nor occupation alone has a unique or direct influence upon the solidarity attitudes of the Taiwanese EFL respondents towards varieties of English. This corroborates the outcome discussed in previous sections, where the respective variables of gender (see Section 5.2.1) and occupation (see Section 5.2.2) were not found to have a significant main effect on the Taiwanese participants' evaluations of different English accents in terms of solidarity. Upon this point, the significant interaction effect of gender and occupation on the Taiwanese respondents' variations of the perceptual evaluations towards GAE and SSBE are further substantiated by the absence of the significant main effects of the two exact social variables.

6.2.2.2 British Participants

With respect to the findings of the British respondents' evaluations, it can be concluded that there was no significant interaction effect of gender, occupation and self-perceived accent level found on the status and solidarity ratings given to different English varieties. Although none of the sociodemographic groupings of the British respondents demonstrated a significantly interconnected influence on their evaluations of the seven English speech varieties, the current research is still of great importance in that it confirms that this set of social variables (gender, occupation and self-perceived accent level) does not interactively impact on attitude variations amongst speakers in the UK.

6.2.3 Summary of Research Question Two

The finding of research question two is intriguing in showing how NNSs' and NSs' evaluations of different varieties of English vary according to different social factors under investigation.

In summary, the only significant effect of social variables can be found in the Taiwanese participants' occupation (i.e., AE, GAE and IE) and self-perceived English level (i.e., SSBE) on the status evaluations of IC and OC English speech varieties. However, the selected social variables of this research experiment were not found to have a significant effect on either the Taiwanese or British respondents' solidarity evaluations of varieties of English. It is worth emphasising that the above finding does not automatically imply that stereotypes of different English accents are uniform. Whilst the social characteristics of gender and

occupation within the Taiwanese research population together accounted for significantly different views on solidarity towards GAE and SSBE, similar interaction effects were not found for British participants. One possible explanation for this is that the British respondents constituted a relatively smaller sample size than the Taiwanese sample. Therefore, it will be worth conducting future comparable studies with a larger or equivalent sized British sample.

In addition to the linguistic information on accents, which contributes to the Taiwanese and British participants' auditory discrimination of IC, OC and EC varieties of English (see Section 5.1), this finding confirmed that the sociodemographic variables of the evaluators played a vital role in shaping attitudinal variations towards different English speech.

It is also worth bearing in mind that this study does not take the possibility of the regional distribution of the Taiwanese and British participants for the evaluations of different English varieties into account. More than 50% of the British participants are from Scotland: whether this has a hand in the present finding of how different English accents were perceived requires further investigation (see Table 3.2 for the composition of British research sample). Taking British listeners, for instance, future studies could consider the factor of regional provenance including England, the Channel Islands, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales on the way that participants evaluate English varieties of the IC, OC and EC.

In addition to the social factors, it is noteworthy that the social roles of English varieties in Taiwan and Britain should also be acknowledged when investigating people's attitudes towards different English accents in future studies. The accent of standard American English, GAE, usually serves as a carrier of high social status meaning in Taiwan: many Taiwanese have endeavoured to acquire an American-like accent when speaking English and those who sound like NSs of the USA tend to be identified as people with educational and socioeconomic success (e.g., Chang, 2004; Chang, 2011). While Taiwanese who have acquired a standard American accent are likely to be perceived as people of a superior social class, it can sometimes bring reverse effects such as being criticised as showing off by Taiwanese peers (e.g., Lee, 2011; Chung, 2015). This has also

resulted in the spoken varieties of Taiwanese English that are characterised by the Guoyu²⁹ accent and that sound different from the reference accent of standard American English in ELT practices being viewed less favourably (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Lee, 2013; Yang, 2013). Altogether, as the usage and function of English continues to expand globally, it is worthwhile for future language attitudes studies to investigate whether the social role of different accents impacts upon listeners' perceptions towards native and non-native English varieties.

6.3 Question Three: Are Taiwanese and British Participants Able to Identify the Origins of Varieties of English?

This section endeavours to summarise the main findings of the Taiwanese and British participants' identifications of different English speakers' nationalities based on accent cues of the recorded speech sample (see Section 4.4 and Section 5.4). The recognition of English varieties is the construct of the cognitive mapping process of accents on people's records of the usage norms of specific speech communities that are socially or geographically correlated (e.g., Garrett et al., 2003:208; McKenzie, 2010).

There are three main findings obtained from the Taiwanese and British participants' responses to the Speaker Origin Identification Task. Firstly, the Taiwanese and British respondents are very aware of the native/non-native distinctions between the provenances of different English varieties.

Secondly, the Taiwanese participants who are NNSs and British informants who are NSs mainly share patterns of recognition of the ethnicity of different English speakers. The two standard varieties of GAE and SSBE are the most identified English varieties of speech, followed by that of the OC (IE) and then the three forms of English spoken in the EC (JE, SE, and TE). Nevertheless, the Taiwanese and British listeners do not share exactly the same identifications for each English speaker. For example, while Taiwanese participants are more aware of

²⁹ The official language is known as Guoyu, which refers to Modern Standard Mandarin (Mair 2004).

the origin of IE than AE, British informants are equally good at identifying the provenance of these two types of speech.

Lastly, despite the relatively congruent recognition patterns, Taiwanese participants generally demonstrate lower recognition rates of a range of the varieties when compared to their British counterparts, with TE being the exception.

The following section will begin with a discussion of the Taiwanese and British informants' categorisations of the seven English accents as either native or non-native. This is followed by a discussion of the extent to which Taiwanese and British participants managed to correctly identify speaker provenance of the IC, OC and EC varieties.

6.3.1 Taiwanese and British Participants' Categorisations of Different English Speech into Native/Non-native Origins

On the basis of listening stimuli alone, the Taiwanese and British results confirmed that divisions made between native and non-native English varieties serve a noticeable role in the process of classification of each speaker's provenance.

This present finding is similar to the studies of NNSs in the context of Japan (McKenzie, 2008b) and South Korea (Yook and Lindemann, 2013), and NSs in the context of the UK (McKenzie, 2015a), where IC and EC respondents demonstrated a strong capability to correctly categorise different English varieties as either native or non-native origin. Nevertheless, when comparing the Taiwanese and British participants' responses, the British listeners exhibited greater ability than their Taiwanese counterparts in classifying each English variety as native or non-native. This finding is valuable in that it demonstrates that English speakers from the UK are more aware of these distinctions between different forms of English speech than EFL users in Taiwan. One possible explanation for this result might be that British participants who use English as a native language tend to have more awareness of non-native speech that deviates from that spoken in the IC than Taiwanese informants who mainly learn English as a foreign language.

6.3.2 Taiwanese and British Participants' Identifications of the IC English Varieties

With regard to the three English varieties within the IC (GAE, SSBE, AE), the Taiwanese and British recognition rates of each variety's origin are in congruence, where GAE is ranked at the top, followed by SSBE and then AE. It was also found that the British respondents generally demonstrated a higher rate of correct recognition than the Taiwanese informants for the different English varieties, with TE being the only exception. This suggests that the Taiwanese respondents appear to possess less awareness than their British counterparts of both the geographical and the ethnic provenances of different English speech varieties.

The finding that GAE had the highest identification rate by both groups of the Taiwanese and British respondents might be associated with American English being one of the most dominant and easily accessible varieties of English in the spoken media in Taiwan and UK. Although the British informants' attitudes towards North American English have been widely investigated (e.g., Giles, 1970; Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007), the current finding contributes to the initial understanding that standard American English is the most easily identified accent when other standard forms of IC speech (i.e., SSBE, AE) are presented within the same identification task.

The Taiwanese participants' high identification rates of GAE substantiate their familiarity with IC American English. This finding is parallel to those of a plethora of previous studies, which have been conducted in the NNSs context of South Korea (e.g., Kim, 2007), Japan (e.g., McKenzie, 2008b), Thailand (e.g., Jindapitak, 2010), Taiwan (e.g., Lee, 2013), Oman (e.g., Buckingham, 2014) and Malaysia (e.g., Ahmed et al., 2015). The reliance upon standard American English as the learning and usage model explains why it is relatively easier for the Taiwanese respondents to distinguish GAE accents from other English accents. For example, the American English pronunciation of the Kenyon and Knott (KK) system has been widely applied and accepted in published dictionaries and ELT materials that are recognised ideologically by Taiwanese EFL speakers when learning English (Chang, 2004). Moreover, recorded materials used to teach listening comprehension to Taiwanese EFL learners are mainly in the form of

standard American English (Jou, 2010). It is also worth noting that a higher proportion of native English-speaking teachers in Taiwan come from the USA than from the UK or Australia (Chang, 2004). This fact implies that the high recognition rate of GAE amongst the Taiwanese participants is likely to be the consequence of the American English speech being prevalent in all forms of English language education in Taiwan.

Whilst the majority of the British participants successfully pinpointed the nationality of the SSBE speaker, less than half of the Taiwanese respondents managed to recognise the origin of the standard British English spoken in the South of England. In total, 43% of the Taiwanese participants successfully differentiated SSBE from the other IC speech of GAE and AE. This may be a consequence of standard British English having an established presence in imported ELT materials.

The Taiwanese respondents' correct identification of SSBE speakers corresponds to other studies which show that British English is the variety alongside American English with which EFL speakers are thought to be most familiar in Austria (e.g., Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997), Denmark (e.g., Ladegaard, 1998), Norway (e.g., Rindal, 2010) and Spain (e.g., Carrie, 2010). The British participants' high accuracy rates in recognising the origin of SSBE parallels other British research findings from Ulster (e.g., Milroy and McClenaghan, 1977) as well as London and Edinburgh (e.g., Clark and Schlee, 2010), where an educated form of standard British English pronunciation, RP, is well recognised. This differs; however, from the study of Williams et al. (1999), which shows that Welsh participants' identification of speakers of the same region is better than those of a different region. As a result, the British participants' lower identification rates of SSBE than GAE suggests that they are more familiar with the provenance of the standard variety of American English than the British one. This finding indicates, therefore, that the vast transmission of American English has increasingly become more recognisable than British English speech for even NSs in the UK.

Whilst the majority of British respondents correctly identified the origin of AE, the Taiwanese participants had the greatest difficulty in pinpointing this variety. The historical connection between the UK and Australia explains why there is a higher identification rate of AE by the British participants than by their

Taiwanese counterparts. The finding that the British participants have a great awareness and recognition of AE and the speakers' origins is of value in understanding how varieties of English from Commonwealth countries (Australia) are particularly recognisable to British people. Although it is demonstrated that Taiwanese respondents are very capable of categorising AE as an L1 English variety, their identification rates of AE are markedly lower than GAE and SSBE recognition rates. The similarity of non-rhotic pronunciation between SSBE and AE might make it more challenging for Taiwanese listeners who are EFL speakers to differentiate between these two IC varieties (see Section 4.4.2.1).

The finding that the Taiwanese informants are less able to identify AE than the other L1 mainstream varieties of American and British English conforms to previous studies of NNSs undertaken in Denmark (e.g., Ladegaard, 1998), Germany (e.g., Stephan, 1997), Japan (e.g., Moloney, 2009), South Korea (e.g., Yook and Lindemann, 2013), Hong Kong (e.g., Zhang, 2010) and Taiwan (e.g., Lee, 2013). One possible reason for this result is that Australian English is much less applied in ELT materials or the media than standard American and British English. This leads to unfamiliarity with, and less awareness of, the standard or educated forms of Australian English amongst NNSs.

6.3.3 Taiwanese and British Participants' Identifications of the OC Variety

The identification of the origin of the IE speakers demonstrates a marked difference between the Taiwanese and British informants' awareness of the OC variety. The British participants clearly demonstrated a higher identification rate of the provenances of the IE than their Taiwanese counterparts. This high identification rate of IE speech amongst the British informants is identical to the study by McKenzie (2015a), which found that the majority of the British born university students correctly identified the provenance of IE speakers. It is hypothesised that the high recognition rates of the nationality of IE speakers by British participants' may arise from the historical link between India and the UK.

The finding of the relatively lower identification rates of IE by the Taiwanese listeners is counter to the findings of Yang's research (2013), which showed that Taiwanese university students were able to identify IE more successfully than American English and Taiwanese Mandarin English. This may be a result of the

distinctive composition of research participants in the current study whereby the Taiwanese group of respondents included both students and employees (see Section 3.3.1.2) while Yang's (2013) research focused on a group of only students. Accordingly, it can be suggested that further research be conducted to examine whether the research participants' own status influences their patterns of identification of the speakers' origins.

6.3.4 Taiwanese and British Participants' Identifications of the EC Varieties

It is noticeable that quite a high percentage of the Taiwanese and British participants were unable to identify the provenance of the SE sample. This may be the result of the accent of the SE speaker not being distinctive enough for participants to pinpoint the speaker origin based on the phonological features. While SE was the least identified English variety by the Taiwanese participants, more than half of their British counterparts successfully recognised it. As both the UK and Spain are situated in Europe, the geographic proximity effect is a likely factor in the British participants' higher recognition rate of SE. Moreover, the increasing number of Spanish workers in the UK will further contribute to British people's awareness of this particular EC variety (Okolski and Salt, 2014). It is also postulated that the British participants' higher identification of the speaker origin of SE might be a result of Spain being a popular holiday destination for people living in the UK (The Guardian, 2017). When compared to the GAE and SSBE English varieties, in addition to the OC speech of IE, the Taiwanese and British informants' lack of knowledge of, and uncertainty in, identifying the provenance of SE suggests that it is not an EC variety that is perceptually distinctive to these two groups of participants. Nonetheless, a high percentage of both groups of participants were able to classify SE as a speech of non-native origin.

For both groups of Taiwanese (27%) and British listeners (39%), less than 50% of them had correctly identified the EFL variety of JE. Despite the majority of the Taiwanese and British participants successfully categorising JE as non-native speech, it did not necessarily follow that they are able to make the more fine-tuned distinction that the speaker comes from Japan. When compared to the Taiwanese participants (27%), British participants (39%) identified JE more

accurately. In spite of the location proximity of Japan and Taiwan as well as the colonisation history of Taiwan being occupied by Japan in 1895-1945 (e.g., Chen, 2010), the Taiwanese participants were not found to identify the origin of JE more accurately than the British listeners. It is postulated that the Taiwanese respondents' general low hit rate is likely to be the result of a lack of awareness of the phonological features of the Asian-accented English spoken in Japan that are different from the L1 pronunciation of standard American and British English that they have more exposure to through schooling. Although there is a higher percentage of British listeners who accurately identified the origin of JE than their Taiwanese counterparts, 40% of the British listeners were found to miscategorise the speaker of JE as coming from Taiwan. This indicates that the participants who are NSs living in the UK have difficulty differentiating the two Asian-accented speeches of JE and TE. It is posited that the British participants not being able to differentiate JE from TE might be the result of the shared voice characteristics of these two non-native English accents.

However, the Taiwanese participants' high success rate in correctly recognising the TE speaker corresponds to the argument that listeners tend to show a greater identification accuracy rate for local in-group varieties (e.g., Williams et al., 1999; Baker et al., 2009). Moreover, the Taiwanese respondents' high rates of accuracy in correctly recognising TE is analogous to the studies of McKenzie (2008), Zhang (2010) and Clark and Schleeff (2010), where they found that Japanese, Hong Kong and Polish participants' demonstrated higher awareness of the unique phonological features of their own variants as opposed to other English varieties. Despite the high rates of accuracy in categorising TE as a non-native English speech, the UK-born participants showed difficulty in identifying the origin of TE speakers because of a lack of conscious or unconscious awareness of the phonological features of TE.

6.3.5 Summary of Research Question Three

The Taiwanese and British respondents' familiarity with the variety of English used in their country of origin is evident through the high recognition rate of TE by Taiwanese respondents and of SSBE by British respondents.

Furthermore, with the exception of TE, it is evident that the British participants demonstrate higher identification rates of different English varieties than their Taiwanese counterparts. This result is consistent with the study of Clark and Schlee (2010), which showed that NSs are more aware of the origins of different English varieties than NNSs. The findings of the current study also reveal that factors such as media transmission, pedagogical influence and geographical proximity might all contribute to their ability to identify the English varieties.

When interpreting the results of misidentified speakers, it should be remembered that the two “distractor” options of “South Africa” and “Russia” might have made the task more demanding than if the choice of responses had been composed only of the origin countries of the seven speakers. It could also be that some participants thought “South Africa” and “Russia” had to be answers to some of the identification tasks. For this reason, they were compelled to use these answers at least once, thus resulting in false identifications.

Moreover, the present research does not provide further information on which particular phonological features are salient for the respondent when identifying speaker origin or making evaluative judgments of different varieties of English. There is a very substantial literature on the role of phonetic and phonological features and the evaluation of English accents of many different kinds (e.g., Flege, 1984; Flege, 1988; Flege and Munro, 1994; Beinhoff, 2013). For instance, Flege and Munro (1994) demonstrated how perception and identification could be made between speakers whose native language is Spanish and English monolinguals based on the realization of /t/. Another example is the study of Beinhoff (2013), which examined how variations in the pronunciation of Greek-accented and German-accented English affect how the NNSs of these two English varieties are evaluated. Therefore, a more detailed level of language attitude study taking into consideration these points should shed further light on examination of how the articulation of phonological variables accounts for different levels of identification and evaluation of non-native and native English speech.

6.4 Question Four: What Role does the Taiwanese and British Participants' Identification of Speakers' Origins Play on their Evaluations of Varieties of English?

The identification of the origins of each speaker demonstrates one significant effect on the Taiwanese as well as one significant and one marginal effect on the British participants' attitudes towards varieties of English.

One of the few significant correlations is that between the Taiwanese respondents' correct identifications of SSBE and the much higher status evaluation of this particular variety. Moreover, the British participants who were successful in identifying the origin of SE rated the speaker significantly higher for social attractiveness. It should also be noted that there is a marginal effect on the correct identification and more positive solidarity evaluation of AE from British participants. Those British participants who correctly recognised the origin of AE evaluated this variety of the IC higher on the solidarity dimension than those who did not.

These findings signify the importance of considering the role of speaker origin identification, which has an impact on the listeners' evaluations of different varieties of English. The following subsections will discuss the different roles that speaker origin identification plays in the Taiwanese and British participants' evaluations of the individual varieties (see also Section 4.4.3 and Section 5.4.3).

6.4.1 Significant and Marginal Correlations: Correct Identification and Positive Evaluations

The first result demonstrates that the only significant correlation found was between the Taiwanese participants' accurate recognition of speaker origin and their more positive attitude towards the speaker, whereby SSBE received a significantly higher status evaluation from those who correctly pinpointed its origin than from those who did not (see Section 4.4.3.4). This finding is consistent with research by Carrie (2010), where Spanish respondents judged both male and female speakers of SSBE higher on the dimensions of competence and social attractiveness when they accurately identified the speaker's origin, although not to such a significant extent.

A possible interpretation of this finding is that when the Taiwanese participants correctly pinpointed the SSBE speaker as coming from the UK, they immediately associated him with a higher status, since standard British English conveys prestige in Taiwan. This implies that “native speakerism” is deeply established amongst Taiwanese EFL speakers, whereby the standard varieties of IC English, such as SSBE, are perceived as the correct model to emulate (Holliday, 2006:385). Ladegaard’s (1998: 269) argument that listeners tend to “possess some kind of stored, subconscious information based on previously acquired, media-transmitted stereotypes” suggests that those who correctly identified the speaker’s origin might have a latent preference for SSBE as a prestigious variety.

EFL speakers usually assign a complimentary view to English speech from the IC, regardless of whether it is correctly identified, according to a range of studies in the non-native contexts of Austria (e.g., Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997), Japan (e.g. Chiba et al., 1995; McKenzie, 2010), Hong Kong (Zhang, 2010), South Korea (Yook and Lindemann, 2013) and Oman (Buckingham, 2014). The study of Chiba et al. (1995:81), for instance, found that Japanese participants who classified American English as an L1 rated it significantly more positively than those who misperceived the speaker as coming from the non-native territories of Japan, Sri Lanka, Hong Kong or Malaysia, whether or not they correctly identified the speaker as being from the USA.

With regard to the British participants (see Section 5.4.3.7), accurate recognition of speaker origin was found to pose a significant effect on the solidarity evaluation of the SE Speaker. In particular, the SE speaker received a significantly higher solidarity evaluation from those who correctly identified his origin than those who did not. This finding is in line with previous studies (e.g., McKenzie, 2008b; Zhang, 2010; Yook and Lindemann, 2013), which show that listeners tend to evaluate English speech more positively when speaker origin is correctly identified. Additionally, one marginal effect was found between the British participants’ correct identification of the AE speaker and more positive solidarity evaluations. This finding suggests that those British participants who accurately pinpointed the provenance of AE as coming from Australia perceived this IC variety more positively than those who failed to. It is postulated that as the variety of the Commonwealth country (Millar, 2012), AE is thus likely to be

associated with higher extent of social attractiveness by those British participants who identified its origin.

6.4.2 Correlations which were not found to be Significant: Correct Identification and Negative Evaluations

Other findings exhibit correlations which were not found to be significant between the correct identification of speakers' origins and a relatively less favourable evaluation. The Taiwanese and British informants' high identification rates of TE and SSBE (see Sections 4.4.2.1 and 5.4.2.1), the varieties spoken in their respective countries of origin, were not found to have significantly more positive evaluations (see Sections 4.4.3.8 and 5.4.3.4). This means that a higher recognition level of the in-group speaker does not necessarily correlate with a more positive evaluation of their home dialect, even though the home dialect tends to "confer a sense of social identity" (Williams et al., 1999:345).

The negative connotation of Taiwanese-accented English (e.g., Chang, 2004; Cheng, 2009; Lee, 2013) might explain why the high proportion of Taiwanese participants did not give a more favourable evaluation of TE on the status and solidarity dimensions, despite recognising the variety as being from their own country of origin.

Although SSBE is highly recognised by the British informants, it does not necessarily lead to them perceiving it to be significantly more socially attractive than other varieties. These findings are, however, in contrast to those of Dalton-Puffer et al. (1997), which found that Austrian respondents' stereotyped impressions were more positive towards accents that they were most familiar with. In this respect, the current finding suggests that familiarity with a particular variety of English speech, even with 'in-group' varieties, does not necessarily stimulate an endorsed view or greater acceptance.

6.4.3 Correlations which were not found to be Significant: Incorrect Identification and Negative Evaluation

Although no significant interrelationship was established, one of the key findings demonstrated that misidentification of speaker origin often leads to a more unfavourable perception. In other words, despite an inaccurate identification of speaker origin, the Taiwanese and British participants' ability to align themselves

with the negative stereotypes they hold towards people of certain English varieties corresponds to the claim by Lindemann (2003:355) that “language ideologies may function without correct identification of the actual variety”. Following this, if we take JE for instance, the false recognition of speaker origin was not found to stimulate a significant increase in the number of negative evaluations that JE is generally accorded with by Taiwanese and British respondents.

Thus, the current findings suggest that biased attitudes towards different English varieties might take place below the level of overt realisation of speaker origin. Additionally, despite both groups of research participants demonstrating greater difficulty in identifying the nationality of the JE speaker, the majority did manage to classify this Asian-accented English as being of non-native origin (see Sections 4.4.2.3 and 5.4.2.3), and thus evaluate it as less appealing on the status and solidarity dimension. In a similar vein, Lindemann (2003:358) found that, notwithstanding the American participants’ low rates of recognition of Korean English, the IC listeners confidently designated this Asian-accented variety, which they were unfamiliar with, to being part of the “stigmatised non-native group”. These findings concur with the argument put forward by a number of scholars (e.g., Kerswill and Williams, 2002:202; Lindemann, 2003), that identification of the speaker is not only limited to the definite matching of the ethnic group but also likely to be broadly classified as either part of the NSs or NNSs dichotomy which helps to expound the relative positive or negative perceptions towards different varieties of English.

6.4.4 Summary of Research Question Four

In response to the calls of a number of scholars (e.g., Preston, 1999a, 1999b, 1999c; Stephen, 1997; Clopper and Pisoni, 2008; McKenzie, 2008b, 2015a; McKenzie and Osthus, 2011; Yook and Lindemann, 2013), the current findings contribute to a more integrated understanding of the correlation between non-linguists’ (mis)identification of speakers’ regional provenances and subsequent evaluation of English accent variations.

In summary, apart from the significant correlation between more positive evaluations of SSBE speaker status and SE speaker solidarity when accurately

identified as such (see Section 6.4.1), general results verified that the Taiwanese and British informants possessing awareness of where the speaker comes from does not significantly influence the way that they judge varieties of English.

These findings confirm that the interrelationship between origin identification and speaker evaluation is context-specific and it is recommended that future research considers the role of evaluators' recognition of speakers' ethnicity when interpreting the relative evaluations of different English varieties.

6.5 Question Five: What Role do World Englishes Play on the Taiwanese and British Participants' Attitudes towards Varieties of English?

In total, there are five main findings regarding the Taiwanese and British participants' explicit acknowledgement of varieties of English and their attitudes towards NSs and NNSs, culture and English learning based on their responses to the Likert scale (see Section 4.5 and 5.5).

To begin with, the first key finding suggests that the Taiwanese and British participants' explicit acknowledgement of their abilities to distinguish between native and non-native speech corresponds to the result of the speaker origin identification task. Secondly, the Taiwanese participants' favourable attitude towards IC English speech is explicitly expressed through their desire to learn English language from native English speaking teachers and, at the same time, their lesser willingness to learn about the differences existing in the varieties of the EC. Nevertheless, the British respondents' belief of the importance of understanding both NSs and NNSs speech in this globalised world is further exemplified through a greater willingness to learn the differences between different Asian-accented English.

Moreover, the Taiwanese participants' prejudiced stereotypes towards non-native forms of English were revealed when they explicitly noted that they prefer not to speak English with a Taiwanese accent. On the other hand, while the majority of British participants do not consider their own accent to be unintelligible to NNSs, they also explicitly indicate that they do not care what accent others speak with, be it one of NSs and NNSs, as long as the

communication takes place. However, the majority of Taiwanese respondents are in agreement with the idea that understanding different varieties of English is essential in order to pass English proficiency tests and make friends from across the world.

This finding signifies the necessity of considering both evaluators' explicit and implicit attitudes through the direct questioning of the Likert scale and the indirect measurement of the VGT. The following subsections will discuss the role of the "World English" paradigm on the evaluators' perceptions of a diversity of English varieties according to the Taiwanese and British groups (e.g., Kachru, 1991; Bolton, 2004).

6.5.1 The Role of World English in Taiwanese Participants' Attitudes towards Varieties of English

The first finding (see Section 4.5.1) showed that the majority of Taiwanese participants explicitly stated that they were able to categorise varieties of English as either native or non-native speech. This claim was tested and verified when they were asked to identify speakers' origins and successfully distinguished native from non-native speech. It is therefore concluded that the native and non-native speech dichotomy exists both consciously and unconsciously among Taiwanese participants who live in an EFL environment. Their strong stereotypes of standard IC varieties as favourable and non-native English speech as less favourable are likely to be a result of the Taiwanese respondents' conscious awareness of the differences between NSs and NNSs speech (e.g., Kobayashi, 2008; Cheng, 2009; Lee, 2013).

It is obvious that the Taiwanese participants' strong preferences for the "supremacy" of the NSs, which are implicitly expressed in the VGT section (Rampton, 1990:98), are further extended by their explicit statement of the desire to learn English from native English-speaking teachers of the USA or UK (see Section 4.5.2). This result is in parallel to the "pan-Englishism" phenomenon, where Chiba et al. (1995:82) found Japanese university students had an overt preference for the languages, cultures and speakers of American and British English.

The current finding might also be a result of the influence of “native speaker fallacy” (Phillipson, 1992:185), which suggests that native English-speaking teachers are usually regarded as having higher competence in instructing standard spoken and written English than non-native English-speaking teachers, who are perceived as subordinate educators in Taiwan (e.g., Chang, 2004; Cheng, 2009; Wu and Ke, 2009). One of the leading advantages of non-native English-speaking teachers is in helping NNSs to acquire understanding of how different varieties of English can be used in different contexts of international communication from the point of view of a non-native speaker (Modiano, 2005). Correspondingly, English language instructors should not be judged exclusively on whether they are of native or non-native origin but rather on the intrinsic value of their language teaching abilities and professional knowledge (e.g., Arva and Medgyes, 2000; Modiano, 2005; Wu and Ke, 2009; Tsou, 2013). The other main finding indicates that the majority of Taiwanese respondents overtly express a low degree of interest in learning the differences that exist between English varieties of the EC that are spoken by NNSs in Asia (see Section 4.5.3). This finding may be a result of Taiwanese EFL speakers’ aspirations towards native speaker norms where American and British English speech are preferred.

In order to enhance linguistic competence for intercultural communication and to limit potential discrimination against the speech of NNSs, a number of scholars (e.g., Chiba et al., 1995; Matsuda, 2003a; Kobayashi, 2008; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010; Yang, 2013) highlight the importance of educating EFL speakers on the differences that exist between varieties of English. A successful way of executing this is to use multimedia and movies to introduce the phonological features of non-native English speech, such as Indian English to Taiwanese students (Yang, 2013).

In light of these combined findings, it can be inferred that the Taiwanese respondents’ implicit (the result of VGT, see Section 4.1.3) and explicit (the result of Likert scale question, see Sections 4.5.2 and 4.5.3) attitudes are relatively homogenous since the majority of respondents view the accents of NSs more positively and those of NNSs more negatively.

However, another key result suggests that the majority of the Taiwanese participants concur that understanding the intelligibility of both NSs and NNSs

speech is essential to pass different levels of domestic (e.g. GEPT) or international English proficiency tests (e.g. IELTS and TOEFL) (see Section 4.5.4). One possible explanation of the Taiwanese participants' greater willingness to learn varieties of English is that English education in Taiwan tends to be test or exam-orientated (e.g., Lee, 2000; Hsieh, 2010; Chang and Goswami, 2011). Despite the implicit discriminatory attitudes towards non-native English speech revealed by the VGT (see Section 4.1.3), a great number of the Taiwanese informants admitted the importance of being able to understand the different English accents, particularly where academic advancement is a motivation, for example, in order to pass exams. Scholars such as Canagarajah (2006) and Harding (2012:163) report that large-scale English Language tests are now incorporating different varieties of English accents within the listening assessment section to enhance the authenticity of real-life communication. Therefore, it is likely that this instrumental motive could promote a more acceptable attitude towards the implementation of incorporating different linguistic features of English varieties into the teaching of English to Taiwanese people.

In the interest of making friends from across the world, the result of the Likert scale signifies that a very high proportion of Taiwanese respondents are agreeable towards the idea that understanding both NSs and NNSs is important (see Section 4.5.5). In addition to the latent instrumental motivations for knowing IC, OC and EC varieties of English for exam achievement (see Section 4.5.4), this finding demonstrates the motive of social integration for the Taiwanese participants, i.e. being intelligible to English speakers of both native and non-native origins in order to communicate with international friends. Since an important step for constructing positive attitudes towards different forms of English lies in encouraging students in intercultural integration (e.g., McKay, 2002; Park and Kim, 2014), this finding suggests that the Taiwanese respondents' potential interests in learning different varieties of English is in order to identify with different cultures and friendships.

Moreover, the results showed that the majority of the Taiwanese participants believe they are more likely to be successful if they speak English without a Taiwanese or Mandarin accent (see Section 4.5.6). This is related to the implicitly downgraded evaluation results of TE across status and solidarity that

was revealed by the VGT (see Section 4.1.3). With reference to the combined result of the VGT and the Likert scale question: the Taiwanese participants covertly and overtly denigrate Taiwanese-accented English. This corresponds to previous studies (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Tseng, 2011), where Taiwanese EFL speakers have been affected by the myth that acquiring a native-like accent suggests a higher achievement of English language learning since the employed instructional models are predominantly the standard IC varieties of American and British English. Therefore, Taiwanese informants' pronunciations that sound different from the standard model presented in the ELT classroom, especially their own English accent influenced by their mother tongue of either Mandarin or Taiwanese, are seen as a poor attainment of English and an impediment towards successful communication (e.g., Lee, 2000; Liou, 2010). Despite the argument that acquisition of native-like pronunciation of English is arduous (e.g., Jenkins, 1996; Crystal, 2003b), the ideological belief that sounding like a NNS enhances one's global competitiveness in all aspects of life remains latent among Taiwanese EFL speakers.

Although to different extents, the majority of the Taiwanese participants are overtly in agreement with the idea that understanding the communication taking place is more important than another's accent when speaking English (see Section 4.5.7). This explicit assertion that mutual intelligibility is more imperative than speakers' accents is in contrast to the Taiwanese participants' auditory discrimination, where they covertly differentiated favoured English accents from disfavoured ones in the VGT (see Section 4.1.3). Based on the current finding, it is envisaged that Taiwanese EFL speakers are more willing to conduct cross-cultural communication with both NSs and NNSs, where different English accents do not hinder conversation.

6.5.2 The Role of World English in British Participants' Attitudes towards Varieties of English

The first finding is that the majority of British participants showed consensus in their ability to identify native from non-native speech (see Section 5.5.1). As with the Taiwanese respondents (see Section 4.5.1), this finding is borne out by the outcome of the speaker identification task (see Section 5.4.2) where the British listeners generally showed a good ability in differentiating between

native and non-native English speech when asked to pinpoint speaker origin on the basis of accent cues.

In comparison to the Taiwanese participants, the majority of British respondents reported a higher extent of willingness to learn and know the differences between Asian-accented Englishes (see Section 5.5.2). Instead of upholding the traditional standard language ideology, which perceives American and British English as the authoritative and prescriptive models for usage norms, this finding indicates that the British participants who are NSs might possess a more open attitude towards the “pluricentric approaches” of recognising the diversity of English speech (Bolton, 2004:367),

As English is increasingly recognised as a global language, a further finding of the study illustrates that the majority of British participants unequivocally agree on the necessity to comprehend English speech of both NSs and NNSs (see Section 5.5.3). This finding signifies that although British respondents acknowledge the importance of IC/EC varieties of English being intelligible in order to prevent communication breakdown, the VGT suggested that they do not necessarily have positive attitudes towards non-native accented English (JE, SE, TE) when their auditory judgements were implicitly examined. As opportunities for intercultural communication continue to grow, it is envisaged that an appreciation and more positive perception of English varieties from different origins will serve as a vehicle to promote interrelations between NSs and NNSs.

The fourth result demonstrated that more than half of the British participants perceived their own accent as intelligible to NNSs (see Section 5.5.4). In relation to previous studies that have consistently shown that accents tend to influence listeners’ implicit judgements of the speakers’ personal characteristics (e.g., Hiraga, 2005; Coupland and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010), it is interesting to see that a high proportion of the British informants considered their English accent as fairly understandable to ESL and EFL users. As language attitudes play an influential role in successful communication between NSs and NNSs alike (e.g., Baker, 1992; Obiols, 2002; Timmis, 2007), this demonstrates that NSs can sometimes be judgemental of others’ accents (see the finding of VGT in Section 5.1.3), yet do not necessarily perceive their own speech as the cause of difficulties in comprehension for NNSs.

Similar to the Taiwanese participants, a very high percentage of the British participants concurred that communication taking place successfully was more important than others' accents when speaking English, although with varying degrees of agreement (see Sections 4.5.7 and 5.5.5). The British participants' explicit agreement in considering mutual comprehensibility of colloquial dialogues as more important than one's accent does not, however, conform to the VGT results, which clearly showed the British participants' covert preference for certain English varieties over others. Therefore, this finding further substantiates the value of incorporating both implicit and explicit measures in language attitude research to better explore participants' perceptions towards different varieties of English (e.g., Bassili and Brown, 2005; McKenzie, 2010).

6.5.3 Summary of Research Question Five

When explicitly investigated with the direct measurement of the Likert-scale, the main findings indicate that the Taiwanese and British informants possess mixed attitudes towards accent variations within the English language. The summarised results confirm that both groups of research participants are aware that English is not only the language of NSs from IC territories but also of NNSs living in ESL or EFL contexts. This is exemplified through their explicit differentiation of native speech from non-native speech. Furthermore, both Taiwanese and British participants found mutual intelligibility as being of greater importance than accent when speaking English. This is contradictory to the general outcome of the research which demonstrates the informants' covert stereotypes towards speakers with different accents across status and solidarity traits.

It was found that the Taiwanese respondents specifically had multiple motives for learning and understanding varieties of English, both to promote education and career advancement, and to build international friendships. Whilst a higher percentage of British participants displayed a greater willingness to learn the differences between different varieties of Asian-accented English than their Taiwanese counterparts, the Taiwanese respondents' acceptance of different forms of English speech are evidently restricted by the standard language ideology. This further helps to explain why a high proportion of Taiwanese participants reported a strong belief in the importance and desire of learning

English from native English-speaking teachers of either American or British origin.

The value of this research question lies in the provision of an alternative approach to the WE perspective, to interpreting the Taiwanese and British informants' overt perceptions towards different forms of spoken English.

6.6 Question Six: What are the Taiwanese and British Participants' Explicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English?

The aim of this section is to summarise the Taiwanese and British respondents' overt attitudes towards different varieties of English when they are asked to state explicitly which speech they are most familiar with and which speech they prefer (see Sections 4.6 and 5.6). In comparison to the Taiwanese participants' homogeneous preference for American English, the preferences of the British respondents were less cohesive, although a higher percentage did select British English. The Taiwanese participants consciously stated that they are most familiar with North American English, and the British respondents said they were most familiar with British English, which are in line with their respective high recognition rates of these two English speech varieties. Furthermore, the prestige linked to the standard form of American English can be seen to influence the Taiwanese participants' explicit preference for North American English as the most suitable model, to serve communication and pedagogical functions.

The following subsections will discuss how the two research groups' overt attitudes towards varieties of English compare to their covert perceptions and ability to identify the different varieties.

6.6.1 Taiwanese Participants' Explicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English

The first finding illustrates that the Taiwanese participants' overt preference for IC rather than OC and EC varieties of English conform to the general pattern of implicit attitudes found in the VGT section (see Sections 4.6.1 and 4.1.3). Moreover, the Taiwanese respondents' overt preferences for North American

English as the legitimate variety for day-to-day conversation, within and outside the Taiwanese context, is in congruence with their covert perception of GAE, when elicited in the VGT (see Sections 4.6.3 and 4.1.3).

In addition to daily conversation usage, a majority of the Taiwanese participants explicitly showed a solid preference towards the dominance of North American English as the variety for educational function, whereby the other IC and the non-native English varieties in the option list were perceived to be less appropriate for English language instruction (see Section 4.6.4). This finding is relevant to the VGT result, where GAE was the most highly evaluated speech across status and solidarity dimensions (see Section 4.1.3). Moreover, this result conforms to previous reports of standard American English being the yardstick for English language education in Taiwan (e.g., Chang, 2004; Cheng, 2009; Liou, 2010) and Taiwanese EFL students' preference for native English teachers from the USA (e.g., Wu and Ke, 2009).

Following Rickford's (1995:151) argument that English is not a "single entity", educators who introduce regional and social variations of English speech would help to enhance NNSs' mutual understandings and appreciation of speakers of different English varieties in international communication.

From the analysis of the Taiwanese participants' implicit and explicit attitudes towards varieties of English, it was found that the majority hold rather conservative attitudes in preferring English varieties of the IC over those of the EC. According to Modiano (2009a), English varieties that share different phonological features to standard American and British English, which are conventionally recognised as prestigious and aesthetically superior, should not be categorised as sub-standard. For Taiwanese people to communicate successfully with English users of the IC, OC and EC, of different "regional, social and cultural backgrounds" and to be "linguistically, socio-linguistically and pragmatically" prepared through exposure to different varieties of English (Bieswanger 2007:405), it is essential that EFL speakers are exposed to different varieties of English. This would help them to cope with the cultural and linguistic bias that is likely to take place when NSs and NNSs are in conversation (e.g., Smith, 1992; Friedrich, 2000; Matsuda, 2003b; McKay, 2003; Deterding, 2005, Kirkpatrick 2007; Modiano, 2009b; Eisenclas and Tsurutani 2011).

With regards to the most favoured variety of English, although the Taiwanese participants' explicit attitudes towards varieties of English are generally parallel to their implicit attitudes, a much higher percentage of the Taiwanese participants explicitly preferred British English to American English. This finding suggests that along the overt attitudes that are elicited from the Taiwanese participants via the direct measurement of multiple-choice questions, where accent cues are not present, can be quite different from their covert perceptions where speech stimuli are used.

Responses to multiple-choice question one showed that a high percentage of the Taiwanese participants explicitly preferred British English (47%) to North American English (31.20%) (see Section 4.6.1). The Taiwanese participants' overt preferences for British English seem to be in contradiction to their implicit attitudes found in the VGT whereby they consistently assign the most positive evaluations to GAE speech on both status and solidarity dimensions (see Section 4.1.3). Although British English is not as dominant as American English for pedagogical application in Taiwan (e.g., Chang, 2004; Cheng, 2009), the prestigious connotation that is traditionally associated with the standard form of British English explains why some Taiwanese respondents consider it the desired variety. Consequently, it is when both measures of implicit and explicit attitudes are examined that a more comprehensive understanding of the Taiwanese participants' attitudes towards variations in IC, OC and EC speech is gained.

The last finding showed that a high proportion of the Taiwanese respondents indicated explicitly that they are most familiar with North American English (see Section 4.6.2), which is consistent with the result of the speaker identification task, considering that GAE received the highest recognition rate based solely on accent cues (see Section 4.4.1). Owing to the prevalence of the standard form of North American English speech in ELT settings (Chang, 2004), the Taiwanese EFL participants are not only covertly aware of the origin of the GAE speaker but also consciously more familiar with North American English than the other varieties presented.

6.6.2 British Participants' Explicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English

The first main finding shows that although a relatively high percentage of the British participants (28.60%) explicitly prefer British English, the remaining percentage demonstrated diverse attitudes in choosing their more favoured variety (see Section 5.6.1). This result is in contrast to the British participants' implicit attitudes towards GAE when implicitly investigated in the VGT, which consistently received the most positive evaluations on both status, and solidarity dimensions (see Section 5.1.3). This is in direct comparison to the Taiwanese respondents, whereby the majority homogeneously selected British English as their more favoured speech and as such, the British finding therefore suggests relatively divergent attitudes towards the most endorsed English variety (see Sections 4.6.1 and 5.6.1).

The other principal finding shows that a high percentage of the British participants (82.30%) explicitly indicated that they are most familiar with the variety of British English (see Section 5.6.2). This result partly mirrors the result of the speaker identification task where 90% of the British listeners, who were born and raised in the UK, correctly identified the origin of the SSBE speaker as coming from the UK (see Section 5.4.1).

6.6.3 Summary of Research Question Six

This section provides possible interpretations of the Taiwanese and British participants' explicit attitudes towards varieties of English. In addition to the implicit attitudes towards varieties of English when evaluators' perceptual opinions were elicited through the linguistic variations of the accent cues, this discussion explores whether the respondents' overt attitudes are similar or different to the ones presented in the VGT and the speaker identification task.

In summary, the results of question six allow the researcher to posit that the social reality of perceptual discrimination towards varieties of English, which can only be fully revealed when both explicit and implicit attitudes are examined, will contribute to build further knowledge of the sociolinguistic landscape of the two groups of Taiwanese and British participants. Using the direct approach of multiple-choice questions measuring the respondents' explicit perceptions

towards varieties of English, inevitable limitations are likely to take place, as research participants tend not to state their intuitive perceptions towards different English varieties, but report instead the response which they consider as more acceptable to society or the researcher. This should be kept in mind when interpreting respondents' overt attitudes towards varieties of English.

6.7 The Differences in the Implicit and Explicit Attitudes Findings

In section 2.2.2, how explicit attitudes are different from implicit attitudes has been discussed. In line with a number of scholars (e.g., Fazio and Olson, 2003; Rydell and McConnell, 2006; Petty et al., 2009; Pantos and Perkins, 2012), Bassili and Brown (2005:543) maintained that people tend to hold a “dual nature of attitudinal processes: deliberate or explicit on the one hand, and automatic or implicit on the other”. It is for this reason that this section will compare the main differences between explicit and implicit attitudes of the Taiwanese and British respondents, elicited by direct and indirect approaches.

When the Taiwanese and British participants are questioned explicitly with the Likert scale questions, both groups generally report favourable responses towards different varieties of English. This finding is retrieved from the Likert scale result which showed a high percentage of the Taiwanese and British respondents who explicitly stated that they do not care about peoples' accents, of NSs and NNSs alike, as long as they can understand the conversation (see Section 3.3.4, Section 4.5.7 and Section 5.5.5). Nevertheless, the VGT finding - which taps implicit attitudes - showed that the Taiwanese and British participants do hold biased perceptions to people's accents by implicitly evaluating native English varieties of GAE and SSBE more positively, when compared to forms of English spoken in Spain, Japan and Taiwan from the perspective of speaker status. This finding exemplified how differences existed in explicit and implicit attitudes towards varieties of English of both groups of Taiwanese and British participants. On the one hand, people might self-report that they do not mind people's English accents when being explicitly questioned. On the other hand, when a technique of indirect attitude measurement such as the VGT used here is employed to elicit Taiwanese and British participants' hidden perceptions that are beyond the conscious level of awareness, their

underlying prejudices towards English varieties of different native and non-native origins are automatically activated (e.g., Fazio and Olsen, 2003; Bassili and Brown, 2005).

The other difference between the participants' explicit and implicit attitudes revealed that in spite of the Likert scale finding that the majority of the Taiwanese and British respondents explicitly stated that they are willing to learn, or know, non-native English varieties such as Indian English, Philippine English and Singaporean English etc., both Taiwanese and British groups implicitly showed less favourable attitudes towards English varieties of the EC, such as the Asian-accented Englishes of JE and TE than those of the IC and the OC in the VGT.

In section 2.2.2, I discussed the findings of previous research, which have consistently shown that differences in explicit and implicit attitudes often take place when respondents deliberately alter their attitudes and express greater levels of favour towards linguistic diversity under direct questioning (e.g., Pantos, 2010; Pantos and Perkins, 2012; Watanabe and Karasawa, 2013). This study provides further support for the difference in implicit and explicit attitudes, in line with the other studies that have been conducted. The Taiwanese and British participants most likely alter their attitudes. This suggests that when the Taiwanese and British participants are invited to self-report how they perceive linguistic diversity of English accents with the direct measurement of the Likert scale, they are likely to manoeuvre their responses in order to explicitly present less prejudiced attitudes towards varieties of English, especially non-native ones.

Altogether, the comparisons between explicit and implicit attitudes towards varieties of English of the Taiwanese and British participants have significant implications on the methodological designs of future language attitude studies. Future research will benefit from the mixed design of a methodology that includes VGT, which is an indirect technique to elicit automatic evaluations, the Likert scale task or multiple-choice questions, which are the direct techniques to obtain people's deliberate and self-reportable attitudes towards different English accents. With both direct and indirect techniques of language attitude elicitation, people's implicit and explicit attitudes that tend to be distinct from

each other will be more fully revealed (e.g., Fazio and Olsen, 2003; Bassili and Brown, 2005; Petty et al., 2009; Pantos and Perkins, 2012).

Chapter 7

Conclusion

There are three objectives in the conclusion chapter. Firstly, the main findings and the values of the investigation into the Taiwanese and British participants' attitudes towards varieties of English on the perspectives of social preferences and awareness will be summed up. Next, the methodological and pedagogical implication, which is based on the finding of the present study, will be discussed. Finally, limitations of the current study and recommendations for future research will be explicated.

7.1 Summaries and Value of the Main Findings

The objective of this section is to summarise the principal findings of this research project and its value to the sociolinguistic study of language attitudes. This research is exploratory in investigating people's understandings of the role of explicit and implicit attitudes towards language diversity of English accents from Taiwan and Britain. As different perceptions of varieties of English are closely linked with stereotyped judgments of the speakers, the study of language attitudes is vital in understanding the success of intercultural interactions amongst NNSs and NSs of English. Based exclusively on the accent attributes of different English varieties, the findings of the VGT verified that the two evaluative dimensions of status and solidarity are salient in the formation of the Taiwanese and British participants' implicit attitudes towards diverse varieties of English. The investigation into the Taiwanese and British participants' implicit attitudes demonstrated that they predominantly evaluate English varieties spoken in the IC and the OC as possessing higher status, and associate a greater level of social attractiveness with those varieties, compared to the EFL forms of English spoken in the EC. While the English varieties of the EC receive more discrimination, both in terms of speaker status and solidarity, than the varieties of the IC and the OC, the attitudes of the NNSs from Taiwan and NSs from UK are particularly led by the standard norms of legitimate L1 Englishes that represent the model of correctness. While IE received quite favourable evaluations, sometimes being evaluated higher than L1 varieties, the claim of the Taiwanese

and British participants' dichotomised attitudes in preferring varieties of NSs to NNSs appears to be less legitimate. This indicates that people's perceptions towards varieties of English, especially those of the OC or EC, might be changing when they do not adhere to social conventions. Nevertheless, whether and how these attitudes towards varieties of English change over time are beyond the scope of the present study and it would be worthwhile to conduct a longitudinal study.

When comparing the Taiwanese and British participants' identification patterns, the results generally show that the British respondents are more aware of the origins of different English speech than the Taiwanese participants are. The finding also indicates that while the Taiwanese and British participants are very capable of distinguishing between native and non-native Englishes, they are not necessarily capable of fine-grained classification of speakers' provenances. In general, both of the research groups are more aware of the IC and the OC varieties than those of the EC. When the interplay of speaker origin identification and evaluation of the speech is examined, a significant correlation of accurate identification and positive evaluation was found in the Taiwanese respondents' status attitudes towards SSBE and the British respondents' solidarity perceptions towards SE. The validity of the VGT finding is further confirmed by the result that the Taiwanese and British respondents' evaluations towards different forms of spoken English across status and solidarity traits were generally not significantly affected by the factor of accurate or inaccurate identification of the speakers' provenances. This result suggests the importance of examining the correlation between speaker evaluation and identification of different English varieties for future research in sociolinguistics or social psychology, as listeners who evaluate varieties of English through speech stimuli are not necessarily aware of the ethnic or geographical origins of the speakers. Consequently, the patterns of categorising varieties of English is worth investigating either with a list of nationalities or a map when researchers endeavour to study the relation between the evaluation of English varieties and the perceived provenance of the speakers.

Additionally, the roles of the evaluators' social variables are also taken into account when analysing the Taiwanese and British respondents' perceptual

variations towards different English varieties. The main result implied that the social variables affected the Taiwanese evaluations both individually and jointly, but the British informants' perceptions were not affected. The finding illustrates that the social variables of the Taiwanese informants' occupation and self-perceived English level exhibited significant main effects on their evaluations of speaker status on L1 and L2 varieties of English. In addition to the significant main effects, the social factors of gender and occupation were found to jointly have significant interaction effects on the Taiwanese listeners' solidarity attitudes towards the two mainstream varieties of the IC - GAE and SSBE. On the other hand, significant main effects and interaction effects were not present in the native English users' perceptions towards varieties of English from the UK. The findings indicate the social variables of gender, occupation and self-perceived English level are sometimes solely and sometimes jointly responsible for attitude variations towards different English accents amongst the Taiwanese participants. Instead of presuming the research sample to be homogenous across different segments of research population, this finding further shed light on the importance of considering the role of the listener-judges' social demographic variables in mediating their status and solidarity attitudes held towards different English varieties.

In contrast to the implicit attitudes obtained from the responses of the VGT, where GAE received the highest evaluation on both status and solidarity dimensions from the Taiwanese and British participants, a larger number of them explicitly prefer British English as their favourite speech. When questioned directly, the Taiwanese and British participants predominantly expressed positive attitudes towards accent variations in the English language. This is likely to be a result of the social desirability bias, as the finding of the VGT clearly manifests that they prefer certain English varieties to others, with more positive ratings across different social characteristics.

7.2 Implications of the Study

This section discusses the implications of the result obtained from this study with regard to both methodology and pedagogy.

7.2.1 Methodological Implications

There are a number of methodological implications of this study. The Taiwanese and British participants' perceptions that were elicited by the indirect (i.e., VGT) and direct approaches (i.e., Likert scale and multiple-choice questions) contribute to a more complete picture of how NS and NNS varieties of English are evaluated.

The VGT, with the employment of the six-point bipolar scale, was demonstrated to be a valid indirect measurement of the intensity of the Taiwanese and British respondents' implicit attitudes towards the different speech samples, especially when stronger attitudes tend to influence judgments and guide behaviours (e.g., Garrett, 2001; Obiols, 2002; Holmes, 2008). The findings of the VGT suggest the benefit of incorporating implicit measures to examine naïve evaluators' underlying preferences that are less likely to be elicited through explicit measures. In the absence of the social desirability bias, whereby people alter their attitudes to fit what is socially acceptable or amenable to the researcher, the respondents' unconscious attitudes towards different varieties of spoken English are more likely to be made intuitively when they are not aware that their evaluations are being assessed, as in the VGT.

The merit of the speaker origin identification task is in offering valuable insight regarding the cues of correct or incorrect identification, on which the Taiwanese and British participants based their social evaluations. This means that the Taiwanese and British research participants' responses in the speaker identification task not only show how familiar they are with the provenance of each speaker, but also enhance the validity when interpreting the attitudes they hold towards each English variety.

By employing a series of direct questions, the results imply that the Taiwanese and British participants' implicit attitudes are sometimes different from their explicit attitudes towards varieties of English and therefore both covert and overt measures of language attitudes are of great value in augmenting the reliability of the research finding. When exploring people's stereotypes towards varieties of English based on accent variations, the present finding exemplified

the necessity of including explicit measurements such as the Likert scale and multiple-choice questions.

The present study also shed light on the advantages of collecting quantitative data online along with refined statistical analysis such as the ANOVA and MANOVA tests, to examine the attitudes of the Taiwanese and British participants towards varieties of English. The manipulation of the research questionnaire via the format of an online survey allowed the study to minimise time and resources in recruiting a large number of research participants from both the Taiwanese and British populations.

7.2.2 Pedagogical Implication

Based on the findings of the current study, the pedagogical implication discussed here is of special interest to the Taiwanese subjects who are non-native users of English.

From the analysis of the Taiwanese subjects' implicit and explicit attitudes towards varieties of English, it was found that majority of them hold rather conservative perceptions in preferring English varieties of the IC to EC. English varieties, which share different phonological features from standard American or British English that are conventionally recognised as prestigious and aesthetically superior, should not be categorised as sub-standard (Modiano, 2009a). For Taiwanese EFL speakers to communicate successfully with NS and NNS of different "regional, social and cultural backgrounds" and to be "linguistically, sociolinguistically and pragmatically" prepared through exposure to different varieties of English (Bieswanger 2007:405), it is essential that EFL speakers are exposed to varieties of English in order to cope with the cultural and linguistic biases that are likely to take place when NSs and NNSs are in conversation (e.g., Smith, 1992; Friedrich, 2000; Matsuda, 2003; McKay, 2003; Deterding 2005, Kirkpatrick 2007; Modiano, 2009a; Eisenclas and Tsurutani 2011).

The findings of the present study have implication for teaching English as a foreign language to speakers in Taiwan, and teachers may introduce students to different varieties of English by showing them movies or video clips (e.g., Matsuda 2003a; Yang, 2013). While the majority of listening materials in Taiwan

use standard North American accents (Jou 2010:7-8), the current findings demonstrate that Taiwanese listeners also have positive attitudes towards other English varieties, such as SSBE, IE and AE, which deviate from the standard linguistic norm of American colonisation. Therefore, special efforts could be made to introduce different pronunciation features that exist in different varieties of English, to promote greater acceptance of WE amongst NNSs (e.g., Erling, 2005; Modiano, 2009a). Furthermore, the current results, which show favourable attitudes towards the NNS variety of IE, imply the likelihood of accepting English language teachers from the OC country of India, where English is used widely as an L2.

English language educators, NSs and NNSs alike, are the main gatekeepers for introducing WE to learners (e.g., Erling, 2005). On this subject, a number of scholars have identified the need to address the issues related to varieties of English in training programmes for both teachers and trainee teachers (e.g., Kachru et al., 2006; Bieswanger, 2008). Taking Malaysia, for example, Norrish (1997) maintained that an understanding of the linguistic forms of local Malaysian English and its development is imperative for teacher-training programmes. In light of this, ELT trainers in Taiwan can also introduce teachers and trainees to the phonological attributes of Taiwanese English since this variant is likely to be used by students.

7.3 Limitations of the Study and Possible Directions for Future Research

Regardless of the value of the main research findings, which have given significant insights into the Taiwanese and British respondents' attitudes towards varieties of English, there are some inevitable limitations regarding this study.

One of the limitations of this study is related to the design of the statistical techniques in data analysis. Although the study had employed parametric tests such as ANOVA and MANOVA to analyse the participants' responses that had been used in previous research (e.g., Sykes, 2010; Zhang, 2010; Yook and Lindemann, 2013), it is worth noting the problems of parametric models to analyse data in sociolinguistic research, since they are likely to ignore individual differences and

misrepresent the distributions of correlations and statistical significances (e.g., Gorman, 2009; Johnson, 2010; Gries, 2015). The main critique is that individuals are likely to behave differently towards a given English variety under investigation and the responses collected are “rarely independent” and thus not suitable for parametric tests (Johnson, 2010:2). For example, instead of analysing the data of the Likert scale task by showing the percentage of the respondents according to different levels of agreements with each question, using mean scores from Likert scale in this study will enable the researcher to adopt mixed-effects models to deal with individual variation. In light of this, future language attitude studies can adopt the mixed-effects regression models, which would enable the researcher to take potential individual variations into account through illustrative analyses such as scatterplots (e.g., Gorman, 2009; Johnson, 2010). Taken together, more in-depth research into language attitudes can be conducted by addressing the issues, recommendations and suggestions derived from this study.

Although the VGT was demonstrated to be a robust measurement of the respondents’ implicit attitudes, the research has limitations due to the speech samples used in the test. To minimise the number of variables, only the male guise of each English variety was employed, in order to avoid listener fatigue. The single speech sample for each English variety should be considered as one example that represents the phonetic and prosodic characteristics of that English variety. It would be of empirical value, therefore, to incorporate more than one recording stimulus to represent each variety. This would strengthen the interpretability of the research participants’ perceptions towards different English speech. Moreover, the present study intended to investigate the listeners’ responses to the phonological variables of accent, but listeners are also likely to evaluate each English variety according to paralinguistic or non-linguistic factors of speech, such as fluency, speed, tone and voice quality of the individual speakers, thus, the validity of the VGT result becomes less robust. Future studies are therefore encouraged to employ more than one speech sample to represent a specific English variety, to confirm whether respondents are evaluating accent cues or not. Moreover, although this study endeavoured to select a range of English varieties according to their position in the IC, OC and

EC, speech from more English varieties of different NSs and NNSs backgrounds can be incorporated into future language attitude studies.

Another potential constraint is in relation to the content of the listening stimulus, which used a pre-selected text. Whereas the reading aloud of a fixed paragraph is advantageous in controlling confounding factors arising from lexical or syntactic variation, it fails to present a natural way of speaking. Therefore, it would seem profitable for further studies to incorporate both a pre-selected text and a sample of spontaneous speech, for instance, by asking the speaker to participate in a task describing the route of a given map (e.g. McKenzie, 2006). By implementing these recommendations in future studies using a VGT, a more profound body of data might be gathered to compare NNSs and NSs' covert perceptions towards different varieties of English.

Although the present study endeavoured to examine the role of a number of the Taiwanese and British participants' social variables in their attitudes towards different English varieties, it is undeniable that the range of variables selected is relatively restricted. Accordingly, it is advised that future studies, with both direct and indirect approaches to measuring attitudes, do not assume homogeneity within different divisions of the research population examined. Further research into the role of NNSs and NSs' social factors on their evaluations of different English varieties should take into account their age (e.g., Coupland and Bishop, 2007; Sykes, 2010), socioeconomic status (e.g., Zhang, 2010), level of education (e.g., Sykes, 2010), regional origin (e.g., Coupland and Bishop, 2007; McKenzie, 2010), prior exposure to specific English varieties (e.g., Matsuura et al., 1999), and education completed abroad (e.g., Zhang, 2010). Where studies are particularly concerned with NNSs, other social variables, such as previous exposure to English (e.g., Matsuura et al., 1999; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010) and the number of languages spoken other than English (e.g., Sykes, 2010), can be investigated to provide additional information with respect to people's perceptions of a diversity of English varieties. Furthermore, future studies are advised to take into account perceived age (e.g., Gallois et al., 1984; Baker, 1992) and gender stereotypes (e.g., Gallois and Callan, 1981) for the speakers of the listening stimulus, since these variables have been found to affect listeners' attitudes towards varieties of English.

Even if it is evident that presenting the options in the form of closed choice questions for the speaker origin identification task enabled the researcher to classify the responses more efficiently, the use of a free classification task would enable the respondents to indicate their own guess of the country of origin of the speaker (e.g., Clopper and Pisoni, 2007; McKenzie, 2010; Yook and Lindemann, 2013). Future studies which are interested not only in how informants evaluate but also the level of perceptual encoding of different English varieties will benefit from employing the free classification approach of a world map format for participants to mark each speaker's provenance accordingly (e.g., Preston, 1999c).

While the present project is the first quantitative study to compare Taiwanese and British participants' perceptions of varieties of English, there are potential restraints in the lack of qualitative data. While the advantage of this research lies in its provision of a quantitative framework for language attitude study, it is advisable for further studies to collect responses via different approaches of semi-structured interviews or focus groups, to explore research participants' viewpoints towards varieties of English. Combining the rich data that qualitative methods offer with the quantitative approach of obtaining respondents' evaluations will greatly enhance the validity of the language attitude findings.

The present study has demonstrated a number of key findings with regard to Taiwanese and British participants' attitudes towards varieties of English, and contributes to the large body of research on language attitudes more generally. The on-going development of more sophisticated methodologies in this area of research may offer further insight into how and why people's attitudes towards varieties of English vary.

Appendices

Appendix A: The Taiwanese Main Questionnaire

I am a PhD student in the University of Glasgow. The purpose of this online survey is to investigate Taiwanese people's thoughts on English language.

You will firstly be asked to complete the questions about yourself, listen to some recordings (which will be played within your browser) and then state your opinion about English language.

If you have any further enquiries or suggestions of this survey, please do not hesitate to contact me. Thank you very much for your participation!

ShouChun Chien: s.chien.1@research.gla.ac.uk

Part 1: Background Information

Please complete each question with information about you. Please put your choice (the number) in the bracket or fill in the blank after each question.

Please select only one choice per question.

1 Are you a Taiwanese citizen? ()

①Yes ②No

2 Were you born and raised in Taiwan? ()

①Yes ②No

3 What is your mother tongue? ()

①Guoyu³⁰ ②Taiyu³¹
③Hakka ④Other (Please Specify) _____

4 In which part of Taiwan do you currently live? ()

①The North Region ②The Middle Region
③The South Region ④The East Region ⑤The Surrounding Islands

30 Guoyu is the name for modern standard Mandarin spoken in Taiwan (Mair, 2004).

31 Taiyu is the dialect of Southern Min spoken in Taiwan (Mair, 2004).

5 What is your age?

6 What is your gender? ()

- ①Male ②Female

7 Are you a student? ()

- ①No ②Yes, College
③Yes, Undergraduate ④Yes, Postgraduate and above

8 What is your occupation? ()

- ①Student ②Agriculture, Farming and Fishing Industry
③Business Industry ④Education Industry ⑤ Manufacturing Industry
⑥Service Industry ⑦Freelance
⑧Not Currently Employed/Retired ⑨Other (Please specify)_____

9 How do you perceive your own English level? ()

- ①Beginner ②Intermediate ③Higher Intermediate ④Advanced

10 How long have you been learning English from a non-native English-speaking teacher? ()

- ①Less than 1 year ②1-3 years ③3-5 years
④5-10 years ⑤more than 10 years

11 How long have you been learning English from a non-native English-speaking teacher? ()

- ①Less than 1 year ②1-3 years ③3-5 years
④5-10 years ⑤more than 10 years

Part 2: Listening Activities

In this section, you will listen to an example recording first, followed by seven other recordings. You will listen to each of the recordings twice.

The Example Recording

Step 1: As you listen to the recording, please circle a number 1-6 for each of the traits along the scale to indicate your impression of the speaker.

(e.g., 1=the most unfavourable evaluation; 6=the most favourable evaluation).

Traits	Scale						Traits
Unconfident	1	2	3	4	5	6	Confident
Unintelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	Intelligent
Uneducated	1	2	3	4	5	6	Educated
Not Authoritative	1	2	3	4	5	6	Authoritative
Unfriendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	Friendly
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	Lively

Step 2: Please listen to the recording again and try to identify which country the speaker comes from. Please circle only one choice per recording.

- ①Australia ②India ③Japan ④Russia ⑤South Africa
 ⑥Spanish ⑦Taiwan ⑧UK ⑨USA ⑩Not Known

Part 3: Your Opinion

Please circle the number of 1-6 to indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following questions.

Question	completely disagree	disagree	somewhat disagree	somewhat agree	agree	completely agree
1. I can recognise the difference between native and non-native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. It is important for me to learn English from native English speaking teachers such as people from the USA or UK.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I am interested in learning/ knowing the differences that exist in different varieties of English such as the Indian English, Philippine English, Singaporean English and etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. To pass exams in English (e.g., GEPT, TOEFL, TOEIC or IELTS and etc.); I need to understand speakers of different varieties of English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. To make friends from across the world, I need to understand both native and non-native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5	6

6. I feel I would be more successful if I speak English without the accent of Guoyu or Taiyu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. People's accents do not really matter to me as long as I can understand the communication that takes place.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part 4: Multiple Choice Questions

Please read each question and put your choice (the number) in the bracket after each question. Please select only one choice per question.

1 Of the following selection of English varieties, which one is your favourite?

()

- ① Australian English ② British English ③ Indian English
- ④ Japanese English ⑤ North American English ⑥ Spanish English
- ⑦ Taiwanese English ⑧ No Preference
- ⑨ Other (Please Specify)_____

2 Of the following selection of English varieties, which one you are most familiar with? ()

- ① Australian English ② British English ③ Indian English
- ④ Japanese English ⑤ North American English ⑥ Spanish English
- ⑦ Taiwanese English ⑧ No Preference
- ⑨ Other (Please Specify)_____

3 Of the following selection of English varieties, which one do you think is the most appropriate for your daily life usage? ()

- ① Australian English ② British English ③ Indian English
- ④ Japanese English ⑤ North American English ⑥ Spanish English
- ⑦ Taiwanese English ⑧ No Preference
- ⑨ Other (Please Specify)_____

4 Of the following selection of English varieties, which one do you think is the most appropriate for teaching and learning purpose? ()

- ① Australian English ② British English ③ Indian English
- ④ Japanese English ⑤ North American English ⑥ Spanish English
- ⑦ Taiwanese English ⑧ No Preference
- ⑨ Other (Please Specify)_____

Appendix B: The British Main Questionnaire

I am a PhD student in the University of Glasgow. The purpose of this online survey is to investigate British people's thoughts on English language.

You will firstly be asked to complete the questions about yourself, listen to some recordings (which will be played within your browser) and then state your opinion about English language.

If you have any further enquiries or suggestions of this survey, please do not hesitate to contact me. Thank you very much for your participation!

ShouChun Chien: s.chien.1@research.gla.ac.uk

Part 1: Background Information

Please complete each question with information about you. Please put your choice (the number) in the bracket or fill in the blank after each question.

Please select only one choice per question.

1 Are you a British citizen? ()

①Yes ②No

2 Were you born and raised in the UK? ()

①Yes ②No

3 Is your mother tongue English? ()

①Yes ②No

4 In which part of the UK do you currently live? ()

①England ②Channel Islands

③Northern Ireland ④Scotland

⑤Wales

5 What is your age?

6 What is your gender? ()

- ①Male ②Female

7 Are you a student? ()

- ①No ②Yes, College
③Yes, Undergraduate ④Yes, Postgraduate and above

8 What is your occupation? ()

- ①Student ②Agriculture, Farming and Fishing Industry
③Business Industry ④Education Industry ⑤ Manufacturing Industry
⑥Service Industry ⑦Freelance
⑧Not Currently Employed/Retired ⑨Other (Please specify)_____

9 How do you perceive your own English accent? ()

- ①No accent ②Slightly accented
③Moderately accented ④Heavily accented

Part 2: Listening Activities

In this section, you will listen to an example recording first, followed by seven other recordings. You will listen to each of the recordings twice.

The Example Recording

Step 1: As you listen to the recording, please circle a number 1-6 for each of the trait along the scale to indicate your impression of the speaker. (1=the most unfavourable evaluation; 6=the most favourable evaluation).

Traits	Scale						Traits
Unconfident	1	2	3	4	5	6	Confident
Unintelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	Intelligent
Uneducated	1	2	3	4	5	6	Educated
Not Authoritative	1	2	3	4	5	6	Authoritative
Unfriendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	Friendly
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	Lively

Step 2: Please listen to the recording again and try to identify which country the speaker comes from. Please circle only one choice per recording.

- ①Australia ②India ③Japan ④Russia ⑤South Africa
 ⑥Spanish ⑦Taiwan ⑧UK ⑨USA ⑩Not Known

Part 3: Your Opinion

Please circle the number 1-6 to indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following questions.

Question	completely disagree	disagree	somewhat disagree	somewhat agree	agree	completely agree
1. I can recognise the difference between native and non-native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I am interested in learning/ knowing the differences that exist in different varieties of English such as the Indian English, Philippine English, Singaporean English and etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. In an increasingly globalized world, it is important to understand both native and non-native speakers of English	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I feel that non-native speakers of English would have a problem understanding my accent.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. People's accents do not really matter to me as long as I can understand the communication that takes place.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part 4: Multiple Choice Questions

Please read each question and put your choice (the number) in the bracket after each question. Please select only one choice per question.

1 Of the following selection of English varieties, which one is your favourite?

()

- ① Australian English ② British English ③ Indian English
- ④ Japanese English ⑤ North American English ⑥ Spanish English
- ⑦ Taiwanese English ⑧ No Preference
- ⑨ Other (Please Specify) _____

2 Of the following selection of English varieties, which one you are most familiar with? ()

- ① Australian English ② British English ③ Indian English
- ④ Japanese English ⑤ North American English ⑥ Spanish English
- ⑦ Taiwanese English ⑧ No Preference
- ⑨ Other (Please Specify) _____

Appendix C: The Taiwanese Pilot Questionnaire

I am a PhD student in the University of Glasgow. The purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate Taiwanese people's thoughts on English language.

You will firstly be asked to listen to some recordings, state your opinion about English language and then complete the questions about yourself.

If you have any further enquiries or suggestions of this questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact me. Thank you very much for your participation!

ShouChun Chien: s.chien.1@research.gla.ac.uk

Part 1: Listening Activities

In this section, you will listen to nine recordings. You will listen to each of the recordings once.

Recording 1:

As you listen to the recording, please circle a number 1-7 for each of the trait along the scale to indicate your impression of the speaker. (1=the most unfavourable evaluation; 7=the most favourable evaluation)

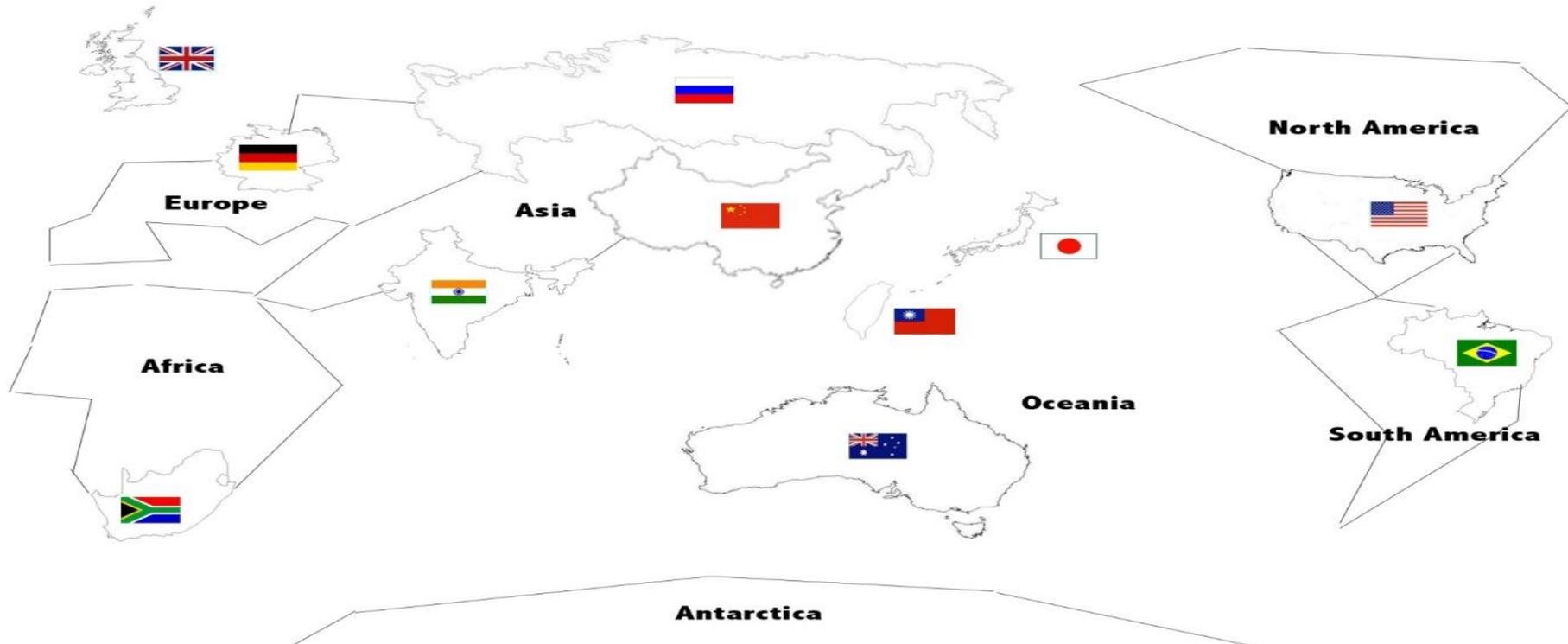
Traits	Scale							Traits
Incompetent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Competent
Unintelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Intelligent
Uneducated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Educated
Not Dominant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dominant
Not Authoritative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Authoritative
Unassertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Assertive
Unattractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Attractive
Unfriendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Friendly
Humorless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Humorous

Part Two: Identification of Speaker Origin

In this section, you will listen to nine recordings. You will listen to each of the recordings once.

Recording 1:

Please listen to the recording and try to identify which country the speaker comes from by circling one of the national flags on the map.



Part 3: Your Opinion

Please circle the number 1-7 to indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following questions.

Question	completely disagree	disagree	somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	somewhat agree	agree	completely agree
1. I can recognise the difference between non-native and native English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. It is important for me to learn English from native English speaking teachers such as Americans or English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am interested in learning Asian 'Englishes' such as the Philippine English, Singaporean English and Indian English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Academically speaking, for example, taking English exams inside and outside of school, understanding non-native accented English will be helpful for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Socially speaking, for example, making international friends (making friends from other countries), understanding non-native accented English will be helpful for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. I would prefer to speak English without Guoyu ³² or Taiyu ³³ accent as it means I have higher level of English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. People's accent does not really matter to me as long as I can understand in the communication that takes place.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. It is necessary to use English to communicate with native speakers of English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It is necessary to use English to communicate with non-native speakers of English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. It is important to have pronunciation like native English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

32 Guoyu is the modern standard Mandarin spoken in Taiwan (Mair, 2004).

33 Taiyu is the dialect of Southern Min spoken in Taiwan (Mair, 2004).

Part 4: Multiple Choice Questions

Please read each question and put your choice (the number) in the bracket after each question. Please select only one choice per question.

1 If you can only choose to have one of the following English varieties, which do you wish to adopt? ()

1. African English
2. Australian English
3. British English
4. Chinese English
5. German English
6. Indian English
7. Japanese English
8. North American English
9. Taiwanese English
10. No Preference
11. Other(Please specify)_____

2 If you can only choose to learn one of the following English varieties, which do you wish to adopt? ()

1. African English
2. Australian English
3. British English
4. Chinese English
5. German English
6. Indian English
7. Japanese English
8. North American English
9. Taiwanese English
10. No Preference
11. Other(Please specify)_____

Part 5: Background Information

Please complete each question with information about you. Please put your choice (the number) in the bracket or fill in the blank. Please select only one choice per question.

1 Are you a Taiwanese citizen? ()

- ①Yes ②No

2 Were you born and raised in Taiwan? ()

- ①Yes ②No

3 What is your mother tongue? ()

- ①Guoyu ②Taiyu
③Hakka ④Others (Please Specify) _____

4 In which part of Taiwan do you currently live? ()

- ①The North Region ②The Middle Region
③The South Region ④The East Region
⑤The Surrounding Islands

5 What is your age?

6 What is your gender? ()

- ①Male ②Female

7 Are you a student? ()

- ①No ②Yes, College
③Yes, Undergraduate ④Yes, Postgraduate and above

8 What is your occupation? ()

- ①Student ②Agriculture, Farming and Fishing Industry
③Business Industry ④Education Industry ⑤ Manufacturing Industry
⑥Service Industry ⑦Freelance
⑧Not Currently Employed/Retired ⑨Other (Please specify) _____

9 How do you perceive your own English level? ()

- ①Beginner ②Intermediate ③Higher Intermediate ④Advanced

10 How long have you been learning English from a non-native English-speaking teacher? ()

① Less than 1 year ② 1-3 years ③ 3-5 years

④ 5-10 years ⑤ more than 10 years

11 How long have you been learning English from a non-native English-speaking teacher? ()

① Less than 1 year ② 1-3 years ③ 3-5 years

④ 5-10 years ⑤ more than 10 years

Appendix D: Questionnaire Consent Form

Background Information of the Research

As part of my study for the Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) with the University of Glasgow, I'm investigating people's thoughts on English language. I will ask you to listen to some recordings and then will ask you to help to answer each section of the questionnaire. If you have any further enquiries or suggestions of this questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact me. Thank you very much for your participation!

ShouChun Chien: s.chien.1@research.gla.ac.uk

Consent to the Usage of the Research Data

I understand that *Ms ShouChun Chien* is collecting data in the form of *Questionnaires* for use in an academic research project at the College of Arts, University of Glasgow.

I give my consent to the use of data for this purpose on the understanding of the following four points:

1. All names and other material likely to identify individuals will be anonymised.
2. The material will be treated as confidential and kept in secure storage at all times.
3. The material will be retained in secure storage for use in future academic research
4. The material may be used in future publications, both print and online.

Signed by the participant: _____ date: _____

Appendix E: Biographical Details of Recording Speakers

Native/Non-Native	Native Speakers				Non-Native Speakers			
English Variety	<i>Example Recording (SSBE)</i>	AE	GAE	SSBE	SE	IE	JE	TE
Series Number in Speech Accent Archive	<i>N/A</i>	English 148	English 124	English 368	Spanish 27	N/A	Japanese 12	Mandarin 30
Birth Place	<i>Hasting, England</i>	Sydney, Australia	Brooklyn, USA	Stratford-on-avon, UK	Zaragoza, Spain	Kanpur, India	Tokyo, Japan	Taipei, Taiwan
Native Language	<i>English</i>	English	English	English	Spanish	Hindi	Japanese	Mandarin
Other Language(s)	<i>N/A</i>	N/A	N/A	French, German	N/A	English	English	English
Age, sex	<i>29, Female</i>	31, Male	38, Male	43, Male	34, Male	31, Male	36, Male	27, Male
Age of English Onset	<i>0</i>	0	0	0	14	10	12	13
English Learning Method	<i>Naturalistic</i>	Naturalistic	Naturalistic	Naturalistic	Academic	Academic	Academic	Academic
English Residence	<i>U.K.</i>	Australia	USA	UK, Singapore	Ireland	India	Australia	USA
Length of English Residence	<i>29 Years</i>	31 Years	38 Years	43 Years	1 Month	1 Month	8.7 Years	1 Years

Appendix F: The Taiwanese Main Questionnaire in Mandarin

我是一名在英國格拉斯哥大學唸博士的學生.此線上問卷的目的在於探討台灣人對英語的看法.您首先會被要求完成關於你自己信息的問題,聽一些錄音(這將在您的瀏覽器中被播放)和陳述您對英語的意見.

如果您對本問卷調查有任何進一步的詢問或建議,請隨時與我聯繫.非常感謝您的參與.

簡淳 s.chien.1@research.gla.ac.uk

第一部分：背景資料

請完成每個有關您背景資料的問題。請將您的選項號碼填寫在括號裡或在空格中填寫您的答案。每個問題請只選擇一個選項。

1 您是台灣公民嗎? ()

①是 ②否

2 您是在台灣出生與長大的嗎? ()

①是 ②否

3 您的母語是? ()

①國語 ②台語

③客家語 ④其他 (請註明) _____

4 您目前居住在台灣哪個區域? ()

①北部 ②中部

③南部 ④東部

⑤離島

5 您的年齡是?

6 您的性別是? ()

①男性 ②女性

7 您是學生嗎? ()

①否 ②是, 大專生

③是, 大學生 ④是, 研究生與以上

8 您的職業是? ()

①學生 ②農林漁牧業

③商業 ④教育業 ⑤製造業

⑥服務業 ⑦自由業 ⑧目前未就業/退休

⑨其他 (請註明) _____

9 您如何看待自己的英語水平? ()

- ①初級 ②中級 ③中高級 ④高級

10 請問您向母語是英語的老師學習英文多久? ()

- ①少於一年 ②1-3年 ③3-5年
④5-10年 ⑤十年以上

11 請問您向母語非英語的老師學習英文多久? ()

- ①少於一年 ②1-3年 ③3-5年
④5-10年 ⑤十年以上

第二部分：聽力活動

在此部分您首先將會聽到示範錄音，其次是七段錄音。您將會聽每段錄音二次。

示範錄音

步驟一：當您在聽錄音時，請在刻度表格中的每個特點圈選數字 1-6 來表明您對說話者的印象。（例如：1=最不良的評價；6=最良好的評價）

特點	刻度						特點
不自信的	1	2	3	4	5	6	有自信的
不聰明的	1	2	3	4	5	6	聰明的
沒有教養的	1	2	3	4	5	6	有教養的
不權威的	1	2	3	4	5	6	權威的
不友好的	1	2	3	4	5	6	友好的
不活潑的	1	2	3	4	5	6	活潑的

步驟二：請再聽一次錄音並嘗試辨認出說話者來自哪個國家？每段錄音請只圈選一個選項。

- ①澳洲 ②印度 ③日本 ④俄羅斯 ⑤南非 ⑥西班牙
- ⑦台灣 ⑧英國 ⑨美國 ⑩不知道

第三部分：您的意見

請圈選數字 1-6 來表明您對以下問題同意與不同意的程度

問題	完全不同意	不同意	部分不同意	部分同意	同意	完全同意
1. 我可以識別母語是英語與母語非英語的人之間的不同。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 向本身母語是英語的老師學習英語，例如美國人或英國人，對我來說是重要的。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 我有興趣學習/知道存在於各式英語中的差異，例如印度式英語，菲律賓式英語，新加坡式英語，等等。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 為了通過英語考試（例如：全民英檢，托福，托益或雅思等等）我需要聽懂各式英語的說話者。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 為了廣交來自世界各地的朋友，我需要同時聽懂母語是英語與母語非英語的說話者。	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 我覺得若我說英語時不帶有國語或台語口音會更成功。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 人的口音其實並不重要只要我能理解其中的溝通交流。	1	2	3	4	5	6

第四部分：選擇題

請閱讀每個問題並將您的選項號碼填寫在問題後的括號裡，每個問題請只選擇一個選項。

1. 在下列各式英語的選擇中，哪一個是您的最愛？ ()
 - ① 澳洲式英語 ② 英國式英語 ③ 印度式英語 ④ 日本式英語
 - ⑤ 北美式英語 ⑥ 西班牙式英語 ⑦ 台灣式英語 ⑧ 沒有偏好
 - ⑨ 其他(請註明)_____

2. 在下列各式英語的選擇中，哪一個是您最熟悉的？ ()
 - ① 澳洲式英語 ② 英國式英語 ③ 印度式英語 ④ 日本式英語
 - ⑤ 北美式英語 ⑥ 西班牙式英語 ⑦ 台灣式英語 ⑧ 沒有偏好
 - ⑨ 其他(請註明)_____

3. 在下列各式英語的選擇中，哪一個是您覺得最適合用在日常生活中？ ()
 - ① 澳洲式英語 ② 英國式英語 ③ 印度式英語 ④ 日本式英語
 - ⑤ 北美式英語 ⑥ 西班牙式英語 ⑦ 台灣式英語 ⑧ 沒有偏好
 - ⑨ 其他(請註明)_____

4. 在下列各式英語的選擇中，哪一個是您覺得最適合用在教學與學習上？ ()
 - ① 澳洲式英語 ② 英國式英語 ③ 印度式英語 ④ 日本式英語
 - ⑤ 北美式英語 ⑥ 西班牙式英語 ⑦ 台灣式英語 ⑧ 沒有偏好
 - ⑨ 其他(請註明)_____

第五部分：背景資料

請完成每個有關您的信息的問題。請將您的選項號碼填寫在括號裡或在空格中填寫您的答案。每個問題請只選擇一個選項。

1 您是台灣公民嗎? ()

①是 ②否

2 您是在台灣出生與長大的嗎? ()

①是 ②否

3 您的母語是? ()

①國語 ②台語

③客家語 ④其他 (請註明) _____

4 您目前居住在台灣哪個區域? ()

①北部 ②中部

③南部 ④東部

⑤離島

5 您的年齡是?

6 您的性別是? ()

①男性 ②女性

7 您是學生嗎? ()

①否 ②是, 大專生

③是, 大學生 ④是, 研究生與以上

8 您的職業是? ()

①學生 ②農林漁牧業

③商業 ④教育業 ⑤製造業

⑥服務業 ⑦自由業 ⑧目前未就業/退休

⑨其他 (請註明) _____

9 您如何看待自己的英語水平? ()

- ①初級 ②中級 ③中高級 ④高級

10 請問您向母語是英語的老師學習英文多久? ()

- ①少於一年 ②1-3年 ③3-5年
④5-10年 ⑤十年以上

11 請問您向母語非英語的老師學習英文多久? ()

- ①少於一年 ②1-3年 ③3-5年
④5-10年 ⑤十年以上

Appendix G: The Taiwanese Pilot Questionnaire in Mandarin

我是一名在英國格拉斯哥大學唸博士的學生.此問卷的目的在於探討台灣人對英語的看法.您首先會被要求聽一些錄音,陳述您對英語的意見和完成關於你自己信息的問題.

如果您對本問卷調查有任何進一步的詢問或建議,請隨時與我聯繫.非常感謝您的參與.

簡守淳: s.chien.1@research.gla.ac.uk

第一部分：聽力活動

在此部分您將會聽到九段錄音，您將會聽每段錄音一次

錄音 1

當您在聽錄音時，請在刻度表格中的每個特點圈選數字 1-7 來表明您對說話者的印象。(例如:1=最不良的評價; 7=最良好的評價)

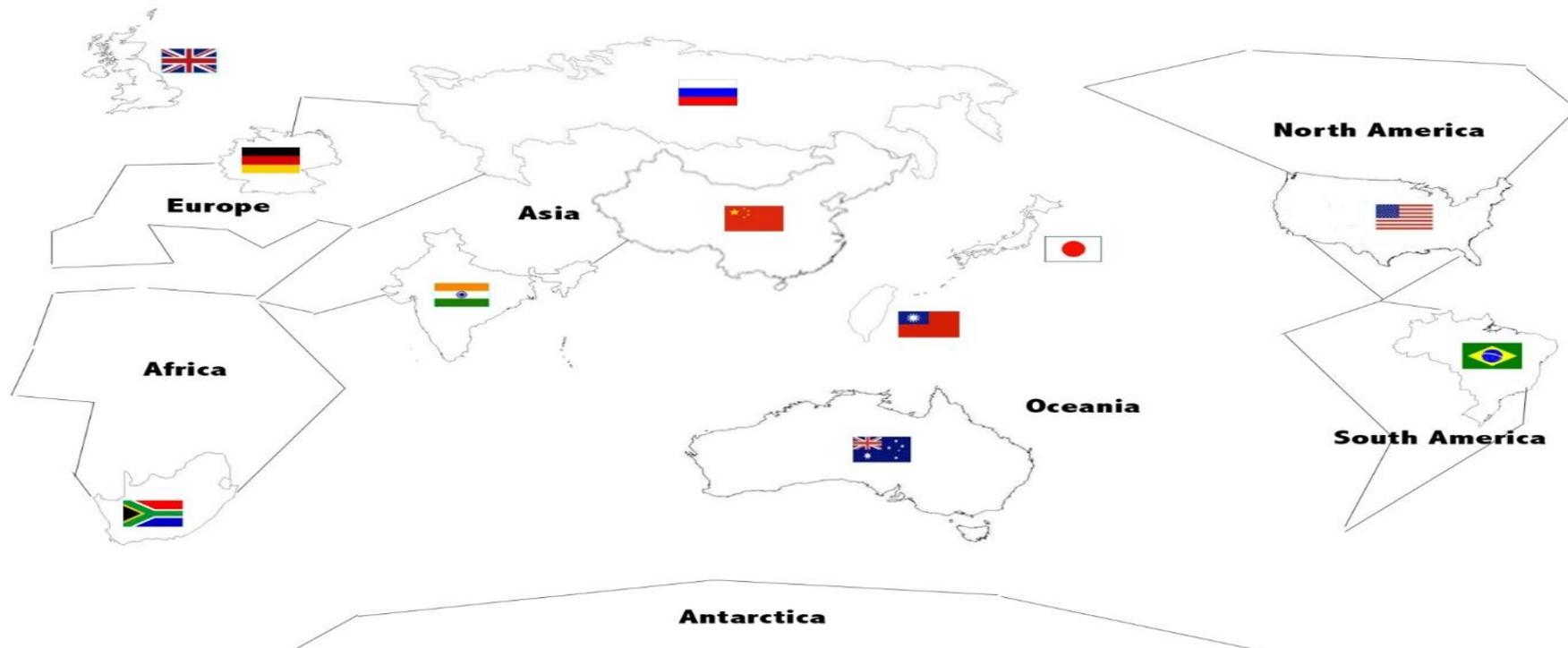
特點	刻度							特點
無能力的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	有能力的
不聰明的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	聰明的
沒教養的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	有教養的
不占優勢的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	占優勢的
不權威的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	權威的
不武斷的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	武斷的
無吸引力的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	有吸引力的
不友好的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	友好的
缺乏幽默感的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	幽默的

第二部份：識別說話者的出身地

在此部分您將會聽到九段錄音, 您將會聽每段錄音一次

錄音 1

請聽錄音並嘗試藉由圈選地圖上其中一個國旗來辨認出說話者來自哪個國家



第三部分：您的意見

請圈選數字 1-7 來表明您對以下問題同意與不同意的程度

問題	完全不同意	不同意	部分不同意	既不同意也不反對	部分同意	同意	完全同意
1. 我可以識別母語是英語與母語非英語的人之間的不同。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 向本身母語是英語的老師學習英語，例如美國人或英國人，對我來說是重要的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我對於學習“亞洲式英語”感興趣，例如菲律賓英語，新加坡英語，印度英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 從學術角度上來說，例如參加學校內或學校外的英語能力測試，能聽懂帶有母語非英語口音的英語對我有幫助。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 從社交角度上來說，例如結交國際朋友（結交來自別的國家的朋友），能聽懂帶有母語非英語口音的英語對我有幫助。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 我會比較喜歡說英語時，不要帶有國語或台語口音，因為這意味著我有更高的英語水平。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 人的口音其實並不重要只要我能理解其中的溝通交流。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 與母語是英語的人溝通交流有必要使用英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 與母語非英語的人溝通交流有必要使用英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 具有像母語是英語的人的發音是重要的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第四部分：多項選擇題

請閱讀每個問題並將您的選項號碼填寫在問題後的括號裡，每個問題請只選擇一個選項。

如果您僅可選擇具有以下其中一種英語，您希望採用哪一個？ ()

1. 非洲式英語
2. 澳洲式英語
3. 英國式英語
4. 中國式英語
5. 德國式英語
6. 印度式英語
7. 日本式英語
8. 北美式英語
9. 台灣式英語
10. 沒有偏好
11. 其他(請註明)_____

如果您僅可選擇學習以下其中一種英語，您希望採用哪一個？ ()

1. 非洲式英語
2. 澳洲式英語
3. 英國式英語
4. 中國式英語
5. 德國式英語
6. 印度式英語
7. 日本式英語
8. 北美式英語
9. 台灣式英語
10. 沒有偏好
11. 其他(請註明)_____

第五部分：背景資料

請完成每個有關您背景資料的問題。請將您的選項號碼填寫在括號裡或在空格中填寫您的答案。每個問題請只選擇一個選項。

1 您是台灣公民嗎? ()

①是 ②否

2 您是在台灣出生與長大的嗎? ()

①是 ②否

3 您的母語是? ()

①國語 ②台語

③客家語 ④其他 (請註明) _____

4 您目前居住在台灣哪個區域? ()

①北部 ②中部

③南部 ④東部

⑤離島

5 您的年齡是?

6 您的性別是? ()

①男性 ②女性

7 您是學生嗎? ()

①否 ②是, 大專生

③是, 大學生 ④是, 研究生與以上

8 您的職業是? ()

①學生 ②農林漁牧業

③商業 ④教育業 ⑤製造業

⑥服務業 ⑦自由業 ⑧目前未就業/退休

⑨其他 (請註明) _____

9 您如何看待自己的英語水平? ()

- ①初級 ②中級 ③中高級 ④高級

10 請問您向母語是英語的老師學習英文多久? ()

- ①少於一年 ②1-3年 ③3-5年
④5-10年 ⑤十年以上

11 請問您向母語非英語的老師學習英文多久? ()

- ①少於一年 ②1-3年 ③3-5年
④5-10年 ⑤十年以上

Appendix H: Questionnaire Consent Form in Mandarin

問卷同意書

研究背景資料

作為我在格拉斯哥博士研究的一部份, 我正在調查人們對英語的看法. 我會請你聽一些錄音, 然後會要求你幫助回答問卷的每一部分. 如果您對本問卷調查有任何進一步的詢問或建議, 請隨時與我聯繫. 非常感謝您的參與.

簡守淳: s.chien.1@research.gla.ac.uk

同意研究資料的使用

我理解 簡守淳小姐 正在以 問卷 形式收集數據資料, 用於格拉斯哥大學藝術學院的學術研究項目. 對以下四點的理解下, 我同意為此目的資料使用:

- a) 所有個人姓名與其他可能會標識個人信息的材料將會被匿名化.
- b) 數據資料將被保密對待, 並始終保存在安全的儲存中.
- c) 數據資料將始終保存在安全的儲存中, 以供將來的學術研究使用.
- d) 數據資料也許會用於未來包括印刷和線上的出版物中.

參與者簽名: _____ 日期: _____

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