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Sous le thème

Moroccan EFL Learners' Attitudes towards World Englishes and
Native and Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers: Towards a
Global Englishes-Informed Pedagogy

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to the loving memory of my parents (Souilka Hamadi & Khatri Mourchid), whom I still miss every day, to my brothers (Abdeljalil & Yahya) and sisters (Maalouma, Soukaina, Mariam, Fatam & Bentakhoulha) and to my dear supervisor Professor Hind Brigui.

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English Abstract

Ibn Tofail University

Faculty of Languages, Letters and Arts

Moroccan EFL Learners' Attitudes towards World Englishes and Native and Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers: Towards a Global Englishes-Informed Pedagogy

Mustapha Mourchid

Today's changing sociolinguistic reality of English calls for a shift in paradigm in the field of English language teaching. Therefore, this study aims to examine Moroccan EFL learners' (MEFLs) attitudes towards World Englishes (WE) and native and non-native English-speaking teachers (NESTs & non-NESTs). Firstly, building on the assumption that Kachru's three Concentric Circles have been treated unequally and that less scholarly research has been published on *expanding circle* countries, this study seeks to examine the attitudes of MEFLs towards WE. Overall, although the study's findings show that MEFLs tend to prefer inner circle Englishes, the participants surveyed are aware of English language variation and are willing to learn more about varieties of English speech. Secondly, departing from the assumption that EFL learners tend to show a preference for NESTs over non-NESTs and that there is a short supply of research into this phenomenon in Morocco, this study intervenes to explore the applicability of this assumption to MEFLs. In this regard, the study's findings show that the participants' attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs are positive. The results also reveal that the Moroccan context seems to be a fertile setting for discussing WE- and NEST/non-NEST-related issues. On the one hand, the participants recognise and appreciate the sociolinguistic variation exhibited in the English language. On the other hand, the participants judge NESTs and non-NESTs in positive ways. Finally, the study concludes with several pedagogical implications for the choice of linguistic model(s) to be employed in EFL classrooms inside and outside Morocco.

Keywords: Kachru's Concentric Circles, Global Englishes-Informed Pedagogy, Language Attitudes, Native English-Speaking Teachers, Native-Speakerism, Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers, World Englishes

French Abstract (Résumé)

Université Ibn Tofail

Faculté des Langues, Lettres et Arts

Attitudes des apprenants marocains d'anglais langue étrangère envers les variétés mondiales de l'anglais et les enseignants anglophones natifs et non natifs : vers une pédagogie éclairée par les anglais mondiaux

Mustapha Mourchid

La réalité sociolinguistique changeante de l'anglais appelle aujourd'hui un changement de paradigme dans le domaine de l'enseignement de l'anglais. Par conséquent, cette étude vise à examiner les attitudes des apprenants marocains d'anglais comme langue étrangère (AMALE) envers les variétés mondiales de l'anglais (VMA) et les enseignants anglophones natifs et non natifs (EAN & EANN). Premièrement, en partant de l'hypothèse que les trois cercles concentriques de Kachru ont été traités de manière inégale et que moins de recherches scientifiques ont été publiées sur les pays du cercle en expansion, cette étude cherche à examiner les attitudes des AMALE à l'égard des VAM. Dans l'ensemble, bien que les résultats de l'étude montrent que les AMALE ont tendance à préférer les anglais du cercle restreint, les participants interrogés sont conscients des variations de la langue anglaise et sont disposés à en apprendre davantage sur les variétés de langue anglaise. Deuxièmement, partant de l'hypothèse selon laquelle les AMALE ont tendance à montrer une préférence pour les EAN par rapport aux EANN et qu'il existe un déficit de recherches sur ce phénomène au Maroc, cette étude vient explorer l'applicabilité de cette hypothèse aux AMALE. Les résultats de l'étude montrent que l'attitude des participants à l'égard des EAN et EANN est positive. Les résultats révèlent également que le contexte marocain semble être un cadre fertile pour discuter des questions relatives aux VAM et aux EAN et EANN. D'une part, les participants reconnaissent et apprécient la variation sociolinguistique présentée dans la langue anglaise. D'autre part, les participants jugent positivement les EAN et EANN. Enfin, l'étude se termine par plusieurs implications pédagogiques pour le choix du ou des modèles linguistiques à utiliser dans les classes d'anglais langue étrangère au Maroc et à l'étranger.

Mots-clés: Cercles concentriques de Kachru, pédagogie éclairée par les anglais mondiaux, attitudes linguistiques, enseignants anglophones natifs, locuteurs natifs, enseignants anglophones non natifs, variétés mondiales de l'anglais

Arabic Abstract (ملخص)

جامعة ابن طفيل
كلية اللغات والآداب والفنون
مواقف متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في المغرب تجاه انجليزيات العالم والمدرسين الناطقين الأصليين وغير
الأصليين باللغة الإنجليزية: نحو بيداغوجيا موجهة بانجليزيات العالم
مصطفى مرشيد

يستدعي الواقع السوسiolساني المتغير للغة الإنجليزية اليوم تحولا في النموذج في مجال تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية. لذلك، تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى فحص مواقف متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في المغرب تجاه انجليزيات العالم والمدرسين الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية الأصليين وغير الأصليين. أولاً، بناءً على الافتراض القائل بأن دوائر كاتشرو الثلاثة متحدة المركز قد تم التعامل معها بشكل غير متساوٍ وأنه تم نشر أبحاث علمية أقل حول بلدان الدائرة المتوسعة (الدول الناطقة بالإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية)، تسعى هذه الدراسة إلى فحص مواقف متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في المغرب تجاه انجليزيات العالم. بشكل عام، على الرغم من أن نتائج الدراسة تظهر أن متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية يميلون إلى تفضيل اللغة الإنجليزية التي تنتمي للدائرة الداخلية (الدول الناطقة بالإنجليزية كلغة أم)، فإن المشاركين الذين شملهم الاستطلاع يدركون اختلاف اللهجات الإنجليزية ومستعدون لمعرفة المزيد عن أنواع الكلام باللغة الإنجليزية. ثانياً، بناءً على الافتراض القائل بأن متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية يميلون إلى إظهار تفضيل للمدرسين الناطقين الأصليين باللغة الإنجليزية على الناطقين غير الأصليين بها وأن هناك نقصاً في الأبحاث حول هذه الظاهرة في المغرب، تتدخل هذه الدراسة لاستكشاف إمكانية تطبيق هذا الافتراض على متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية بالمغرب. تظهر نتائج الدراسة أن مواقف المشاركين تجاه المعلمين الناطقين الأصليين باللغة الإنجليزية والناطقين غير أصليين بها إيجابية. وتكشف النتائج أيضاً أن السياق المغربي يبدو أنه بيئة خصبة لمناقشة قضايا تخص انجليزيات العالم والمعلمين الناطقين الأصليين وغير الأصليين باللغة الإنجليزية. فمن ناحية، يدرك المشاركون ويقدرّون التنوع السوسiolساني الموجود في اللغة الإنجليزية. ومن ناحية أخرى، يحكم المشاركون على المعلمين الناطقين الأصليين وغير الأصليين باللغة الإنجليزية بطرق إيجابية. وأخيراً، تخلص الدراسة إلى العديد من الآثار التربوية لاختيار النموذج (النماذج) اللغوية لاستخدامها في فصول اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية داخل المغرب وخارجه.

الكلمات المفتاحية: دوائر كاتشرو متحدة المركز، بيداغوجيا موجهة بانجليزيات العالم، المواقف اللغوية، المدرسين الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية الأصليين، المدرسين الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية غير الأصليين، التحيز للمتحدث الأصلي، انجليزيات العالم

Glossary

The following glossary provides the reader with a number of acronyms, terms and statistical concepts that will be extensively utilised in the present study. It should be pointed out, however, that not all of these acronyms, terms or statistical concepts are easy to define as some of them are complex constructs or terms that have been interpreted differently by different scholars who belong to different research areas.

Accent: is defined as “[a] variety of speech differing from other varieties in terms of pronunciation (including intonation), and which identifies a speaker in terms of regional origin, social standing and, possibly, ethnicity - thus a ‘Northern accent’, a ‘broad accent’, ‘Scottish accent’, etc. In this sociolinguistic sense, all speakers have an accent: the term is not restricted to low-status varieties but includes prestige varieties such as (in British English) Received Pronunciation” (Swann et al., 2004, p. 2).

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): is “[a] statistical test which can be used to compare the language use of different groups of speakers or the language used in different text types. ANOVA compares the mean scores (numerical averages) of two or more groups in a sample, and allows the researcher to assess whether the observed differences between groups are statistically significant (i.e. would be expected to occur in the population from which the sample was drawn...)” (Swann et al., 2004, p. 9).

Attitude: is defined as “a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event” (Allport, 1935, p. 784). Eagly and Chaiken (1993) define the term *attitude* as “a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor” (p. 1).

Bonferroni Adjustment (or *Bonferroni correction*, *Bonferroni test*, *Bonferroni t*, *Bonferroni-Dunn test*, *Dunn test*, *Dunn correction*, *Dunn multiple comparison test*): is defined as “a procedure for guarding against an increase in the PROBABILITY of a TYPE I ERROR when performing multiple significance tests. Bonferroni adjustment is an adjustment made to the ALPHA (α) LEVEL whereby the alpha level is divided by the number of tests. This results in a new alpha level, and to be statistical a test must be below this level. Because researchers obviously do not want to conclude that the INDEPENDENT VARIABLE has an effect when it really does not, they take steps to control type I error when they conduct many statistical analyses. The conventional level for determining whether two groups differ is the .05 or 5% level. At this level the probability of two groups differing by chance when they do not differ is 1 out of 20 or 5 out of 100. The most straightforward way of preventing Type I error inflation when conducting many tests is to set a more stringent alpha level than the conventional .05 level. Researchers sometimes use the Bonferroni adjustment in which they divide their desired alpha level (such as .05) by the number of tests they plan to conduct. For example, if we wanted to conduct 10 *t*-TESTS to analyze all pairs of MEANS in a study, we could use an alpha level of .005 rather than .05 for each *t*-test we ran. (We would use an alpha level of .005 because we divide our desired alpha level of .05 by the number of tests we will conduct; $.05/10 = .005$.) If we did so, the likelihood of making a Type I error on any particular *t*-test would be very low (.005), and the overall likelihood of making a Type I error across all 10 *t*-tests would not exceed our desired alpha level of .05” (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 38).

Box’s M Test: is “a test which is used to determine whether the VARIANCE and COVARIANCE matrices of two or more DEPENDENT VARIABLES in a MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE or MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE are

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similar or homogeneous across the groups, which is one of the assumptions underlying this analysis. If the STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE does not exceed the critical level (i.e., nonsignificance), then the equality of the covariance matrices is supported. If the test shows statistical significance, then the groups are deemed different and the assumption is violated. If this test is significant, it may be possible to reduce the variances by transforming the scores by taking their SQUARE ROOT or natural logarithm” (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 42).

Continuous Data: are “numeric data in which the distances between numbers are equal” (Eddington, 2015, p. 8).

Convenience Sampling: is “a type of NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING which involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents and continuing that process until the required SAMPLE SIZE has been obtained. In practice, having access to all members of the entire POPULATION is often impossible due to time or financial constraints. Instead researchers access participants from a population that is readily available... Captive audiences such as students or student teachers often serve as respondents based on convenience sampling. The researcher simply chooses the SAMPLE from those to whom s/he has easy access. For example, if the target population is all learners of EFL who attend an English-medium university, but the researcher only has access to a sample from learners of EFL who attend the English-medium university where s/he teaches, s/he uses this group because it is convenient” (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 109).

Debriefing: refers to the act of “informing research participants— as soon as possible after the completion of their participation in research—about the purposes, procedures, and scientific value of the study, and discussing any questions participants may have” (Smith et al., 2015, p. 50).

Descriptive Statistics: “Statistical methods which help researchers to summarise the quantitative aspects of a study. Descriptive statistics are used to uncover patterns or general tendencies in a data set. Methods used include simple frequency counts (e.g. the frequency with which particular linguistic features occur in a text); the transformation of absolute frequencies into percentages; the use of graphs (such as histograms or line plots) to display data; the calculation of data averages (such as the mean) and data distribution (such as the standard deviation)... Descriptive statistics contrast with inferential statistics. The latter aim to confirm whether interpretations can be extended beyond the immediate data, i.e. whether any patterns observed could also be expected to be valid for the population from which the sample was drawn” (Swann et al., 2004, p. 73).

Dialect Identification/Recognition: refers to the extent to which the study’s participants are able to identify the recorded speakers’ countries of origin.

Direct Approach Attitude Studies: refer to “studies of attitudes of human informants in which they are aware of what is being investigated” (Garrett, 2010, p. 228).

English as a Foreign Language: is “the English of those whose countries were never colonised by the British, and for whom English serves little or no purpose within their own borders” (Jenkins, 2015, p. 11).

English as an International Language: “focuses on the use of English by individuals from diverse ethnolinguistic/cultural backgrounds in the projection of cultural identities and the negotiation of communicative goals to achieve mutual intelligibility in various settings and domains” (Selvi et al., 2024, p. 20).

English as a Native Language: (or *English as a mother tongue*) is “the language of those born and raised in one of the countries where English is historically the first language to be spoken” (Jenkins, 2015, p. 10).

English as a Second Language: refers to “the language spoken in a large number of territories such as India, Bangladesh, Nigeria, and Singapore, which were once colonised by the English” (Jenkins, 2015, p. 11).

Expanding Circle: “comprises countries where English is learned as a foreign language (EFL) and is used for international communication, such as in business, diplomacy and tourism” (McKenzie, 2006, p. 2). This circle includes countries like Morocco, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Indonesia, etc.

Explicit Attitude: is defined as the attitude that “people can report and for which activation can be consciously controlled” (Rydell & McConnell, 2006, p. 995).

Ideologies of Nativeness: is a term coined by Jeong and Lindemann (2025) to describe ideologies, which “favor speakers of privileged first language (L1) varieties and undermine other L1 and L2 World Englishes speakers” (p. 1).

Indirect Approach Attitude Studies: refer to “studies of human informants in which they are unaware of what is being investigated” (Garrett, 2010, p. 228).

Lingua Franca: “When a language is used as a medium of communication between users of different first languages, it is known as a **lingua franca**” (Hall et al., 2017, p. 41).

Global Englishes: refers “to the phenomenon of English as an international language, used in different ways, as part of a bilingual or multilingual repertoire, by perhaps one-third of the world’s population, spread across every continent. The term also indicates a new view of English that embraces diversity and questions the assumption that contemporary native speakers have inherent stewardship of, or competence in, the language” (Hall et al., 2017, p. 25). Rose and Galloway (2019) define the term *Global Englishes* as “an inclusive paradigm looking at the linguistic, sociolinguistic and sociocultural diversity and fluidity of English use and English users in a globalised world” (p. 4).

Global Englishes Language Teaching: the term Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT) “was coined by Galloway (2011, 2013) and then developed further in Galloway and Rose (2015), with further adaptations in Galloway and Rose (2018). GELT was first established as a new approach to teaching English, founded on theoretical notions from Global Englishes research. GELT is an answer to calls for an epistemic break (Kumaravadivelu, 2012) in English language teaching, which views current practices as ill-fitting for teaching English as a global lingua franca” (Rose & Galloway, 2019, p. 4).

Implicit Attitude: is defined as the attitude “for which people do not initially have conscious access and for which activation cannot be controlled” (Rydell & McConnell, 2006, p. 995).

Inferential Statistics: “Statistical methods which enable researchers to test whether the patterns observed in a data set are likely to exist in the population from which the sample was drawn” (Swann et al., 2004, p. 145).

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Inner Circle: “consists of countries where English is spoken as a native language (ENL) for a substantial (and often monolingual) majority” (McKenzie, 2006, p. 1). This circle includes the USA, UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.

Levene’s Test: is “a test procedure which is used to assess the EQUALITY OF VARIANCES in different SAMPLES” (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 321).

Likert Scale: is “a type of RATING SCALE which includes a number of statements which express either a favorable or unfavorable attitude towards the given object to which the respondent is asked to react. The respondent indicates his/her agreement or disagreement with each statement in the instrument. Each response is given a numerical score, indicating its favorableness or unfavorableness, and the scores are totaled to measure the respondent’s attitude. In other words, the overall score represents the respondent’s position on the continuum of favorable-unfavorableness towards an issue. Likert scales are called summated because they are method of combining several VARIABLES that measure the same concept into a single variable in an attempt to increase the RELIABILITY of the measurement. In most instances, the separate variables are summed and then their total or average score is used in the analysis” (Tavakoli, 2012, pp. 323-324).

Matched-Guise Technique: is “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” (Garrett, 2010, p. 229).

Mauchly’s Test of Sphericity (or *Mauchly’s Test*): is “a test of SPHERICITY in a REPEATED-MEASURES ANOVAs. A significant Mauchly’s test indicates that the assumption of sphericity is not met. Violating this assumption inflates TYPE I ERROR rate” (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 344).

Measurement: *Measurement*, in its broadest sense, is defined as “the assignment of numerals to objects or events according to rules” (Stevens, 1946, p. 677). The aim of measurement, according to Himmelfarb (1993), is “to assign numbers to objects so that the properties of the numbers that are assigned reflect the relations of the objects to each other on the attribute being measure (e.g., attitude)” (p. 23).

Native English-Speaking Teacher: is a teacher whose first (native) language is English (Moussu, 2006).

Native Speaker: “A native speaker (NS) of a language is a person who has acquired the language as their first language in childhood. Native speakers are considered to know this language intuitively, and to use it accurately, fluently, and appropriately” (Thornbury, 2006, p. 140).

Native-Speakerism: is defined as “a pervasive ideology within ELT, characterized by the belief that ‘native-speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology” (Holliday, 2006, p. 385).

Native English Speaker (NES): is “somebody born in an English-speaking country who acquired English as their first language as a child and grew up speaking it” (Kiczowski, 2018, p. 202).

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Non-Native English Speaker (NNES): is “somebody born in a non-English-speaking country who has learnt English either as a second or as a foreign language” (Kiczkowiak, 2018, p. 202).

Non-Native English-Speaking Teacher: is an ESL/EFL teacher who learned English in addition to his/ her native language (Moussu, 2006).

Non-native Speaker: is “a language user for whom a language is not their first language” (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 238).

Outer Circle: “consists of ‘post-colonial’ countries, such as India, The Philippines, Nigeria and Malaysia, where English is spoken as a second language (ESL) and is employed for a range of educational and administrative purposes” (McKenzie, 2006, pp. 1-2).

Partial eta squared: is “an EFFECT SIZE statistics which indicates the proportion of VARIANCE of the DEPENDENT VARIABLE that is explained by the INDEPENDENT VARIABLE. It is partial because it eliminates the influence of other factors in the design. Values can range from 0 to 1” (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 448).

Personality Trait: is defined as “a characteristic of an individual that exerts pervasive influence on a broad range of trait-relevant responses. Assumed to be behavioural manifestations of an underlying trait, people’s responses are taken as indications of their standing on the trait in question” (Ajzen, 2005, p. 2).

P-level: “A statistical measure. The p-level estimates the likelihood that the patterns observed in a sample would also be present in the population from which the sample was drawn. Results that yield $p < 0.05$ are generally considered statistically significant, i.e. in this case the patterns observed in the sample can be generalised to the population with a specifiable degree of confidence (the figure means that the probability of error is less than 5 per cent)” (Swann et al., 2004, p. 229).

Post hoc Analysis (or a posteriori test, unplanned test, post hoc contrast, post hoc comparison, unplanned comparison, follow-up test, multiple comparison test) is “a test, comparison, or contrast which is used after the data have been analyzed and examined, and the researcher simply looks at any or all combination of MEANS in order to compare them. More specifically, a post hoc test is a follow-up statistical test which is performed after a comparison of more than two groups (e.g., ANOVA) shows a significant *F* RATIO (indicating that there are differences among your groups), without a priori hypotheses about which group differences might be causing that effect. If an ANOVA reveals a significant effect for an INDEPENDENT VARIABLE (IV) that has only two LEVELs, no further statistical tests are necessary” (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 476).

Received Pronunciation: “RP or Received Pronunciation (also popularly known as the Queen's English, Oxford English or BBC English) is the name used by linguists for the prestige accent of the United Kingdom, typically used by the educated middle and aristocratic classes. Unlike other accents of English in the UK, RP is not restricted to a particular geographical region, and is particularly influential as the language associated with the British royalty, parliament, the Church of England, the High Courts and other national institutions. Within the study of English phonetics, RP was particularly important, as it was used as a model by Daniel Jones and others for the description of English, and continues to be an influential model, often used as a comparative norm in the description of other accents. The adjective ‘received’ is used in the sense of ‘accepted, though not spoken, widely’, though it has also been taken to mean ‘the only accent received at the Royal court’” (Swann et al., 2004, p. 259).

Self-perceived Competence: is defined as a reflection of “the individual’s perception of his/her competence in a foreign language” (Dewaele, 2005, p. 124).

Semantic Differential Scale: *The Semantic Differential (SD) Scale* “measures people's reactions to stimulus words and concepts in terms of ratings on bipolar scales defined with contrasting adjectives at each end” (Heise, 1970, p. 235) (see [Appendix H](#) for samples of bipolar semantic-differential scales used in previous language attitudes research).

Significance Testing: “Significance testing is used to calculate the probability or likelihood that the patterns of variation observed in a sample will also occur in the population from which the sample is drawn, i.e. they are not the result of a sampling error. The probability is represented by the so-called p-level. Results that yield $p < 0.05$ are generally considered statistically significant, i.e. in this case the patterns observed in the sample can be generalised to the population with a specifiable degree of confidence (the probability of error is smaller than 5 per cent). ChiSquare, t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) are frequently used for significance testing in sociolinguistic research” (Swann et al., 2004, p. 280).

Social Psychology: is defined as “the scientific study of the effects of social and cognitive processes on the way individuals perceive, influence, and relate to others” (Smith et al., 2015, p. 3).

Social Variable: “Social variables are aspects of a speaker's social identity (e.g. social class, gender, age or ethnicity) which are correlated with language behaviour in quantitative sociolinguistic research” (Swann et al., 2004, p. 285).

Social Variation: refers “to language variation between social groups: how language varies according to social class, gender, age, ethnicity etc. Social variation therefore refers to interspeaker variation, or variation between speakers, in contrast to intraspeaker variation, or variation within the speech of an individual speaker (stylistic variation). Sociolinguistic studies have demonstrated the systematic, patterned nature of social variation, and how this relates to language change” (Swann et al., 2004, p. 285).

Standard 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, p. 229).

TESOL: The acronym *Teachers of English (or Teaching English) to Speakers of Other Languages* or *Teaching English as a Second or Other Language* describes three things: (1) the international professional organisation, created in 1966, (2) the teaching and research field (also called TESL) and (3) the educational program and qualification (MA TESOL, for example) (Moussu, 2006).

Translanguaging: is “an approach to the use of language, bilingualism and the education of bilinguals that considers the language practices of bilinguals not as two autonomous language systems as has been traditionally the case, but as one linguistic repertoire with features that have been societally constructed as belonging to two separate languages” (García & Wei, 2014, p. 2).

Variables: are “simply characteristics that change from situation to situation, object to object, or person to person. A person’s biographic information is a series of variables. Some variables are continuous: age, number of years of schooling past high school, number of years living at the present address, number of children. Others are categorical: gender, ethnicity, county of

Glossary

residence, marital status. Some variables are ordinal: ranking among high school class, birth order among siblings, order of preference among potential dates in your little black book” (Eddington, 2015, p. 8).

Variety: is “[a] linguistic system used by a certain group of speakers or in certain social contexts. ‘Variety’ is often used as an alternative to dialect and language, and can be a useful way of circumventing the difficulty of making a clear distinction between the two on linguistic grounds” (Swann et al., 2004, p. 324).

Verbal-Guise Technique: is “a technique of eliciting attitudinal responses from informants by presenting them with a number of speech varieties, each of which is spoken by someone who is a natural speaker of the variety” (Garrett, 2010, p. 229).

World Englishes: The term *World Englishes*, according to Bolton (2006), can be interpreted in different ways, but one of the interpretations we are concerned with in the present study is that *World Englishes* refers to “the wide-ranging approach to the study of English language worldwide particularly associated with Braj B. Kachru and other scholars working in a ‘World Englishes Paradigm’” (p. 240). Furthermore, Rose and Galloway (2019) state that “World Englishes as a discipline began as both a linguistic and a sociolinguistic school of study in the 1970s and 1980s, largely informed by the theoretical work of Braj J. Kachru and Larry Smith. It was primarily concerned with recording and codifying linguistic variation in English, with special interest in the Englishes of former British colonies” (p. 6).

Worldliness of English: “refers both to its local and to its global position, both to the ways in which it reflects social relations and constitutes social relations and thus the worldliness of English is always a question of cultural politics... The worldliness of English, in both its global and local senses, implies relationships to the larger world and to the local context different from those of other languages” (Pennycook, 2017, pp. 34-35).

Declaration

I declare that the work presented in this thesis entitled *Moroccan EFL Learners' Attitudes towards World Englishes and Native and Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers: Towards a Global Englishes-Informed Pedagogy* is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original and my own work. The material has not been submitted, either in whole or in part, for a degree at Ibn Tofail University or any other university.

Mustapha Mouchid

Signed:

Date: 20/05/2025

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Abbreviations

AmE: *American English*
ANOVA: *Analysis of Variance*
BELF: *Business English as a Lingua Franca*
BrE: *British English*
CPD: *Continuous Professional Development*
EC: *The Expanding Circle*
ECAE: *Expanding Circle Accents of English*
ECE: *Expanding Circle Englishes*
EFL: *English as a Foreign Language*
EIAL: *English as an International Auxiliary Language*
EIL: *English as an International Language*
ELF: *English as a Lingua Franca*
ELT: *English Language Teaching*
EMT: *English as a Mother Tongue*
ENL: *English as a Native Language*
ESL: *English as a Second Language*
FiE: *Filipino English*
GE: *Global Englishes*
GELT: *Global Englishes (for) Language Teaching*
GME: *Global Model of English*
HCETSR: *Higher Council for Education, Training and Scientific Research*
IAEA: *International Atomic Energy Agency*
IC: *The Inner Circle*
ICE: *Inner Circle Englishes*
ICT: *Information and Communication Technology*
InE: *Indian English*
JpE: *Japanese English*
L1: *First Language*
L2: *Second Language*
LA: *Language Attitudes*
LAE: *Living-Abroad Experience*
LET: *Local English Teacher*
LFC: *Lingua Franca Core*
MANOVA: *Multivariate Analysis of Variance*
MCA: *Moroccan Colloquial Arabic*
MEFLs: *Moroccan EFL Learners*
METs: *Multilingual English Teachers*
MOI: *Medium of Instruction*
MGT: *Matched-Guise Technique/ Task/ Test*
MMR: *Mixed Methods Research*
NCET: *National Charter for Education and Training*
NES: *Native English Speaker*
NEST: *Native English-Speaking Teacher*
NICE: *Non-Inner Circle Englishes*
NNES: *Non-native English Speaker*
NNST: *Non-Native Speaker Teacher*

Abbreviations

Non-NEST/ NNEST: *Non-Native English-Speaking Teacher*

Non-PCE: *Non-Postcolonial Englishes*

NST: *Native Speaker Teacher*

OC: *The Outer Circle*

OCE: *Outer Circle Englishes*

P: *Participant*

PCA: *Principal Component Analysis*

PCE: *Postcolonial Englishes*

PDE: *Present-Day English*

RP: *Received Pronunciation*

SauE: *Saudi English*

SD: *Standard Deviation*

SE: *Standard English*

SiE: *Singaporean English*

SLA: *Second Language Acquisition*

SPPiE: *Self-Perceived Proficiency in English*

SVR: *Strategic Vision of the Reform 2015-2030*

TEIL: *Teaching English as an International Language*

TESOL: *Teachers of English (or Teaching English) to Speakers of Other Languages or Teaching English as a Second or Other Language*

VoES: *Varieties of English Speech*

VGT: *Verbal-Guise Technique/ Task/ Test*

WE: *World Englishes*

General Introduction

The aim of this general introduction is to provide the reader with a general background of the study and pave the way for the discussion of Moroccan EFL learners' (MEFLs) attitudes towards World Englishes (WE) and native and non-native English-speaking teachers (NESTs & non-NESTs). First, the context of the study is presented in section 0.1. Second, the personal and academic motivations behind the choice of the research topic are provided in sections 0.2 and 0.3, respectively. Third, an outline of the research objectives is introduced in section 0.4. Fourth, the study's research questions are provided in section 0.5. Fifth, the problem statement is introduced in section 0.6. Sixth, the significance of the study is provided in section 0.7. Finally, an outline of the study is provided in section 0.8.

0.1. Context of the Study

The level of multilingualism in Morocco has produced a sense of linguistic complexity that offers “a fertile ground for original research and expanded study” (Kachoub, 2021, p. 1). The languages spoken in Morocco can be classified into three types: *local* (official), *colonial* and *foreign* languages. The official languages are Standard Arabic and Tamazight, as indicated in the 2011 constitution (R'boul, 2020a). French and Spanish are colonial languages as their presence has been due to colonial policies in the 20th century. English, however, has no colonial legacy in Morocco (Buckner, 2011), as it is mainly used as a foreign language in sectors like education and tourism. After Morocco gained its independence in 1956, English has been viewed as “a language of prestige, and of wider communication, which offers what is best in the field of development, know-how, and technology” (Benmansour, 1996, p. 1). This fever for learning English “has affected people from all walks of life and age groups” (Benmansour, 1996, p. 18).

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Over the past few decades, Morocco has witnessed a growing interest in learning the English language (along with other colonial & foreign languages) in middle schools, high schools and tertiary levels. As a result of this increasing interest, much scholarly research has since been carried out and continues to be conducted on different aspects of the English language. For example, Moroccan researchers with linguistic and applied linguistic backgrounds have been interested in issues related to *phonology* and *morphology* (Boudlal, 2001; Khabir, 1997), *multilingualism* (Ennaji, 2005, 2009; Soussi, 2020), *language attitudes* (Bouziane, 2020), *the spread of English in Morocco* (Belhiah, 2020; Kachoub, 2021; R'boul, 2020a; Sadiqi, 1991; Soussi, 2020), *ELT in Morocco* (Belhiah et al., 2020; Bouziane, 2019; El Karfa, 2014; Elfatihi, 2019; Jebbour, 2019), *bilingual education and language planning and policy* (Ben Hammou & Kesbi, 2021a, 2021b) and *communicative language teaching* (El Karfa, 2014, 2019), to mention but a few. However, despite this extensive body of literature, research taking a critical stance on the study of the English language is lacking, specifically in relation to issues such as English language variation, linguistic imperialism, coloniality and interculturality (Al-Kadi, 2022; Baratta, 2019; Canagarajah, 2006; Mourchid, 2018, 2023a; Pennycook, 2017; R'boul, 2020a, 2020b, 2020c, 2022; Schneider, 2007).

One of these critical issues is the ideology of native-speakerism, a usually undiscussed one in applied linguistic and English studies research carried out in Morocco. In this respect, Yano (2009) points out that “native speakers have been ‘norm providers’ and have been keepers of the language’s standards, judges of its pedagogic norms, and models for learners to follow” (p. 209). This being said, one of the objectives of the present study is to fill in this gap in the existing literature by exploring Moroccan EFL learners’ attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs. For the purposes of the present study, the term *native-speakerism* is defined as “a pervasive ideology within ELT, characterized by the belief that ‘native-speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of

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English language teaching methodology” (Holliday, 2006, p. 385) and the term *attitude* as “a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event” (Allport, 1935, p. 784).

0.2. Personal Motivation

This research project came into existence as it was personally motivated by my own experience as a language learner who was taught by both native and non-native English-speaking teachers. After I obtained my Baccalaureate degree in 2012, I enrolled in the English Studies Department at Cadi Ayyad University, Marrakech. Over the years, I started to develop a keen interest in linguistic studies in general, and I became fascinated with phonological and sociolinguistic research in particular. Furthermore, as I joined Master level courses at the same university (Master of Linguistics & Advanced English Studies, 2016-2018), I was informed that among the modules we had to take were *Contemporary Trends in Phonetics and Phonology*, *English Sound Structures*, *Social Issues in Language Study* and *World Englishes*. The Master’s courses in general and these four modules in particular have presented opportunities for me to develop my phonological and sociolinguistic awareness about the reality of English as it is spoken in different multicultural contexts today. As I was also taught for the first time by three native English-speaking professors at the MA level, this has helped me as well develop a keen interest in NEST/non-NEST-related issues.

As for my interest in the field of World Englishes, I was first introduced to the field at the Master level via creating a World Englishes digital project. The module instructor at the time (Professor John Battenburg, Fulbright Senior Scholar in Morocco, 2016-2017) emphasised the importance of conducting original research on the introduction and current development of English in a specific country within what Kachru refers to as the Outer Circle or the Expanding Circle. He also stressed the importance of citing and analysing research appearing in major

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journals in World Englishes (including *English Today*, *World Englishes* & *English World-Wide*) and in introductory books such as Jenkins' (2015) *Global Englishes: A Resource Book for Students*¹ in the digital project (see [Appendices II, 12, 13 & 14](#) for more information about the World Englishes digital project). In fact, I was not introduced to the field of World Englishes before the 2016-2017 academic year (the year I enrolled in Master's degree courses at Cadi Ayyad University), but the module in general and the digital project in particular have helped me learn more about varieties of English speech to the extent that I fell in love with the study of English dialects and accents worldwide. Having conducted a World Englishes digital project on the English language in Pakistan, I later decided to specialise in the field of World Englishes and wrote an MA thesis on World Englishes in the Moroccan context with a special focus on perceptions about varieties of English speech among Moroccan university professors, MA and BA students.

0.3. Academic Motivation

In recent years, English “has acquired unprecedented sociological and ideological dimensions” (Kachru, 1991, p. 180) to the extent that (1) it is considered now as the language of international communication (Crump, 2007; Crystal, 2003; Galloway, 2011; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2011; Smith, 2014) and (2) the most widely used lingua franca whose non-native speakers outnumber its native speakers (Bohney, 2016; Chang, 2014; Galloway, 2011; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Selvi, 2014; Vettorel & Corrizato, 2016; Wang & Fang, 2020). Furthermore, English is also “used for more purposes than ever before” (Graddol, 1997, p. 2), which makes it, as Kahane (1986) rightly describes it, “the great laboratory of today's sociolinguist” (p. 495), or today's *zeitgeist* as Mauranen (2012) calls it. Equally important,

¹ For the companion website of Jenkins' (2015) *Global Englishes: A Resource Book for Students*, see [Appendix O](#).

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Smith (2014) also notes that “[t]oday English has a greater spread over the globe than any other language in recorded history” (para. 1). Rose et al. (2020) add that “[t]he rise of English as a global language has led scholars to call for a paradigm shift in the field of English language teaching (ELT) to match the new sociolinguistic landscape of the twenty-first century” (p. 2).

Despite this changing sociolinguistic reality of English, the field of English language teaching (ELT) remains unaffected by the changes that English undergoes in today’s globalised world. In this regard, Boonsuk et al. (2021) state that “[a]lthough English ownership has been challenged by GEs [Global Englishes], ELT practices seem to be resistant to this paradigm shift” (p. 2). Similarly, Galloway (2011) points out that learning ‘Standard English’ “creates the stereotype that all other varieties are inferior and unintelligible and that communication can only be achieved through acquiring NE proficiency” (p. 262). Seidlhofer (2004) also states that “while the majority of the world’s English users are now to be found in countries where it is a foreign language, control over the norms of the language still rests with speakers for whom it is the first language” (p. 209). Furthermore, Seidlhofer (2001) notes that “[d]espite momentous developments in the sociopolitics of the teaching of English worldwide, targets have generally remained tied to native-speaker norms” (p. 133).

In fact, this ideology is still manifested in the way ESL/EFL learners are being tested in the majority of Outer-Circle contexts (i.e., countries or territories where English is used as a second language (ESL)) and Expanding Circle contexts (i.e., countries or territories where English is used as a foreign language (EFL)) who are often encouraged to conform to the native-speaker model, or “the unquestioned target” (Choe & Lee, 2023, p. 2). This native speakerism ideology has resulted in a total negligence of the variety of norms that exists in Inner Circle contexts other than the US and the UK (where English is mostly used as a native language (ENL)) and other non-inner circle contexts (where English is mostly used as a second (ESL) or foreign

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(EFL) language). In this respect, Boonsuk et al. (2021) note that “as international English users are from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds, traditional EFL pedagogies with aims to achieve native-like competence are neither responsive to nor consistent with the current profile of English” (p. 9). Furthermore, Modiano (2024) states that:

While much research conducted in applied linguistics was invariably about how English can be acquired so that learners succeed in obtaining near-native or native proficiency in an Inner Circle variety (usually standardised British English), today, very little work is carried out in this vein. What transpired in the last decades of the 20th century and into the 21st century has been a decisive change, away from traditional views of English language teaching and learning based on Inner Circle models towards the acceptance of Outer and Expanding Circle perspectives on English worldwide. (p. 346)

In view of the changing sociolinguistic reality of English, the present study intervenes to examine Moroccan EFL learners’ attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers.

0.4. Research Objectives

The purpose of the present study is threefold. Firstly, it aims to examine Moroccan EFL learners’ explicit and implicit attitudes towards six English varieties¹ of the *Inner* (American English & British English²), *Outer* (Indian English & Filipino English³) and *Expanding* (Japanese English & Thai English⁴) circles. Secondly, the study also seeks to explore Moroccan EFL learners’ attitudes towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers. Finally, the study aims to discuss the extent to which the findings obtained regarding Moroccan EFL learners’ perceptions of World Englishes, NESTs and non-NESTs can form the basis of a

¹ Note that it was decided to name the English varieties from the Outer and Expanding circles chosen in this study using the Adjective+Noun format (e.g., Indian English) rather than the Noun+Noun format (e.g., India English). This decision was made in order to keep the same labelling practice that is used with the two main Inner Circle Englishes (i.e., American English & British English).

² **American English** (AmE); **British English** (BrE)

³ **Indian English** (InE); **Filipino English** (FiE)

⁴ **Japanese English** (JpE); **Thai English** (ThE)

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Global Englishes-informed pedagogy to be integrated in the teaching of English as a global multicultural language both within and outside Morocco.

0.5. Research Questions

The present study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the participants' implicit attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?
2. What social variables (if any) appear to be significant in determining Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?
3. Are Moroccan EFL learners able to identify the origins of the speakers of the selected varieties of English?
4. What role do World Englishes play on the participants' attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?
5. What are the participants' explicit attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?
6. What are the attitudes of Moroccan EFL learners towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers?
7. From the perspective of Moroccan EFL learners, what are the strengths and weaknesses of native and non-native English-speaking teachers?
8. What are the pedagogical implications (if any) of the study's findings for the choice of linguistic model(s) employed in EFL classrooms both inside and outside Morocco?

0.6. Problem Statement

According to Berns (2005), “an analysis of recent issues of leading journals devoted to English in the global context demonstrates that fewer articles get published on the Expanding Circle than the Inner and Outer Circles” (p. 85). Berns (2005) attributes this difference to the fact that “less research and scholarship on English in ‘the rest of the world’ has been done” (p.

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85). She also believes that “the Englishes of the Expanding Circle are coming into their own in terms of a critical mass of learners and users that is increasing steadily in virtually (in both senses of the word) every corner of the world” (p. 85), and she calls for “the need for an assessment of the status of research on the spread, development, acquisition, and attitudes toward English in the Expanding Circle” (p. 85). Similarly, Ahn (2014b) notes that “there are relatively few published studies on attitudes towards Expanding Circle Englishes, particularly when compared with the large amount of research exploring attitudes towards Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes” (p. 196). Sykes (2010) also calls for “research into attitudes to English that utilise speech samples and respondents from beyond the IC” (p. 42). As a response to these calls, one of the objectives of the present study is to examine the attitudes (both implicit & explicit) EFL learners from the Expanding Circle of Morocco have towards different varieties of English speech from Kachru’s *Inner*, *Outer* and *Expanding* Circles. For the purposes of the present study, the term *variety* will be utilised as an alternative to term *dialect*.

Over the past decades, a number of research studies have been and continue to be conducted on EFL/ESL learners’ attitudes towards English in the Moroccan context and elsewhere. However, English, in the vast majority of the studies conducted in the Moroccan context in particular, has been conceived of as a single language rather than a language that is spoken in different varieties (Bouziane, 2020; Bouziane & Saoudi, 2021). Conveniently, McKenzie (2008) rightly states that “[t]he great majority of studies which have investigated non-native attitudes, i.e. in the Outer/Expanding Circles of English use (Kachru 1985), have tended to measure evaluations of ‘the English language’, conceptualized as a single entity” (p. 66). As English in the Expanding Circle of Morocco has often been conceptualised as a monocentric language (i.e., being a single language) rather than a pluricentric one (i.e., a language having multiple varieties), one of the objectives of the present study is to fill in this gap in the existing literature by exploring the implicit and the explicit attitudes Moroccan EFL learners have

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towards different varieties of English speech from Kachru's *Inner*, *Outer* and *Expanding* Circles.

In recent years, English language teaching has witnessed an increasing demand for English language teachers (Chakma, 2020; Crump, 2007; Floris & Renandya, 2020). In this regard, Galloway (2011) points out that:

The 20th century saw a sharp rise in the number of speakers of English in the Expanding Circle due to globalisation and the increasing global presence of America. The language is, therefore, changing and assuming distinct forms in different contexts. It is no longer relevant to associate English purely with native-speaking nations, but with a community of English users who utilise and own the language as global 'shareholders'. These developments have precipitated a need to understand the new global role of English, its character and related attitudes. It is also time for a critical evaluation of the way English is taught worldwide. The tradition of aiming towards NES targets clearly requires investigation, since current English users require the language skills to participate in global conversations and to be intelligible as users of an international language. (p. 2)

Previous research on NESTs and non-NESTs has shown that learners tend to show preference for NESTs over non-NESTs. However, there is scarcity of research into this phenomenon in the Moroccan context. This study intervenes to examine the applicability of this assumption to Moroccan EFL learners.

0.7. Significance of the Study

As the Moroccan context is one of the less-researched countries in the Expanding Circle, the present study is worth conducting for the two reasons provided below:

First, given the fact that the majority of Moroccan EFL learners will be taught by non-native speakers of the English language, the findings of the study will be relevant to these learners and their EFL teachers. It is hoped that EFL learners and EFL teachers will understand that being a non-native speaker of English has nothing to do with being inferior or incompetent, which

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means that being non-native should not be equated with low proficiency or not having good command or mastery of English.

Second, an awareness of the different varieties of English speech that exist around the world is essential, as it will help learners and teachers become global citizens who are able to take part in local and global interactions. The more students and their teachers are exposed to World Englishes, the more they will develop good receptive skills, which will enable them to understand what is going on in the world. It is hoped that readers will benefit from this study and will be encouraged to learn more about English language variation. It is also hoped that in-service and pre-service teachers will make good use of the pedagogical implications chapter and the range of activities provided in the appendices section when it comes to getting their current/future learners exposed to these varieties of English speech. Finally, Moroccan language professionals, inspectors and curriculum designers are called upon to develop instructional materials, coordinate educational contents and incorporate current technologies into instruction in order to promote a Global Englishes-informed pedagogy that does justice to all English varieties and their speakers in the country.

0.8. Outline of the Study

The main objective of the present study is to measure, using both direct and indirect methods of attitude measurement, the attitudes of Moroccan EFL learners towards six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) and native and non-native English-speaking teachers. The organisation of the thesis into six chapters reflects the objectives of the study.

General Introduction

Chapter 1 provides a theoretical foundation for the present study that aims to explore Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards World Englishes and native and non-native English-speaking teachers. First, a profile of the language situation in Morocco is provided in section 1.2. Second, an outline of the spread of English in Morocco is discussed in section 1.3. Third, an account of who speaks English today is provided in section 1.4. Fourth, a discussion of the ownership of English is provided in section 1.5. Fifth, a discussion of innovations and norms in World Englishes is provided in section 1.6. Sixth, the advantages and disadvantages of the global spread of English are detailed in section 1.7. Seventh, the English today debate is discussed in section 1.8. Eighth, the spread of English around the world and the models and names used in representing and describing its speakers are discussed in section 1.9. Eighth, attitudes and language attitudes studies are detailed in section 1.10. Next, an account of research on native and non-native English-speaking teachers is provided in section 1.11. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in section 1.12.

Chapter 2 provides a detailed description of the research methodology that was adopted in the research design of the current study to elicit data from Moroccan EFL learners regarding their attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers. First, the research aim and questions of the study are restated in section 2.2 and 2.3. Second, an outline of the research site of the study is introduced in section 2.4. Third, a justification for the mixed methods research design is made in section 2.5. Fourth, a comprehensive account of the pilot study stages is provided in section 2.6. Fifth, the research design of the main research instruments that were employed in the study is provided in section 2.7. Sixth, an account of data analysis procedures is provided in section 2.8. Seventh, research skills and professional training are discussed in section 2.9. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in section 2.10.

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Chapter 3 provides a detailed analysis along with a discussion of the results of the verbal-guise task that was utilised in the study as an indirect measure to elicit the participants' implicit attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). First, the results of the verbal-guise task are presented in section 3.2. Second, an outline of the main effects of Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on speaker evaluations is provided in section 3.3. Third, an outline of the interaction effects of Moroccan EFL learners' social variables and speaker evaluations is presented in section 3.4. Fourth, a discussion of MEFLs' identification and misidentification patterns is presented in section 3.5. Fifth, an account of the extent to which the findings relate to research questions one, two and three is provided in section 3.6. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in section 3.7.

Chapter 4 provides a detailed analysis along with a discussion of the results of the questionnaire that was utilised in the study to investigate Moroccan EFL learners' explicit attitudes towards the same six varieties of English speech utilised in the verbal-guise task discussed in Chapter 3. First, an outline of the role of World Englishes on the study's participants' attitudes is provided in section 4.2. Second, an outline of their explicit attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech selected for the purposes of the present study (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) is presented in section 4.3. Third, an account of the extent to which the chapter's results relate to research questions four and five is discussed in section 4.4. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in section 4.5.

Chapter 5 provides a detailed analysis along with a discussion of the results of the questionnaire that was utilised in the study to investigate Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers. First, an analysis of the quantitative data gathered from the study's participants regarding their attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs is provided in section 5.2. Second, an analysis of the qualitative data elicited from the

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study's participants regarding their beliefs about the strengths and weakness of each type of EFL teachers is presented in section 5.3. Third, an account of the extent to which the chapter's results relate to research questions six and seven is discussed in section 5.4. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in section 5.5.

Chapter 6, the final chapter, provides a discussion of the pedagogical implications of the study's findings obtained from Moroccan EFL learners regarding their attitudes towards different varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers from the perspective of Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT). To this end, section 6.2 starts with a discussion of Global Englishes (GE) as an inclusive paradigm, followed by an outline of GELT, along with its thirteen dimensions in section 6.3. Next, an account of the study's limitations as well as a number of suggestions for further research on language attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers in the Moroccan context and other expanding circle countries is provided in sections 6.4 and 6.5, respectively. Finally, a chapter summary and a thesis conclusion are provided in sections 6.6 and 6.7, respectively.

Chapter 1. Literature Review

1.1. Introduction

This chapter seeks to provide a theoretical foundation for the present study that aims to explore Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards World Englishes and native and non-native English-speaking teachers. First, a profile of the language situation in the multilingual country of Morocco is provided in section 1.2. Second, an outline of the spread of English in the country is discussed in section 1.3. Third, an account of who speaks English today is provided in section 1.4. Fourth, a discussion of the ownership of English is provided in section 1.5. Fifth, a discussion of innovations and norms in World Englishes is provided in section 1.6. Sixth, the advantages and disadvantages of the global spread of English are detailed in section 1.7. Seventh, the English today debate is discussed in section 1.8. Eighth, the spread of English around the world and the models and names used in representing and describing its speakers are discussed in section 1.9. Ninth, attitudes and language attitudes studies are detailed in section 1.10. Next, an account of research on native and non-native English-speaking teachers is provided in section 1.11. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in section 1.12.

1.2. A Profile of the Language Situation in Morocco

In a recent exploratory, qualitative, macrosociolinguistic study that employs Kachru's (1985) World Englishes theoretical framework to explore the spread, functional range and domains of English use in the multilingual country of Morocco, Kachoub (2021) states that "[i]t has been the norm in sociolinguistic research to touch upon the linguistic practices of a country before addressing the issue of investigation" (p. 33). To this end, and before embarking on the study of attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers, this section begins with an outline of Moroccan geography in subsection 1.2.1, followed by an account of the languages and language varieties used in the expanding

circle of Morocco in subsection 1.2.2 and language in the Education Charter of 2000 and Strategic Vision of 2015-2030 in subsection 1.2.3.

1.2.1. A Profile of Geography

Morocco¹ is located in North Africa, “bordering both the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea and lying between Algeria and Mauritania” (International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), 2020, p. 267). The largest part of the country is mountainous, and the Rif Mountains “occupy the region bordering the Mediterranean from the north-west to the north-east” (IAEA, 2020, p. 267). Additionally, the Atlas Mountains “form the backbone of the country, extending from near Agadir to the north-east [and] host the highest point in the country (Mount Toubkal (4165 m)), which is also the highest point in North Africa” (IAEA, 2020, p. 267).

1.2.2. The Languages and Language Varieties Used in Morocco

This subsection provides a discussion of the languages and languages varieties used in the multilingual country of Morocco, which can be further classified into *official* (Arabic & Tamazight), *colonial* (French & Spanish) and *foreign* (English) languages. To this end, subsubsection 1.2.2.1 starts with a detailed account of the Arabic varieties spoken in Morocco, namely Classical Arabic (CA) (1.2.2.1.1), Standard Arabic (SA) (1.2.2.1.2), Moroccan Colloquial Arabic (MCA) (1.2.2.1.3) and Moroccan Medial Arabic (MMA) (1.2.2.1.4), followed by a discussion of Tamazight and its varieties (1.2.2.2), French (1.2.2.3), English (1.2.2.4) and Spanish (1.2.2.5), respectively.

¹ More information about the Moroccan population, government and economy can be found in The World Factbook (2024) using this link: <https://www.cia.gov/the-world-factbook/countries/morocco/summaries> (accessed 16 August 2024)

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1.2.2.1. Arabic

In light of previous research (e.g., Ennaji, 2005; Kachoub, 2021), this subsection deals with the four main varieties of Arabic spoken in Morocco, namely Classical Arabic (CA), Standard Arabic (SA), Moroccan Colloquial Arabic (MCA) and Moroccan Medial Arabic (MMA). According to Ennaji (2005), “[e]ach Arabic variety has its own status, functions, and domains of use” (p. 47). He also argues that these Arabic varieties can be further classified into “low”, “high” and “middle” varieties. Moroccan Arabic is a “low” variety due to its association “with informal settings, illiteracy, and day-to-day activities”, Classical Arabic is a “high” variety because of its association with “Islamic religion, classical poetry, and erudition”, Standard Arabic is a “middle” variety as it is “associated with the media, education, and literacy” and Educated Spoken Arabic is an emerging middle variety, which “is an intermediate variety between Standard and Moroccan Arabic [that] ... is spoken by intellectuals in informal settings” (p. 47). Furthermore, Kachoub (2021) considers both Classical Arabic and Standard Arabic as H varieties as these are learned in schools, which shows that they have “never served as the native variety of any group of speakers” (Zouhir, 2013, p. 272). In general, these four varieties of Arabic can be viewed in terms of formal ones (Classical Arabic & Standard Arabic) and colloquial ones (Moroccan Colloquial Arabic & Moroccan Medial Arabic), which vary “in terms of vocabulary, grammar and phonology” (Marley, 2005, p. 1488). Marley (2005) clarifies that a diglossic situation¹ exists in Morocco where the formal Arabic varieties (the ‘H’

¹- According to Ennaji (2005), “Ferguson's (1959) classification of Arabic varieties into high and low does not really correspond to the linguistic situation in Morocco and the Maghreb at large, for we have three Arabic varieties which are in a triglossic relation: Classical Arabic, Standard Arabic and Moroccan Arabic. Classical Arabic is used in the mosque, in the Ministries of Justice, of Islamic Affairs, in official speeches, in classical poetry, and literature. Instead of Classical Arabic, as Ferguson claims, it is what is called Standard Arabic, that is employed in writing a personal letter, in political or scientific discourse, in the media and administration. Moroccan Arabic is used in informal settings, at home, in the street, with friends, etc” (pp. 48-49). Ennaji (2005) also adds that “one may argue for the existence of quadriglossia in Morocco and the Arab world, in the sense that, in addition to the three varieties above, a fourth variety, Educated Spoken Arabic (or Modern Moroccan Arabic), is used in the everyday colloquial style of learned people. Educated Spoken Arabic is an elevated form of colloquial Arabic that is much influenced by the vocabulary and expressions of Standard Arabic” (p. 49).

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language) are “used for religion, education and all official, written functions”, whereas the colloquial Arabic varieties (Dialectal Arabic) act as “the ‘L’ language for all informal and spoken contexts” (p. 1488). These four varieties of Arabic are discussed in subsubsubsections 1.2.2.1.1, 1.2.2.1.2, 1.2.2.1.3 and 1.2.2.1.4, respectively.

1.2.2.1.1. Classical Arabic

According to Ennaji (2005), Classical Arabic (also called *al-fushā*¹) is “a learned language, which is written from right to left” (p. 50). Classical Arabic, as Bouzidi (1989) points out, “is not used natively anywhere in Morocco nor is it used natively in any other part of the globe”, which makes of it a “liturgical and generally religious language” (p. 15). Classical Arabic is also the language of the Holy Quran (Bouzidi, 1989; Ennaji, 2005; Kachoub, 2021), and “[t]his divine selection has attributed a special status and attitudes towards this variety” (Bouzidi, 1989, p. 15). Moreover, Classical Arabic has often been considered as the language of prestige in Morocco (Zouhir, 2013; Bouzidi, 1989; Marley, 2005). Ennaji (2005) also argues that “it is a prestigious high variety and the vehicle of a large body of classical literature, classical poetry, and grammar books which reflect ancient periods of glory in the history of Arabs and Muslim” (p. 50).

1.2.2.1.2. Standard Arabic

Standard Arabic (also called *Modern Standard Arabic*² & *New Classical Arabic*³) is “historically related to Classical Arabic in the sense that it is a simplified form of it” (Ennaji, 2005, p. 53). It is also “an updated version of the newspapers and magazines, modern literature, descriptions and instructions printed on packaged products” (Zouhir, 2013, p. 273). Like

¹ Ennaji (2005)

² Bouzidi (1989)

³ Bouzidi (1989)

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Classical Arabic, Standard Arabic is a learned language, which is also deemed a prestigious variety in Morocco (Ennaji, 2005). However, Bouzidi (1989) argues that despite the fact that Standard Arabic is not spoken as a native variety by Moroccans, “today SA is used in various spheres of the community’s life such as administration, education, mass media and in some governmental offices” (p. 15). About four decades after Bouzidi’s (1989) claim, the same thing about the status of Standard Arabic still applies in Morocco, although to a greater extent, and Standard Arabic is gaining more prominence and is now enjoying much prestige among the Moroccan population.

1.2.2.1.3. Moroccan Colloquial Arabic

Moroccan Colloquial Arabic (also called *Moroccan Arabic* (MA)¹, *Darija* (*Darija*)², Moroccan *Darija*³ and *ṣammija*⁴) is mainly an oral variety that serves as the native language spoken by the majority of Moroccans (Alalou, 2017; Amrous, 2020; Bouzidi, 1989; Chihab et al., 2024; Zouhir, 2013). As Amrous (2020) points out, Moroccan Colloquial Arabic is “a variety that functions as a lingua franca for all Moroccans, since it is the one spoken in such big cities as Rabat, Casablanca, and Marrakech” (p. 99). In the same vein, Alalou (2017) states that Moroccan Colloquial Arabic “is the lingua franca across Morocco, as it is widely spoken by both Arabic and Amazigh speakers [and serves as] the medium of communication among social classes that are economically weak and politically powerless” (p. 19). In the south of the country, however, there is another variety that is different from Moroccan Colloquial Arabic

¹ Alalou (2017); Amrous (2020); Boudlal (2001); Bouziane (2020); Bouzidi (1989); Brigui (2022); Chihab et al. (2024); El Kirat & El Hadari (2020); Loutfi (2024); Youssi (1995)

² Ennaji (2005); Hoogland (2018); Sedrati & Ait Ali (2019)

³ Sedrati & Ait Ali (2019)

⁴ Ennaji (2005)

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referred to as Hassania and which “bears little phonological and structural resemblance to Moroccan Arabic” (Amrous, 2020, p. 99).

Moroccan Colloquial Arabic differs from Standard Arabic and Classical Arabic in terms of vocabulary, grammar and phonology (Bouzidi, 1989; El Kirat & El Hadari, 2020; Marley, 2005; Zouhir, 2013). MCA is spoken in a wide range of varieties and enjoys wide homogeneity (Bouzidi, 1989), as “[t]he lexical and morphophonological differences between the various varieties of MA are very weak, and the latter are, by and large, mutually intelligible with little effort” (Bouzidi, 1989, p. 17). Furthermore, Alalou (2017) points out that Moroccan Colloquial Arabic “does not have the same prestige as MSA and, until recently, was looked down upon because of its Creole-like flexibility, which is one of the reasons some have resisted its use as MOI [medium of instruction]” (p. 5). Boudlal (2001) adds that “[i]t was not until the mid-seventies that Moroccan researchers have turned to the study of their native language” (p. 7).

1.2.2.1.4. Moroccan Medial Arabic

Moroccan Medial Arabic (also called *Educated Spoken Arabic*¹, *Modern Moroccan Arabic*² & *Middle Moroccan Arabic*³) is a mixture of Standard Arabic and Moroccan Colloquial Arabic (Ennaji, 2005), which is “used in the everyday colloquial style of learned people” (Ennaji, 2005, p. 49). According to Ennaji (2005), Moroccan Medial Arabic “is an elevated form of colloquial Arabic that is much influenced by the vocabulary and expressions of Standard Arabic” (p. 49). Similarly, Marley (2005) suggests that Moroccan Medial Arabic is “used mainly by educated speakers in formal or semi-formal contexts, for example on radio or television” (p. 1488). Marley (2005) also adds that Moroccan Medial Arabic is used in such

¹ Ennaji (2005)

² Ennaji (2005)

³ Youssi (1995)

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contexts as Classical Arabic “can sound stilted and pedantic (it is also largely incomprehensible to many uneducated Moroccans), whilst Moroccan dialect may sound vulgar” (p. 1488).

Equally important, Ennaji (2005) argues that Moroccan Medial Arabic is similar to Moroccan Arabic in that it is neither codified nor standardised and does not enjoy much prestige and popularity by the Moroccan speech community. Moreover, Ennaji (2005) points out that Moroccan Medial Arabic is not popular in Morocco and is reserved to the educated elite.

1.2.2.2. Tamazight

Tamazight (also called *Berber*¹, *Moroccan Berber*², *Amazigh*³, *Tmazight*⁴ & *Thmazight*⁵) is one of the native languages spoken in Morocco (Post, 2015). It refers to “the indigenous languages of the Maghreb, spoken not only in Morocco, but also in Algeria, part of Tunisia and parts of adjoining sub-Saharan countries” (Marley, 2005, p. 1487). Amrous (2020) notes that Tamazight “had lost its written form until it was revived in 2001, with the foundation of the Royal Institute for the Amazigh Culture” (p. 99). In the Moroccan context, there are three varieties of Tamazight, namely *Tarifit*, *Tamazight* and *Tashelhit*⁶ (Alalou, 2017; Amrous, 2020; Marley, 2005; El Kirat & El Hadari, 2020). Tarifit is spoken in the north of Morocco, Tamazight

¹ “Berber is another term for Tmazight that is widely used in the West, and was not so long ago used in Morocco, too, to refer to the Amazigh people and their language. However, with the rise of the notion of political correctness and the harsh criticism of the Amazigh activists and NGOs, a shift towards employing the terms Tmazight, to refer to the language, and Amazigh (pl. Imazighen), to refer to the people, has been observed in the discourse of the Moroccan media (for example, Le Matin, TelQuel, L’Economiste, Assabah, etc.) and some research in linguistics (i.e., Redouane, 2010; Errihani, 2006; El Aissati, 2001; Buckner, 2012). Despite such a move, there still remains Moroccan linguists such as Ennaji (2005) and Errihani (2008) who chose to employ the term Berber over Tmazight claiming that such a term is already familiar to the academic community in the West. In this dissertation, the term ‘Tmazight’ will be maintained to refer to the language family and ‘Amazigh’ to refer to the people” (Kachoub, 2021, p. 34).

² Bouzidi (1989)

³ Alalou (2017); Amrous (2020); Belhiah (2020) ; Bouziane (2020); Brigui (2022); El Kirat & El Hadari (2020)

⁴ Kachoub (2021)

⁵ Almasude (2000)

⁶ Also spelled Tashlhit (Amrous, 2020)

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is spoken in the Middle Atlas and Tashlhit is “a variety that is spoken in the south, around the cities of Agadir, Taroudant, and Guelmim” (Amrous, 2020, p. 99). As Ennaji (2005) points out, Moroccan Arabic is the second language of the majority of Tamazight speakers who “learn it and speak it in informal settings, i.e., at home, in the market, or in the street” (p. 72). Furthermore, Bouzidi (1989) maintains that the seven varieties of Tamazight adjudged the most prominent ones in terms of speaker number and geography are: *Zenatia* (Egypt, Tunisia, Algeria), *Tamazight* (Morocco), *Kabyle* (Algeria), *Tashelhit* (Morocco), *Zenaga* (Mauritania, Senegal), *Tuareg* (Algeria, Mali, Niger, Nigeria) and *Guanch* (Canary Islands).

1.2.2.3. French

Morocco was colonised by France in 1912 and French was imposed as the language of civilisation, government, advancement and the medium of instruction in schools (Bouzidi, 1989; Chihab et al., 2024; El Kirat & El Hadari, 2020; Ennaji, 2005; Zouhir, 2013). In this respect, Ennaji (2005) points out that “[d]uring the Protectorate, French was the only language of government and education” (p. 97). However, after Morocco gained its independence in 1956, “the Moroccan Constitution made Classical Arabic the official language, [and] French continued to be predominant since most of the institutions adhered to the colonial rule” (Ennaji, 2005, p. 97). Marley (2005) also states that “[d]uring the Protectorate, 1912-1956, a knowledge of French was essential to obtaining and maintaining power, and so was learnt by the élite” (p. 1488). Nowadays, French continues to be one of the important languages in Morocco as it is widely used in commerce and finance, science and technology, administration and mass media and communication (Brigui, 2022; Marley, 2005). Furthermore, Bouzidi (1989) points out that “French in Morocco can be said to stand in a position of a semi-official language, given its use in the most important spheres of the speech community” (p. 24).

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1.2.2.4. English

English is one of the main foreign languages spoken in Morocco. In fact, the language was introduced to Morocco in the the era of the French Protectorate, which lasted from 1912 to 1956 (Sadiqi, 1991). English, as R'boul (2022) notes, “has reached a greater status, increasingly gaining more momentum and its presence has permeated various vital sectors” (p. 14). In the same vein, Sadiqi (1991) points out, “English seems to be making significant inroads in Morocco, infiltrating into the educational, socioeconomic, and political life of Moroccans” (p. 113). Likewise, Amrous (2020) notes that English has now become more popular in the country than ever before, and that “there is a growing interest in the study of English among the population, which explains the number of private schools mushrooming nationwide which offer courses in foreign languages in general and in English in particular” (p. 97). All in all, English has spread in Morocco and has become an important language in the country to the extent that “[i]t is no wonder that one can even come across young inhabitants of mountainous areas who speak English with remarkable fluency simply as a result of their interactions with tourists” (Amrous, 2020, p. 98).

1.2.2.5. Spanish

Spanish is one of the colonial languages in Morocco. It is used in the north of the country and in some parts of the Moroccan Sahara. According to Sayahi (2005), “[t]he presence of the Spanish language is evident at several levels in Tangier, Tetouan and throughout almost all of northern Morocco” (p. 96). Spanish is also “used in various social contexts and is particularly visible thanks to the heavy presence of Spanish institutions and mass media in the region” (Sayahi, 2005, p. 96). Moreover, Post (2015) points out that Spanish “is taught, only as an option, in 42% of high schools in Morocco” (p. 26). According to Sayahi (2004, p. 54), Spanish speakers in Tangier can be classified into three groups in terms of their level of competence:

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native speakers (“Moroccan-born Spaniards, temporary residents and Sephardic Jews”), *proficient Moroccan speakers* (“balanced-bilingual speakers and advanced learners”) and *non-proficient Moroccan speakers* (“uneducated speakers and non-Tangerine Moroccans”). Bouzidi (1989) states that “[a]lthough Spanish is still widely spoken in the regions formerly governed by Spain, its teaching is given a low priority in the schools and it is rapidly losing ground in favour of French and English” (p. 26).

1.2.3. Language in the Education Charter of 2000 and Strategic Vision of 2015-2030

In Morocco, a number of educational reforms have been implemented over the years. As Amrous (2020) points out, these educational reforms seek to “reposition learners as the center of pedagogical activity, obviating the need for insight into motivation in light of this new learner status” (p. 96). Equally important, Kachoub (2021) states that the *Charte Nationale d’Education et de Formation* (National Charter for Education & Training (NCET)) of 2000 and the *Vision Stratégique de la Réforme 2015-2030* (Strategic Vision of the Reform 2015-2030 (SVR)) are “two education reform documents that outline the objectives and foundations of the Moroccan school system” (p. 49). Kachoub (2021) also notes that “[t]he SVR 2015-2030 came in response to the challenges encountered in implementing the NCET between 2000 and 2014” (p. 49). According to the Strategic Vision of the Reform 2015-2030 document published in 2015 by the Conseil Supérieur de l’Education, de la Formation et de la Recherche Scientifique (Higher Council for Education, Training and Scientific Research (HCETSR)) (p. 6), the goals of the strategic vision are:

- Developing a good citizen;
- Responding to the requirements of the society project adopted by the nation, seeking democracy and development;
- Contributing to the integration of Morocco in the knowledge economy and society and strengthening its position among the emerging countries;

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- Promoting the transition from a knowledge consuming society to a society that produces knowledge and disseminates it through the good mastery of digital technologies and through the development of scientific research and the culture of innovation and excellence.

1.3. The Spread of English in Morocco

A review of previous research studies on the status or the growth of English in Morocco shows that (1) the spread of English is increasing in education in the country because of policy-makers' awareness of the decreasing role of French as far as international communication is concerned (Jebbour, 2019), (2) the growing number of Moroccan educators and leaders in the private sector who "have been calling for strengthening and promoting the teaching of English at the expense of French because of the global reach that English possesses" (Errihani, 2017, p. 118), (3) "English is gradually gaining ground on other foreign languages in Morocco" (Bouziane, 2020, p. 301), (4) the creation of private institutions in Morocco which has contributed to the growth of English in education (Jebbour, 2019) and (5) English is now "gaining prestige among Moroccans and is quickly replacing French as Morocco's second language, both among youths and educators" (Soussi, 2020, p. 1). Furthermore, Buckner (2011) notes that unlike French and Spanish, which are "languages of Morocco's colonizers and [whose] power in the country is based on a history of political, cultural, and linguistic imposition", English "does not have a colonial legacy in Morocco and in fact, seems to represent something different – a language of future opportunity" (p. 214). This is further supported by Post (2015) who argues that English in Morocco is preferred to French "due to the fact that English is seen as an international language and does not have any connection with the history of colonialism" (p. 25).

Recently, Bouziane (2020) has conducted a study to explore Moroccan students' ($N=1,477$) attitudes towards different local (Standard Arabic, Moroccan Arabic & Amazigh) and foreign

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(French and English) languages. Although other foreign languages are spoken in the multilingual country of Morocco, they were not included in Bouziane's (2020) study because of their limited use. In this respect, Bouziane (2020) suggests that the "choice of the above languages [i.e., Standard Arabic, Moroccan Arabic, Amazigh, French & English] is based on their status in the Moroccan social, political, and educational scenes" (p. 297). Furthermore, the findings of Bouziane's (2020) study show that Moroccan students hold positive attitudes towards all the languages spoken in Morocco, local and foreign. Equally important, Post (2015) states that:

[t]he use of English in education has grown and it is now offered as an option from age 16 in public schools, and it is taught as early as age 5 in private education. University content courses can also be found in English. One example is the field of linguistics, in which a textbook, written by Moroccan linguists for a Moroccan audience, whose main text is completely in English with examples in French, English, MCA [Moroccan Colloquial Arabic], SA [Standard Arabic] and Tamazight (Ennaji & Sadiqi 1992). (p. 25)

1.4. Who Speaks English Today?

Nowadays, English has become the world's first language. As Crystal (2003) rightly points out, "[t]here has never been a language so widely spread or spoken by so many people as English" (p. 189). In the same vein, Strevens (1980) maintains that "the English language is vastly more used nowadays than it was in the past, and that the expansion of its use continues apace" (p. 61). Rose and Galloway (2019) also maintain that "[i]n just 500 years, the world has seen English grow from a national language spoken by fewer than 3 million people to a global language learned by an estimated 2 billion speakers" (p. 3). Equally important, Crump (2007) states that "English is increasingly gaining status as the language of international communication and people all over the world are feeling the push towards learning English" (p. 11).

1.5. Ownership of English

Over the years, the ownership of English has been called into question (Jenkins, 2000; Norton, 1997; Rudolph, 2011; Selvi et al., 2024; Widdowson, 1994). For example, Graddol (1997) predicted more than two decades ago that “the number of people who speak English as a second language will exceed the number of native speakers” (p. 2). He also noted that “the centre of authority regarding the language will shift from native speakers as they become minority stakeholders in the global resource” (p. 3). That is, native English teachers will “no longer form the unchallenged authoritative model for learners” (Graddol, 1997, p. 3). Moreover, “[n]ative speakers may feel the language ‘belongs’ to them, but it will be those who speak English as a second or foreign language who will determine its world future” (Graddol, 1997, p. 10). Three years after Graddol’s estimate, Jenkins (2000) asserted that “[f]or the first time in the history of the English language, second language speakers outnumber those for whom it is the mother tongue, and interaction in English increasingly involves no first language speakers whatsoever” (p. 1).

Equally important, Smith (1976) maintained more than four decades ago that “English belongs to the world and every nation which uses it does so with different tone, color, and quality... It is yours (no matter who you are) as much as it is mine (no matter who I am)” (p. 39). Smith (1976) further adds that “[w]e may use [English] for different purposes and for different lengths of time on different occasions, but nonetheless it belongs to all of us” (p. 39). In the same vein, Galloway (2011) states that Global Englishes language teaching “promotes a global ownership of English and learners are not expected to strive to imitate NESs” (p. 262). Furthermore, Widdowson (1994) nicely summarises the issue of the ownership of English stating that:

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How English develops in the world is no business whatever of native speakers in England, the United States, or anywhere else. They have no say in the matter, no right to intervene or pass judgement. They are irrelevant. The very fact that English is an international language means that no nation can have custody over it. To grant such custody of the language, is necessarily to arrest its development and so undermine its international status. It is a matter of considerable pride and satisfaction for native speakers of English that their language is an international means of communication. But the point is that it is only international to the extent that it is not their language. It is not a possession which they lease out to others, while still retaining the freehold. Other people actually own it. (p. 385)

1.6. Innovations and Norms in World Englishes

One of the issues in World Englishes is related to innovations and norms. In this regard, Bamgbose (1998) suggests that “[i]nnovations in non-native Englishes are often judged not for what they are or their function within the varieties in which they occur, but rather according to how they stand in relation to the norms of native Englishes” (p. 1). He then goes on to say that “these innovations are torn between two sets of norm [i.e., native & non-native English norms]” (p. 1). Furthermore, Jenkins (2015) argues that “many others still consider differences from British or American standards not to be local innovations but errors and, as such, evidence of the substandard nature of these varieties” (p. 64). Jenkins (2015) also believes that many scholars regard English used in the outer circle as *interlanguage* or *fossilised* language.

1.7. English as a Global Language: Advantages and Disadvantages

In the third chapter of their seminal work titled *Introducing Global Englishes*, Galloway and Rose (2015) explore the political side of the spread of English as a global language with a special focus on the advantages and disadvantages to adopting a global lingua franca as a shared language for communication. On the one hand, the authors suggest that the advantages of a global lingua franca can be discussed in terms of the benefits it brings into *international relations, business, communication, education and scientific advancement, political utility* and *society* (pp. 52-57). On the other hand, the authors summarise the disadvantages of the global

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spread of English (or “the dark side” of it to use their words) in terms of *language death, reduced diversity of global languages, homogenisation of cultures, reduction in learning other foreign languages and the creation of socio-economic inequalities* (pp. 57-64). In what ensues, a brief summary of each of these advantages and disadvantages is provided in subsections 1.7.1 and 1.7.2, respectively.

1.7.1. Advantages of a Global Lingua Franca

This subsection summarises the advantages of a global lingua franca discussed in Galloway’s and Rose (2015) *Introducing Global Englishes*, namely *advantages for international relations, advantages for business, advantages for communication, advantages for education and scientific advancement, advantages for political unity and advantages for society*.

Advantages for international relations: English is now the language of national diplomacy and political meetings. For example, delegates from different parts of the world discuss political issues without the need for interpreters.

Advantages for business: As English has become the world’s major international language par excellence, international companies are starting to adopt it as the working language of communication, even though they may not be based in English-speaking countries. As Galloway and Rose (2015) point out, “[t]he use of English in the business arena is, in fact, attracting the attention of many ELF researchers, and has given rise to a new field of study, termed **BELF (business English as a lingua franca)**” (p. 54). Business English lingua franca (BELF) is a term that was coined by Louhiala-Salminen et al. (2005) to describe “English used as a ‘neutral’ and shared communication code” (pp. 403-404). In other words, BELF is used “for conducting business within the global business discourse community” (Louhiala-Salminen

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et al., 2005, p. 404). Equally important, Kankaanranta and Planken (2010) argue that “70% of the English communication of internationally operating business professionals on average could be characterized as BELF” (p. 387).

Advantages for communication: The global spread of English has made international communication easier. For example, people in Scotland can now discuss their finances with people in Delhi. Furthermore, the spread of English as the world’s lingua franca means that it is becoming the most popular language in media and literature. English also plays an important role in transportation industry as it is used for air traffic control and shipping.

Advantages for education and scientific advancement: Nowadays, English has become the language of international scholarship. The spread of English as a global lingua franca has enabled people to have wider access to knowledge and scientific scholarship. Moreover, English is now the universal language used in academic disciplines and access to new information is being restricted to those who know English only.

Advantages for political unity: English serves as a neutral language that can be used in communication as it spans linguistic and cultural boundaries. For example, English serves as a means of political unity for it facilitates the spread of news faster around the world, and enables protesters demonstrating for or against political causes to reach a wider audience.

Advantages for society: English also serves a social purpose as it can be used in communicating with people from different linguistic communities. For example, English is used now by different populations around the world, and communication is now much easier than ever.

1.7.2. Disadvantages of a Global Lingua Franca (the Dark Side of the Global Spread of English)

This subsection summarises the disadvantages (or “the dark side”) of the global spread of English as a lingua franca discussed in Galloway’s and Rose (2015) *Introducing Global Englishes*, namely *language death and the reduced diversity of global languages, homogenisation of cultures, reduction in learning foreign languages by English speakers and creation of socio-economic inequalities.*

Language death and the reduced diversity of global languages: Nowadays, there are about 5000 or 6000 languages that are spoken around the world; however, the editors of *Endangered languages: language loss and community response* (Grenoble & Whaley, 1998) predict that only a small number of languages (namely, Arabic, Chinese, English & Spanish) will continue to be used by the world’s population, while manifold languages (about 3000-4000 languages) will disappear by 2050 or 2100. With the increasing spread of English as a global language, Galloway and Rose (2015) state that “English certainly appears to fit the description as a ‘killer language’, and seems to have many parallels with other historical language destroyers, but with an added dimension of destroying foreign languages due to the new reach afforded by globalization” (p. 57). Equally important, Spolsky (1998) also states that “the spread of English is producing a new sociolinguistic reality, by threatening to take over important functions from other major languages, and by furthering language shift” (p. 77).

Homogenisation of cultures: Galloway and Rose (2015) note that “English is viewed as not only a destroyer of languages but also of the culture and traditions associated with them” (p. 58). Furthermore, the authors state that “the worldwide spread of English has resulted in the worldwide spread of Western and, more specifically, American culture” (p. 58). In other words,

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today's English learners are not only expected to master the English language, but they also have to be acquainted with the Western culture (Galloway & Rose, 2015).

Reduction in learning foreign languages by English speakers: The spread of English as a global language has resulted in a decline in learning other foreign languages. For example, according to a report released by the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations in 2010 (cited in Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 58), interest in Asian language education (namely, Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese & Korean that used to be studied by Australian learners in Australian schools) has decreased beginning from 2000. Similarly, the learning of foreign languages is no longer a compulsory component in teenage education in the UK. In this respect, Galloway and Rose (2015) argue that the UN policy has produced a new generation of learners who no longer view foreign languages “as a worthy pursuit, which is, perhaps, indicative of the myth perpetuated by globalization – that knowing English will be sufficient for future international communication and careers” (p. 59).

Creation of socio-economic inequalities: Nowadays, English serves as a discriminatory means as a small elite English-speaking class determines who to be included or excluded. In this respect, Galloway and Rose (2015) argue that although globalisation may prove to be useful, it does not serve everyone equally. Similarly, Blommaert (2010) suggests that “[g]lobalization is something that has winners as well as losers, a top as well as a bottom, and centres as well as peripheries” (p. 197). Seidlhofer (2011) also notes that:

non-native speakers just cannot win: either they subject themselves to native-speaker authority and obediently strive to meet the norms of the hegemonic language, or they try to assert themselves against the hegemony, only to then be told that they got it wrong because they have the misfortune not to be native speakers. So the primacy accorded to NS norms puts the NNS user of English in an inescapable double bind. (p. 34)

1.8. The English Today Debate

In the past few decades, and with the growing interest in the study of the spread of English worldwide, much debate has been raised in applied linguistics regarding which English to teach (Choe & Lee, 2023; Matsuda, 2012; Poole, 2020). One of these debates is the well-known debate between Quirk and Kachru in the 1990s, often referred to in the literature as the English Today debate (Jenkins, 2015). In this regard, Jenkins (2015) points out that “[t]he controversy over the legitimacy of non-native varieties of English is crystallised in a debate that took place in the pages of the journal *English Today* in the early 1990s” (p. 64). In 1990, the *English Today* journal published an article by Quirk titled ‘Language varieties and standard language’. Quirk’s position, or Quirk’s *deficit linguistics* position (Kachru, 1991), was that “non-native Englishes are inadequately learned versions of ‘correct’ native English forms and therefore not valid as teaching models” (Jenkins, 2015, p. 64). In 1991, the same journal published another article by Kachru titled ‘Liberation linguistics and the Quirk concern’, a reply to Quirk’s (1990) article, published one year before in the *English Today* journal. These two positions can be summarised, following Jenkins (2015), by saying that Quirk’s (1990) position views non-native varieties as *deficit*, whereas Kachru’s (1991) position views non-native Englishes as *difference*.

1.9. English around the World

Traditionally, the spread of English worldwide has usually been conceptualised in terms of a tripartite model that divides English speakers in terms of those who speak English as a native language (ENL), those who speak it as a second language (ESL) and those who speak it as a foreign language (EFL). However, the tripartite model of the spread of English has been criticised over the years by a number of scholars (e.g., McArthur, 1998) given the fact that it no longer represents the current and changing sociolinguistic of English as a global language. This changing sociolinguistic reality of English has led many scholars to devise new models as

an attempt to account for the sociolinguistic landscape of Present-Day English (PDE). In this respect, an account of the traditional model and its limitations is provided in subsection 1.9.1, followed by a discussion of the new attempts of representing the spread of English worldwide in subsection 1.9.2 and an account of naming and describing the English language in subsection 1.9.3, respectively.

1.9.1. The Tripartite Model of the Spread of English (ENL, ESL & EFL)

The spread of English around the world is often discussed in terms of three groups of English speakers: those who speak English as (a) *a native language* (ENL), (b) *a second language* (ESL) and (c) *a foreign language* (EFL) (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015). Relatedly, Xu (2002) points out that “English was traditionally viewed as either a mother tongue, or a second or a foreign language by both native speakers and non-native speakers” (p. 225). Kachru (1992) also points out that “[t]he earlier distinction of English as a native (ENL), second (ESL) and foreign (EFL) language has come under attack for reasons other than sociolinguistic” (p. 3). Despite the number of difficulties associated with the traditional three-way categorisation of ENL, ESL and EFL in the tripartite model of the spread of English around the world, Jenkins (2015) believes that although “the traditional tripartite model” makes it “difficult to classify speakers of English as belonging purely to one of the three” categories (i.e., ENL, ESL, or EFL), it “nevertheless provides a useful starting point from which we can then move on to the present, more complicated situation” (p. 10). In the same vein, McArthur (1998) points out that the “tripartite model [of the spread of English worldwide] has been widely adopted by English-language professionals, in the course of whose work the categories have become systematized as English as a Native Language (ENL), English as a Second Language (ESL), and English as a Foreign Language (EFL)” (p. 43). This traditional view of English, according to Bruthiaux (2003), still exists in locations like Morocco and other Expanding Circle countries, in which

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English “tends to be exonormative in that speakers, educators, and policy-makers [in these Expanding Circle contexts] have traditionally looked to American or British models for linguistic norms” (p. 160). Furthermore, Boonsuk et al. (2021) suggest that “the goals of ELT, its strategy, curricula, teaching contents and instructional and training materials should not be exclusively focused on EFL principles which regard native English (British or American English) as the standard of ELT” (p. 2).

To start with, English as a Native Language (ENL), or English as a Mother Tongue (EMT), is defined by Jenkins (2015) as “the language of those born and raised in one of the countries where English is historically the first language to be spoken” (p. 10).

Second, English as a Second Language (ESL) refers to “the language spoken in a large number of territories such as India, Bangladesh, Nigeria, and Singapore, which were once colonised by the English” (Jenkins, 2015, p. 11).

Finally, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) refers to the use of English in countries that were not former colonies of the British, and “for whom English serves little or no purpose within their own borders” (Jenkins, 2015, p. 11). In fact, English users in these locations have, for historical reasons, “typically learned the language in order to use it with its native speakers in the US and UK, though this is no longer necessarily the case” (Jenkins, 2015, p. 11).

Over the years, a number of problems have been associated with the traditional three-way categorisation (Jenkins, 2015). For example, McArthur (1998, pp. 43-46) lists six provisos, which Jenkins (2015, p. 11) summarises as follows:

1. ENL is not a single variety of English, but differs markedly from one territory to another (e.g. the US and UK), and even from one region to another within a given territory. In addition, the version of English accepted as ‘standard’ differs from one ENL territory to another.
2. Pidgins and creoles do not fit neatly into any one of the three categories. They are spoken in ENL settings, e.g. in parts of the Caribbean, in ESL settings, e.g. in many territories in

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West Africa, and in EFL settings, e.g. in Nicaragua, Panama, and Surinam in the Americas. And some creoles in the Caribbean are so distinct from standard varieties of English that they are considered by a number of scholars to be different languages altogether.

3. There have always been large groups of ENL speakers living in certain ESL territories, e.g. India and Hong Kong as a result of colonialism.
4. There are also large numbers of ESL speakers living in ENL settings, particularly the US and, to a lesser extent, the UK as a result of immigration.
5. The three categories do not take account of the fact that much of the world is bi- or multilingual, and that English is often spoken within a framework of code-mixing and code-switching. (Note that a distinction used to be made between these two terms, whereas more recently they have tended to be used synonymously and interchangeably, see e.g. Y. Kachru and Nelson 2006: chapter 18).
6. The basic division is between native speakers and non-native speakers of English, that is, those born to the language and those who learned it through education. The first group has always been considered superior to the second regardless of the quality of the language its members speak.

In addition to the six provisos listed by McArthur (1998), Jenkins (2015, p. 12) adds three more, which I summarise as follows:

1. English is learned as the first language (L1) by some speakers in ESL countries like Singapore and Nigeria.
2. English has started to be used for intranational (i.e. country internal) purposes rather than English as a foreign language/ English as a lingua franca in countries such as The Netherlands and Scandinavian countries. English has become the medium of instruction in these places.
3. There has been a neglect of the uses of English, and the focus has been on users of English. Speakers of different varieties of World Englishes may use similar linguistic resources as a result of the shared context of use in particular as well as intercultural communication in general.

As Jenkins (2015) points out, the last proviso “has particular relevance to ELF communication” (p. 12) in that the traditional tripartite model of the spread of English “also ignores a fourth group of users” who speak English as a lingua franca (p. 10).

1.9.2. Representing English Speakers¹

In order to study the sociolinguistic diversification of English, “scholars have developed, applied, discussed, and refined different models of and approaches to WEs to account for the

¹ For more details regarding models of the spread of English around the world covered in this subsection, see Alenezi (2022), Bilal et al. (2023), Galloway and Rose (2015), Jenkins (2003, 2009, 2015), Jenkins and Morán Panero (2025) and Seargeant (2012). For space limitations, the reader is invited to read more about other models

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spread, forms, and functions of the language worldwide” (Buschfeld & Kautzsch, 2020a, p. 51). To this end, this subsection provides a discussion of several models¹ that have been developed to represent the spread of English as a global language. The models are presented in chronological order and some of the criticisms levelled against each model are provided. The section begins with a discussion of Strevens’ (1980) World Map of English in subsubsection 1.9.2.1, followed by Kachru’s (1985) Three Circle Model of World Englishes in subsubsection 1.9.2.2, McArthur’s (1987) Circle of World English in subsubsection 1.9.2.3, Görlach’s (1988) Circle Model of English in subsubsection 1.9.2.4, Modiano’s (1999a) Centripetal Circles of International English & Modiano’s (1999b) English as an International Language in subsubsection 1.9.2.5, Yano’s (2001) Cylindrical Model in subsubsection 1.9.2.6, Graddol’s (2006) Proficiency-Based Model in subsubsection 1.9.2.7, Schneider’s (2007) Dynamic Model of the Evolution of Postcolonial Englishes in subsubsection 1.9.2.8, Pennycook’s (2009) 3D Transtextual Model of English Use in subsubsection 1.9.2.9, Haswell’s (2013) Global Model of English in subsubsection 1.9.2.10, Mahboob’s (2014) Language Variation Framework in subsubsection 1.9.2.11 and Buschfeld and Kautzsch’s (2017) Extra- and Intra-territorial Forces Model (EIF) in subsubsection 1.9.2.12.

1.9.2.1. Strevens’ (1980) World Map of English

Strevens’ (1980) *World Map of English* is one of the oldest models of the spread of English (Bilal et al., 2023; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015). The World Map of English (see [Figure 1](#)) appeared first in Strevens’ book published in 1980 (p. 86). The model shows a world

that are not covered here such as Galloway and Rose’s (2015) *Four Channels of English Spread* and Mesthrie and Bhatt’s (2008) *English Language Complex (ELC)*.

¹ In this regard, Crystal (2018) notes that “[a]n essential early step in the study of a language is to model it... To model the English language is, rather, to provide an abstract representation of its central characteristics, so that it becomes easier to see how it is structured and used” (p. 2).

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map “on which is superimposed an upside-down tree diagram demonstrating the way in which, since American English became a separate variety from British English, all subsequent Englishes have had affinities with either one or the other” (Jenkins, 2015, p. 12). For example, the model shows that West African English is more similar to East African English than Australian English (Stevens, 1980). Furthermore, Stevens’ (1980) World Map of English shows that “every form of English aligns decisively with one or other of the two main branches of the English language: British or American” (Stevens, 1980, p. 85).

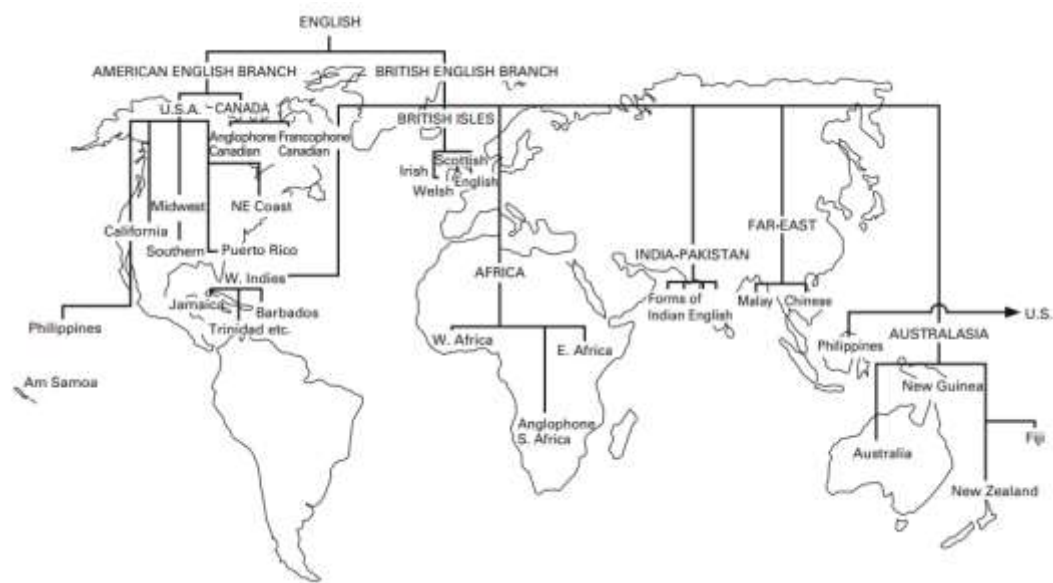


Figure 1 Stevens’ World Map of English (source: Stevens, 1992, p. 33)

However, the model has a number of limitations, which Galloway and Rose (2015, p. 15) summarise as follows:

- The model... is quite America-centric in that it positions American English with British English, and does not represent the origins of American English in British English.
- Other Englishes, such as Irish English (which is much older than American English), are relegated to smaller branches, so historical representation is also somewhat confused.
- This model promotes a stereotype that American English and British English are somehow the fundamental central Englishes of the world.

1.9.2.2. Kachru's (1985) Three Circle Model of World Englishes¹

In the 1980s, Kachru produced a framework for conceptualising the spread of English around the world. Kachru's (1985) Three Concentric Circles model is one of the most influential models in the field of World Englishes (Almegren, 2017; Boonsuk, 2016; Galloway, 2011; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Mullany & Stockwell, 2010; Park & Wee, 2009; Schreier, 2009; Seargeant, 2012; Selvi et al., 2024; Sykes, 2010; Zhang, 2010). This model, as Ahn (2014a) points out, "has promoted an awareness of varieties of English and engendered a large number of critical debates about the traditional view of English language as the language of particular countries" (p. 29). Yano (2001) also states that the model now forms "the standard framework of world Englishes studies" (p. 121). In the same vein, Galloway and Rose (2015) note that "in all current discussions around Global Englishes, this is probably the model that is most widely referred to" (p. 18). Additionally, Kachoub (2021) believes that research using Kachru's (1985) model of World Englishes "has produced a wealth of knowledge about the spread and functions of English to speech communities around the world" (p. iii). Sykes (2010) also believes that Kachru's (1985) model "has been the one that has attracted the most attention and has gained the most recognition over the last two decades" (p. 18). The World Englishes model "has strongly influenced how academics describe the configuration of English worldwide" (McKenzie, 2010, p. 3). The model also has "practical implications in the field of language education [as it] guides language educators, curriculum developers, and policy-makers in tailoring language teaching methodologies and resources in

¹ For readers interested in the question of how the Kachravian paradigm of World Englishes was formed, they can refer to Li's (2019) doctoral thesis, which "presents the development of the Kachravian paradigm of world Englishes and sheds light on key notions in each developmental stage of Braj Kachru's research" (Li, 2019, p. 10). For an obituary of Professor Braj B. Kachru (1932–2016) that is written by Sridhar (2016), see [Appendix S](#). For photos of Braj Kachru, see [Appendix T](#).

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accordance with the linguistic and sociocultural contexts of specific regions” (Bilal et al., 2023, p. 62).

Kachru “challenges the traditional view of English as language of a particular country” and “advocates a pluricentric conception of English and so developed the controversial ‘Concentric Circles’ model, marking pluralisation of English to describe the social reality of diversified users and varieties of English” (Ahn, 2014a, p. 24). To this end, he (1992) divides World Englishes into three Circles: The *Inner Circle*, the *Outer Circle*¹ and the *Expanding Circle*² (see Table 1, [Figure 3](#) & [Figure 4](#) below). The spread of English around the world in terms of three concentric circles represents “different ways in which the language has been acquired and is currently used” (Crystal, 2003, p. 60). First, the *Inner Circle* (IC) refers to countries or territories where English is spoken as a native language (ENL). This circle includes the US, the UK, New Zealand, Canada and Australia. Second, the *Outer Circle* (OC) refers to ex-colonies of the US and the UK where English is spoken as a second language (ESL) and is “employed for a range of educational and administrative purposes” (McKenzie, 2010, p. 2). That is, English has an interpersonal function in such ex-colonies (Proshina, 2007). This circle includes countries such as Pakistan, India, Nigeria, Sri Lanka, etc. Finally, the *Expanding Circle* (EC) refers to countries or territories where English has no colonial history/legacy, and where it is mainly spoken as a foreign language (EFL). This circle includes countries such as Morocco, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, China, Japan, etc.

All in all, the three circles represent “different types of spread, patterns of acquisition and functions of English in a diversity of cultural contexts” (McKenzie, 2006, p. 1). In light of

¹ Also called ‘the Extended Circle’

² It is also called ‘the Extending Circle’. Crystal (2003) suggests that “the term ‘expanding’ reflects its origins in the 1980s: today, with English recognized virtually everywhere, a tense change to *expanded circle* would better reflect the contemporary sense” (p. 60). For the purposes of our study, however, we will continue to use the term *expanding circle*, as it is the most frequently used one in current World Englishes research.

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previous research (e.g., Baratta, 2019), Outer and Expanding Circle Englishes are referred to as Non-Inner Circle Englishes (NICE) throughout the present study, whereas the term *World Englishes* is used when reference is made to all three circles. As Figure 2 shows, the *inner circle* is also referred to as ‘norm-providing’, the *outer circle* as ‘norm-developing’ and the *expanding circle* as ‘norm-dependent’.

Table 1 Kachru's (1985) Three Circles of English Model of World Englishes (as summarised by Selvi et al., 2024, p. 18)

Circles	Definition	Speakers	Norms	Examples
The Inner Circle	Countries where English is used as a prime language or mother tongue by most of the population and used in most domains of life	English as a native language (ENL)	Norm-providing	The United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand
The Outer Circle	Countries where English is used as a second/additional language alongside other national/local language(s)	English as a second language (ESL)	Norm-developing	Singapore, Hong Kong, India, and Nigeria
The Expanding Circle	Countries where English is learned, taught, and used as a foreign language	English as a Foreign Language (EFL)	Norm-dependent	China, Germany, Japan, Turkey, and Brazil

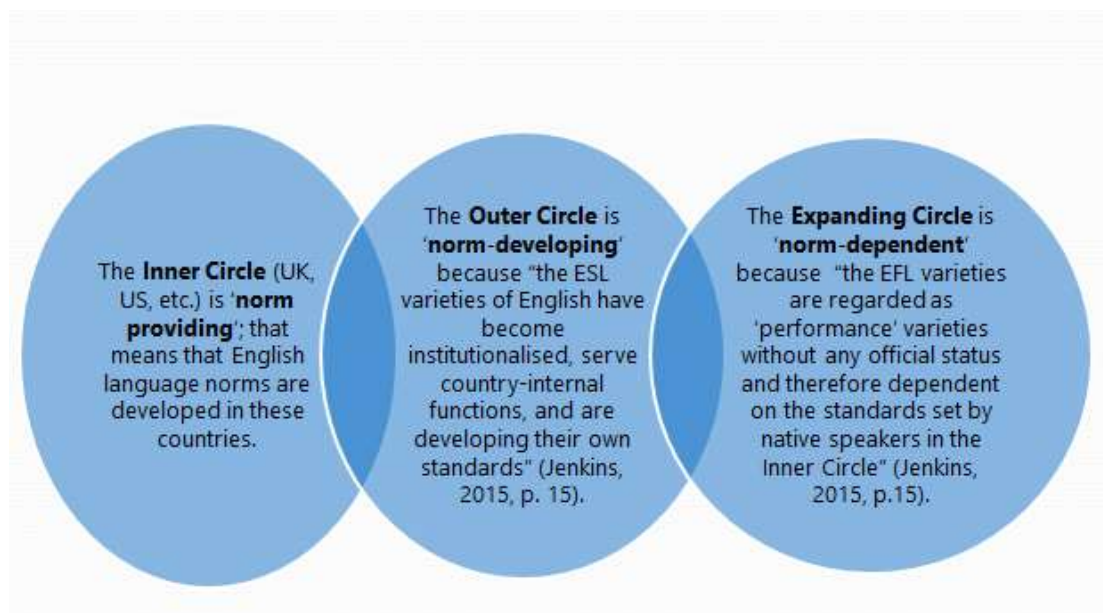


Figure 2 The Three Circles and the Three Norms

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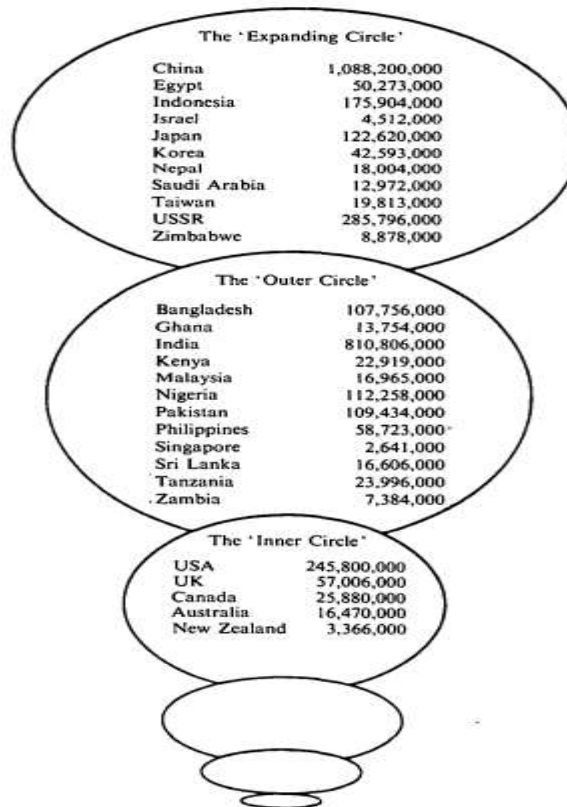


Figure 3 Kachru's Three-Circle Model of World Englishes (source: Kachru, 1992, p. 3)

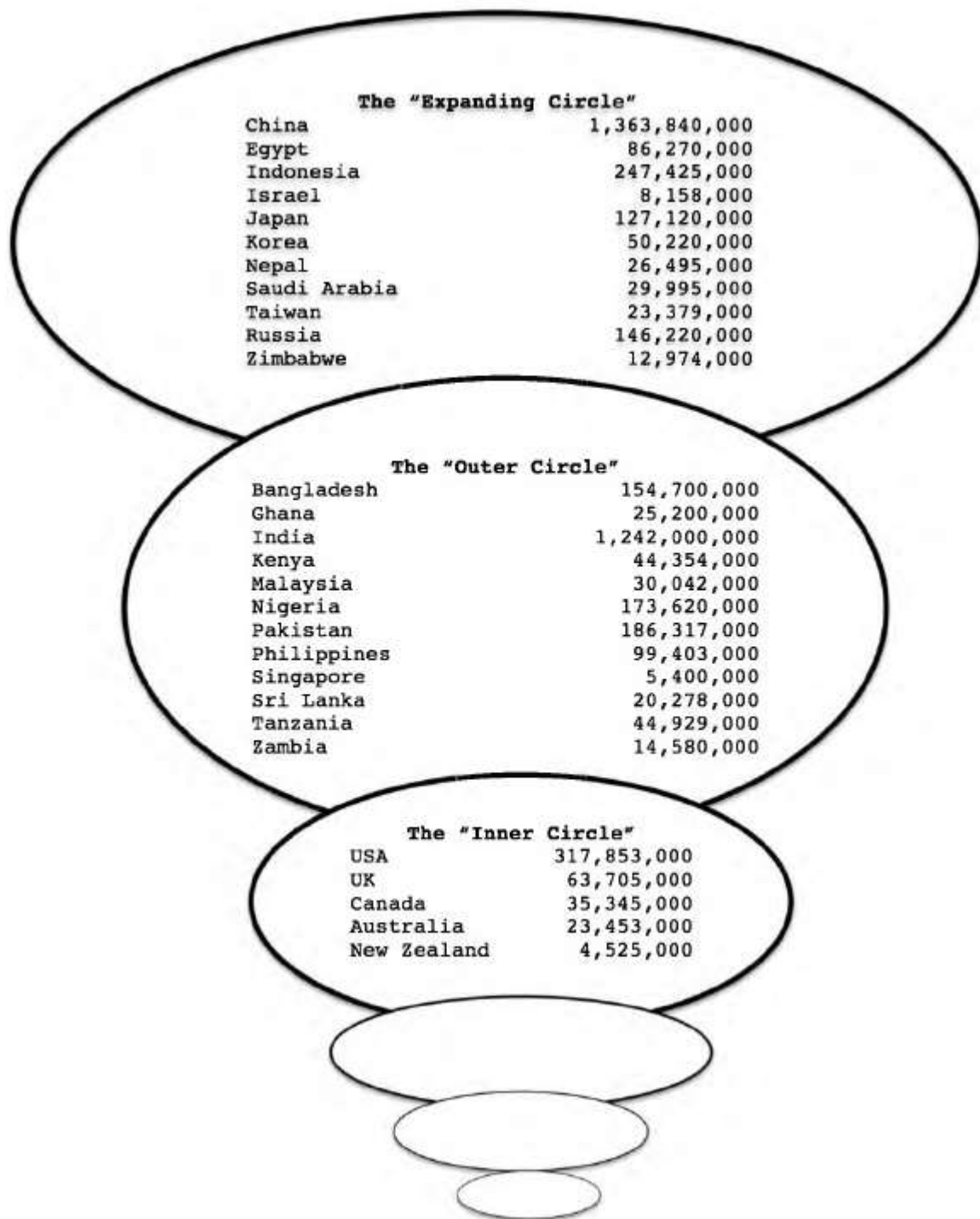


Figure 4 An Updated Version of Kachru's Three Circle Model of World Englishes Using Data Reflecting Estimated National Population Figures in 2014 (source: Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 19)

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Table 2 Advantages and Disadvantages of Kachru's Three Circle Model (1985) (as summarised by Selvi et al., 2024, p. 19)

Advantages	Disadvantages
It brings considerable attention to the diversity and plurality of English	It does not account for the multiethnic, multilingual realities of the world characterised by global mobility and interaction
It captures the varieties of English around the world in a visually comprehensive way	It takes a reductionist approach to the realities of how language is used in each of and across these circles
It contributes to the legitimisation of varieties of English through codification	It is largely based on (nation-based) geography and colonial history in some contexts
It contributes to the establishment and expansion of WE as a scholarly paradigm	It perpetuates the hierarchical structure by positioning the 'Inner' Circle as a 'norm-providing' context

Although Kachru's (1985) Three Concentric Circles Model is adjudged one of the most influential models that are widely used in World Englishes research (Almegren, 2017; Boonsuk, 2016; Galloway, 2011; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Mullany & Stockwell, 2010; Park & Wee, 2009; Schreier, 2009; Seargeant, 2012; Selvi et al., 2024; Sykes, 2010; Zhang, 2010), [Table 2](#) above shows that the model has been subject to criticism by a number of scholars (e.g., Ahn, 2014a; Bruthiaux, 2003; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2003, 2009, 2015; Lee & Rüdiger, 2025; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008; Park & Wee, 2009; Pennycook, 2010; Saraceni, 2015; Schreier, 2009; Seargeant, 2012; Selvi et al., 2024; Sykes, 2010; Zhang, 2010). In what follows, a brief discussion of the limitations of each circle of Kachru's (1985) Three Concentric Model is provided in subsubsubsections 1.9.2.2.1, 1.9.2.2.2 and 1.9.2.2.3 , along with Kachru's (2005) response to Jenkins' (2003) six concerns in subsubsubsection 1.9.2.2.4 , respectively.¹

¹ For a detailed overview of the criticism levelled against Kachru's (1985) Three Concentric Model, see Bruthiaux (2003), Galloway and Rose (2015) and Jenkins (2003, 2009, 2015).

1.9.2.2.1. Limitations of the Model: The Inner Circle

A number of criticisms have been levelled against Kachru's inner circle by a number of authors (e.g., Bruthiaux, 2003; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2009, 2015; Sykes, 2010). For example, according to some authors (e.g., Bruthiaux, 2003; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015; Sykes, 2010), Kachru's (1985) model fails to capture the sociolinguistic variation exhibited in the inner circle. In this respect, Sykes (2010) points out that the model "does not account for the vast number of varieties of the language that exist within British English and American English" (p. 18). Similarly, Jenkins (2015) points out that within the inner circle, "countries differ in the amount of **linguistic diversity** they contain (e.g. there is far more diversity in the US than in the UK)" (p. 16). Additionally, Galloway and Rose (2015) note that the model "insufficiently represents variation within and across ENL countries, and gives the impression that Inner Circle/ENL/native English is a single variety of English, which ... is clearly not the case" (p. 22).

Equally important, the label *Inner Circle* has been subject to criticism by some scholars (e.g., Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015; Lee & Rüdiger, 2025; Yano, 2001). In this respect, Jenkins (2015) argues that although Kachru's label (i.e., inner circle) does not imply that inner circle Englishes are superior to non-inner circle Englishes, the term, however, may be taken to mean that "speakers from the ENL countries are central to the effort, whereas their worldwide influence is in fact in decline" (p. 16). By contrast, Galloway and Rose (2015) argue that "'native-speakership' [in Kachru's (1985) model] is defined by birthright and is assumed to be superior to a 'foreign' user, no matter how inept the native or adept the foreigner" (p. 22). Furthermore, Yano (2001) notes that "the concept of the inner circle itself may become questionable because of continued inflow of immigrants and increase of foreign residents", which "make[s] it necessary to redefine what the inner circle is" (p. 122). As Galloway and

Rose (2015) suggest, “the model [also] assesses proficiency using the Inner Circle as a **native-speaker yardstick** of measurement” (p. 22).

1.9.2.2.2. Limitations of the Model: The Outer Circle

The outer circle has been subject to some criticism by a number of scholars (e.g., Bruthiaux, 2003; Jenkins, 2009, 2015; McKenzie, 2006). For instance, Bruthiaux (2003) notes that Kachru’s (1985) model groups together “nation-states on the basis of their shared colonial history at the expense of detailed sociolinguistic analysis” (p. 164). Additionally, Jenkins (2015) argues that “in some Outer Circle countries, English may be the first language learnt for many people, and may be spoken in the home rather than used purely for institutional purposes such as education, law, and government” (p. 15). Graddol (1997, p. 11) also notes that there are “ongoing shifts in the status of English” in many parts of the world. Graddol (1997) adds that:

[In a number of countries¹], the use of English for intranational communication is greatly increasing (such as in professional discourse or higher education). These countries can be regarded as in the process of shifting towards L2 status. In existing L2 areas, a slight increase in the proportion of the population speaking English (for example, in India, Pakistan, Nigeria and the Philippines), would significantly increase the global total of secondlanguage speakers. (p. 11)

1.9.2.2.3. Limitations of the Model: The Expanding Circle

Kachru’s expanding circle has been subject to some criticism by a number of scholars (e.g., Bruthiaux, 2003; Jenkins, 2009, 2015; Seargeant, 2012). In this respect, Seargeant (2012) notes that the Expanding Circle is in “constant flux at present” (p. 153). Furthermore, Seargeant (2012) posits that English has now become an intergal part of the daily lives of English users in a number of European countries, which makes of it a second rather than foreign language. In the same vein, Jenkins (2015) maintains that a number of English speakers in the Expanding

¹ Graddol (1997, p. 11) lists these countries, which are said to be in transition from EFL to ESL status: Argentina, Belgium, Costa Rica, Denmark, Ethiopia, Honduras, Lebanon, Myanmar (Burma), Nepal, Netherlands, Nicaragua, Norway, Panama, Somalia, Sudan, Surinam, Sweden, Switzerland and United Arab Emirates.

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Circle use the language “for a very wide range of purposes including social with native speakers, and even more frequently with other non-native speakers from both their own and different L1s, and both in their home country and abroad” (p. 15). She also adds that “English is increasingly being used as the medium of instruction in both schools and universities in many continental European countries, and more recently in Expanding Circle Asian countries such as China” (p. 15).

1.9.2.2.4. Kachru’s (2005) Response to Jenkins’ (2003) Six Concerns

In view of some of the limitations discussed above, Kachru (2005) has responded to a number of concerns raised by Jenkins (2003) in a section on *Models and descriptions of the spread of English* (pp. 15-21) in the first edition of her book titled *World Englishes: A Resource Book for Students*. In this respect, Kachru (2005) discussed each of Jenkins’ (2003) eight concerns in a section titled *On getting the Three Circles Model backwards* (pp. 211–220) in his book titled *Asian Englishes: Beyond the Canon*. Kachru (2005) concludes that Jenkins’ concerns “are constructed primarily on misrepresentations of the model’s characteristics, interpretations and implications” (p. 220).

In the third edition of Jenkin’s book, which was changed to *Global Englishes: A Resource Book for Students*, Jenkins (2015) asserted that although Kachru’s (1985) three-circle model “has been highly influential and contributed greatly to our understanding of the sociolinguistic realities of the spread of English”, the model still has a number of limitations, especially those that “relate to subsequent changes in the use of English, while others concern any attempt at a three-way categorisation of English uses and users” (p. 15). She, however, invites readers who have access to Kachru’s (2005) book and other references cited in the first edition of her book to read the authors’ comments on Kachru’s model and decide on their own position.

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All in all, and despite all the criticisms levelled against Kachru's (1985) Three Circle model, it is still adjudged the most influential model that was used and continues to be used in past and current World Englishes research (Almegren, 2017; Boonsuk, 2016; Galloway, 2011; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2015; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Mullany & Stockwell, 2010; Park & Wee, 2009; Schreier, 2009; Seargeant, 2012; Selvi et al., 2024; Sykes, 2010; Zhang, 2010). As Seargeant (2012) points out,

Despite these stress points, and given the caveat that all models are in a sense convenient fictions designed to help with description and analysis, the Three Circles model provides a very useful theoretical starting point – plus a valuable system of terminology – for an investigation of modern-day English around the world. And for this reason, a quarter of a century after it was first devised, it continues to be of relevance to the discipline and provide an ongoing agenda for research. (p. 153)

For the reasons mentioned, the model will be adopted in the present study to account for the participants' implicit and explicit attitudes towards six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE).

1.9.2.3. McArthur's (1987) Circle of World English

McArthur (1987) proposed a Circle Model of English (see [Figure 5](#) below), which places *World Standard English* at the centre. According to McArthur (1987), the model aims “to highlight the broad three-part spectrum that ranges from the 'innumerable' popular Englishes through the various national and regional standards to the remarkably homogeneous but negotiable 'common core' of World Standard English” (p. 11). The model is further explained by Galloway and Rose (2015, p. 15) as follows:

In this model, the existence of regional varieties is highlighted, including both 'standard' and other forms, and then eight regions are represented by various spokes that encircle the hub. These include the standard and other forms of African English, American English, Canadian English, and Irish English. Beyond these, but linked to them by spokes marking off eight regions of the world, are the 'subvarieties', such as Aboriginal English, Inuit English, Ugandan English, and Singapore English.

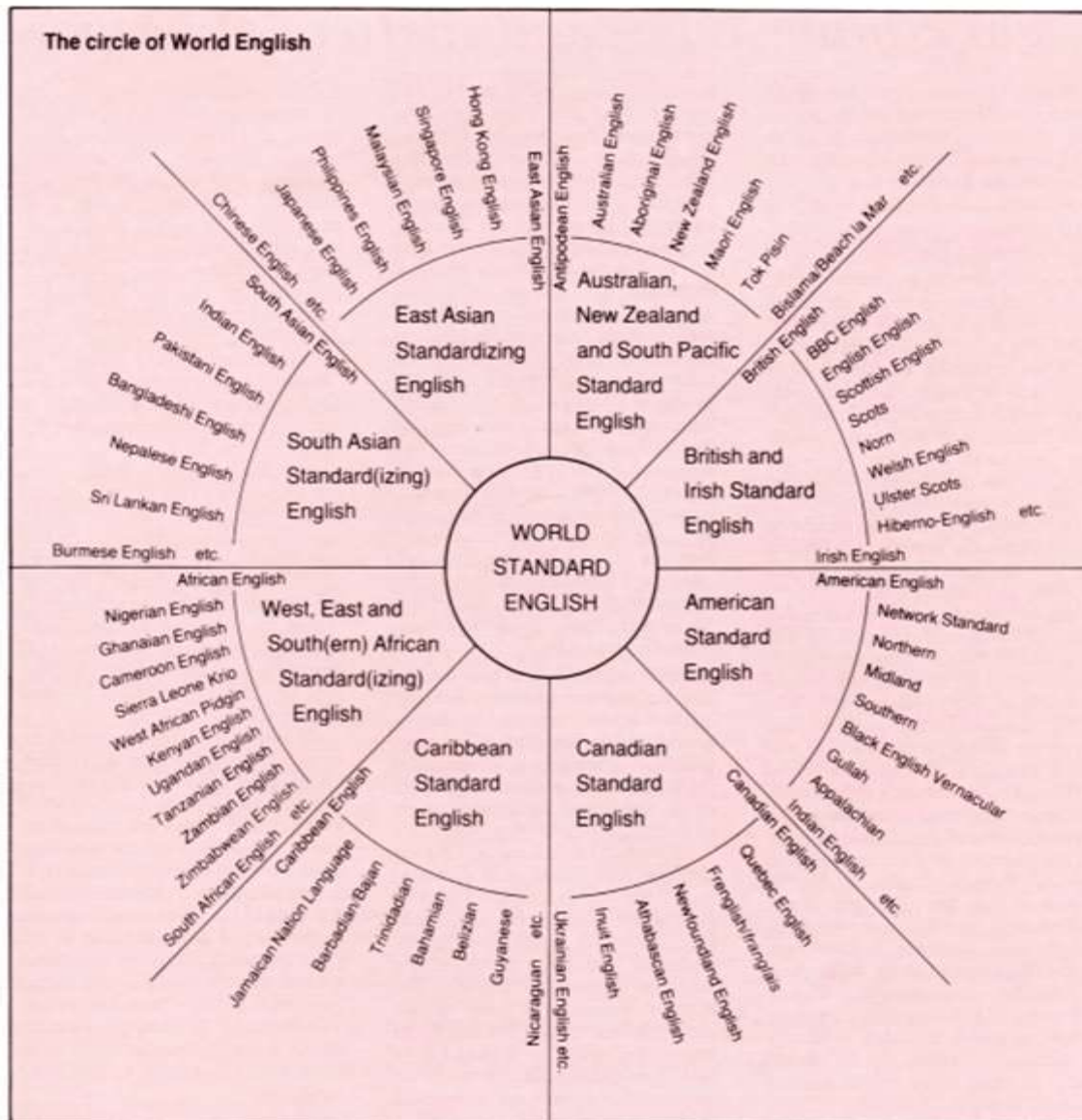


Figure 5 McArthur's Circle of World English (source: McArthur, 1987, p. 11)

Again, the model has its own limitations. In this regard, Galloway and Rose (2015, p. 15-17) made the following comment:

While this is a tidy attempt at illustrating the world's Englishes based on geographic location, it is not indicative of the true historic, political, and linguistic ties that exist in the varieties of English represented. For example, Hong Kong English has much more in common historically, politically, and linguistically with British English than Japanese English, which is included in the same category. The same could be said for the Philippines, which is much closer to American English, due to its historical development, than to Chinese English.

1.9.2.4. Görlach's (1988) Circle Model of English

Like McArthur's (1987) Circle of World English discussed in the previous subsection (1.9.2.4), Görlach's (1988) Circle Model of English (see [Figure 6](#) below) is a wheel model. In this model, varieties of English speech are arrayed around a hub and categorised geographically (Haswell & Hahn, 2016). According to Haswell and Hahn (2016), "wheel models were an important development from the previous efforts as they represented the concept of English as a sociolinguistic entity rather than a monolithic language" (p. 240). One of the limitations of the model, however, is that "the users of the varieties were not represented—only the varieties themselves" (Haswell & Hahn, 2016, p. 240).

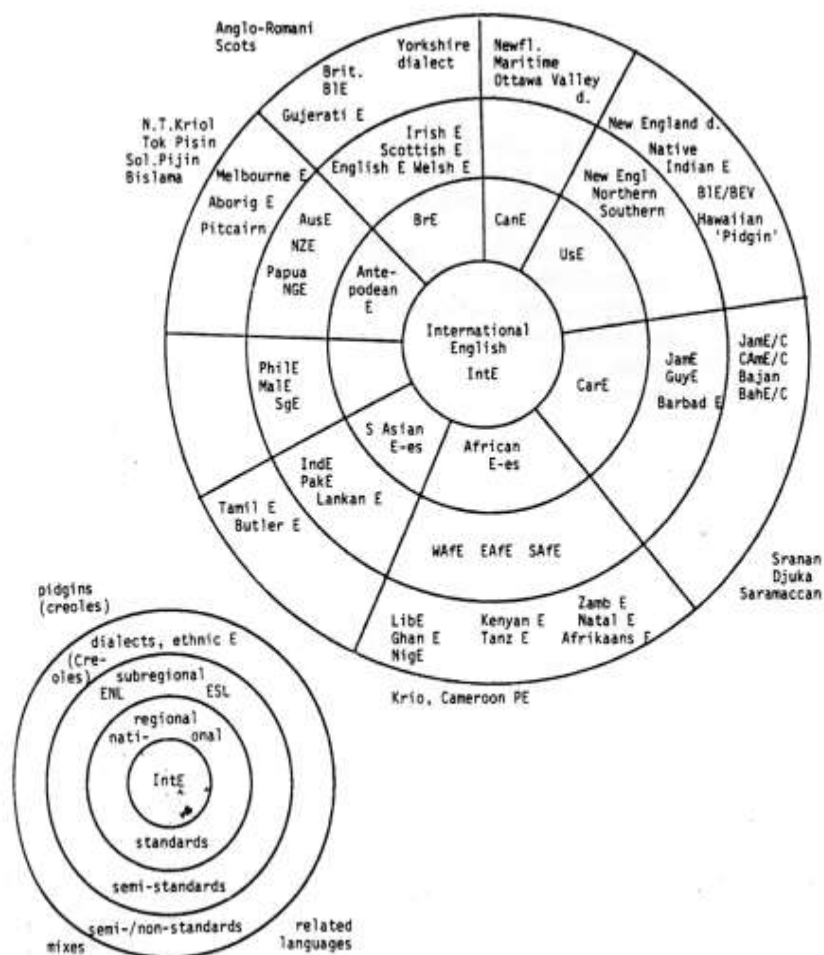


Figure 6 Görlach's Circle Model of English (source: Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 29)

**1.9.2.5. Modiano's (1999a) Centripetal Circles of International English and
Modiano's (1999b) English as an International Language**

Another attempt to revise Kachru's (1985) model (see subsection 1.9.2.2 above) is that of Modiano (1999a, 1999b). In 1999, Modiano first developed his model of *Centripetal Circles of International English*, and it was later revised and re-named as *English as an International Language*. In what ensues, a brief discussion of each of Modiano's (1999a, 1999b) models, along with some of the criticisms levelled against each model, is provided in subsubsections 1.9.2.5.1 and 1.9.2.5.2, respectively.

**1.9.2.5.1. Modiano's (1999a) Centripetal Circles of International
English**

In 1999, Modiano attempted to adapt Kachru's (1985) model and proposed his model of *the centripetal circles of international English* (see [Figure 7](#) below). According to Jenkins (2015), Modiano "breaks completely with historical and geographical concerns and bases [the centripetal circles of international English] on what is mutually comprehensible to the majority of proficient speakers of English, be they native or non-native" (p. 17). Furthermore, Modiano (1999a) argues that "the proficient non-native speakers of EIL, rather than the native speakers who are not proficient in EIL, are better equipped to define and develop English as a tool in cross-cultural communication" (p. 25). As [Figure 7](#) below illustrates, the model consists of different bands. For example, the model's centre consists of users who are proficient in international English. Speakers of English as an international language do not have to be L1 speakers, for they may be speakers of different regional accents and dialects. The second band "consists of those who have proficiency in English as either a first or second language rather than as an international language" (Jenkins, 2015, p. 17). These speakers, as Jenkins (2015) points out, "function well in English with, respectively, other native speakers (with whom they

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share English as an L1) or other non-native speakers from the same L1 background as themselves” (p. 17). The third band consists of English learners who have not developed good English proficiency yet. The final band is outside the circle and it represents people who do not speak English.

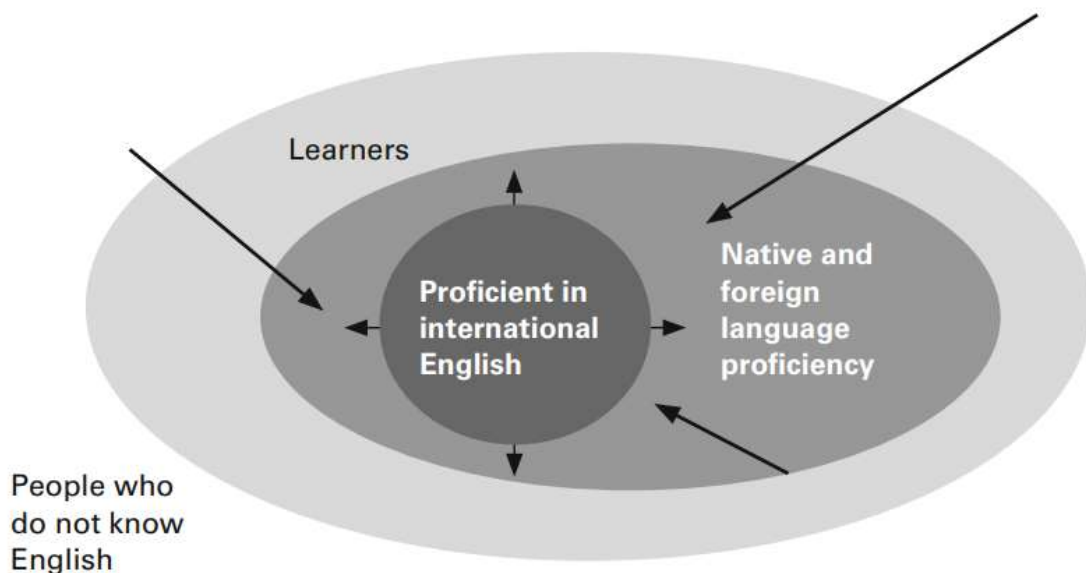


Figure 7 Modiano's (1999) Centripetal Circles of International English (source: Modiano, 1999a, p. 25)

In brief, although the model remains a good attempt of describing users of English as far as proficiency and English as an international language are concerned, the model has its own limitations. In this regard, Jenkins (2015, p. 18) made the following comment:

[W]here do we draw the line between a strong and non-strong regional accent? Presumably a strong regional accent places its owner in the second circle, thus categorising them as not proficient in international English. But we currently have no sound basis on which to make the decision. And who decides? Again, given that international English is not defined, what does it mean to be proficient in 'international English' other than the rather vague notion of communicating well? Where do we draw the line between proficient and not proficient in international English in the absence of such a definition?

1.9.2.5.2. Modiano's (1999b) English as an International Language

Modiano received comments from a number of scholars a few months later after drafting his model of the *centripetal circles of international English* (see Chevillet, 1999; Kaye, 1999; Simo-Bobda, 1999; Todd, 1999; Toolan, 1999; Tripathi, 1999). As a response to these comments, Modiano (1999b) recrafted his model and renamed it *English as An International Language* (see Figure 8). As Jenkins (2015) points out, “[t]his time [Modiano] moves away from intelligibility per se to present a model based on features common to all varieties of English” (p. 18). At the centre of his model is EIL (English as an International Language), “a core of features that is comprehensible to the majority of native and competent non-native speakers of English” (Jenkins, 2015, p. 18). The other circle consists of five groups (American English, British English, other major (native) varieties, other (local) varieties & foreign language speakers), “each with features peculiar to their own speech community that are unlikely to be understood by most members of the other four groups” (Jenkins, 2015, p. 18).

Again, the model has its own problems. In this respect, Jenkins (2015) summarises some of them as follows:

[T]he difficulty of determining what goes into his central category remains. In addition, some will find unpalatable the fact that Modiano equates native speakers with “competent” non-natives, implying that all native speakers of English are competent users of English, which is patently untrue. There may also be objections to the designation of the main native varieties as “major” but established Outer Circle varieties such as Indian English (spoken by a larger number than the native English populations of the US and UK combined) as “local”. (p. 18)

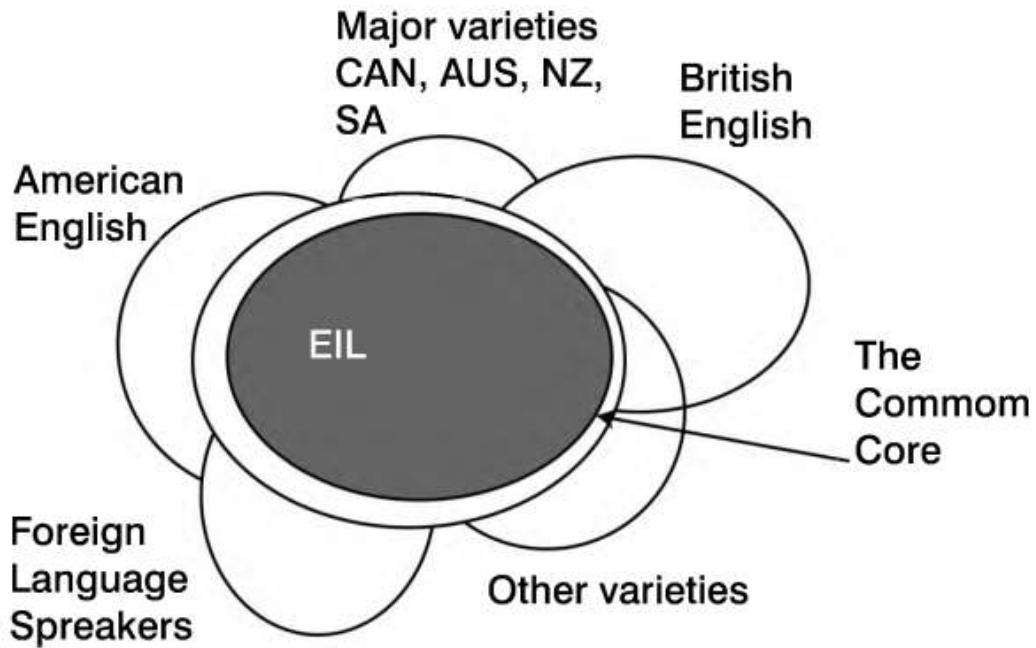


Figure 8 Modiano's English as An International Language (source: Modiano, 1999b, p. 10)

1.9.2.6. Yano's (2001) Cylindrical Model

Yano's (2001) *Cylindrical* model (see Figure 9 below) was developed "to slightly modify the Kachruvian circles in the course of this century" (Yano, 2001, p. 122). Firstly, Yano (2001) argues that Kachru's distinction between "genetic nativeness" and "functional nativeness" should be reconsidered, suggesting that "functionally native ESL speakers in the outer circle are expected to far exceed those genetically native English speakers in the inner circle not only by their numbers but by economic and technological power" (p. 122). The genetic/functional distinction, Yano (2001) further clarifies, makes "the boundary between the inner circle and the outer circle less clear and thus make[s] the demarcation less significant" (p. 122). Secondly, Yano (2001) goes on to suggest that "the concept of the inner circle itself may become questionable because of the continued inflow of immigrants and increase of foreign residents" (p. 122). Furthermore, Yano (2001) argues that given the fact that non-native English speakers

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are about to constitute the majority now in the United States, a redefinition of what constitutes the inner circle is required.

In light of the concerns discussed above, Yano (2001) suggests that Kachru's (1985) Three Circle model should be slightly modified, "where a dotted line is used instead of a solid line for the circle between the inner and outer spaces, indicating that it is less clear and will eventually disappear" (p. 122). Further, he believes that "the future of English can be envisaged from a three-dimensional sociolinguistic perspective rather than the Kachruvian three-circle model perspective" (p. 122).

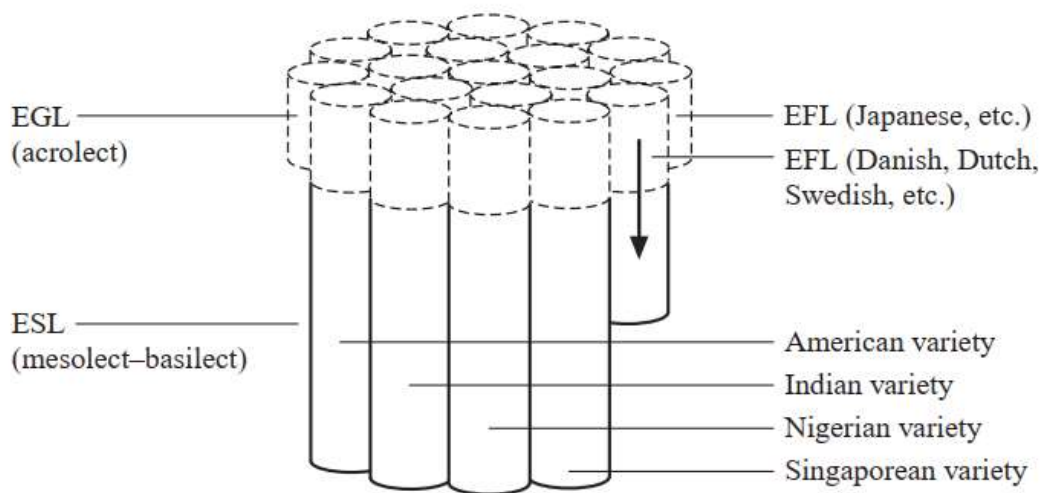


Figure 9 Yano's (2001) Three-Dimensional Cylindrical Model (source: Yano, 2001, p. 124)

1.9.2.7. Graddol's (2006) Proficiency-Based Model

In an another attempt to revise Kachru's (1985) model (see subsection 1.9.2.2 above), Graddol (2006) noted that the model has already failed "to capture the increasing importance of the outer circle, and the degree to which 'foreign language' learners in some countries – especially Europe – were becoming more like second language users" (p. 110). Moreover, he maintains that Kachru "has recently proposed that the 'inner circle' is now better conceived of

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as the group of highly proficient speakers of English – those who have ‘functional nativeness’ regardless of how they learned or use the language” (p. 110). To this end, he devised his new *Proficiency-Based* model (see [Figure 10](#) below) in order to represent the community of English speakers as including a wide range of proficiencies. Furthermore, Graddol (2006) believes that “[i]n a globalised world, the traditional definition of ‘second-language user’ (as one who uses the language for communication within their own country) no longer makes sense”, and that “there is an increasing need to distinguish between proficiencies in English, rather than a speaker’s bilingual status” (p. 110).

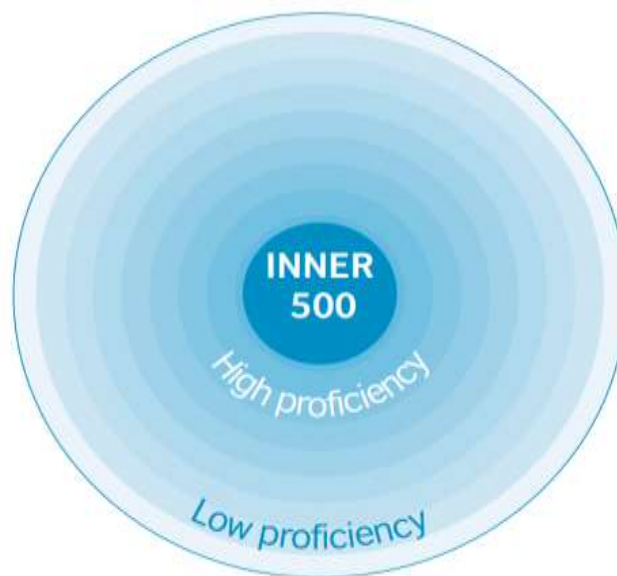


Figure 10 Representing the Community of English speakers (source: Graddol, 2006, p. 110)

Again, some criticism has been levelled against Graddol’s (2006) model, which Jenkins (2015, p. 19) summarises as follows:

The source for Graddol’s presentation of functional nativeness in diagramatic form was Kachru (2005) (Graddol, personal communication). However, it seems that Graddol’s interpretation of the phenomenon of ‘functional nativeness’ may not be precisely the same as Kachru’s. For when Kachru himself discusses

functional nativeness (2005: 12, and see also Kachru 1997: 217), he explains it in terms of two variables: “the RANGE and DEPTH of a language in a society” (his capital letters), i.e. the “domains” in which a language is used and “the degree of social penetration of the language”. In other words, Kachru seems to be referring to the use of English in a society, and Graddol to the proficiency level of speakers of English within the entire ‘community’ of English speakers. The two overlap, but are not necessarily identical.

1.9.2.8. Schneider’s (2007) Dynamic Model of the Evolution of Postcolonial Englishes¹

According to Schneider (2007), research into *Postcolonial Englishes* (PCE) “has tended to focus upon individual varieties, their features and conditions of use” (p. 29). He also adds that “the predominant tendency has been to regard these varieties as individual linguistic entities, independent of each other and products of unique circumstances determined by geography and history” (p. 29). As [Table 3](#) below illustrates, PCE “have emerged by undergoing a fundamentally uniform process which can be described as a progression of five characteristic stages²: foundation, exonormative stabilization, nativization, endonormative stabilization, and differentiation” (Schneider, 2007, p. 32).

Equally important, Sargeant (2012) posits that Schneider’s (2007) *Dynamic Model* “offers a somewhat more detailed model of the development of English worldwide varieties, with a particular focus on the part played in the process by the identity-construction of communities” (p. 153). Sargeant (2012) also adds that:

Rather than dividing the English-speaking world up into three categories as Kachru does, Schneider identifies five broad phases of historical development for postcolonial Englishes. He posits that all the varieties that have resulted from the transplanting of English to overseas territories have gone through these stages, and that comparative differences in the form and status of these varieties relate to how far through the five stages they have moved and the nature of the relationship between variation and identity construction in each instance. In other words, not all varieties progress through

¹ Also called Dynamic Model

² For more details regarding these five stages, see Schneider (2007) and Sargeant (2012).

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all five of the stages, and depending on the historical circumstances different elements of the process will be more salient in different territories. (p. 153)

Table 3 Schneider's (2007) *Dynamic Model of the Evolution of Postcolonial Englishes* (source: Schneider, 2007, p. 56)¹

The evolutionary cycle of New Englishes: parameters of the developmental phases

Phase	History and politics	Identity construction	Sociolinguistics of contact/ use/attitudes	Linguistic developments/ structural effects
1: Foundation	STL: colonial expansion: trade, military outposts, missionary activities, emigration/ settlement IDG: occupation, loss/ sharing of territory, trade	STL: part of original nation IDG: indigenous	STL: cross-dialectal contact, limited exposure to local languages IDG: minority bilingualism (acquisition of English)	STL: koinéization; toponymic borrowing; incipient pidginization (in trade colonies)
2: Exonormative stabilization	stable colonial status; English established as language of administration, law, (higher) education, ...	STL: outpost of original nation, "British-plus-local" IDG: individually "local-plus-British"	STL: acceptance of original norm; expanding contact IDG: spreading (elite) bilingualism	lexical borrowing (esp. fauna and flora, cultural terms); "-isms"; pidginization/ creolization (in trade/ plantation colonies)
3: Nativization	weakening ties; often political independence but remaining cultural association	STL: permanent resident of British origin IDG: permanent resident of indigenous origin	widespread and regular contacts, accommodation IDG: common bilingualism, toward language shift, L1 speakers of local English STL: sociolinguistic cleavage between innovative speakers (adopting IDG forms) and conservative speakers (upholding external norm; "complaint tradition")	heavy lexical borrowing; IDG: phonological innovations ("accent," possibly due to transfer); structural nativization, spreading from IDG to STL: innovations at lexis – grammar interface (verb complementation, prepositional usage, constructions with certain words/word classes), lexical productivity (compounds, derivation, phrases, semantic shifts); code-mixing (as identity carrier)
4: Endonormative stabilization	post-independence, self-dependence (possibly after "Event X")	(member of) new nation, territory-based, increasingly pan-ethnic	acceptance of local norm (as identity carrier), positive attitude to it; (residual conservatism); literary creativity in new variety	stabilization of new variety, emphasis on homogeneity, codification: dictionary writing, grammatical description
5: Differentiation	stable young nation, internal sociopolitical differentiation	group-specific (as part of overarching new national identity)	network construction (increasingly dense group-internal interactions)	dialect birth: group-specific (ethnic, regional, social) varieties emerge (as L1 or L2)

Again, Schneider's (2007) *Dynamic Model* has been subject to some criticism. For example, Seargeant (2012) argues that the model "is primarily varieties-based, and thus does not examine some of the ways in which the language exists in other parts of the world (i.e. the Expanding Circle)" (p. 155). Additionally, Schneider's (2007) *Dynamic Model* has been criticised because of its over reliance on postcolonial Englishes. To this end, Buschfeld and Kautzsch (2017) devised the *Extra- and Intra-territorial Forces Model (EIF)* to account for both postcolonial and non-postcolonial Englishes (non-PCE), which will be discussed in subsubsection .1.9.2.12

¹ STL, Settlers speech community; IDG, indigenous speech community

1.9.2.9. Pennycook's (2009) 3D Transtextual Model of English Use

Pennycook's (2009) *3D Transtextual Model of English Use* (see [Figure 11](#)) consists of three planes. In this respect, Pennycook (2009) states that his *3D Transtextual Model of English Use* looks at English use “in terms of interlingual variety on one plane (inter/ linguistic resources), colingual (who says what to whom where) and the ideolinguual (what gets taken from what language use with what investments, ideologies, discourses and beliefs) on the other” (p. 203).

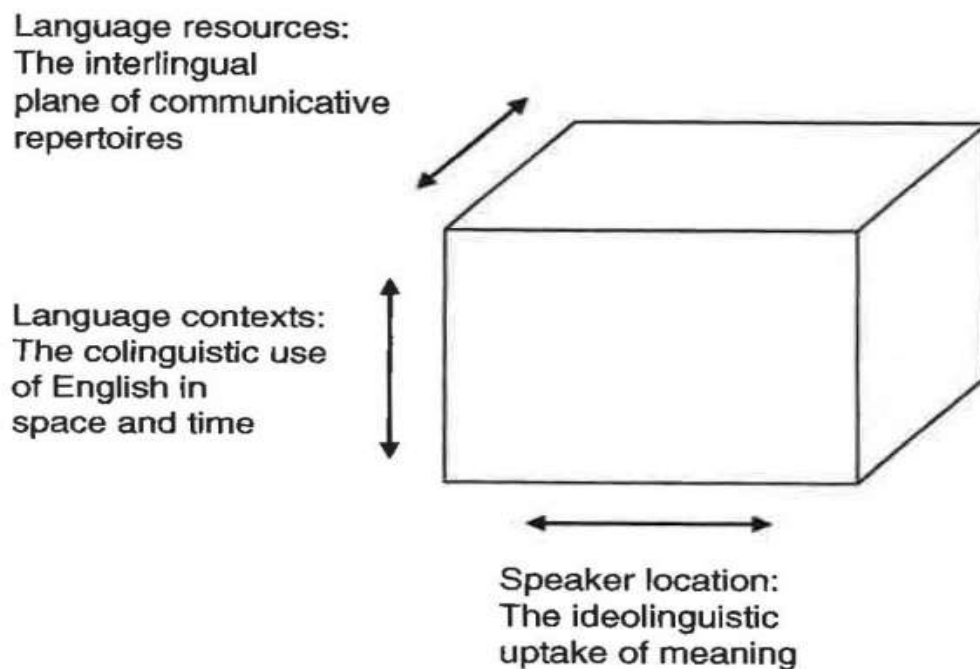


Figure 11 Pennycook's (2009) 3D Transtextual Model of English Use (source: Pennycook, 2009, p. 204)

1.9.2.10. Haswell's (2013) Global Model of English

The *Global Model of English* (GME) was first developed by Haswell (2013) and was later revised by Haswell and Hahn (2016) (see [Figure 12](#) & [Figure 13](#) below). According to Bilal et al. (2023), Haswell's (2013) GME “introduces a comprehensive framework that allows for the

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simultaneous consideration of geographical location, the specific variety of English used, and the proficiency level of individual users” (p. 66). Furthermore, Haswell (2013) points out the model “allows the geographical position, variety of English used, and level of proficiency of individual users to be tracked simultaneously” (p. 133). As Figure 12 illustrates below, the model has three layers: *the Inner Core*, the *Outer Core* and the *Surface*. Unlike Kachru’s (1985) Three Circle model (see subsection 1.9.2.2 above), Haswell’s (2013) GME “flips the picture, beginning from the Surface and moving towards the Inner Core” (Alenezi, 2022, p. 21).

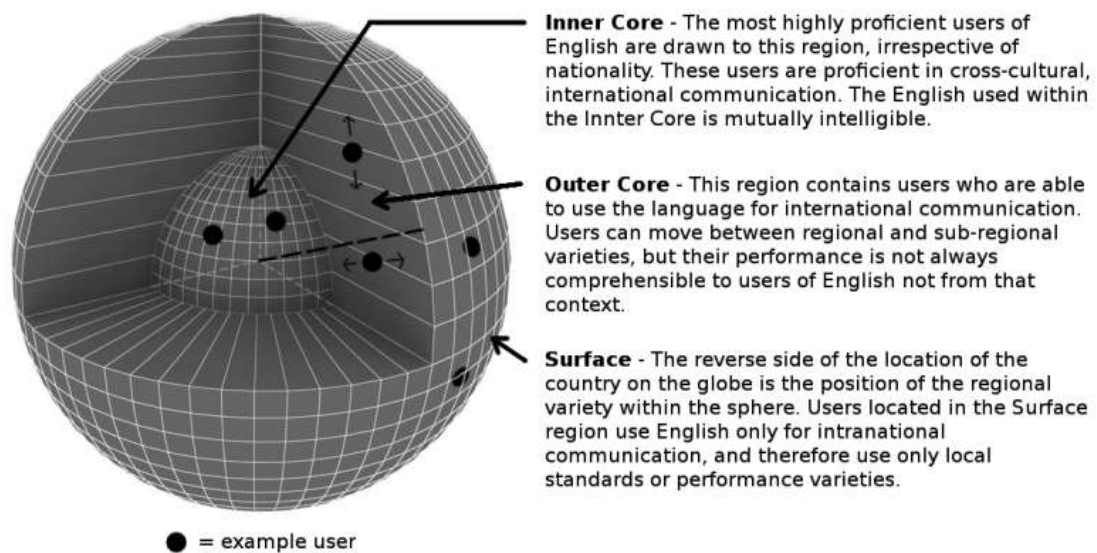


Figure 12 Haswell's (2013) Global Modal of English (source: Haswell, 2013, p. 133)

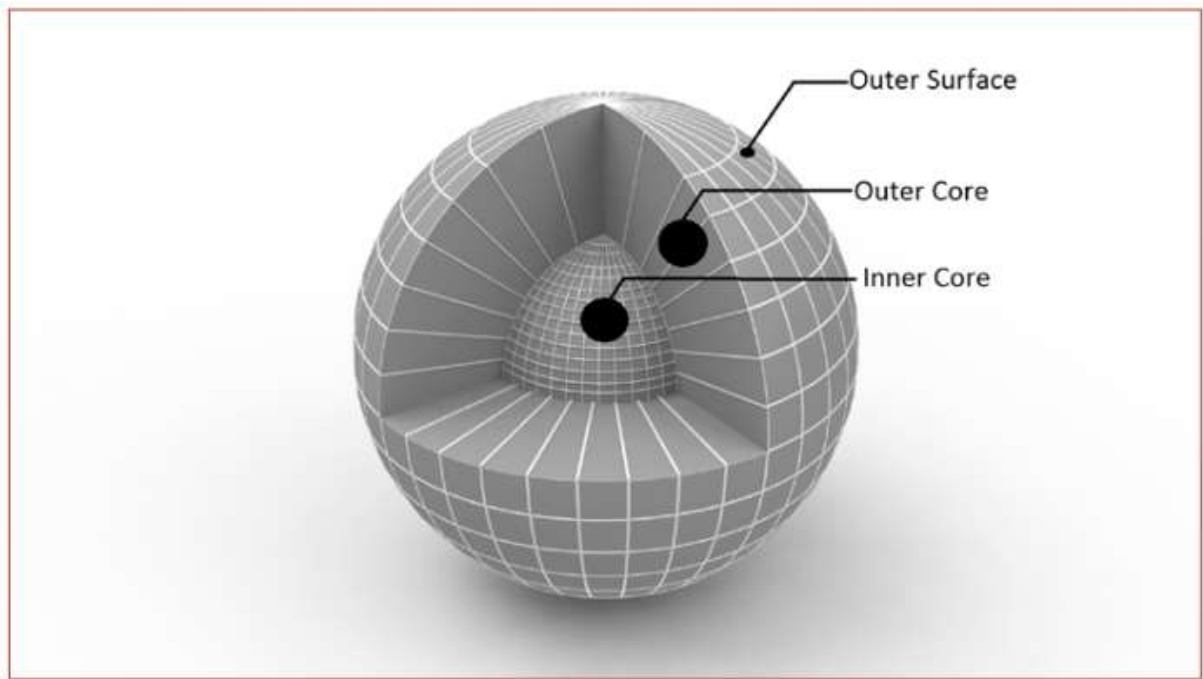


Figure 13 The Global Model of English (source: Haswell & Hahn, 2016, p. 242)

1.9.2.11. Mahboob's (2014) Language Variation Framework

Mahboob's (2014) *Language Variation Framework* (see [Figure 14](#)) is a three-dimensional model that can be used to situate various aspects of language variation. In this regard, Mahboob (2014) notes that in modelling language variation, three dimensions should be considered: (1) *users of the language*, (2) *uses of the language* and (3) *modes of communication*. These three dimensions are summarised by Jenkins (2015) as follows:

The first relates to users of English and concerns the social/geographic distance (global or local) between interlocutors. The second concerns uses of English, i.e. the purpose for which it is being used, with specialised discourse and casual conversation being at opposite ends of the continuum. The third refers to the mode of communication, i.e. spoken, written, and combinations of the two in various forms of virtual interaction. (p. 20)

Equally important, Mahboob (2014) states that the first dimension of variation in language “relates to who we are as ‘users’ of the language and with whom we are interacting” (p. 159), the second dimension of it relates to the purpose or use of the language and the third dimension of it is mode of communication and includes aural, visual and mixed channels of

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communication. He also adds that these three dimensions are not mutually exclusive, as they “interact with each other in myriad ways” (p. 161). Furthermore, Mahboob (2014) points out that model “gives us eight different possibilities or domains of mapping language variation” (p. 162), which he lists as follows:

❖ Eight domains of language variation¹

Domains

- Local, written, everyday
- Local, oral, everyday
- Local, written, specialised
- Local, oral, specialised
- Global, written, everyday
- Global, oral, everyday
- Global, written, specialised
- Global, oral, specialised

Examples

- Friends writing letters to each other
- Friends talking to each other about their plans for the holidays
- Texts written by and for a local group of farmers
- Farmers discussing specifics about their crops
- International news agencies reporting on events
- Conversations amongst people from different parts of the world
- Academics writing research papers
- Conference presentations

¹ Note that “language varies within each domain too and not just across domains” (Mahboob, 2014, p. 162).

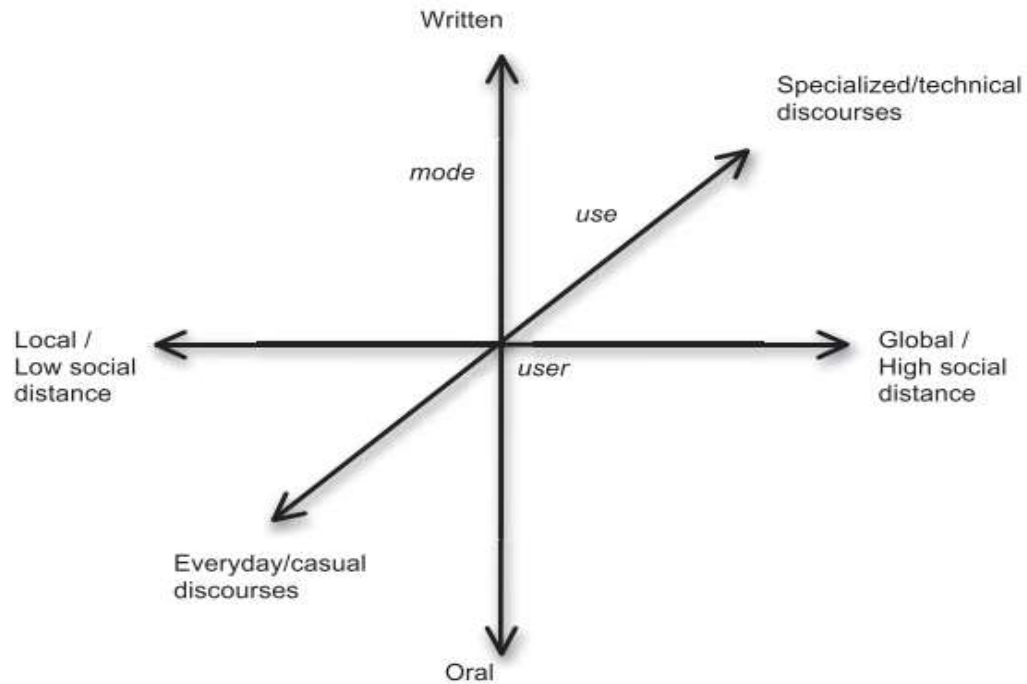


Figure 14 Mahboob's (2014) Language Variation Framework (source: Mahboob, 2014, p. 161)

1.9.2.12. Buschfeld & Kautzsch's (2017) Extra- and Intra-territorial Forces

Model (EIF)

As an attempt to revise Schneider's (2007) *Dynamic Model of the Evolution of Postcolonial Englishes* that focuses on postcolonial Englishes (PCE) only (see subsection 1.9.2.8 above), Buschfeld and Kautzsch (2017) devised the *Extra- and Intra-territorial Forces Model (EIF)* to account for both postcolonial and non-postcolonial Englishes (non-PCE) (see Figure 15 & Figure 16 below). In this regard, the authors argue that non-postcolonial Englishes emerge and develop like postcolonial Englishes. Additionally, Buschfeld and Kautzsch (2020b) point out that the Extra- and Intra-territorial Forces Model "postulates that a range of extra- and intra-territorial forces constantly influence the development of all types of English, that is, from their early to their current developmental stages" (p. 5).

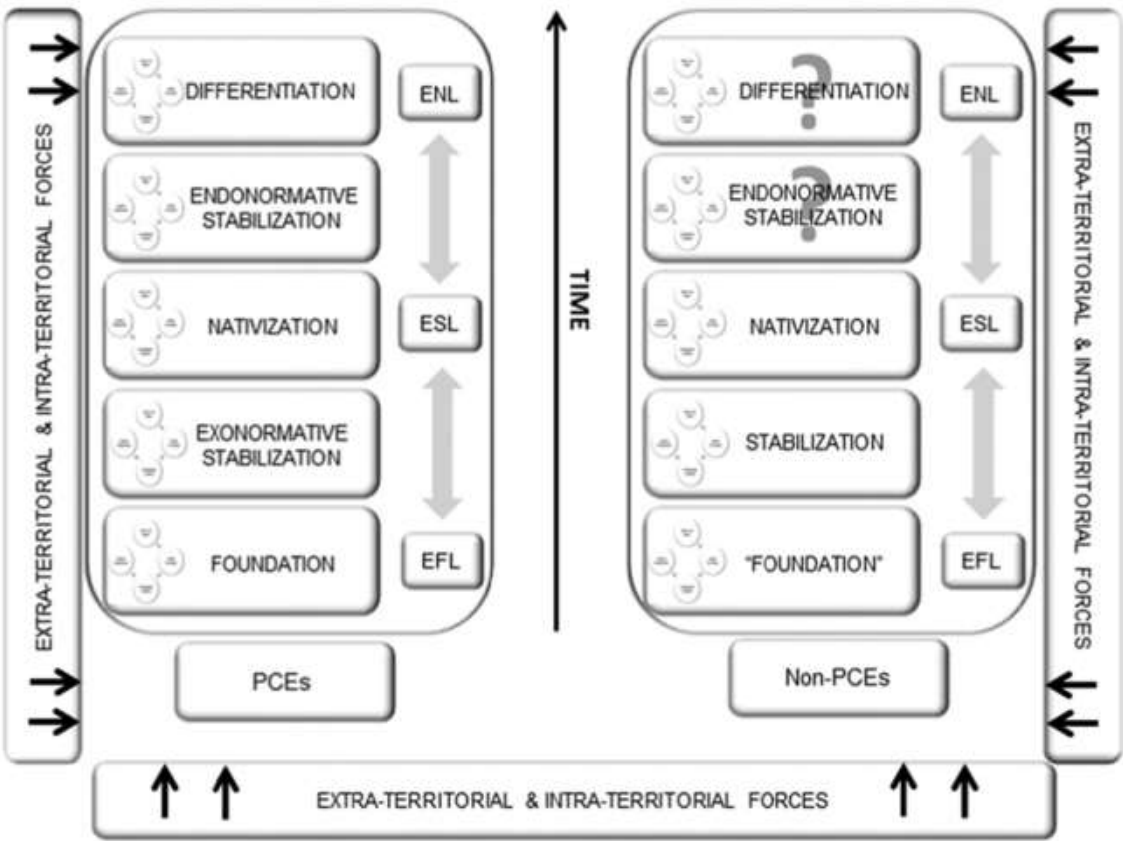


Figure 15 The Extra- and Intra-Territorial Forces Model (EIF)) (source: Buschfeld & Kautzsch, 2017, p. 14)

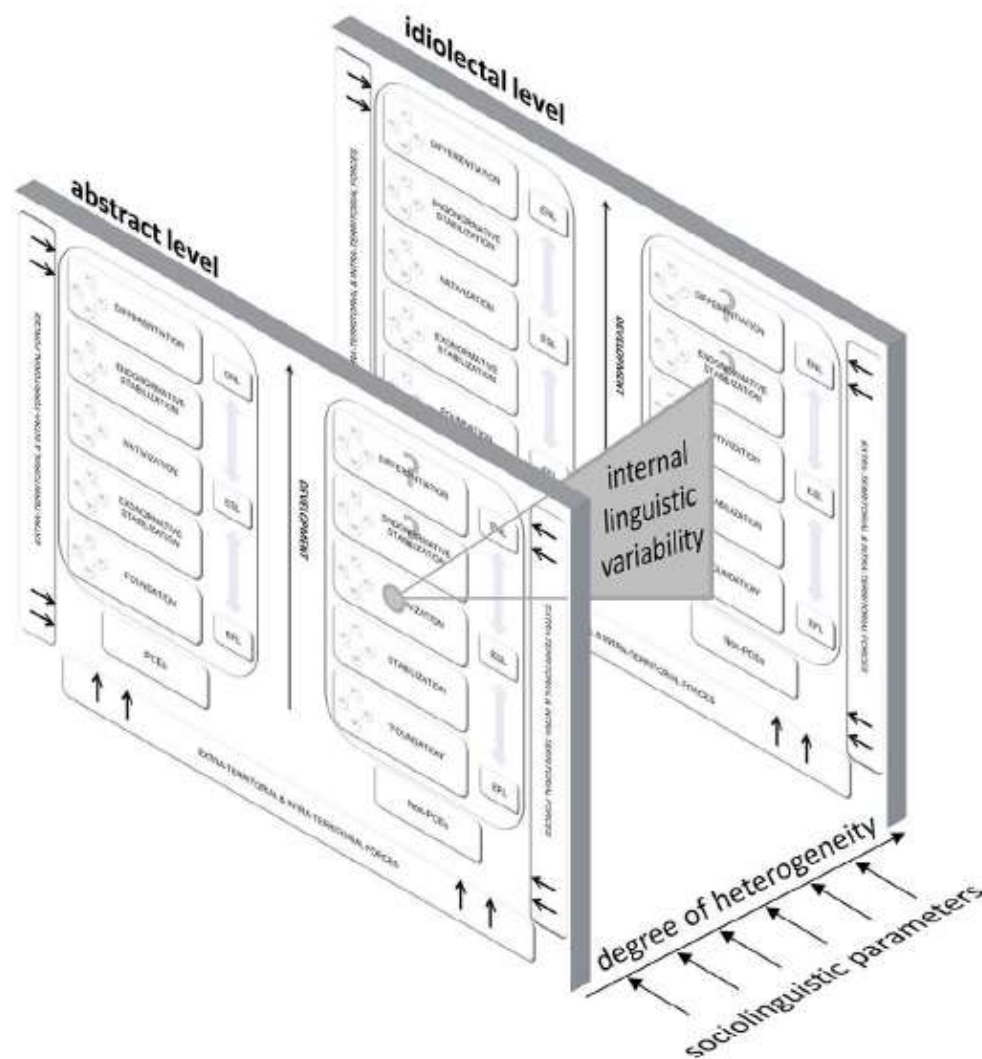


Figure 16 Depicting internal linguistic variability in the EIF Model (source: Buschfeld et al, 2018, p. 25)

1.9.3. Naming and Describing the English Language¹

Over the years, World Englishes as an academic discipline has acquired “an array of specialised technical usages”, such as the terminology used in the different theoretical frameworks and models discussed in subsection 1.9.2 above. In this regard, Seargeant (2012) provides “a list of several of the most common names and classificatory groupings in the current

¹ For more information about naming and describing the English language, see Alenezi (2022, pp. 3-4), Jenkins (2015, p. 80), Mufwene (1997, p. 182, 2001, chapter 4) and Seargeant (2012, pp. 163-176).

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academic discourse on English and its existence around the world” (p. 164). Furthermore, he groups the names that have been used to name and describe the English language into six categories (see Figure 17 below), which represent fundamental conceptual distinctions. These categories are summarised by Seargeant (2012, pp. 164-165) as follows:

- 1 Varieties marked for *function*: that is, for what purpose is the variety used?
- 2 Varieties marked according to *community*: that is, who speaks the variety?
- 3 Varieties marked in terms of their *history*: that is, how did the variety develop?
- 4 Varieties marked according to their *structure*: that is, what are the structural features of the variety?
- 5 Varieties marked according to where they fit within an *ecology* of other varieties.
- 6 English as *multiplex*.

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Category	Name
Function	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> English as a Second Language (ESL) English as a Foreign Language (EFL) English as an Additional language (EAL) English as an International Language (EIL) English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) International English World Standard Spoken English (WSSE)
Community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Metropolitan standards Regional dialects Social dialects Immigrant Englishes Native/non-native varieties Global Global English
History	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Language-shift Englishes Colonial standards Indigenised Englishes
Structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pidgin Englishes Creole Englishes Hybrid Englishes
Ecology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inner circle varieties Outer circle varieties Expanding circle varieties World Englishes New Englishes
Multiplex	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> World English English Language Complex (ELC)

Figure 17 The Multiple Names of English (source: Seargeant, 2012, p. 165)¹

¹ For further details about each name, see Seargeant (2012, pp. 165-175).

1.10. Attitudes and Language Attitudes Studies¹

Building on the assumption that ESL/EFL learners' attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers constitute an essential part in language attitude research, this section starts with a discussion of the nature of attitudes in subsection 1.10.1, followed by a discussion of the term *language attitudes* in subsection 1.10.2, approaches of language attitudes measurement in subsection 1.10.3 and previous studies investigating attitudes towards varieties of English speech in subsection 1.10.4.

1.10.1. The Nature of Attitudes

The term *attitude* has long been one of the main explanatory constructs in fields like social psychology and sociolinguistics (Agheyisi & Fishman, 1970; Ahn, 2014a; Allport, 1935; Ajzen, 2005; Bouizidi, 1989; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Garrett et al., 2003; Gawronski, 2007; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; McKenzie & McNeill, 2023; Schwarz & Bohner, 2001) to the extent that Gawronski (2007) argues that “it is difficult to imagine what contemporary social psychology would be like without the concept of attitude” (p. 573). In the same vein, Allport (1935) states that “[t]he concept of attitude is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary American social psychology” (p. 798).

Equally important, attitudes are constructs that cannot be observed given the fact that researchers do not have direct access to people's thoughts and feelings (Ajzen, 2005; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Schwarz & Bohner, 2001). That is, attitudes are latent or hypothetical in nature, and they can only be inferred from an individual's behaviour or observable responses (Ajzen, 2005; Allport, 1935; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Garrett et al., 2003; Himmelfarb, 1993; Schwarz

¹ For further details about attitudes and language attitudes, see Baker (1992), Cooper and Fishman (1974), Eagly and Chaiken (1993), Ehrlich (1969), Erzsébet (2014), Garrett (2007, 2010), Garrett et al. (2003), McKenzie (2006, 2010) and Myers-Scotton (2006).

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& Bohnner, 2001). Furthermore, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) argue that “[a]ttitude is one of numerous implicit states or dispositions that psychologists have constructed to explain why people react in certain ways in the presence of certain stimuli” (p. 2). Nevertheless, Garrett (2010) argues that “[t]he fact that we cannot observe attitudes directly does not mean that they are bogus [not real], that we are just ‘imagining things’” (p. 20).

In light of this, the section starts with definitions of attitude (1.10.1.1), followed by a discussion of attitudes in social psychology (1.10.1.2), the three components of attitudes (1.10.1.3), attitudes and related terms (1.10.1.4) and mentalist and behaviourist theories of attitudes (1.10.1.5).

1.10.1.1. Defining Attitude

A review of previous research on attitudes reveals that the term *attitude* is a complex construct that has been defined in a variety of ways by different scholars in different disciplines (Ahn, 2014; Ajzen, 2005; Allport, 1935; Bain, 1928; Bouizidi, 1989; Elyazale, 2019; Erzsébet, 2014; Garrett, 2007; Garrett et al., 2003; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; McKenzie & McNeill, 2023; Zhang, 2010). Almost a century ago, Bain (1928) noted that the term *attitude* is “a good example of an ill-defined, or undefined, concept used in a loose, pseudo-scientific manner” (p. 942). However, as Kothandapani (1971) points out, “[a]n attitude is generally defined as a learned predisposition to respond to an object or class of objects in a consistently favorable or unfavorable way” (p. 321). Similarly, Agheyisi and Fishman (1970) state that “[t]here are some aspects of attitude definition in which there appears to be some consensus” (p. 139). For example, Agheyisi and Fishman (1970) argue that “practically everybody agrees that attitudes are learned from previous experience, and they are not momentary but relatively ‘enduring’” (p. 139). The authors further add that “[m]any theorists also agree that attitudes bear some positive relation to action or behavior, either as being ‘predisposition to behavior’ or as being

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a special aspect of behavior itself” (p. 139). By contrast, Ehrlich (1969) claims that “[n]ot all the components of an attitude imply behavior” (p. 29). Moreover, Ehrlich (1969) adds that “without a direct assessment of ‘the action potential’ of an attitude component, the researcher’s inference about the subject’s behavior, or intentions, may be phenomenologically naïve” (p. 29).

In light of what has been said above with regard to the complexity of defining the term *attitude*, Ajzen (2005) defines an attitude as “a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event” (p. 3). Next, Ajzen (2005) adds that an attitude is “a hypothetical construct that, being inaccessible to direct observation, must be inferred from measurable responses [which] reflect positive or negative evaluations of the attitude object” (p. 3). Similarly, Himmelfarb (1993) states that “[a]ttitudes are not directly observable [and] their existence can only be inferred from overt responses or *indicators*” (p. 23).

Equally important, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) define attitude as “*a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor*” (p. 1). According to the two authors, *psychological tendency* “refers to a state that is internal to the person” and *evaluating* “refers to all classes of evaluative responding, whether overt or covert, cognitive, affective, or behavioral” (p. 1). Furthermore, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) state that attitude has been treated as “an *acquired behavioral disposition*, that is, a learned state that creates an inclination to respond in particular ways”, which indicates that the term *disposition* “tends to connote states that endure for a relatively long period of time” (p. 2). However, and given the fact that some attitudes “are relatively temporary and changeable”, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) prefer the term *tendency*, for it “does not necessarily imply a very long-term state” (p. 2).

1.10.1.2. Attitudes in Social Psychology

To begin with, and for the purposes of the present study, *Social Psychology* is defined as “the scientific study of the effects of social and cognitive processes on the way individuals perceive, influence, and relate to others” (Smith et al., 2015, p. 3). As Elyazale (2019) points out, attitudes in social psychology are associated with “preferences humans attribute to different elements in their environment” (p. 422). Elyazale (2019) also adds that such preferences “may lead to evaluating, and or taking action towards the target element; and that the study of the attitude towards these elements may shed more light on this complex-human characteristic” (p. 422).

Ajzen (2005) also notes that “correspondence between measured dispositions and overt actions is not as simple a matter as it might at first appear” (p. 1). He also argues that because of the fact that attitudes cannot be observed, we do not have access to people’s thoughts and feelings (Ajzen, 2005, p. 2). That is, attitudes are “latent, hypothetical characteristics that can only be *inferred* from external, observable cues” (Ajzen, 2005, p. 2).

As Table 4 below illustrates, “trait-relevant information can come from three sources: an observer, the individual him- or herself, or other people familiar with the individual, such as friends, parents, or peers” (Ajzen, 2005, p. 2). Table 4 also shows that “the responses used to infer a trait can be overt, i.e. directly observable, or covert, not directly accessible to an outside observer” (Ajzen, 2005, p. 2).

Table 4 Responses Used to Infer Personality Traits (adapted from: Ajzen, 2005, p. 2)

Nature of response	Source of information about responses		
	Observation	Person	Acquaintances
Overt	Motor acts, nonverbal cues, verbal behaviour	Self-reports of motor acts, nonverbal cues	Peer-reports of motor acts, nonverbal cues
Covert	Physiological responses	Self-reports of thoughts, feelings, needs, desires	Peer-reports of thoughts, feelings, needs, desires

1.10.1.3. The Three Components of Attitude (Cognitive, Affective & Conative)

A review of previous research on attitudes reveals that the latter have often been conceptualised in terms of three components/a tripartite model¹: *cognitive*, *affective* and *conative* (or *behavioural*)² (Ahn, 2014a; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Garrett et al., 2003) (see [Figure 18](#) below). In this respect, Ehrlich (1969) states that “[i]n almost all current theories, attitudes are construed as having a componential structure” (p. 29). Additionally, Himmelfarb (1993) argues that “[a]ttitudes as evaluative tendencies manifest themselves in three general classes of indicators: *cognitive*, *affective*, and *behavioural*” (p. 23).

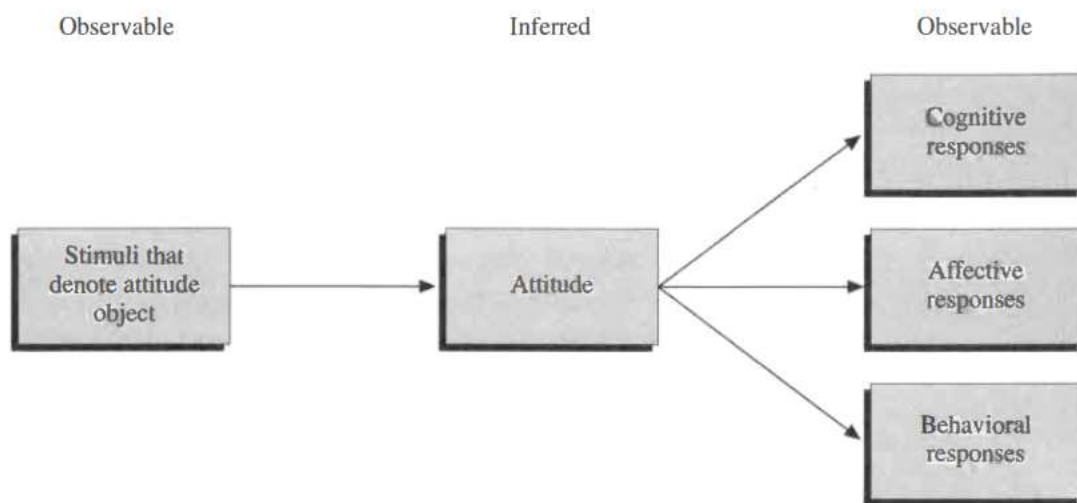


Figure 18 Attitude as an Inferred State, with Evaluative Responses Divided into Three Classes (Cognitive, Affective & Behavioural) (source: Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 10)

¹ A tripartite model (also called triadic model) refers to “a view of attitudes as consisting of three components: cognitions, affect and behaviours” (Garrett, 2010, p. 229).

² Cooper and Fishman (1974) raise the following issue with regard to the components of attitude: “Are measures of the cognitive, affective, and conative components of attitude so highly intercorrelated that they should be thought of as measuring the same thing or are they relatively independent entities?” (p. 7).

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Equally important, Ajzen (2005) maintains that “an individual’s favorable or unfavorable attitude toward an object, institution, or event can be inferred from verbal and nonverbal responses toward the object, institution, or event in question” (p. 5) (see Table 5 below). He also adds that these responses can be of (1) *a cognitive nature*, “reflecting perceptions of the object, or beliefs concerning its likely characteristics”, (2) *an affective nature*, “reflecting the person’s evaluations and feelings” and (3) *a conative nature*, “indicating how a person does or would act with respect to the object” (Ajzen, 2005, p. 5). Similarly, Baker (1992) states that attitude components can be summarised by saying that *the cognitive component* “concerns thoughts and beliefs”, *the affective component* “concerns feelings towards the attitude object” and *the conative component* “concerns a readiness for action” (pp. 12-13).

Table 5 Responses Used to Infer Attitudes (adapted from: Ajzen, 2005, p. 4)

Response mode	Response category		
	Cognition	Affect	Conation
Verbal	Expressions of beliefs about attitude object	Expressions of feelings toward attitude object	Expressions of behavioural intentions
Nonverbal	Perceptual reactions to attitude object	Physiological reactions to attitude object	Overt behaviours with respect to attitude object

1.10.1.4. Attitudes and Related Terms

A review of past research on the nature of attitudes indicates that one of the problems associated with defining the term *attitude* concerns the overlap between the latter and other psychological/social psychological terms such as *belief*, *opinion*, *value*, *habit*, *trait*, *motive* and *ideology* (Baker, 1992; Bouizidi, 1989; Garrett, 2010; Garrett et al., 2003; McKenzie, 2010; Oyebola, 2020; Shaw & Wright, 1967; Zhang, 2010) (see Oppenheim’s ‘Tree Model’ of attitude levels in Figure 19 below). As McKenzie (2010) rightly states, “[p]recise definitions of related terminology are likely to help the researcher to avoid ambiguity, despite the tendency for the

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terms to become blurred in everyday usage outside the field of social psychology” (p. 19). Similarly, Garrett et al. (2003) suggest that defining a concept requires not only stating “what it is, but also how it differs in meaning from other concepts with which it is closely linked” (p. 9). In this regard, Shaw and Wright (1967) assert that it is possible to distinguish between attitude and similar theoretical constructs. In this regard, the *APA Dictionary of Psychology* (2015) defines these closely connected terms as follows:

Belief: “*n.* **1.** acceptance of the truth, reality, or validity of something (e.g., a phenomenon, a person’s veracity), particularly in the absence of substantiation. **2.** an association of some characteristic or attribute, usually evaluative in nature, with an attitude object (e.g., this car is reliable)” (p. 119).

Opinion: “*n.* an attitude, belief, or judgment” (p. 736).

Value: “*n.* a moral, social, or aesthetic principle accepted by an individual or society as a guide to what is good, desirable, or important” (p. 1129).

Habit: “*n.* a well-learned behavior or automatic sequence of behaviors that is relatively situation specific and over time has become motorically reflexive and independent of motivational or cognitive influence—that is, it is performed with little or no conscious intent. For example, the act of hair twirling may eventually occur without the individual’s conscious awareness” (p. 479).

Trait: “*n.* an enduring personality characteristic that describes or determines an individual’s behavior across a range of situations” (p. 1098).

Ideology: “*n.* a more or less systematic ordering of ideas with associated doctrines, attitudes, beliefs, and symbols that together form a more or less coherent philosophy or weltanschauung for a person, group, or sociopolitical movement” (p. 521).

Motive: “*n.* **1.** a specific physiological or psychological state of arousal that directs an organism’s energies toward a goal... **2.** a reason offered as an explanation for or cause of an individual’s behavior” (p. 671).

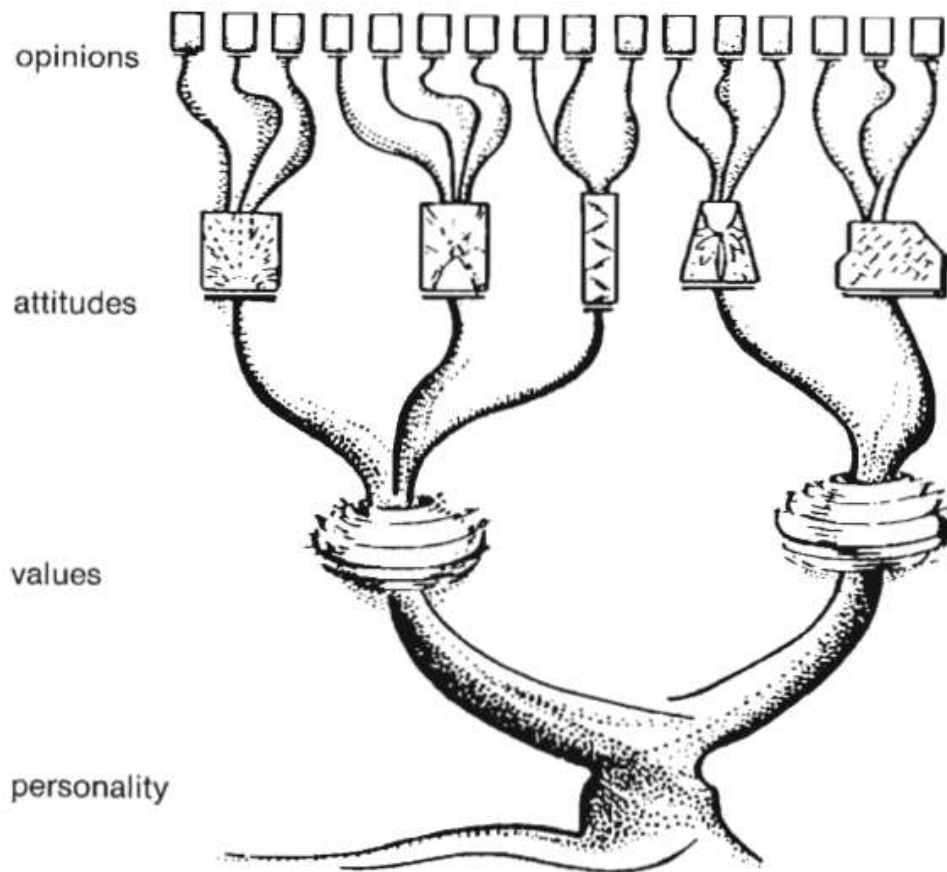


Figure 19 Oppenheim's 'Tree Model' of Attitude Levels (source: Oppenheim, 1992, p. 177)

1.10.1.5. Mentalist and Behaviourist Theories of Attitudes

Attitude research has often been conducted according to two psychological approaches: the *behaviourist* view and the *mentalist* (cognitive) view (Bouizidi, 1989; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020; Sykes, 2010). According to McKenzie (2010), “[t]he behaviourist view of attitudes argues that they can be inferred from the responses that an individual makes to social situations” (p. 21). However, he argues that “the behaviourist approach to attitudes can be criticised for its view of attitude as the only dependent variable and therefore, the sole determinant of the behaviour of an individual (i.e., that there is a perfect correlation between attitude and behaviour)” (p. 21).

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According to McKenzie (2010), “[a] mentalist approach views attitudes as an ‘internal state of readiness’, which when aroused by stimulation of some sort will affect the responses of the individual” (p. 21). This implies, as Agheyisi and Fishman (1970) point out, that “they are not directly observable but have to be inferred from the subject’s introspection” (p. 138).

1.10.2. Language Attitudes

Having introduced the term *attitude* in general in subsection 1.10.1, this subsection moves to the discussion of the term *language attitudes* in particular. First, a discussion of the nature of language attitudes is provided in subsubsection 1.10.2.1. Second, a distinction is made between explicit (overt) and implicit (covert) language attitudes in subsubsection 1.10.2.2. Third, some of the reasons for the study of language attitudes are outlined in subsubsection 1.10.2.3. Finally, the importance of the study of language attitudes in the field of sociolinguistics is discussed in subsubsection 1.10.2.4.

1.10.2.1. The Nature of Language Attitudes

Language attitudes are omnipresent in our daily lives (Garrett, 2010). In terms of attitudes towards language variation, Sykes (2010) posits that the use and the spread of a language or a language variety “may be measured through research into the attitudes people have towards it” (p. 4). Furthermore, Garrett (2010) notes that “[p]eople hold attitudes to language at all its levels: for example, spelling and punctuation, words, grammar, accent and pronunciation, dialects and languages” (p. 2)¹. Garrett (2010) also points out that “language variation carries social meanings and so can bring very different attitudinal reactions, or even social disadvantage or advantage” (p. 2). In the same vein, Garrett et al. (2003) suggest that

¹ In this study, we are only interested in how Moroccan EFL learners judge six speakers of varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) in terms of accent.

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“[l]inguistic forms, varieties and styles can set off beliefs about a speaker, their group membership, and can lead to assumptions about attributes of those members” (p. 3). In other words, “value judgements on language form part of every competent speaker’s linguistic repertoire” (Cameron, 1995, p. x). Language attitudes constitute a form of judgement that is based on a subjective evaluation or facts. In this regard, Myers-Scotton (2006) clarifies the evaluation based on facts as follows:

[F]acts may show that speakers of a certain language (or dialect) are primarily persons of high socio-economic status. But to judge their language as superior (e.g. “clearer”, “more logical”) to other languages spoken in the same community has no direct factual basis. Yet, many times community members place a high value on the linguistic varieties spoken by persons of high socio-economic status and a low value on those varieties spoken by persons of lower status. You can say that such attitudes are unfair, but in every community speakers come up with such judgments. Almost always, these subjective evaluations are based on the characteristics of the speakers of the linguistic varieties. (p. 120)

As for definitions of the term *language attitude*, McKenzie (2010) states that the latter is “an umbrella term, which encompasses a broad range of possible empirical studies, concerned with a number of specific attitudes” (p. 26). Additionally, Myers-Scotton (2006) states that language attitudes can be defined as “**subjective evaluations** of both language varieties and their speakers, whether the attitudes are held by individuals or by groups” (p. 120). She also notes that language attitudes refer to “**assessments that speakers make** about the relative values of a particular language” (p. 109).

1.10.2.2. Explicit and Implicit Language Attitudes

In light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018; Chakarni, 2010), the term *language attitude* is further divided in the present study into *explicit (overt) attitudes* and *implicit (covert) attitudes* towards varieties of English speech. In this regard, Chakarni (2010) notes that “[t]he discussion of attitudes in linguistic literature has been traditionally correlated with the presence of two types of prestige, namely, overt and covert, as two kinds of attitudes driving linguistic

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stratification and language use” (p. 21). On the one hand, an *explicit attitude* is defined as the attitude that “people can report and for which activation can be consciously controlled” (Rydell & McConnell, 2006, p. 995). On the other hand, an *implicit attitude* is defined as the attitude “for which people do not initially have conscious access and for which activation cannot be controlled” (Rydell & McConnell, 2006, p. 995). The two types of language attitudes can be studied using two main approaches, which Garrett (2010) defines as follows:

- **Direct Approach Attitude Studies:** refer to “studies of attitudes of human informants in which they are aware of what is being investigated” (p. 228).
- **Indirect Approach Attitude Studies:** refer to “studies of human informants in which they are unaware of what is being investigated” (p. 228).

1.10.2.3. Why Study Language Attitudes?

According to Baker (1992, p. 29), language attitudes can be studied for the following reasons:

1. Attitude to language variation, dialect and speech style
2. Attitude to learning a new language
3. Attitude to a specific minority language
4. Attitude to language groups, communities, minorities
5. Attitude to language lessons
6. Attitude of parents to language learning
7. Attitude to the uses of a specific language
8. Attitude to language preference

In the present study, the focus is on the first reason (i.e., *attitude to language variation, dialect & speech style*). However, any conclusions drawn are likely to have implications for the second, seventh and eighth categories (i.e., *attitude to learning a new language, attitude to the uses of a specific language & attitude to language preference*).

1.10.2.4. Importance of the Study of Language Attitudes in Sociolinguistics¹

Despite the fact that the notion of attitude has often been investigated from the perspective of the social psychology of language, the study of attitude is also of paramount importance in the study of how language and language varieties are being evaluated by individuals in the field of sociolinguistics (McKenzie, 2010; Oyebola, 2020). According to Chien (2018), “[t]he 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 insights regarding the maintenance, spread, revival and attrition of different English varieties” (p. 27). Moreover, Garrett et al. (2003) state that attitudes to language provide a basis for a variety of sociolinguistic and social psychological phenomena. For instance, these may include “the group stereotypes by which we judge other individuals, how we position ourselves within social groups, [and] how we relate to individuals and groups other than our own” (Garrett et al., 2003, p. 12). Additionally, Garrett et al. (1999) argue that the study of language attitudes is important in sociolinguistics, for “[e]xplanations of sociolinguistic phenomena are most likely to reside in social psychological processes, and ‘language attitudes’ are therefore a key dimension for sociolinguistic theory-building” (p. 322).

Equally important, McKenzie (2010) suggests that “language attitudes may determine whether and to what extent languages or dialects spread or die” (p. 37). For example, he argues that positive attitudes towards international languages such as English (and its varieties) may be a determinant factor of their worldwide spread. Furthermore, Fishman and Rubal-Lopez

¹ For space constraints, it was decided to focus on the importance of language attitudes in sociolinguistics only, as it is what concerns us in this study. However, readers interested in the importance of language attitudes in other areas are invited to consult these sources: McKenzie (2010, pp. 26-36) for a discussion on the importance of language attitudes in *second language acquisition* and Chien (2018, pp. 30-32) for implications of language attitudes for *linguistic behaviours, education and the workplace*.

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(1992) argue that “[t]he spread of a language can be examined not only by measuring the extent of its use, but also by studying the attitudes of persons towards that use” (p. 310).

McKenzie (2010) also suggests that despite the fact that past research on language attitudes has focused on “native speaker perceptions of language and language varieties, the perceptions of non-native speakers are also believed to be of importance in sociolinguistics” (p. 37). In the same vein, Friedrich (2000) and McKenzie (2008) maintain that research studies investigating the attitudes of L2 learners towards languages have contributed much to our understanding of sociolinguistic phenomenon, for they have raised our awareness to the fact that learning a language requires dealing with learners’ feelings, stereotypes, expectations and prejudices. Moreover, Friedrich (2000) points out that in order “[t]o understand the use of English in the Expanding Circle and, indeed, all over the world, researchers need to examine learners’ and users’ attitudes towards the language” (p. 222). Friedrich (2000) also suggests that “the whole existence of world Englishes is justified by the multiplicity of reactions towards issues of linguistic identity, power and status” (p. 222).

1.10.3. Approaches of Language Attitudes Measurement

The main approaches that have been employed in language attitudes research can be grouped into three categories: the *societal treatment approach*, the *direct approach* and the *indirect approach* (Ahn, 2014a; Erzsébet, 2014; Hoare, 2004; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Garrett, 2007, 2010; Garrett et al., 2003; McKenzie, 2006; Oyebola, 2020; Ryan et al., 1988; Zhang, 2010). In what ensues, a brief discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of each approach of language attitude measurement is provided in subsections 1.10.3.1, 1.10.3.2, 1.10.3.3, along with the mixed approach in subsection 1.10.3.4.

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1.10.3.1. The Societal Treatment Approach

The *societal treatment approach*, also called *content analysis* (Knops & van Hout, 1988), is one of the least utilised methods in language attitudes research (Garrett, 2007, 2010; Garrett et al., 2003; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020; Zhang, 2010). The societal treatment approach is mainly unobtrusive in nature (Garrett et al, 2003; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Knops & van Hout, 1988; Zhang, 2010), and it refers to language attitude studies that involve participant observation and ethnography (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Garrett, 2010; Garrett et al., 2003; Knops & van Hout, 1988; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Zhang, 2010). As Knops and van Hout (1988) point out, the method is only useful “when restrictions of time and space do not permit direct access to the subjects of research” (p. 7). Knops and van Hout (1988, p. 7) also add that the method can also be used sometimes even when there is direct access to participants, but there is a concern of “the unnaturalness of the situation” or when danger is expected to affect research results validity. Additionally, the societal treatment approach is usually considered informal in nature, and serves as a preliminary for well-founded sociolinguistic and social psychological research studies (Galloway, 2011; Garrett et al., 2003; Ryan et al., 1988). The method, as Garrett (2010) notes, does not lend itself to “the rigour of statistical analysis and generalisation to broader or specific populations” (p. 51).

1.10.3.2. The Direct Approach

Unlike the societal treatment approach, which is unobtrusive in nature, the *direct approach* is characterised by a high degree of obtrusiveness (Ahn, 2014a; Garrett et al., 2003; Garrett, 2010; Knops & van Hout, 1988; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Zhang, 2010) or conspicuousness (Oyebola, 2020). In this regard, Knops and van Hout (1988) state that the main difference between the direct approach and the societal treatment approach is that “it is not the investigator who infers attitudes from observed behaviours, but the subjects themselves who are urged to

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do so” (p. 7). The direct approach relies on the use of questionnaires and interviews (Ahn, 2014a; Galloway, 2011; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Knops & van Hout, 1988; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020; Zhang, 2010), and it is used to measure people’s explicit/overt attitudes (Chien, 2018; Garrett, 2010). The approach is also utilised to investigate people’s beliefs, feelings and knowledge of attitudinal objects (McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020). The direct approach, however, raises a methodological issue, which concerns “whether subjects’ verbal statements concerning their attitudes and their behavioural reactions in concrete situations can indeed both be interpreted as manifestations of the same underlying disposition” (Knops & van Hout, 1988, p. 7).

1.10.3.3. The Indirect Approach

The *indirect approach*, or projective measurement (McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oppenheim, 1992), refers to the act of eliciting people’s attitudes without the participants being aware that their attitudes are being measured (Ahn, 2014a; Chien, 2018; Knops & van Hout, 1988; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020). As Sykes (2010) points out, “indirect techniques of attitude measurement are able to penetrate deeper than those used in a more direct approach” (p. 60). Similarly, McKenzie (2006) states that “[i]ndirect methods of attitude measurement are generally considered to be able to penetrate deeper than direct methods, often below the level of conscious awareness and/or behind the individual’s social façade” (p. 58).

Equally important, Knops and van Hout (1988) suggest that the indirect approach is utilised when the researcher’s aim is “to prevent subjects from giving self-flattering or socially acceptable answers” (p. 8). To put it different, the indirect method taps one’s private/ covert attitudes unlike the direct method, which elicits one’s explicit/overt attitudes (Chien, 2018; Knops & van Hout, 1988). In other words, the use of an indirect approach in attitude measurement implies that participants are being deceived during data collection, which raises

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an ethical concern. To cope with this issue of deception, some researchers (e.g., McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020, Smith et al., 2015) suggest *debriefing* the research participants (i.e., informing them about the study's purpose, procedure & scientific value). In the same vein, Smith et al. (2015, p. 50) suggest that debriefing has a number of goals, which they summarise as follows:

- The participant can raise questions and concerns about the research, and the researcher can address them.
- The researcher can fully explain any necessary deception.
- The researcher and participant can discuss the overall purpose and methods of the study, thereby enhancing the educational value of research participation.
- The researcher can detect and deal with any possible negative effects of the research.

In light of the discussion above, the most frequently used indirect technique in language attitudes measurement is the matched-guise technique (MGT) (Ahn, 2014a; McKenzie, 2004, 2006, 2010; Obiols, 2002; Oyebola, 2020; Zhang, 2010) to the extent that the term *indirect approach* is synonymous with the MGT (Ahn, 2014a; Galloway, 2011; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Garrett et al., 2003; Lambert et al., 1960; Oyebola, 2020). The MGT was introduced by Lambert and his colleagues in Canada in the 1960s. The technique was developed by Lambert (1960) because “overt responses through direct approaches did not match people’s privately held attitudes” and “direct procedures were arguably not a valid way of researching the language attitudes in which he was interested” (Garrett et al., 2003). The MGT refers to “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” (Garrett, 2003, p. 229). Additionally, the MGT “aims to control all extraneous variables other than the manipulated independent variables” and “considerable care is taken on issues of stimulus control, ensuring that prosodic and paralinguistic features of voice such as pitch, speech rate, voice quality and hesitations remain constant” (McKenzie, 2010, p. 46). Further details regarding the MGT as well as its advantages and disadvantages are provided in subsubsection 1.10.3.3.1. The

verbal-guise technique (VGT), one of the MGT's variants, is introduced in subsubsubsection 1.10.3.3.2.

1.10.3.3.1. The Matched-Guise Technique

The MGT has a number of advantages. For instance, McKenzie (2010) suggests that the technique allows statistical analysis of the data collected. He also notes that a form of factor analysis (or principal component analysis (PCA)) can be conducted to reduce the study's variables in order to locate the main dimensions that account for the variance in participants' evaluations. Equally important, the principal dimensions of speech varieties have already been established in previous research (e.g., Zahn & Hopper, 1985), and these include *superiority* (e.g., literate, intelligent), *attractiveness* (e.g., kind, likeable) and *dynamism* (e.g., strong, confident). Furthermore, previous research (e.g., Garrett et al., 2003) has also shown that these dimensions can be further condensed into two evaluative dimensions, which account for most of the attitude variance, namely *status* (or *competence*) and *solidarity* (or *social attractiveness*). The factor analysis can also be followed by a repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA), which is "likely to be conducted in order to test the significance of the differences between the informants' mean ratings for each of the speakers/speech varieties presented for evaluation on the dimensions previously identified" (McKenzie, 2010, p. 47).

Other commonly claimed successes of the MGT are summarised by Garrett et al. (2003, p. 57) as follows:

- It is a rigorous and elegant design for investigating people's private attitudes. It is often claimed that direct questioning of respondents about their attitudes is less likely to elicit such private attitudes, and more likely to lead to the expression of attitudes which respondents consider socially acceptable or even socially desirable...
- It has led to a convincing and detailed demonstration of the role of language code and style choice in impression formation.

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- It has generated a very considerable number of studies internationally, especially in bilingual/bi-ethnic, multilingual/multiethnic contexts, with a reasonable degree of comparability, allowing for cumulative development of theory.
- It has led to the identification of the main dimensions along which evaluations are repeatedly made: prestige, social attractiveness, dynamism. It has therefore begun to explain the sociolinguistic ecology of language variation.
- It has laid the foundations for cross-disciplinary work at the interface of the social psychology of language and sociolinguistics.

The MGT has also a number of problems. In this regard, McKenzie (2010) notes that there have been “a number of criticisms with regard to the way in which the matched-guise technique presents speech varieties for evaluation” (p. 48). Some of these problems are summarised by Garrett et al. (pp. 57-61) as follows:

- *The salience problem*: “The routine of providing judges with the repeated message content of a reading passage presented by a long series of speakers may exaggerate the language contrasts compared to what would otherwise be the case in ordinary discourse, placing excessive emphasis on vocal variations (for example, Lee, 1971). That is, the MGT may systematically make speech/language and speech/language variation much more salient than it otherwise is, outside the experimental environment” (p. 58).
- *The perception problem*: “One cannot be sure in most studies how reliably judges have perceived the manipulated variables” (p. 58).
- *The accent-authenticity problem*: “The ‘advantage’ of minimizing the effects of some of the more idiosyncratic variations in speech (for example, prosodic and paralinguistic features such as rate and voice quality) may mean that some of the other characteristics which normally co-vary with accent varieties (such as intonational characteristics, or even discourse patterning – so-called ‘discourse accent’) are also eliminated. This raises issues of the authenticity of these voices/varieties” (p. 59).
- *The mimicking-authenticity problem*: “In the seminal MGT study by Lambert et al. (1960), audio-recordings in French and English were made by bilingual speakers, and in some subsequent MGT studies where few (for example, two) accents or dialects have been presented, these too have been presented by bidialectal speakers (for example, Giles and Farrar, 1979; Levin et al., 1994). But it seems unlikely that the accuracy of renderings in many studies, particularly where one speaker has produced a large number of different varieties, has been as high... It is possible, of course, for an ‘inaccurate’ rendition nevertheless to be ‘successful’ by some criteria, as Preston himself points out (1996: 65). Judges might not be aware of what is *not* incorporated, and might still perceive inaccurately mimicked voices as ‘authentic’. There is also a possibility, though, that judges may not be aware of selective representation at a conscious level, but might nevertheless judge the rendition to be ‘odd’ or ‘unconvincing’. The mimicking-authenticity problem certainly warrants more investigation” (p. 59).
- *The community-authenticity problem*: “A further point here is that the labels used for the speech varieties in published reports of studies are sometimes too vague to be meaningful. For example, some studies have referred to ‘Welsh English’ or ‘south Welsh English’, but some more specific or localized label would often be more helpful and more in line with judges’ normal labelling conventions” (pp. 59-60).

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- *The style-authenticity* problem: “In studies the stimulus tapes have generally been prepared by asking speakers to read out a reading passage in the different varieties, but on occasions suggest to judges that they will be listening to spontaneous speech” (p. 60).
- *The neutrality* problem: “The notion of a ‘factually neutral’ text is controversial. It is doubtful, given the ways in which readers and listeners interact with and interpret texts on the basis of pre-existing social schemata (see, for example, Widdowson, 1979: 173ff.), that any text can be regarded as ‘factually neutral’. This was clearly illustrated in a study by Giles, N. Coupland, Henwood, Harriman, and J. Coupland (1990), where they found it impossible in a cross-generational study to generate a text that was ‘age neutral’. Judges were found to interpret the same extract of text differently – that is, through quite different perceptual frames – according to the speaker’s perceived age” (p. 60).

1.10.3.3.2. The Verbal-Guise Technique

In response to the criticisms levelled against the MGT discussed above (1.10.3.3.1), a variety of variant forms has been developed (Garrett et al., 2003; McKenzie, 2010; Sykes, 2010). In this respect, McKenzie (2010) states that “[t]hese variants attempt to overcome problems of the MGT, both with the presentation of language varieties and the procedures involved in the collection of evaluations” (p. 50). One of these variants is the verbal-guise technique (VGT)¹, in which “the language varieties are recorded by different speakers” (Garrett, 2010, p. 42). The VGT, as McKenzie (2010) points out, “differs from the MGT in that a number of different speakers provide the stimulus speech recordings and it is often used to overcome issues related to accent-authenticity and mimicking-authenticity..., which are prevalent in MGT studies” (p. 50). That is, “all the samples are authentic rather than being mimicked by a single speaker” (Sykes, 2010, p. 62). For the purposes of this study, the VGT is defined as “a technique of eliciting attitudinal responses from informants by presenting them with a number of speech varieties, each of which is spoken by someone who is a natural speaker of the variety” (Garrett, 2010, p. 229). The VGT will be employed in the present study to measure Moroccan EFL

¹ Also called ‘modified matched guise’ or ‘verbal guise’ (Garrett, 2010, p. 63)

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learners' social evaluations of different speakers of six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) in terms of a number of personality traits.

1.10.3.4. The Mixed Approach

As Galloway and Rose (2015) rightly point out, there are “clearly a number of different approaches available to study language attitudes, and researchers in the field have chosen to use them alone or together” (p. 179). What is more, McKenzie (2010) suggests that a mixed methodological approach can be utilised as “there are inherent problems with both direct methods and indirect methods of investigating language attitudes” (p. 52). McKenzie (2010) also suggests that “[o]ver reliance on any single research method may therefore generate skewed results and bring about misleading conclusions” (p. 52). Furthermore, McKenzie (2010) invites researchers to opt for research designs that include direct and indirect approaches of attitude measurement. As a response to his call, one of the main objectives of this study (i.e., exploring Moroccan EFL learners' implicit & explicit attitudes towards varieties of English speech) will be achieved by employing both approaches of language attitude measurement as the study's participants are asked indirectly (through the verbal-guise task) and directly (through the questionnaire on attitudes towards English varieties & the semi-structured interviews) to reveal their implicit (covert) and explicit (overt) attitudes towards six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE).

1.10.4. Previous Studies Investigating Attitudes towards Varieties of English Speech

A review of past research on language attitudes towards varieties of English speech reveals that language attitudes have been the focus of a number of research studies in countries such as Morocco (Mourchid, 2018), Japan (McKenzie, 2008), Saudi Arabia (Almegren, 2018;

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Alzahrani, 2023), Singapore (Sykes, 2010), Thailand (Jindapitak & Teo, 2012), etc. In what follows, a brief review of each research study is provided.

In Morocco, Mouchid (2018) conducted a study to examine the perceptions of Moroccan EFL learners (BA & MA students) and university professors regarding the incorporation of a World Englishes paradigm in English language teaching. His study utilised a mixed method research design, and was based on two research questions: (1) what perceptions/attitudes do the participants have towards the incorporation of a World Englishes approach in ELT in Moroccan higher education? and (2) how can the integration of such an approach in ELT help Moroccan learners develop a sociolinguistic awareness about English? The findings of his study show that almost all of the study's participants were aware of the existence of different varieties of English other than well-established ones such as American English and British English. For example, when the participants were asked to name some of the varieties of English speech they know, some of them gave examples from Kachru's Outer Circle such as Indian English, Pakistani English, Nigerian English, to name just a few. This clearly demonstrates that English, for these participants, is no longer conceived of as a single variety (monocentric/monolithic view), but it is actually conceived of as a language that is spoken in different varieties (the pluricentric/pluralistic/plurilithic view). As for the integration of a World Englishes paradigm in English language teaching, Mouchid's (2018) study found that almost all the participants held positive attitudes towards the incorporation of a WE-informed pedagogy in Moroccan higher education, as it was believed that such pedagogy may contribute to raising Moroccan EFL learners' awareness of the different varieties of English that exist around the world. Another interesting finding in Mouchid's (2018) study is that when the participants were asked to choose 'standard' varieties from a list that included five Englishes that represent Kachru's (1985) inner (American English, British English & Australian English), Outer (Indian English) and Expanding (Chinese English) circles, 21 participants out of 22 regarded Inner Circle

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Englishes (i.e., American English, British English & Australian English) as ‘standard’ varieties of English speech, which indicates that although the participants know, on theoretical grounds, that there are Englishes other than American English and British English, they have only described Inner Circle Englishes as ‘standard’ varieties.

In Japan, McKenzie (2008) conducted a study to explore Japanese university students’ attitudes towards six varieties of English speech. The varieties of English speech employed in his study were Glasgow Standard English (GSE), Heavily-accented Japanese English (HJE), Southern US English (SUSE), Moderately-accented Japanese English (MJE), Mid-West US English (MWUSE) and Glasgow vernacular (GV). Four of these varieties of English are Inner Circle Englishes (i.e., GSE, SUSE, MWUSE & GV) and the other two are Expanding Circle Englishes (HJE & MJE). Glasgow vernacular speech and Glasgow Standard English are spoken in the UK, “[t]he other two native varieties of English recorded are spoken in the United States: Southern US English (Alabama) and Midwest US English (Ohio)” (p. 71) and Heavily-accented Japanese English and Moderately-accented Japanese English are spoken in Japan. The findings of his study show that “the informants’ ratings of speakers of varieties of English speech tend to be complex and are often contradictory” (p. 79).

In Saudi Arabia, Almegren (2018) conducted a study to explore Saudi EFL learners’ attitudes towards World Englishes. Her study’s aims were (1) “to examine and understand how EFL learners see World Englishes, and varieties of English as a second language in particular, in the Saudi Arabian context”, (2) “to find out how Saudi EFL learners view the apparent domination of one variety of English over others” and (3) “to investigate the reasons why one variety of English is preferred to others” (p. 238). Almegren’s (2018) study utilised both direct and indirect approaches of attitude measurement. The findings of her study indicated that (1) Saudi EFL learners were aware of English language variation, (2) American English and British

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English were viewed by the participants as ‘standard’ varieties of English and (3) despite the fact that the English spoken by NESTs was considered to be superior by the majority of Saudi EFL learners in her study, there was a preference among the participants to be taught English by a Saudi teacher.

In another recent study in Saudi Arabia, Alzahrani (2023) conducted the first study of its kind to explore Saudi students’ attitudes towards Saudi English (SauE), i.e., “the English spoken by Saudi speakers including its distinct accent and grammatical structures” (p. 816). This study is original given the fact no other study has explored Saudis’ attitudes towards their own English variety. Alzahrani (2023) study’s aim was to investigate the extent to which (1) Saudi university students rate a Saudi English female speaker taking part in a conversation with an Indian English speaker in terms of solidarity and power dimensions dimensions (power here is equivalent to the status dimension in the present study), (2) how they perceive Saudi English in terms of preference and acceptability and (3) their general attitudes towards SauE. His study employed both direct (namely, an attitude questionnaire consisting of closed-ended & open-ended questions) and indirect (namely, an interactive verbal guise technique (IVGT)) methods of attitude measurement. 80 Saudi participants were recruited in the study, and they were asked to rate a Saudi English female speaker in terms of solidarity and power on a semantic differential scale consisting of 10 traits. The audio recording used in Alzahrani’s (2023) study was excerpted from an Indian news channel called ‘World is One’ (WION). The interviewed speaker is a middle-aged woman who is a yoga instructor and the founder of Arab Yoga Foundation. The topic of the interview was yoga practices in Saudi Arabia.

As for the first research question, the findings of Alzahrani’s (2023) study showed that the Saudi English female speaker was rated highly in terms of all solidarity and power traits as far as descriptive analysis is concerned. In terms of inferential analysis, however, the study’s results

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showed that the mean differences of all traits were found to be statistically significant (i.e., $p < .05$), except for one trait in the solidarity subscale (*interesting*, $p > .05$, $p = .47$).

As for the second research question, the results of Alzahrani's (2023) study showed that the majority of the participants (78%) in the study reported they like to sound like a native speaker when speaking English. In this regard, Alzahrani argues that this result is not surprising "due to the prevalence of IC varieties in EFL textbooks and the influence of western media (e.g., Hollywood movies) on youth's perception of varieties like American English" (p. 822).

As for the third question, the findings of Alzahrani's (2023) study revealed that (1) majority of the participants (72%) could identify the speaker as Saudi, (2) American and British Englishes are the dominant varieties in language classrooms (81%), (3) American and British Englishes are the most preferred varieties of English by the participants (52% & 35%, respectively), (4) the English of the Saudi English female speaker was found to be "excellent" and "easy to understand", (5) the majority of the participants feel satisfied with their accent and consider it "good" and "acceptable" and (6) the participants seemed to have amivalent beliefs about the ownership and legitimacy of Saudi English.

In Singapore, Sykes (2010) conducted a study to examine (1) what attitudes Singaporeans have towards eleven varieties of English spoken in the Expanding Circle or what he refers to as Expanding Circle Accents of English (ECAE) (namely, German-accented English, Spanish-accented English, Portuguese-accented English, Greek-accented English, Farsi-accented English, Arabic-accented English, Turkish-accented English, Swahili-accented English, Chinese-accented English, Korean-accented English & Thai-accented English), and (2) to investigate what factors determine the participants' attitudes towards these Expanding Circle Accents of English. His study utilised a mixed method research design, and it drew on "direct and indirect approaches in language attitude research, involving a verbal-guise task using

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semantic differential scales to elicit attitudes to speakers on a range of solidarity and status traits, and interviews” (p. i). Sykes’ (2010) study found that the participants held negative attitudes to eight of the eleven Expanding Circle Accents of English and positive attitudes to three Expanding Circle Accents of English.

In Thailand, Jindapitak and Teo (2012) conducted a study to explore “university English learners’ attitudes towards and awareness of varieties of English, in relation to the ideology of English as an international language, which sees English in its pluralistic rather than the monolithic nature” (p. 74). Jindapitak and Teo (2012) selected six varieties of English to evaluate Thai university English learners towards World Englishes. The English varieties selected in their study were American English, British English, Indian English, Filipino English, Japanese English and Thai English. Their study utilised a verbal-guise test, and their findings show that “the learners held more favorable attitudes towards mainstream inner-circle Englishes (American English and British English) than nonnative Englishes” (p. 47).

1.11. NESTs and Non-NESTs

This section provides a detailed discussion of research conducted on native and non-native English-speaking teachers. First, the native speaker/non-native speaker dichotomy is introduced in subsection 1.11.1. Second, an account of native-speakerism is provided in subsection 1.11.2. Third, alternative terms for language teachers’ linguistic identities are provided in subsection 1.11.3. Fourth, a discussion of the native speaker fallacy is provided in subsection 1.11.4. Fifth, the question of ‘who’s worth more?’ is discussed in subsection 1.11.5. Sixth, the strengths and weaknesses of native and non-native English-speaking teachers are detailed in subsection 1.11.6. Seventh, a discussion of what makes a ‘qualified’ teacher is provided in subsection 1.11.7. Eighth, the hiring practices and recruitment discourses in the

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field of ELT are discussed in subsection 1.11.8. Finally, a review of some research studies on native and non-native English-speaking teachers is provided in subsection 1.11.9.

1.11.1. The Native Speaker/Non-Native Speaker Dichotomy

The native speaker/non-native speaker dichotomy is one of the controversial issues in the fields of ELT and applied linguistics (Boonsuk, 2016; Faez, 2011a, 2011b; Holliday, 2005; Medgyes, 1992; Samimy & Kurihara, 2006). In fact, although the terms are often used by researchers, previous research on the subject of the native/nonnative distinction could not provide any satisfactory definition of the terms ‘native’ and ‘nonnative’ (Faez, 2011a, 2011b; Kiczowskiak, 2018). Conveniently, Faez (2011a) points out that “the literature on the subject has not moved beyond discussing the distinction as an overly simplistic and problematic dichotomy” (pp. 378-379). Moreover, she (2011b) clarifies that the native/nonnative dichotomy “falls short in capturing the complex and multifaceted nature of individuals’ diverse linguistic backgrounds and tends to misrepresent them [which] often leads to discrimination and perpetuates social inequality” (p. 232). Faez (2011a, 2011b) also states that because of the difficulty of defining the native/nonnative construct, some scholars have tried to list the characteristics of native speakers (cf. Cook, 1999; Davies, 1991, 2003; Rampton, 1990). For example, Rampton (1990, p. 97) lists the following characteristics of a native speaker:

1. A particular language is inherited, either through genetic endowment or through birth into the social group stereotypically associated with it.
2. Inheriting a language means being able to speak it well.
3. People either are or are not native/mother-tongue speakers.
4. Being a native speaker involves the comprehensive grasp of a language.
5. Just as people are usually citizens of one country, people are native speakers of one mother tongue.

Equally important, Faez (2011b) maintains that the criterion of (non)nativeness “is mistakenly perceived to be a strong determiner of [one’s] ability to perform well in various occupations and functions as a source of privilege for some and as a discriminating factor for

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others” (p. 331). She also adds that “[t]he issue becomes especially significant in the teaching profession where these labels tend to either open doors of opportunity or function as a gatekeeping device for gaining access to the profession” (p. 331). Additionally, Birkeland et al. (2024) argue that nativeness should be treated as “a LANGUAGE-IDEOLOGICAL ASSEMBLAGE, a cluster of related language ideologies, as opposed to a natural category” (p. e157).

1.11.2. Demystifying Native-Speakerism

In fact, although World Englishes research in general and non-native speaker (NNS) research in particular have shown that the global relevance of the native speaker has decreased in the ELT industry, NESTs are still adjudged the ideal English teachers, while non-NESTs are often regarded as inferior users of the language and they are often marginalised and perceived as “unequal in knowledge and performance to NS teachers of English” (Braine, 2005, p. 13). As Hall et al. (2017) note,

[b]ecoming (or at least signing, sounding and writing) indistinguishable from a monolingual native user of the ‘standard variety’ is commonly believed to be the aim of most (if not all) additional language learners... . This assumed aim continues to exert a very strong influence over the hiring practices, pay structure, marketing, materials selection, and inspection and testing regimes of additional language education. (p. 213)

In the past few decades, research on applied linguistics, English language teaching, teacher training and TESOL programs, among many others, has been concerned with the native English teacher as the only ideal teacher, and there was a tendency to ignore the non-native teacher, who was usually marginalised and was looked at as an inferior practitioner in the ELT community (Tajeddin & Adeh, 2016). As Yang and Forbes (2025) point out, “[t]he prevalence of native-speaker ideologies marginalizes NNESTs in professional settings and impedes their agency enactment in claiming identities as competent educators” (p. 1). The distinction between

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the native speaker and the non-native speaker is also relevant outside applied linguistics as the native speaker enjoys prestige by non-linguists (Llurda, 2009).

However, beginning from the 1980s, a number of scholars (e.g., Braine, 1999, 2005, 2010, 2018; Medgyes, 1992, 1994) have started voicing out the discriminatory practices exhibited in the field of ELT among NESTs and non-NESTs. In this regard, Selvi et al. (2023) point out that “the number of publications focusing on the roles and issues related to ELT professionals (both NESTs and NNESTs) has been growing steadily and is expected to continue doing so in the future” (p. 2). Moreover, Galloway (2011) suggests that “the growing awareness of GE [Global Englishes], firstly WE [World Englishes] and more recently ELF [English as a Lingua Franca], has highlighted the increasing irrelevance of the NES model in ELT” (p. 11).

Research on non-NESTs goes back to the 1990s (Braine, 1999; Medgyes, 1992, 1994); however, it has taken “nearly a decade for more research to emerge on the issues relating to NNS English teachers” (Braine, 2005, p. 13). For example, Medgyes (2001) maintains that “the glory once attached to the NEST has faded, and an increasing number of ELT experts assert that the ‘ideal speaker’ is no longer a category reserved for NESTs” (p. 440). In the same vein, Galloway (2011) points out that it is “no longer relevant to associate English purely with native-speaking nations, but with a community of English users who utilise and own the language as global ‘shareholders’” (p. 2). Additionally, research on non-native teachers is now a widely established research area as it has moved beyond “the ghetto of non-native authors”, and work conducted by authors like “Vivian Cook, Marko Modiano, Arthur McNeil, Tracey Derwing, and Murray Munro” is, in fact, “indicative of the growth of interest among NSs in NNS issues, and also demonstrates that research on NNS teachers is increasingly conducted by NNSs and NSs alike” (Llurda, 2005, p. 2). In the same vein, Braine (2005) points out that:

Research on the self-perceptions of non-native speaker (NNS) English teachers, or the way they are perceived by their students, is a fairly recent phenomenon. This may be due to the sensitive nature of these issues because NNS teachers were generally regarded as unequal in knowledge and performance to NS teachers of English, and issues relating to NNS teachers may have also been politically incorrect to be studied and discussed openly. (p. 13)

1.11.3. Alternative Terms for Language Teachers' Linguistic Identities: What's in a Name?

According to Kiczkowiak (2018), the terms 'native speaker' and 'mother tongue' were introduced to linguistics by Bloomfield. In this regard, Bloomfield (1933) believes that "[t]he first language a human being learns to speak is his *native language*; he is a *native speaker* of that language" (p. 43). Since that time, the terms 'native' and 'non-native speaker' "have been and still are widely used in theoretical and applied linguistics, as well as SLA and ELT research and practice" (Kiczkowiak, 2018, p. 15).

Equally important, since the publication of Paikeday's (1985) *the native speaker is dead*, much scholarly research has been conducted on the native/non-native dichotomy (Cook, 1999; Davies, 2003, 2004) as well as the myth of the native speaker fallacy (Gonzalez, 2016). There also have been several attempts to coin neutral/alternative terms to account for native and non-native speakers (Boonsuk, 2016; Kirkpatrick, 2007) such as "a mother-tongue speaker", "a first language speaker" vs. "a second language speaker" vs. "a foreign language speaker" (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 8) and "proficient speakers", "multicompetent speakers", "near-native speakers" or "expert speakers" (Moussu, 2018b, p. 1) (see Table 6 below for other alternative labels to the term 'non-NEST'). However, as Galloway (2011) puts it, the terms *native English speaker* and *non-native English speaker* "have now become the reality and the former continues to be used as a yardstick of competence in the language" (p. 12). Conveniently, and for the purposes of the present study, the terms 'native English speaker' and 'non-native English speaker' will be used as they are still the most frequently utilised terms in the existing literature.

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The use of the two terms, however, should not imply that one type of speakers is better than the other.

Table 6 Alternative Labels to “NNEST”: A Review of the Literature (in chronological order)(source: Selvi et al., 2023, p. 17)

Descriptors	Studies
Second language teaching professionals	Braine (1999)
English teachers speaking other languages	Braine (1999)
International English professionals	Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (1999)
Multicompetent English users	Cook (1999)
Competent language user/teacher	Lee (2005)
Transnational English teachers	Menard-Warwick (2008)
Multilingual English teachers	Kirkpatrick (2008)
Translingual English teachers	Motha et al. (2012)
Plurilingual teachers	Ellis (2016)
Qualified, competent teachers	Rose and Galloway (2019)
Legitimate language teachers	Widodo et al. (2020)
Lx teachers	Dewaele et al. (2021)
International TESOL teachers	Phan and Barnawi (2022)

1.11.4. The Native Speaker Fallacy

In 1992, Phillipson coined the term *native speaker fallacy* to refer to the belief that “the ideal teacher is a native speaker, somebody with native English proficiency in English who can serve as a model for the pupils” (Phillipson, 1992, p. 193). Moreover, Selvi (2010) argues that native speaker fallacy is an important aspect of Holliday’s native-speakerism, which is defined as “a pervasive ideology within ELT, characterized by the belief that ‘native-speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology” (Holliday, 2006, p. 385). Equally important, Kiczkowiak (2020) notes that native-speakerism “permeates numerous aspects of the English Language Teaching (ELT) profession” (p. 1). Likewise, Liu (2018) suggests that native-speakerism is “an established chauvinistic ideology in the realm of English language teaching

(ELT), [which] has been encountering academic and institutional challenges in the past few decades” (p. iii).

1.11.5. Native or Non-Native: Who’s Worth More?

In the past few decades, much debate has taken place over which type of ESL/EFL teachers constitutes the ‘ideal’, ‘best’, or ‘qualified’ English language teacher (Boonsuk, 2016; Medgyes, 1992). This debate has resulted in the emergence of two opposing camps or doctrines. On the one hand, the first camp believes in the superiority of the native speaker given the fact that he/ she is the ideal speaker of English, the master of the language and the owner of it. In other words, native speakers are regarded as “the stakeholders of the language [who] control its maintenance and shape its direction” (Davies, 2003, p. 1). On the other hand, the other camp believes that given the fact that non-native speakers, and by extension, non-native English-speaking teachers now constitute the majority of language practitioners in the ELT community, the ownership of English should shift from the native speaker to whoever speaks the language regardless of the criterion of nativeness (Graddol, 1997; Widdowson, 1994). To these, a third camp can be added. It is a camp that does justice to both English language teachers and believes in the merits and demerits of the two groups. It is thus a camp that celebrates linguistic and cultural diversity in the field of ELT and one that glorifies pedagogy and qualification rather than nativeness. In this study, we belong to the third camp as we believe that both types of English language instructors have pros and cons and could serve as ‘good’ language teachers.

Equally important, Medgyes (1992) argues that language competence is only one of the possible variables that may account for the fact that NESTs are superior to non-NESTs. He believes that other “non-language-specific variables” (such as experience, age, sex, aptitude, charisma, motivation, training, etc.) also “play a decisive role in the teaching/learning process” (p. 346).

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Although Medgyes' question was posed three decades ago, nothing almost has changed in the ELT industry as “the same terms, the same question, and the idea of native speakerism are still widespread in the workplace” (Floris & Renandya, 2020, p. 3). As Floris & Renandya (2020) note, “[t]he debate about who was the ‘best’ kind of teacher of English is still heard; and NNESTs continue to be regarded as less competent from both linguistic and pedagogical perspectives and often subjected to overt or covert discriminations (e.g., a lower pay package, a heavier teaching load)” (p. 3).

1.11.6. Strengths and Weaknesses of NESTs and Non-NESTs

This subsection provides a discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of native English-speaking teachers and non-native English-speaking teachers from the published literature. To this end, subsubsection 1.11.6.1 looks at the strengths and weaknesses of native English-speaking teachers, whereas subsubsection 1.11.6.2 discusses the strengths and weaknesses of non-native English-speaking teachers.

1.11.6.1. Strengths and Weakness of NESTs

This subsubsection provides a detailed account of the strengths and weaknesses of native English-speaking teachers. First, the strengths of native English-speaking teachers are discussed in subsubsubsection 1.11.6.1.1. Second, the weaknesses of native English-speaking teachers are discussed in subsubsubsection 1.11.6.1.2.

1.11.6.1.1. Strengths of NESTs

This subsubsubsection reviews scholarly research on the strengths and qualities of native English-speaking teachers. In this regard, Chomsky (1965) argues that native speakers possess linguistic competence and full mastery of the rules that govern the language. Additionally, it is assumed that NESTs are often seen as better teachers especially in EFL contexts due to their

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deep knowledge of culture. NESTs are also preferred because “they are assumed to be more proficient in English” (Matsuda, 2018, p. 2).

In terms of NESTs’ skills and traits, Moussu (2018a) believes that NESTs have skills that make them successful language teachers. She notes that one of these qualities is the high level of self-confidence they can pass on to their learners. She also goes on to argue that NESTs give a good image of both the language and culture they teach in such a way that they increase attractiveness to that language. Equally important, Moussu (2018a) adds that NESTs are often preferred and hired for economic reasons as language program administrators believe that NESTs “never make mistakes” and are “the perfect representatives of the English language” (p. 03). She also notes that NESTs are believed to be more flexible and modern in their instructional practices.

Having a good accent is also regarded as one of NESTs' most frequently mentioned strengths. Relatedly, Moussu (2018a) notes that NESTs are known for their “linguistic and cultural knowledge” (p. 3) as well as their “intimate knowledge of the English-speaking culture” (p. 3). This is viewed as one of NESTs’ strengths as language teaching and learning should go beyond teaching grammar and structures to teaching communicative and cultural dimensions of the language. Put differently, NESTs are viewed as authentic and reliable sources of the English language.

1.11.6.1.2. Weaknesses of NESTs

NESTs also have a number of weaknesses. One visible area for improvement of non-native English-speaking teachers is their inability to understand the difficulties that EFL learners go through as they have never been English learners. Relatedly, Medgyes (1994) notes that NESTs can be successful only when they have a good command of students’ mother tongue. In this

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respect, Moussu (2018a) argues that knowing students' L1 can be a facilitating and timesaving factor as teachers sometimes have recourse to it to explain difficult concepts.

Though NESTs can bring many linguistic, cultural and pedagogical values to the class, and though they are often preferred and hired for purely economic reasons, Moussu (2018a) argues that since they speak one single variety of English, they often fail to introduce linguistic diversity in their classes. She also asserts that since they never have been English learners, they might fail to understand fully the difficulties that learners go through and struggle with and where further work is needed.

Another commonly identified weakness and shortcoming of NESTs is their apparent lack of grammatical, linguistic and syntactic knowledge and pedagogical readiness to teach the language (Moussu, 2018a). NESTs may sometimes find it difficult to explain complex grammatical and syntactic structures. One plausible reason for this could be their lack of pedagogical readiness to teach the language. Put differently, being a native speaker does not necessarily and automatically mean being an effective language teacher. In this regard, Floris and Renandya (2020) suggest that “[t]he consensus among TESOL scholars now is that a good teacher is a good teacher regardless of their country of origin” (p. 2).

1.11.6.2. Strengths and Weaknesses of Non-NESTs

This subsection provides a detailed account of the strengths and weaknesses of non-native English-speaking teachers. First, the strengths of non-native English-speaking teachers are discussed in subsubsection 1.11.6.2.1. Second, the weaknesses of non-native English-speaking teachers are discussed in subsubsection 1.11.6.2.2.

1.11.6.2.1. Strengths of Non-NESTs

Departing from the assumption that non-NESTs have inherent strengths and weaknesses, this subsubsection looks at some of the strengths of non-native English-speaking teachers. Relatedly, Moussu (2018b) notes that one visible strength of non-NESTs is that they can be “real” models to their EFL learners. Put slightly different, non-native English-speaking teachers give a real model for English learners to follow as they speak the students’ language natively and share the same sociocultural specificities but still manage to learn the target language successfully. Therefore, non-NESTs can be a source of motivation and inspiration for learners. Aligning with this argument, Medgyes (1994) asserts that both native and non-native speakers of English can become successful EFL teachers. Medgyes (1994) lists at least six, among others, qualities and strengths of non-NESTs. He believes that non-NESTs (1) constitute a model for learners to follow, (2) have the ability to teach language strategies, (3) can present their learners with ample information about the language, (4) are fully aware of the needs, aspirations, and challenges that learners go through, (5) can easily identify difficulties learners are struggling with, and (6) can resort to students L1 when needed. He goes on to argue that non-NESTs are better teachers in their own countries since they share learners’ linguistic, cultural and linguistic backgrounds. This shared knowledge makes teaching and learning assumedly easy. Following the same line of reasoning, Matsuda (2019) argues that local and regional teachers can sometimes be more appropriate than native English-speaking teachers as they are aware of the sociocultural specificities of their contexts and learners.

In terms of non-NESTs’ their skills and traits, Moussu (2018b) argues that non-NESTs are generally known for their deep knowledge of grammatical rules and structures. In this regard, Medgyes (1994) points out that “grammar is the non-NESTs’ favourite hunting ground” (p. 40). In other words, grammar is the area where non-NESTs claim to be at home (Medgyes, 1994).

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Equally important, non-NESTs are often viewed as resilient, resourceful, patient, kind dedicated highly enthusiastic and passionate about their job, visibly committed, and multiculturally aware.

Moussu (2018b) further asserts that since non-NESTs do not belong to one single variety of English speech, they are often aware of different varieties and accents of English. This quality allows them (1) to introduce linguistic diversity and (2) bring different pedagogical and linguistic values to their classes. Furthermore, Moussu (2018b) notes that although they might not have native-like competence, non-NESTs are often well-trained and pedagogically prepared to teach. This idea is further supported by the large number of non-NESTs who operate as language teachers worldwide.

1.11.6.2.2. Weaknesses of Non-NESTs

Non-native English-speaking teachers are also said to have a number of weaknesses. For example, lack of near native-like competence of the target language could be one of non-NESTs' weaknesses. As Medgyes (1994) points out, non-NESTs cannot be successful English teachers unless they have good command of English that is near-native proficiency. Furthermore, Moussu (2018b) notes that having deep knowledge of only grammatical rules and structures could be a weakness of non-NESTs. Put slightly differently, viewing the English language strictly as a complex system rather than a social practice that encompasses many socio-cultural dimensions could be viewed as a clear weakness of non-NESTs.

In an article on the shortcomings of NESTs and non-NESTs, Moussu (2018b) argues that non-NESTs have a number of weaknesses. First, their foreign accents are easily identified. Second, they are known for their excessive reliance on grammar and structure at the expense of communication. Third, they are presumed to have lack of teaching experience. Fourth, they

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have insufficient understanding of idioms and nuances of the language. Fifth, they lack self-confidence. Knowledge of grammar and structure is not sufficient because “linguistic and discourse knowledge alone is not adequate for successful communication” and “other necessary components of communicative competence include understanding of the appropriate use of the language” (Matsuda, 2019, p. 2). Therefore, lacking a deep understanding of the target language communication aspects could be a weakness of non-NESTs.

Equally important, Moussu (2018b) also states that when learners are asked about the weaknesses of their non-NESTs, they often refer to their teachers’ foreign accents, lack of the cultural dimensions of the language and lack of self-confidence. Their teachers’ language is often also seen as “bookish” and mistake-ridden language, lacking in vocabulary breadth. On the one hand, non-NESTs are often believed to have a stricter and less tolerant attitude toward mistakes, grading and error correction. On the other hand, NESTs are believed to speak with attractive accents and demonstrate a deep understanding of the cultural dimensions of the language, a high level of self-confidence and a relaxed manner while teaching. Similarly, Braine (2018) argues that non-NESTs are often viewed as “second in knowledge and performance to NS English teachers” (p. 1).

Aligning with this, Mahboob and Dutcher (2014) point out that one of the commonly discussed weaknesses related to non-NESTs is their qualifications and their teaching proficiency. In this regard, the authors argue for the importance of redefining language proficiency and its components. Furthermore, they criticise fixating on the notion of proficiency and call for a familiarity-based framework. In other words, Mahboob and Dutcher (2014) assert that people, including the so-called ‘native speakers’, are aptly aware only of varieties of English speech they are familiar with.

1.11.7. Who Is a ‘Qualified’ Teacher?

In the field of ELT, it is often believed that “native-speaker status is what most qualifies a teacher” (Eslami & Harper, 2018, p. 1). For example, Pasternak & Bailey (2004) state that “[i]n many countries, the blond, blue-eyed backpacker who runs out of money and looks for work may have better luck getting a position teaching English than a local teacher with a master’s degree or an advanced diploma in TESOL” (pp. 155-156). However, as Eslami & Harper (2018) rightly point out, there are other factors that contribute to the formation a proficient English teacher regardless of whether the teacher is a native English-speaking teacher or a non-native English-speaking teacher. These factors include *declarative knowledge* and *procedural knowledge* (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004).

First, *declarative knowledge* refers to the things we know, can articulate and talk about (Nunan, 1999; Pasternak & Bailey, 2004). In the field of language teaching, for instance, declarative knowledge includes (1) knowledge “about the target language (e.g., its rules and their exceptions)”, (2) knowledge “about the target culture (e.g., its norms and taboos)” and (3) knowledge “about teaching (e.g., knowing about content and formal schemata in teaching reading and listening)” (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004, p. 157). That is, declarative knowledge covers all the topics teachers studied and learned and which can be discussed with students, parents, colleagues, administrators, legislators, etc. (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004).

Second, *procedural knowledge* refers to the ability of doing things (Nunan, 1999). Unlike declarative knowledge which implies knowing *about*, procedural knowledge implies knowing *how* (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004). As far ESL and EFL teachers are concerned, procedural knowledge includes the ability to converse in English and knowing how to plan lessons, treat students’ oral errors and conduct pair work (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004).

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Equally important, declarative and procedural knowledge are relevant to ESL/EFL teachers and teacher educators in terms of three areas, namely (1) “knowing about and how to use the target language”, (2) “knowing about and how to teach in culturally appropriate ways” and (3) “knowing about and how to behave appropriately in the target culture” (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004, p. 158). [Table 7](#) below summarises these three key areas of declarative and procedural knowledge in English language teaching.

Table 7 Key Areas of Declarative and Procedural Knowledge in English Language Teaching (adapted from Pasternak & Bailey, 2004, p. 158)

	Examples of declarative knowledge	Examples of procedural knowledge
About the target language	The ability to explain grammar rules and their exceptions	The ability to use grammar rules appropriately in speaking or writing
About teaching	The ability to explain the rationale for using jigsaw activities in communicative language teaching	Skill in setting up communicative jigsaw activities in pair work or group work
About the target culture	The ability to explain norms of kinesics and proxemics used by members of the culture during interaction	Being able to behave appropriately in terms of nonverbal behaviour and physical spacing when interacting with members of the culture

Both native and non-native English-speaking teachers should have good mastery of both declarative and procedural knowledge. First, ESL and EFL teachers should have sufficient knowledge about the target language and how it can be taught to learners. Second, they should be well-informed about language teaching and how to teach in culturally appropriate ways. Finally, they should be knowledgeable about the target culture and how to behave in an appropriate manner. In this regard, Pasternak & Bailey (2004) suggest that although native and non-native English-speaking teachers face challenges with regard to declarative and procedural knowledge, “native-speaking teachers of any language may have a natural advantage in terms of their procedural knowledge about how to use their own variety of the target language and

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how to behave in their segment of the target culture” (p. 158). However, Pasternak & Bailey (2004) add that without sufficient professional development and previous language learning experiences, native English-speaking teachers “may lack both procedural and declarative knowledge about how to teach and declarative knowledge about the language itself” (p. 158). By contrast, although non-native English-speaking teachers are said to lack “the experience base for using the target language confidently and behaving appropriately in the target culture”, they are nevertheless believed “to have much stronger declarative knowledge about the target language given their years of study and formal instruction [as well as] excellent declarative and procedural knowledge about language teaching” (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004, pp. 158-159).

All in all, the implication of the discussion above for the field of ELT is that the declarative/procedural knowledge distinction serves as a framework that can be used to assess the qualities of native and non-native English-speaking teachers. That is, regardless of native-speaker status, which is usually viewed as the most important qualification of an ESL/EFL teacher (Eslami & Harper, 2018), “the greater the procedural and declarative knowledge in any given area of English language teaching is, the confident [and qualified] the teacher will be” (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004, p. 170).

1.11.8. Hiring Practices and Recruitment Discourses in the Field of ELT

Nowadays, hiring practices and recruitment discourses in the field of ELT reveal that non-native English-speaking teachers are being discriminated against (Boonsuk, 2016; Floris & Renandya, 2020). These discriminatory practices in the ELT industry have, as Ruecker & Ives (2014) rightly point out, drawn scholars’ attention “to the role of native speakerism in the field of TESOL” (p. 1). For example, in an Internet search, Crump (2007) found that in most English teaching jobs available in Asia, English language teachers are recruited based on the criterion of ‘nativeness’ and not on qualifications. Similarly, Ruecker and Ives (2014) found that “the

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ideal candidate is overwhelmingly depicted as a young, White, enthusiastic native speaker of English from a stable list of inner-circle countries” (p. 1). Furthermore, Selvi (2010) maintains that “[p]rogram administrators in the ELT profession unfortunately often accept the native speaker fallacy and believe that there is a significant difference between NESTs and NNESTs” (p. 157). Equally important, Kiczkowiak (2020) asserts that “[a]nother widespread discourse that perpetuates native speakerism is the belief that students prefer ‘native speaker’ teachers” (p. 3).

As Table 8 below illustrates, Kiczkowiak’s (2018) study shows that in terms of recruiters’ hiring preferences for native and non-native English-speaking teachers, the majority of recruiters surveyed prefer native English-speaking teachers over non-native English-speaking teachers.

Table 8 Recruiters’ Hiring Preferences for Native and Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (source: Kiczkowiak, 2018, p. 127)

	I prefer to hire NES teachers.		It is important that both NES and NNESTs work in my school.		Mother tongue of the teacher is an important criterion when making hiring decisions.		My school would be more successful if it only had NES teachers.	
	No	[%]	No	[%]	No	[%]	No	[%]
Strongly Agree	2	40	2	40	1	20	2	40
Agree	1	20	1	20	2	40	0	0
Somewhat Agree	1	20	1	20	2	40	0	0
Neither agree nor disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	20
Somewhat Disagree	1	20	1	20	0	0	2	40
Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

1.11.9. Research on NESTs and Non-NESTs

Medgyes was among the first researchers who addressed the teaching behaviour of native and non-native English-speaking teachers in his book *The non-native teacher*. His basic assumption was that NESTs and non-NESTs are “two different species” (Medgyes, 1994, p. 29). This assumption was based on four hypotheses. First, it was hypothesised that NESTs and non-NESTs differ in terms of their language proficiency. Second, it was hypothesised that NESTs and non-NESTs differ in terms of their teaching behaviour. Third, it was hypothesised that the discrepancy in language proficiency accounts for most of the differences found in the teaching behaviour of NESTs and non-NESTs. Finally, it was hypothesised that NESTs and non-NESTs can be equally ‘good’ teachers in their own terms.

To test these four hypotheses, Medgyes (1994) based his research on three surveys that included 325 teachers from eleven countries. [Table 9](#) below summarises the findings of his study regarding the teaching behaviour of native and non-native English-speaking teachers.

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Table 9 Perceived Differences in Teaching Behaviour between NESTs and Non-NESTs (source: Árvai & Medgyes, 2000, p. 358)

NESTs	non-NESTs
<i>Own use of English</i>	
Speak better English	Speak poorer English
Use real language	Use 'bookish' language
Use English more confidently	Use English less confidently
<i>General attitude</i>	
Adopt a more flexible approach	Adopt a more guided approach
Are more innovative	Are more cautious
Are less empathetic	Are more empathetic
Attend to perceived needs	Attend to real needs
Have far-fetched expectations	Have realistic expectations
Are more casual	Are more strict
Are less committed	Are more committed
<i>Attitude to teaching the language</i>	
Are less insightful	Are more insightful
Focus on	Focus on
fluency	accuracy
meaning	form
language in use	grammar rules
oral skills	printed word
colloquial registers	formal registers
Teach items in context	Teach items in isolation
Prefer free activities	Prefer controlled activities
Favour groupwork/pairwork	Favour frontal work
Use a variety of materials	Use a single textbook
Tolerate errors	Correct/punish for errors
Set fewer tests	Set more tests
Use no/less L1	Use more L1
Resort to no/less translation	Resort to more translation
Assign less homework	Assign more homework
<i>Attitude to teaching culture</i>	
Supply more cultural information	Supply less cultural information

In Poland, Kiczowskiak (2018) conducted a study using a mixed methods research design (i.e., focus groups, questionnaires & semi-structured interviews) to explore how students, teachers and recruiters perceive native-speakerism. Kiczowskiak (2018) found that the ideology of native-speakerism still exists in the field of ELT in the Polish context as a number of the study's participants still prefer native English-speaking teachers over non-native English-speaking teachers. Nevertheless, Kiczowskiak (2018) found that (a) the participants are aware of the global spread of English, (b) native speakers are not seen as the only accurate model of the English language and (c) teachers' nativeness is regarded by the study's three cohorts (i.e., students, teachers & recruiters) as the least important quality of an effective English teacher.

Moussu (2002) conducted a study using a mixed methods design to explore what variables could influence ESL students' "acceptance or rejection of their non-native English-speaking teachers", considering "how time and exposure to their NNESTs modified these feelings" (pp.

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5-6). Moussu's hypothesis that "students would respond negatively to their new NNEST on the first day but would change their attitude toward the end of the semester" was rejected as the study's ESL students seemed to have positive attitudes towards their non-NESTs from the semester's beginning and that time and exposure have only made "their opinions grow more positive" (p. 6). Moreover, Moussu (2002) has found that ESL students' opinions towards non-NESTs were significantly influenced by different variables, namely the students' first language, their age and individual differences between the teachers.

In a later study, Moussu (2006) investigated the working conditions of NESTs and non-NESTs at Intensive English Programs (IEP) and the different factors that affect their success and challenges. Her research project was based on a sample of 1040 ESL students, 18 non-native English-speaking teachers, 78 native English-speaking teachers and 21 IEP administrators. The results of Moussu's (2006) study show that (a) ESL students were "more positive towards NESTs than towards NNESTs", (b) "students and teachers' first languages, among others strongly influenced students' responses", (c) "NNESTs were not necessarily seen as grammar experts but could be esteemed Listening/ Speaking teachers", (d) "NNESTs' lack of confidence in their linguistic and teaching skills [and] their belief that NNESTs' language learning experience was an asset for ESL students" and finally (e) IEP administrators' recognition of (1) the strengths and the poor self-confidence of NNESTs and (2) the importance of the non-NESTs' linguistics preparation, international awareness and teaching experience as hiring criteria rather than nativeness (IX-X).

1.12. Chapter Summary

The aim of this chapter was to provide a theoretical foundation for the present study. First, a profile of the language situation in Morocco was provided in section 1.2. Second, an outline of the spread of English in Morocco was discussed in section 1.3. Third, an account of who

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speaks English today was provided in section 1.4. Fourth, a discussion of the ownership of English was provided in section 1.5. Fifth, a discussion of innovations and norms in World Englishes was provided in section 1.6. Sixth, the advantages and disadvantages of the global spread of English were detailed in section 1.7. Seventh, the English today debate was discussed in section 1.8. Eighth, the spread of English around the world and the models and names used in representing and describing its speakers were discussed in section 1.9. Eighth, attitudes and language attitudes studies were discussed in section 1.10. Finally, an account of research on native and non-native English-speaking teachers was provided in section 1.11.

Chapter 2. Methodology

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed description of the research methodology that was adopted in the research design of the present study to elicit data from Moroccan EFL learners regarding their attitudes towards varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE)¹ and native and non-native English-speaking teachers. First, the research objectives and questions of the study are restated in section 2.2 and 2.3, respectively. Second, an outline of the study's research site is introduced in section 2.4. Third, a justification for the mixed methods research design is made in section 2.5. Fourth, a comprehensive account of the pilot study stages is provided in section 2.6. Fifth, the research design of the main research instruments that were employed in the study is provided in section 2.7. Sixth, an account of data analysis procedures is provided in section 2.8. Seventh, research skills and professional training are discussed in section 2.9. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in section 2.10.

2.2. Restating the Objectives of the Study

The purpose of the present study is threefold. First, it aims to explore Moroccan EFL learners' explicit and implicit attitudes towards six English varieties of Kachru's *Inner* (AmE & BrE), *Outer* (InE & FiE) and *Expanding* (JpE & ThE) circles. Second, the study also seeks to investigate Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers. Third, the study aims to discuss the extent to which the findings obtained regarding Moroccan EFL learners' perceptions of World Englishes, NESTs and non-NESTs

¹ **Reminder:** AmE, American English; BrE, British English; InE, Indian English; FiE, Filipino English; JpE, Japanese English; ThE, Thai English

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can form the basis of a Global Englishes-informed pedagogy to be integrated in the teaching of English as a global multicultural language both within and outside Morocco.

2.3. Restating the Study's Research Questions

The present study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the participants' implicit attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?
2. What social variables (if any) appear to be significant in determining Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?
3. Are Moroccan EFL learners able to identify the origins of the speakers of the selected varieties of English?
4. What role do World Englishes play on the participants' attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?
5. What are the participants' explicit attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?
6. What are the attitudes of Moroccan EFL learners towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers?
7. From the perspective of Moroccan EFL learners, what are the strengths and weaknesses of native and non-native English-speaking teachers?
8. What are the pedagogical implications (if any) of the study's findings for the choice of linguistic model(s) employed in EFL classrooms both inside and outside Morocco?

2.4. The Research Site

This research project was conducted in Morocco, one of Kachru's expanding circle countries, where English is mainly used as a foreign language. According to Kachoub (2021), Morocco is "a former colony of France and Spain and a multilingual country par excellence where Tmazight¹, Arabic, French, Spanish, and now English all compete for users and uses" (p. 4). She also adds that Morocco "constitutes an outstanding and intriguing context that deserves examination with the aim of contributing, with novel insights, to the understanding of the functions and uses of English in the Expanding Circle" (p. 4). In the same vein, Amrous

¹ The term *Tmazight* was used by Kachoub (2021) throughout her doctoral thesis as it reflects her dialect of the Oasis of Figuig.

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(2020) states that “Morocco is a multilingual country where a number of languages coexist with their different statuses and functions” (p. 99).

The participants recruited in the study belong to the twelve public universities in the country. They are all Moroccan EFL learners pursuing BA, MA or doctoral studies in different English Studies Departments across the country, with varying levels of exposure to English as a foreign language.

All in all, the multilingual Moroccan context forms a unique setting for examining the attitudes of Moroccan EFL learners towards varieties of English speech as well as native and non-native English-speaking teachers.

2.5. Mixed Methods Research Design

In order to explore Moroccan EFL learners’ attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers, a mixed methods research (MMR) design is adopted in the present study. For the purposes of our study, an MMR design refers to “a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods within a single research project” (Dornyei, 2011, p. 44). In this respect, Creswell (2015) states that “the core argument for a mixed method design is that the combination of both forms of data [i.e., qualitative & quantitative methods] provides a better understanding of a research problem than either quantitative or qualitative data alone” (pp. 21-22).

Equally important, the choice of an MMR approach, according to John Creswell & David Creswell (2018), is justified by the fact that: (1) the mixed method, at a *general level*, is chosen because of “its strength of drawing on both qualitative and quantitative research and minimizing the limitations of both approaches” (p. 297), (2) at a *practical level*, it “provides a sophisticated, complex approach to research that appeals to those on the forefront of new

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research procedures” (pp. 297-298) and (3) at a *procedural level*, it “is a useful strategy to have a more complete understanding of research problems and questions” (p. 298).

All in all, a mixed methods research design is chosen in the present study, as it is believed that the combination of both quantitative and qualitative data will provide a better understanding of Moroccan EFL learners’ attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers.

2.6. Pilot Study¹

This section provides an account of the different stages of the pilot study in this research design. In fact, before decisions were made regarding what to be included in or excluded from the main research instrument (i.e., the verbal-guise task²) of this study, three pilot studies were conducted to ensure its validity and reliability. The verbal-guise task was utilised as an indirect measure to elicit Moroccan EFL learners’ social evaluations of the speakers recorded in terms of a number of personality traits³. It should be noted, however, that the other research instruments (i.e., the questionnaire on Moroccan EFL learners’ explicit attitudes towards varieties of English speech & the other one on their attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs) were not piloted, as the two questionnaires’ items were adopted from previous research studies (Chien, 2018; Kiczowski, 2018; Moussu, 2006) and they are reliable and valid scales. That is, the focus of the pilot study stages was on the implicit (covert) dimension of Moroccan EFL learners’ attitudes towards English varieties, as it is actually the main approach of attitude

¹ For more details about the importance of pilot studies in research, see Cohen et al. (2000, pp. 260-261), Dörnyei and Dewaele (2022, pp. 56-59) and Oppenheim (1992, pp. 47-64).

² The verbal-guise task is “a technique of eliciting attitudinal responses from informants by presenting them with a number of speech varieties, each of which is spoken by someone who is a natural speaker of the variety” (Garrett, 2010, p. 229).

³ A *personality trait* is defined as “a characteristic of an individual that exerts pervasive influence on a broad range of trait-relevant responses. Assumed to be behavioural manifestations of an underlying trait, people’s responses are taken as indications of their standing on the trait in question” (Ajzen, 2005, p. 2).

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measurement in existing literature of language attitudes and the one that is analysed inferentially (using parametric analysis) unlike the participants' explicit attitudes to varieties of English speech and their attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs, which are analysed descriptively based on frequencies and percentages. The interview questions were not piloted as well, as they were adopted from previous research studies (e.g., Oyebola, 2020; Sykes, 2010) and the questions adopted are frequently used ones in attitudinal studies like this one.

Equally important, the rationale behind conducting a pilot study is that 'good' research requires a rehearsal before conducting the main study. Research is full of issues that emerge from time to time and the best way to minimise problems of validity and reliability is by distributing a research instrument beforehand and receiving feedback from experts and potential participants regarding the instrument's validity, reliability, wording, etc. In this respect, Sykes (2010) rightly notes that:

One of the major advantages of a pilot study is that in addition to providing an opportunity to operationalise a research instrument to gather initial findings, it can also provide the researcher with the opportunity to revisit the respondents and to shift their role from research subjects to research analysts. (p. 65)

Similarly, Dörnyei and Dewaele (2022) note that:

Because... in questionnaires so much depends on the actual wording of the items (even minor differences can change the response pattern), an integral part of questionnaire construction is "field testing," that is, *piloting* the questionnaire at various stages of its development on a sample of people who are similar to the target sample the instrument has been designed for. These trial runs allow the researcher to collect feedback about how the instrument works and whether it performs the job it has been designed for. Based on this information, we can make alterations and finetune the final version of the questionnaire. (p. 56)

As for the advantages of the pilot study, Dörnyei and Dewaele (2022, pp. 56-57) state that:

The pilot test can highlight questions:

- which may be misunderstood
- whose wording may be ambiguous

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- which are too difficult for the respondents to reply to
- which may, or should, be eliminated because, contrary to the initial expectations, they do not provide any unique information or because they turn out to measure something irrelevant
- which – in the case of open-ended questions – are problematic for coding into a small set of meaningful categories.

Piloting can also indicate problems or potential pitfalls concerning:

- the administration of the questionnaire
- the scoring and processing of the answers.

Valuable feedback can also be gained about:

- the overall appearance of the questionnaire
- the clarity of the instructions
- items that were judged to be overly simplistic
- the appropriateness of the cover letter (if there is one)
- the length of time necessary to complete the instrument.

In view of what has been said above, further information regarding the different stages of the pilot study, including a brief account of the administration of each instrument, the modifications made after it was administered and the points that were retained is provided in subsections 2.6.1, 2.6.2 and 2.6.3, respectively.

2.6.1. The Initial Pilot Study

This subsection provides more information about the initial pilot study whose goal was to collect recordings of English speakers that are representative of the varieties of English speech to be used in the verbal-guise task. To this end, the administration of the initial pilot study is discussed in 2.6.1.1, the modifications made after the initial pilot study are discussed in 2.6.1.2 and the points to be retained are discussed in 2.6.1.3.

2.6.1.1. The Administration

In this initial pilot study, twelve recordings of different speakers of varieties of English speech were chosen as a first step to have valid recordings that represent the varieties of English in question. The choice of the *Speech Accent Archive* as the main corpus of data gathering is

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justified by the fact that (1) it is a valid source that has been utilised in previous attitudinal research (cf. Chien, 2018) and (2) the archive provides information about speaker demographics (i.e., native language, other languages, place of birth, age, gender, age of onset, English residency & learning style), which allows researchers to control variables (for an overview of the speakers' biographical details, see [Appendix F](#)).

In this initial pilot study, the purpose was not to choose twelve Englishes as this would be too much for raters who would be asked to listen to the recordings and evaluate them in terms of a number of personality traits. The choice of the recordings in this phase of the pilot study was just for the sake of designing a speech evaluation task to look for the most representative recordings of the English varieties in question. To this end, a speech evaluation task was designed by the researcher and was first sent for validation to two experts in the fields of World Englishes and language attitudes via ResearchGate and later to native speakers of each English variety to see the extent to which each recording is representative of the variety in question (see [Appendix A1](#) for the speech evaluation task that was designed for this study's purposes). It should be pointed out, however, that the speech evaluation task was designed using Google Forms and the link was administered online with the help of a Moroccan Fulbright scholar (Prof. Mohamed Bouaissane) who worked at the time of data collection as a teaching assistant of Arabic as a foreign language (TAFL) at Duke University, North Carolina, USA. As he had classes with students from different countries, he helped me reach native speakers of the varieties of English speech in question.

For readers interested in the details of the speakers recorded, the links below provide more information about each speaker, along with a phonetic transcription of the read passage (see [Appendix F](#) as well).

- **Speaker 1: The US**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=115
- **Speaker 2: The UK**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=77
- **Speaker 3: India**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=866
- **Speaker 4: The Philippines**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=1500
- **Speaker 5: Japan**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=222
- **Speaker 6: Thailand**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=448
- **Speaker 7: China**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=1089
- **Speaker 8: Taiwan**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=364
- **Speaker 9: South Korea**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=239
- **Speaker 10: Germany**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=190
- **Speaker 11: Spain**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=959
- **Speaker 12: Sri Lanka**
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=2229

2.6.1.2. Modifications Made

Table 10 and Table 11 below provide more information about the participating countries in the speech evaluation task, along with the feedback received from some of the 36 evaluators who took part in this initial pilot study regarding their beliefs about the most representative varieties of English speech. Table 12 provides information about the length of stimuli selected for the purposes of the present study.

Table 10 Participating Countries in the Speech Evaluation Task (N= 36)

Countries	Frequency	Percent
China	4	11,1
Germany	2	5,6
India	4	11,1
Japan	4	11,1
South Korea	3	8,3
Spain	2	5,6
Sri Lanka	3	8,3
Taiwan	3	8,3
Thailand	2	5,6

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The Philippines	4	11,1
UK	2	5,6
US	3	8,3
Total	36	100,0

Table 11 The Six Most Representative VoES Selected Based on the Feedback Received from the 36 Evaluators Who Participated in the Speech Evaluation Task Designed for the Study's Purposes

The most representative English varieties	Comments of the raters participating in the Speech Evaluation Task
The American Speaker	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She sounds like a typical female in a small Western town. • The pronunciation is just American. • Well, emm. I never thought of that question before, but I thought as a native speaker I can easily identify American English.
The British Speaker	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She sounds like a Southern English speaker with non-Rhoticity. • The tone of speech. • The accent and pronunciation are British.
The Indian Speaker	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes, because her consonants and vowels have Indian influence and it is a distinct known accent. • Indian English is distinguishable. This our pronunciation. • Lol. Indian English is known to everyone. My ear tells me that.
The Filipino Speaker	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is similar to the Filipino accent I am used to hearing when I am with Filipinos. • Just a typical Filipino English speaker. • I felt so when I heard it. It just felt like Filipino English.
The Japanese Speaker	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It sounds like a typical Japanese person.
The Thai Speaker	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I talk with people from Thailand every day, and I know how their English sounds. • That sounds a lot like what I have heard when speaking with Thais in the past. • I knew the accent based on experience with Thai people.

Table 12 The Length of Stimuli

Stimuli	Stimulus Time Length
American English	23 sec.
British English	21sec.
Indian English	22 sec.
Filipino English	24 sec.
Japanese English	30 sec.
Thai English	29 sec.

2.6.1.3. The Points to be Retained from the Initial Pilot Study

The main point to be retained from the first pilot study is the researcher's decision to use only the six recordings that the evaluators described as the most representative ones of the English varieties selected in the speech evaluation task (namely, AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). The choice of these varieties of English speech in this study will be guided by Kachru's (1985) Three Circle model of World Englishes that represents the spread of English around the world in terms of the inner circle, the outer circle and the expanding circle (see 1.9.2.2). To this end, the six varieties chosen for the purposes of the study will be divided into *Inner* (i.e., AmE & BrE), *Outer* (i.e., InE & FiE) and *Expanding* (i.e., JpE & ThE) circle Englishes.

2.6.2. The Second Pilot Study

This subsection provides more information about the second pilot study whose goal was to find a suitable bipolar semantic differential scale to be used in the verbal-guise task. To this end, the administration of the second pilot study is discussed in 2.6.2.1, the modifications made after the second pilot study are discussed in 2.6.2.2 and the points to be retained are discussed in 2.6.2.3.

2.6.2.1. The Administration

In this second pilot study, a bipolar semantic-differential scale (see Table 13), which was adopted from Sykes (2010), was administered to a group of potential participants to investigate their general beliefs about the suitability of the instrument, along with their feedback about any modifications that can be made. To this end, six male Moroccan EFL learners and six female Moroccan EFL learners were invited to take part in the study. Their ages ranged from 20 to 45 years. At the time of data collection for the second pilot study, four participants were pursuing BA studies, four participants were pursuing MA studies and four participants were pursuing

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doctoral studies. The choice of these twelve participants took into account the number of Moroccan public universities (12 in total), and a participant from each university was recruited in this second pilot study.

All in all, the goal of this second pilot study was to adopt a suitable bipolar semantic differential scale to be used in the verbal-guise task to elicit that participants' implicit (covert) attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech selected in the first pilot study discussed in subsection 2.6.1 above as well as to receive feedback from the participants' regarding beliefs about the instrument and the modifications to be made. Furthermore, to guarantee that the subsample chosen for the purposes of the second pilot study will be representative of the sample to be recruited in the main study, every attempt was made to control the main variables that may affect the participants' social evaluations of speakers in terms of the personality traits utilised in the bipolar semantic differential scale, namely gender, age, education and university.

Table 13 The Verbal-Guise Task Adopted in the Second Pilot Study

friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unfriendly
trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	untrustworthy
unsociable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sociable
sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	insincere
unreliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	reliable
discomforting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	comforting
selfish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	selfless
kind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unkind
dishonest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	honest
likeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlikeable
intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unintelligent
uneducated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	educated
unsuccessful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	successful
wealthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	poor
powerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	powerless

2.6.2.2. Modifications Made

Based of the feedback received from the twelve potential participants who took part in the second pilot study, it was decided to not adopt the bipolar semantic differential scale used in Sykes' (2010) study. In this regard, almost all the potential participants found the verbal-guise

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task time-consuming and very difficult to complete. For example, one of them suggested reducing the number of traits in the instrument (P2), whereas another one suggested adopting another well-validated instrument with less traits (P5). Furthermore, even on the researcher's part, it was felt that the preliminary statistical analysis of the data was time-consuming and it was assumed that this would only make the main study to be conducted later much harder in terms of data coding, data entry and data analysis.

2.6.2.3. The Points to be Retained from the Second Pilot Study

The main point to be retained from the second pilot study relates to the selection of a bipolar semantic differential scale that will not consume much of the participants' time and will not be very difficult for the researcher himself as far as coding, data entry and analysis are concerned. That is, the instrument chosen should not cause fatigue on the participants' part or make the participants unable to complete the task due to the length of the instrument used and the number of speakers recorded.

2.6.3. The Final Pilot Study

This subsection provides more information about the final pilot study whose goal was to construct a suitable bipolar semantic differential scale to be used in the verbal-guise task based on the feedback received from the potential participants who participated in the second pilot study discussed in subsection 2.6.2. To this end, the administration of the final pilot study is discussed in 2.6.3.1, the modifications made after the final pilot study are discussed in 2.6.3.2 and the points to be retained are discussed in 2.6.3.3.

2.6.3.1. The Administration

In this final pilot study, a bipolar semantic-differential scale (see [Table 14](#)), which was adopted from McKenzie (2006), was administered to another group of potential participants to

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investigate their general beliefs about the suitability of the instrument, along with their feedback about any modifications that can be made. To this end, six male Moroccan EFL learners and six female Moroccan EFL learners were invited to take part in the study. Their ages ranged from 22 to 39 years. At the time of data collection for the final pilot study, four participants were pursuing BA studies, four participants were pursuing MA studies and four participants were pursuing doctoral studies. Again, the choice of these twelve participants took into account the number of Moroccan public universities (12 in total), and a participant from each university was recruited in this final pilot study.

The goal of this final pilot study was to adopt a suitable bipolar semantic differential scale based on the feedback received from the twelve potential participants who took part in the second pilot study discussed in subsection 2.6.2 above. That is, the adopted bipolar semantic differential scale will be used in the verbal-guise task to elicit that participants' implicit (covert) attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech selected in the first pilot study discussed in subsection 2.6.1 above as well as to receive feedback from the participants' regarding their beliefs about the instrument and the modifications to be made. Furthermore, to guarantee that the subsample chosen for the purposes of the final pilot study will be representative of the sample to be recruited in the main study, every attempt was made to control the main variables that may affect the participants' social evaluations of the six recorded speakers in terms of the personality traits utilised in the bipolar semantic differential scale, namely gender, age, education and university.

Table 14 The Verbal-Guise Task Adopted in the Final Pilot Study

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not pleasant
confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not confident
unclear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	clear
modest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not modest
not funny	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	funny
intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not intelligent
not gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	gentle
not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fluent

2.6.3.2. Modifications Made

As the quotes below show, the feedback received from the participants regarding the verbal-guise task was very informative for two main reasons. First, the order of the audios was reconsidered based on a comment received from participant 1. That is, instead of introducing varieties of English speech in terms of inner, outer and expanding Englishes, which may affect raters' attitudes, it was decided to introduce the English varieties randomly without taken into account whether they are inner or non-inner circle Englishes. Second, based on the feedback received from other participants, it was decided to modify some of the personality traits that were used in McKenzie's (2006) study, and which targeted a Japanese audience. As some of these personality traits do not target a Moroccan audience, the researcher decided to remove the two traits 'modest' and 'funny'. The trait 'intelligent', however, was not changed because it was believed that it would be useful in measuring speaker status.

- 'The order of audios should be reconsidered.' (P1)
- 'I don't know what was meant by modest...is it their language like not cursing or..? I hope you elaborate more on it. Other than that, thank you and good luck.' (P2)
- 'I'm not sure what is meant by the word modest here.' (P5)
- 'How can I know whether they are intelligent or not on the basis of the way they speak? I answered that question only because I had no other choice. I think intelligence has nothing to do with the way people speak.' (P6)
- 'I could not determine how intelligent and funny they are based on their accent.' (8)
- 'The items "modest", "intelligent" and "funny" should be reconsidered.' (9)
- 'I do not think that options of intelligent, funny or modest are relevant here.' (10)

2.6.3.3. The Points to be Retained from the Final Pilot Study

Based on the feedback received from the potential participants who took part in the final pilot study, the two main points to be retained from this final stage of the pilot study can be discussed in terms of the order of the English varieties and the traits to be used in the bipolar semantic differential scale. First, the order of the varieties of English speech will be introduced

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in the main study randomly instead of being represented in terms of *inner*, *outer* and *expanding* circle Englishes. Second, the traits that are not properly relevant to the Moroccan context (i.e., *modest*, *intelligent* & *funny*) will not be adopted in the main research instrument (i.e., the verbal-guise task), and will be replaced by more relevant ones from previous research studies.

2.7. The Design of the Main Research Instruments

This section provides an analysis along with a discussion of the results of the main research instruments that were adopted in the the research design of the present study whose aim is to elicit Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers. To this end, subsection 2.7.1 discusses the indirect measure (i.e., the verbal-guise task) that was applied in the study to explore Moroccan EFL learners' implicit (covert) attitudes towards six English varieties, whereas subsection 2.7.2 discusses the direct measure (i.e., the two online questionnaires & semi-structured interviews) that was applied so as to elicit the participants' explicit (overt) attitudes towards (1) the same varieties of English speech and (2) native and non-native English-speaking teachers.

2.7.1. Part I: Indirect Measure (the Verbal-Guise Task)

This subsection provides further details regarding the indirect measure (i.e., the verbal-guise task) that was applied in the present study to explore Moroccan EFL learners' implicit (covert) attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) selected in the speech evaluation task discussed in subsection above 2.6.1. First, the sections of the verbal-guise task are outlined in subsubsection 2.7.1.1. Second, the convenient sample recruited in the verbal-guise task is introduced in subsubsection 2.7.1.2. Third, the selection of background information is discussed in subsubsection 2.7.1.3. Fourth, the selection of varieties of English speech is discussed in subsubsection 2.7.1.4. Fifth, the extraneous variables

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controlled for the speech samples are discussed in subsubsection 2.7.1.5. Sixth, the selection and justification of the personality traits for the bipolar semantic-differential scale are discussed in subsubsection 2.7.1.6. Finally, the selection and justification of the read passage as speech stimulus are provided in subsubsection 2.7.1.7.

2.7.1.1. Sections of the Verbal-Guise Task

This subsubsection provides further details regarding the different sections of the verbal-guise task that was utilised to elicit Moroccan EFL learners' implicit attitudes towards varieties of English speech. To this end, the next subsubsubsections provide further details about the different parts of the research instrument, namely (a) the participants' personal details (2.7.1.1.1), (b) the bipolar differential-semantic scale constructed for the verbal-guise task (2.7.1.1.2) and (c) the dialect identification item (2.7.1.1.3).

2.7.1.1.1. Section A of the Verbal-Guise Task

The first section of the verbal-guise task gathers information with regard to the participants' personal details (see Table 15), including their *gender, age, education, university, self-perceived proficiency in English, English language learning period* and *living-abroad experience*. The collection of these personal details¹ is important as they will be used later in analysing the main and interaction effects of Moroccan EFL learners' social variables and speaker evaluations (see Chapter 3, section 3.3 & section 3.4).

Table 15 The Participants' Personal Details

The participants' personal details
Gender: Male/Female
Age: _____
Education: BA Student/MA Student/Doctoral Student
University: _____

¹ Note that the independent variable of university was not taken into account in the analysis of the main and interaction effects of Moroccan EFL learners' social variables and speaker evaluations as it was believed that participants' social evaluations of the recorded speakers cannot be explained by this independent variable.

How do you perceive your own English level? Beginner/Intermediate/Higher
Intermediate/ Advanced

How long have you been learning English? Less than 5 years/5-10 years/More than 10
years

Have you ever lived in or visited English-speaking countries? Yes/No

2.7.1.1.2. Section B of the Verbal-Guise Task

In this section of the verbal-guise task, the participants were asked to listen to six speakers who read the same paragraph in English, and judge each speaker using a seven-point bipolar semantic-differential scale that consists of opposite adjectives in terms of a number of personality traits, where a value of one corresponds to the least favourable evaluation and a value of seven corresponds to the most favourable rating¹ (see [Table 16](#) below).

Listen to the recordings and circle where you would put each speaker on the following scale. Example, 1= intelligent, 7= not intelligent.

Table 16 The Bipolar Semantic-Differential Scale Constructed for the Verbal-Guise Task

intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not intelligent
confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not confident
not pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	pleasant
clear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not clear
not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fluent
gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not gentle
not friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	friendly

2.7.1.1.3. Section C of the Verbal-Guise Task

In light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018; Jindapitak & Teo, 2012; McKenzie, 2006, 2010), and as a response to calls to include a dialect identification² item in questionnaires (e.g., Preston, 1993; McKenzie, 2004), Section C of the verbal-guise task included a dialect identification/recognition item (see [Figure 20](#) below), and the study's participants were asked

¹ Reference here is made to reverse coding and not the actual representation of values in the scale

² Dialect identification/recognition refers to the extent to which the study's participants are able to identify the recorded speakers' countries of origin.

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to identify the origin of the speaker of each variety and justify the basis on which their judgement was based.

Listen to the recordings again and answer the following questions:		
Please listen to the recording again and try to identify which country the speaker comes from. Please circle only one choice per recording.		
1. China	2. Germany	3. India
4. Japan	5. South Korea	6. Spain
7. Sri Lanka	8. Taiwan	9. Thailand
10. The Philippines	11. UK	12. US
How did you make this decision?		
<hr/>		
<hr/>		

Figure 20 Section C of the Verbal-Guise Task (the Dialect Identification/Recognition Item)

2.7.1.2. The Convenient Sample Recruited in the Verbal-Guise Task

This subsection provides further details about the participants who took part in the verbal-guise task. The use of convenience sampling (a type of non-probability sampling) in the present study is justified by the fact that when access to the entire population is impossible, the available sample is chosen (Tavakoli, 2012). As Table 17 below illustrates, participants were recruited from the twelve Moroccan public universities to allow for the generalisability of the data collected. Table 18 provides further information about the personal details of the convenient sample recruited in the study.

Table 17 Participating Universities in the Study (the Verbal-Guise Task)

University	Location	Management	Number of Participants
Cadi Ayyad University	Marrakech	Public	27
Chouaib Doukkali University	El Jadida	Public	1
Hassan I University	Casablanca	Public	8

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Hassan II University	Settat	Public	1
Ibn Tofail University	Kenitra	Public	29
Ibn Zohr University	Agadir	Public	7
Mohamed I University	Oujda	Public	3
Mohammed V University	Rabat	Public	1
Moulay Ismail University	Meknes	Public	5
Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University	Fes	Public	5
Moulay Slimane University	Beni Mellal	Public	11
Abdelmalek Essaâdi University	Tetouan	Public	2

Table 18 MEFLs' personal details (the Verbal-Guise Task) (N=100)

Personal Details	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	54	54.0
Female	46	46.0
Age		
18-30 Years	64	64.0
31-44 Years	28	28.0
45-58 Years	8	8.0
Education		
BA Student	40	40.0
MA Student	23	23.0
Doctoral Student	37	37.0
University		
Cadi Ayyad University	27	27.0
Chouaib Doukkali University	1	1.0
Hassan I University	8	8.0
Hassan II University	1	1.0
Ibn Tofail University	29	29.0
Ibn Zohr University	7	7.0
Mohamed I University	3	3.0
Mohammed V University	1	1.0
Moulay Ismail University	5	5.0
Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University	5	5.0
Moulay Slimane University	11	11.0
Abdelmalek Essaâdi University	2	2.0
Self-Perceived Proficiency in English		
Beginner	4	4.0
Intermediate	25	25.0
Higher Intermediate	30	30.0
Advanced	41	41.0
Years of Learning English		
Less than 5 years	26	26.0
5-10 years	27	27.0
More than 10 years	47	47.0

Living-Abroad Experience

Yes	17	17.0
No	83	83.0
Total	100	100,0

2.7.1.3. The Selection of Background Variables

When it comes to exploring people's attitudes, Zhang (2010) believes that there are "certain social variables that are usually explored as determinants of attitude, such as age, gender and language background" (p. 123). However, Baker (1992) suggests that as no model or list of factors has been provided, variables in language attitudes research have to be combined into "an overall model that seeks to predict attitude favourability or unfavourability" (p. 41). To this end, the variables of *gender*, *age*, *education*, *university*, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, *English language learning period* and *living-abroad experience* were chosen in the present study as background variables, and, as was mentioned in subsubsection 2.7.1.1.1 above, the selection of such background information is crucial as it will be used later in analysing the main and interaction effects of the participants' social variables and speaker evaluations (See Chapter 3, section 3.3. & section 3.4).

2.7.1.4. The Selection of the of Varieties of English Speech

As Table 19 below illustrates, six varieties of English speech were chosen in the verbal-guise task to elicit Moroccan EFL learners' social evaluations of the speakers recorded. These English varieties can be classified into the 'so-called' *native* (AmE & BrE) and *non-native* (InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) varieties of English speech. This classification into native and non-native varieties of English speech can be further divided, following Kachru (1985, 1992), into *inner* (AmE & BrE), *outer* (InE & FiE) and *expanding* (JpE & ThE) circle Englishes.

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Table 19 Speakers and Speaker Varieties Chosen for the Study

Speaker	Speech variety	Description	Coded reference
Speaker1	American English	Inner Circle English	AmE
Speaker2	British English	Inner Circle English	BrE
Speaker3	Indian English	Outer Circle English	InE
Speaker4	Filipino English	Outer Circle English	FiE
Speaker5	Japanese English	Expanding Circle English	JpE
Speaker6	Thai English	Expanding Circle English	ThE

2.7.1.5. The Extraneous Variables Controlled for in the Speech Samples

There are a number of extraneous variables that were controlled in the selection of the speech samples utilised in the verbal-guise task to elicit the participants' social evaluations of the speakers recorded in terms of a number of personality traits. First, the content of the speech samples was controlled, and the Speech Accent Archive was used to download different recordings of speakers reading the same paragraph in English (see subsubsection [2.7.1.7](#) below). The paragraph contains no information about the speakers' origins or personal details, the content requires no background knowledge about a specific area and the language used depicts everyday uses of English. Second, the age of the speakers recorded was also controlled, for it was decided to select speakers whose ages ranged from 21 to 40. Third, the gender of speakers recorded was also controlled as it was decided to employ female recordings only in the study. Finally, the length of English residence in the United States or the United Kingdom was also controlled. That is, in terms of speakers of outer (InE & FiE) and expanding (JpE & ThE) circle Englishes, it was decided to select only speakers whose residence in the US or UK does not go beyond two years, as it was believed that the longer the period of stay in an inner circle country, the less the speaker's English will be representative of outer and expanding circle Englishes (see [Appendix F](#) for more information about the biographical details of the recorded speakers).

2.7.1.6. The Selection of the Personality Traits for the Bipolar Semantic-Differential Scale

In light of past language attitudes research (e.g., Alzahrani, 2023; Bernaisch & Koch, 2016; Bouzidi, 1989; Chiba et al., 1995; Chien, 2018; Hakami, 2020; Jindapitak & Teo, 2012; McKenzie, 2006, 2008, 2010; Oyebola, 2020; Sykes, 2010; Zhang, 2010), a number of personality traits were chosen in the present study to elicit the participants' social evaluations of the recorded speakers (see the seven-point bipolar semantic-differential scale in subsubsection 2.7.1.1.2 above). The use of well-established and validated personality traits from previous language attitude research in the verbal-guise task employed in the present study is believed to accurately reveal Moroccan EFL learners' real social evaluations of the six speakers recorded. For the purposes of this study, a *personality trait* is defined as “a characteristic of an individual that exerts pervasive influence on a broad range of trait-relevant responses”, which when assumed “to be behavioural manifestations of an underlying trait, people's responses are taken as indications of their standing on the trait in question” (Ajzen, 2005, p. 2). Moreover, it is assumed, following Weinberger and Kunath (2011), that when people listen to speech made by others, they “perform some sort of comparison between their own internalized native phonology and the perceived phonology from a non-native speaker [which forms] the basis for the judgments a listener makes about the speaker” (p. 273).

2.7.1.7. The Selection and Justification of the Read Speech Passage as Speech Stimulus

For the purposes of the present study, a read passage was chosen as the stimulus (see [Figure 21](#) below). In this regard, six recordings were downloaded from the Speech Accent Archive

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(<https://accent.gmu.edu/>).¹ All the speakers recorded in the archive read the same paragraph that consists of 69 words.

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.

Figure 21 The Read Passage Used as Stimulus

The use of a read passage rather than spontaneous/authentic speech in the present study can be justified, following Chien (2018), as follows:

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, ; Epispoco, 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... (p. 88)

¹ "The speech accent archive uniformly presents a large set of speech samples from a variety of language backgrounds. Native and non-native speakers of English read the same paragraph and are carefully transcribed. The archive is used by people who wish to compare and analyze the accents of different English speakers" (Weinberger, 2015).

2.7.2. Part II: Direct Measure (Online Questionnaires & Semi-Structured Interviews)

This subsection provides a discussion of the direct measure that was applied in the present study to elicit the participants' explicit (overt) attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers. To this end, subsubsection 2.7.2.1 provides further information with regard to the online questionnaire that was used to elicit Moroccan EFL learners' explicit attitudes towards the same English varieties (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) used as speech stimulus in the verbal-guise task discussed in subsection 2.7.1 above. Subsubsection 2.7.2.2 provides further information about the online questionnaire that was used to elicit Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers. Subsubsection 2.7.2.3 provides further details about the semi-structured interviews that were conducted with a sub-sample of the participants who took part in both online questionnaires, so as to collect more textual (qualitative) data about their attitudes towards the two issues studied (i.e., World Englishes & native & non-native English-speaking teachers), which will be used to support quantitative data from the verbal-guise task and the two online questionnaires.

2.7.2.1. Questionnaire (MEFLs' Explicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English Speech)

To investigate Moroccan EFL learners' explicit attitudes towards different varieties of English speech, an online questionnaire was administered using Google Forms. The data has been collected anonymously, and one consent item was included in the questionnaire to guarantee the participants' willingness to take part in the study. The choice of the questionnaire as an instrument of data collection is justified by the fact that “[s]urveys and questionnaires are

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useful ways of gathering information about affective dimensions of teaching and learning, such as beliefs, attitudes, motivation, and preferences” (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 10).

The Multiple-Choice questions and the Likert scale task utilised in the online questionnaire are adopted, with slight modifications, from Chien (2018) whose study investigated attitudes towards varieties of English by native and non-native speakers in Taiwan and the UK. Chien (2018) himself used a Likert scale task whose questions are mainly drawn “from previous language attitudes research by Chiba et al. (1995), Kim (2007), Episcopo (2009), Liou (2010), [and] Rousseau (2012)” (p. 92). The choice of similar scales or questions in the present study is justified by the fact that (1) it ensures the validity of the research instrument (especially when the scale is not piloted) and (2) it makes it easy for the researcher to compare his or her findings with those of previous research studies. As for the aims of Multiple-Choice questions and the Likert scale task, Chien (2018) believes that the “objective of the multiple-choice questions is to take a direct approach in examining explicitly whether ... respondents [MEFLs, in our case] prefer a specific variety of English” (p. 94), whereas “the Likert scale questions aim to elicit the participants’ overt perceptions towards variations of English, including forms of native and non-native speech” (p. 91).

A total of 544 participants took part in the present study. The sample of the participants surveyed consists of Moroccan EFL learners studying in different public Moroccan universities, and it includes 256 male students (47.1%) and 288 female students (52.9%). The data was collected from the participants from the 20th of January to the 20th of July, 2023. Table 20 and Table 21 below provide more information about the participating institutions in the study and the participants’ personal details.

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Table 20 Participating Universities in the Study (Explicit Attitudes towards VoES)

University	Location	Management	Number of Participants
Cadi Ayyad University	Marrakech	Public	96
Chouaib Doukkali University	El Jadida	Public	64
Hassan I University	Casablanca	Public	88
Hassan II University	Settat	Public	96
Ibn Tofail University	Kenitra	Public	24
Ibn Zohr University	Agadir	Public	40
Mohamed I University	Oujda	Public	8
Mohammed V University	Rabat	Public	56
Moulay Ismail University	Meknes	Public	16
Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University	Fes	Public	8
Moulay Slimane University	Beni Mellal	Public	16
Abdelmalek Essaâdi University	Tetouan	Public	32

Table 21 MEFLs' Personal Details (the Questionnaire on Explicit Attitudes) (N=544)

Personal Details	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	256	47,1
Female	288	52,9
Age		
19-26 Years	200	36,8
27-35 Years	264	48,5
36-46 Years	80	14,7
Education		
BA Student	216	39,7
MA Student	168	30,9
Doctoral Student	160	29,4
University		
Cadi Ayyad University	96	17,6
Chouaib Doukkali University	64	11,8
Hassan I University	88	16,2
Hassan II University	96	17,6
Ibn Tofail University	24	4,4
Ibn Zohr University	40	7,4
Mohamed I University	8	1,5
Mohammed V University	56	10,3
Moulay Ismail University	16	2,9
Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University	8	1,5
Moulay Slimane University	16	2,9
Abdelmalek Essaâdi University	32	5,9
Self-Perceived Proficiency in English		
Beginner	16	2,9
Intermediate	32	5,9
Higher Intermediate	200	36,8
Advanced	296	54,4

Years of learning English		
Less than 5 years	56	10,3
5-10 years	232	42,6
More than 10 years	256	47,1
Living-Abroad Experience		
Yes	56	10,3
No	488	89,7
Total	544	100,0

2.7.2.2. Questionnaire (MEFLs' Attitudes towards Native & Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers)

In order to explore Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers, a mixed methods research (MMR) design is adopted in online questionnaire. The choice of the MMR approach is justified by the fact that (1) the approach, "is rooted in the pragmatist worldview" and is "best suited to investigate a multifaceted problem such as native speakerism ... from different perspectives" (Kiczowski, 2018, p. 74) and (2) a mixed method design "provides a better understanding of a research problem than either quantitative or qualitative data alone" (Creswell, 2015, p. 22).

The online questionnaire was administered using Google Forms. The data was collected anonymously, and one consent item was included in the questionnaire to guarantee the participants' willingness to take part in the study. Again, the choice of the questionnaire as an instrument of data collection is justified by the fact that "[s]urveys and questionnaires are useful ways of gathering information about affective dimensions of teaching and learning, such as beliefs, attitudes, motivation, and preferences" (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 10). The online questionnaire was designed based on previous research (e.g., Kiczowski, 2018; Moussu, 2006), so as to ensure validity and some items were modified to suit the Moroccan context.

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A total of 76 participants took part in the present study. The sample consists of 76 Moroccan EFL learners studying in different public Moroccan universities. The sample includes 33 males (43.4%) and 43 females (56.6%). The data was collected from the participants from the 20th of June to the 20th of July, 2023. Table 22 and Table 23 provide more information about the participants' personal details.

Table 22 Participating Universities in the Study (Attitudes towards NESTs & non-NESTs)

University	Location	Management	Number of Participants
Cadi Ayyad University	Marrakech	Public	14
Chouaib Doukkali University	El Jadida	Public	2
Hassan II University	Casablanca	Public	4
Hassan I University	Settat	Public	4
Ibn Tofail University	Kenitra	Public	31
Ibn Zohr University	Agadir	Public	1
Mohamed I University	Oujda	Public	1
Mohammed V University	Rabat	Public	3
Moulay Ismail University	Meknes	Public	5
Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University	Fes	Public	2
Moulay Slimane University	Beni Mellal	Public	7
Abdelmalek Essaâdi University	Tetouan	Public	2

Table 23 MEFLs' Background Information (the Questionnaire on NESTs & non-NESTs) (N= 76)

Background Information	Frequency	Percentage
Total	76	100
Gender		
Male	33	43,4
Female	43	56,6
Age		
18-22	22	28,9
23-28	51	67,1
29+	3	3,9
University		
Cadi Ayyad University	14	18,4
Chouaib Doukkali University	2	2,6
Hassan II University	4	5,3
Hassan I University	4	5,3
Ibn Tofail University	31	40,8
Ibn Zohr University	1	1,3
Mohamed I University	1	1,3
Mohammed V University	3	3,9

Moulay Ismail University	5	6,6
Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University	2	2,6
Moulay Slimane University	7	9,2
Abdelmalek Essaâdi University	2	2,6
Education		
BA student	29	38,2
MA student	36	47,4
Doctoral Student	11	14,5

2.7.2.3. Semi-Structured Interview

To collect further textual data, which will be used to complement quantitative data collected from the verbal-guise task and the two online questionnaires, semi-structured interviews were conducted with ten participants who volunteered to take part in the interviews. For ease of comparing the study's findings and those of past research, interview questions were adopted from previous research studies with similar research aims and objectives (e.g., Oyebola, 2020; Sykes, 2010). In this regard, [Table 24](#) below provides more information about the interviewees' background information¹, whereas Table 25 provides further details about member checking outcomes².

Table 24 Interviewees' Background Information

Interviewees	Gender	Age	Education	University	SPPIE	YoLE	LAE	HBTabNES
Interviewee 1	Male	33	Doctoral Student	Ibn Tofail University	Advanced	More than 10 years	Yes	Yes
Interviewee 2	Female	43	Doctoral Student	Ibn Tofail University	Advanced	More than 10 years	No	NO
Interviewee 3	Female	27	Doctoral Student	Ibn Tofail University	Advanced	More than 10 years	No	Yes
Interviewee 4	Male	23	MA Student	Cadi Ayyad University	Advanced	5-10 Years	No	No

¹- The terms *interviewee* and *participant* will be used interchangeably in the present study.

² For further details about member checking outcomes, see Birt et al. (2016) and Motulsky (2021).

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Interviewee 5	Male	22	MA Student	Ibn Zohr University	Advanced	5-10 Years	No	No
Interviewee 6	Female	20	BA Student	Hassan II University	Intermediate	5-10 Years	No	No
Interviewee 7	Female	24	MA Student	Hassan I University	Advanced	5-10 Years	No	Yes
Interviewee 8	Male	30	Doctoral Student	Mohamed I University	Advanced	More than 10 years	YES	YES
Interviewee 9	Male	29	Doctoral Student	Moulay Ismail University	Advanced	More than 10 years	Yes	Yes
Interviewee 10	Male	26	MA Student	Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University	Advanced	5-10 Years	No	No

* **SPPiE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **YoLE**, Years of Learning English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience; **HBTabNES**, Having Been Taught by a Native English Speaker

In light of previous research (e.g., Bouaissane, 2024), after the qualitative data was collected from the semi-structured interviews conducted with 10 interviewees (who were participants in the verbal-guise task, as well as the two online questionnaires on attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers), the emergent themes and interpretations were sent back to the interviewees. They were asked to verify whether the themes and interpretations accurately reflected their experiences.

Following Bouaissane (2024), the interviewees were emailed and asked to describe the extent to which (1) the themes and interpretations derived matched their experiences, and (2) whether they would like to modify, add or delete anything. Moreover, they were given two weeks to provide the researcher with their feedback. All the interviewees provided the researcher with positive feedback, showing their satisfaction with the way the data was transcribed, as well as the themes and interpretations that were developed. They also stated that the results accurately reflected their thoughts and intentions, and resonated well with their experiences.

Table 25 Member Checking Outcomes

Responses from the interviewees		
Interviewees	Verbatim transcribed interview	Emergent themes and interpretations
Interviewee 1	“That’s exactly what have said”	“Yes, the themes are accurate”
Interviewee 2	“Those are indeed my words”	“Your interpretation reflects what I have said during the interview”
Interviewee 3	“You have transcribed exactly what I said”	“Yes, the themes can be reported as they are”
Interviewee 4	“Yes, what is transcribed reflects what I have said”	“The exact themes. Do not change them”
Interviewee 5	“No modifications needed”	“No change needed”
Interviewee 6	“My exact words”	“No further changes are needed”
Interviewee 7	“The same message is kept in the transcription”	“Yes, I think the themes describe what I said”
Interviewee 8	“Yes the same ideas have been transcribed”	“Yes, keep them as they are”
Interviewee 9	“Exact wording”	“I do not think that anything needs to be changed”
Interviewee 10	“Same ideas transcribed”	“Do not change the themes as they reflect what I said”

2.8. Data Analysis Procedures

This section provides further details with regard to the data analysis software and procedures adopted in the present study to analyse and uncover the participants’ attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers. To this end, qualitative data analysis procedures are introduced in subsection 2.8.1., whereas quantitative data analysis procedures are discussed in subsection 2.8.2.

2.8.1. Qualitative Data Analysis Procedures

Qualitative (textual) data obtained from the study’s participants who took part in the verbal-guise task, the semi-structured interviews and the two online questionnaires were analysed

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qualitatively/ thematically using NVivo software and content analysis procedures¹. The data from the semi-structured interviews were first transcribed and the themes that emerged from the coding procedures were identified and categorised. The themes were later used in the analysis of the participants' attitudes towards World Englishes and native and non-native English-speaking teachers. As for open-ended questions, qualitative data were analysed thematically, taking into account a number of themes that were decided upon before data collection.

2.8.2. Quantitative Data Analysis Procedures

This subsection provides further details with regard to the analysis of the quantitative data collected from the study's participants. This type of data has been analysed using SPSS software (versions 20 & 26), and Excel has been used for visualisation purpose (i.e., to create better figures and tables). To this end, an account of the analysis of the Likert scale items and multiple-choice questions is provided in subsubsection 2.8.2.1, followed by an overview of the statistical techniques employed in the data analysis of the verbal-guise task (i.e., an indirect measure used to investigate MEFLs' implicit attitudes towards varieties of English speech) in subsubsection 2.8.2.2.

2.8.2.1. Analysis of Likert Scale Items and Multiple-Choice Questions

For the purposes of the present study, Likert scale items will be analysed at an ordinal level, and they will be analysed in terms of percentages and frequencies. Figures will be utilised in this study to present data in the form of percentages, whereas tables will be used to present data in form of both percentages and frequencies. Furthermore, multiple-choice questions will

¹ Readers interested in more details regarding qualitative data analysis and thematic analysis are kindly asked to consult these sources: Braun and Clarke (2006, 2022), Caudle (2004), Creswell (2015), Creswell and Creswell (2018) and Qaissi (2024).

be measured at a nominal level, and will be analysed in terms of percentages using figures and in terms of percentages and frequencies using tables.

2.8.2.2. Overview of the Statistical Techniques Employed in the Data Analysis of the Verbal-Guise Task

This subsection provides further details regarding the statistical techniques employed in the data analysis of the verbal-guise task. First, a justification of the suitability of the data collected for parametric analysis is made in subsubsection 2.8.2.2.1. Second, a discussion of analysis of variance (ANOVA) is provided in subsubsection 2.8.2.2.2. Third, a discussion of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is provided in subsubsection 2.8.2.2.3. Finally, an account of principal component analysis (PCA) is provided in subsubsection 2.8.2.2.4.

2.8.2.2.1. The Suitability of the Data for Parametric Analysis

In order to conduct parametric tests of significance, including *analysis of variance* (ANOVA) and *multivariate analysis of variance* (MANOVA), a number of assumptions should be met (Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2010). As Field (2009) points out, “[m]ost parametric tests based on the normal distribution have four basic assumptions that must be met for the test to be accurate” (p. 132). In other words, the assumptions of parametric tests are *normally distributed data*, *homogeneity of variance*, *interval data* and *independence*. Equally important, Pallant (2010) notes that the dependent variable should be measured at an interval or ratio level. As for normal distribution¹, Pallant (2010) suggests that most of parametric techniques “are reasonably ‘robust’ or tolerant of violations of this assumption”, given the fact that “[w]ith large enough

¹ In other words, the assumption that “the populations from which the samples are taken are normally distributed” (Pallant, 2010, p. 206).

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sample sizes (e.g. 30+), the violation of this assumption should not cause any major problems” (p. 206).

This being said, the dependent variables utilised in the bipolar semantic differential scale constructed for the verbal-guise task are continuous variables that are of an interval type (i.e., “the intervals between all points on the scale are the same” (McKenzie, 2010, p. 97). That is, the scale used in the present study is suitable for ANOVA and MANOVA analysis. Additionally, given Pallant’s (2010) suggestion with regard to tolerance of violations of the assumption of normal distribution, it is assumed that a relatively large sample of 100 Moroccan EFL learners will be representative of the wider population of Moroccan EFL learners, and will thus serve parametric analysis purposes.

To summarise, three statistical techniques (i.e., ANOVA, MANOVA & PCA) will be employed in the present study to account for the participants’ evaluations of the speakers in the verbal-guise task. The utilisation of these particular statistical techniques of parametric significance “allows for better comparison between any findings obtained in the present study and the results obtained from previous studies of a similar nature” (McKenzie, 2010, p. 97).

2.8.2.2.2. Analysis of Variance

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is “used to compare two or more means in order to estimate the significance of the differences between them” (McKenzie, 2010, p. 98). As Pallant (2010) points out, *analysis of variance* “is so called because it compares the variance (variability in scores) *between* the different groups (believed to be due to the independent variable) with the variability *within* each of the groups (believed to be due to chance)” (p. 249). In light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2010; Oyebola, 2020), two types of ANOVA are employed in the present study: one-way repeated measures analysis of variance and between-

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groups analysis of variance. On the one hand, Chien (2018) notes that a one-way repeated measures ANOVA (within-subjects ANOVA) test “is suitable for use when comparisons between more than two repeated measures of the same research participants are needed” (p. 99). That is, “the ANOVA test will indicate whether the evaluators’ ratings towards the speech of the English varieties are significantly different from each other” (Chien, 2018, p. 99). On the other hand, Field (2009) states that a between-groups analysis of variance (an independent factorial design) is applied when “there are several independent variables or predictors and each has been measured using different participants” (p. 422).

In light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018), the test of the within-subject effects of the ANOVA will be used in the present study to examine whether there is any statistically significant difference between the evaluations of different varieties of English speech, whereas a three-way between-groups ANOVA will be conducted to examine whether there are potential significant interaction effects of the participants’ social variables on speaker evaluations.

2.8.2.2.3. Multivariate Analysis of Variance¹

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is an extension of ANOVA used to compare group differences across multiple dependent variables simultaneously (Field, 2009; McKenzie, 2010; Oyebola, 2020; Pallant, 2010). Unlike ANOVA, which analyses one outcome variable, MANOVA evaluates whether the independent variable(s) have a significant effect on a combination of dependent variables (Field, 2009). The use of MANOVA rather than a series of ANOVAs for each dependent variable is recommended by scholars such as Pallant (2010) and Tabachnik and Fidell (2013). In this respect, Tabachnik and Fidell (2013) state that by measuring several dependent variables instead of only one, “the researcher improves the chance

¹ As McKenzie (2010) notes, there are two types of MANOVA: “between (or unrelated) samples MANOVA and paired samples (or repeated measures) MANOVA” (p. 100).

of discovering what it is that changes as a result of different treatments and their interactions” (p. 245). The authors also point out that the use of MANOVA instead of a series of ANOVAs protects against “inflated Type I error due to multiple tests of (likely) correlated DVs” (p. 246).

2.8.2.2.4. Principal Component Analysis¹

According to Tabachnik and Fidell (2013), *Principal Component Analysis* (PCA) is a statistical technique that is applied to “a single set of variables when the researcher is interested in discovering which variables in the set form coherent subsets that are relatively independent of one another” (p. 612). In other words, PCA is used when our goal is “to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller number of factors, to concisely describe (and perhaps understand) the relationships among observed variables, or to test theory about underlying processes” (p. 615). In the present study, for example, PCA will be utilised so as to investigate the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners’ social evaluations of the six speakers of varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) confirms or disconfirms the existence of the two well-established dimensions of status (competence) and solidarity (social attractiveness) in previous language attitudes research (e.g., Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2006, 2008, 2010; Zhang, 2010). In light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2010; Zhang, 2010), the Varimax method² (an orthogonal rotation technique) will be employed in this study.

¹ Note that “although PCA technically yields components, many authors use the term ‘factor’ to refer to the output of both PCA and FA [Factor Analysis]. So don’t assume, if you see the term ‘factor’ when you are reading journal articles, that the author has used FA. Factor analysis is used as a general term to refer to the entire family of techniques” (Pallant, 2010, p. 182). Additionally, remember that PCA is used as “a data exploration technique, so the interpretation and the use you put it to is up to your judgment rather than any hard and fast statistical rules” (Pallant, 2010, p. 192). For further details about FA, see Comrey and Lee’s (1992) *A First Course in Factor Analysis*.

² According to Pallant (2010), “[w]ithin the two broad categories of rotational approaches there are a number of different techniques provided by SPSS (orthogonal: Varimax, Quartimax, Equamax; oblique: Direct Oblimin, Promax). The most commonly used orthogonal approach is the Varimax method, which attempts to minimise the number of variables that have high loadings on each factor. The most commonly used oblique technique is Direct Oblimin” (p. 185). For a comparison of the characteristics of each of these approaches, see Tabachnick and Fidell (2013, pp. 625-637).

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2.9. Research Skills and Professional Training

This section provides further details about some of the activities, webinars and trainings I attended to enhance and promote ethical and responsible conduct of research. The activities I attended discussed research-related topics such as ethics of research, statistical analysis, academic language, citation styles, article publication, thesis defense, etc (see [Appendix R](#) for titles of some of the activities I attended from 2020 to 2025).

Beginning from 2020, I joined a number of YouTube channels that are concerned with research methodology, academic language and statistics. These include *Grad Coach* ([link](#)), *cecile badenhorst* ([link](#)), *James Hayton PhD* ([link](#)), *Andy Stapleton* ([link](#)), *Mohamed Benhima* ([link](#)) and *Tara Brabazon* ([link](#)), to mention but a few. Beginning from 2024, I joined Professor Amrous' YouTube channel (*Your Academic Companion-- Dr. Amrous* ([link](#))) and Facebook page (*Your Academic Companion- Dr. Amrous* ([link](#))). Professor Amrous' YouTube channel and Facebook page in particular and the other YouTube channels in general have helped me write the present thesis, and a lot of the issues covered in the sessions I attended were integrated in my study.

Equally important, I attended the First Online Doctoral Seminar Series delivered by national and international experts in the field (May-July, 2020) organised by Language, Culture and Society Doctoral Program (Faculty of Letters & Human Sciences, Mohammed V University, Rabat). These sessions covered the doctoral journey beginning from how to write a research proposal and a literature review to how to prepare for the defense. In 2021, I attended two webinars that were organised by Literature, Arts and Pedagogical Engineering Research Laboratory (Faculty of Languages, Letters & Arts, Ibn Tofail University, Kenitra).

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Furthermore, I took a number of courses to develop my research skills in general and my knowledge of World Englishes and Global Englishes language teaching in particular, especially with regard to education and teacher training. One of these courses is called *Changing Englishes: An Online Course for Teachers*¹ (see *Appendices J1, J2, J3 & J4* for course description & materials, including the self-assessment tool, the orientations to English questionnaire & the certificates received upon completion of the course in 2021 & 2024). The course has increased my understanding of the changing reality of English and how to get our learners exposed to it. I have also used the *Orientation to English* questionnaire with the permission of Prof. Wicaksono in one of my articles (co-authored with Prof. Cigdem Fidan & Prof. Mohamed Bouaissane) to investigate attitudes toward World Englishes and World Englishes-informed pedagogies among prospective ELT teachers in Türkiye (see Fidan et al., 2024).

2.10. Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a detailed account about the research methodology adopted in the present study. First, the research objectives and questions were restated in section 2.2. and section 2.3, respectively. Second, information regarding the research context was provided in section 2.4. Third, a justification for the mixed methods research design was made in section 2.5. Fourth, a discussion of the pilot study stages, including details about the administration of each pilot study, the modifications made and the points that were retained was provided in section 2.6. Fifth, further details regarding the design of the main research instruments (i.e., the verbal-guise task, the two online questionnaires & the semi-structured

¹ “This course is for teachers of English as an additional language, whether in training or with different amounts of experience, who are open to new ways of thinking about their profession and are interested in English as it is used around the world, as a lingua franca or for interacting in predominantly non-native speaker contexts” (Hall & Wicaksono, 2024, para 3).

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interview) were provided in section 2.7. Sixth, an account of data analysis procedures was provided in section 2.8. Finally, research skills and professional training were discussed in section 2.9.

Chapter 3. Results & Discussion: Moroccan EFL Learners' Implicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English Speech

3.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed analysis along with a discussion of the results of the indirect measure (i.e., the verbal-guise task) that was adopted in the present study to elicit the participants' implicit (covert) attitudes towards six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). First, the results of the verbal-guise task are presented in section 3.2. Second, an outline of the main effects of Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on speaker evaluations is provided in section 3.3. Third, an outline of the interaction effects of Moroccan EFL learners' social variables and speaker evaluations is presented in section 3.4. Fourth, a discussion of MEFLs' identification and misidentification patterns is provided in section 3.5. Fifth, an account of the extent to which the findings relate to research questions one, two and three is provided in section 3.6. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in section 3.7.

As a reminder to the reader, the present chapter seeks to answer the following research questions:

- **Research Question One:** What are the participants' implicit attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?
- **Research Question Two:** What social variables (if any) appear to be significant in determining Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?
- **Research Question Three:** Are Moroccan EFL learners able to identify the origins of the speakers of the selected varieties of English?

As a reminder to the reader, these research questions will be answered using three statistical techniques: *Analysis of variance*, *multivariate analysis of variance* and *principal component analysis* (see subsection 2.8.2.2 above for an overview of the statistical techniques employed in the data analysis of the verbal-guise task). For the purposes of the present study, a verbal-guise task (test or technique) is defined as “a technique of eliciting attitudinal responses from

informants by presenting them with a number of speech varieties, each of which is spoken by someone who is a natural speaker of the variety” (Garrett, 2010, p. 229).

3.2. The Results of the Verbal-Guise Task

This section provides an analysis and a discussion of the results of the verbal-guise task that was employed in the present study to elicit Moroccan EFL learners’ implicit (covert) attitudes towards six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). First, preliminary data is introduced in subsection 3.2.1. Second, an account of the overall mean evaluations of the six speakers on all seven traits (i.e., intelligence, confidence, pleasantness, clarity, fluency, gentleness & friendliness) of the bipolar semantic-differential scale is presented in subsection 3.2.2. Third, the reduction of the data collected using the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) technique is provided in subsection 3.2.3. Finally, an analysis of Moroccan EFL learners’ evaluations of the six English varieties according to the two dimensions of speaker status (competence) and speaker solidarity (social attractiveness) extracted from the PCA is presented in subsection 3.2.4.

3.2.1. Speaker Evaluation: Preliminary Data

In light of previous research (e.g., McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020), the first stage of the analysis of the data collected from the study’s participants in the verbal-guise task was to calculate descriptive statistics for all the evaluations of each speaker for each of the seven traits (i.e., *intelligence, confidence, pleasantness, clarity, fluency, gentleness & friendliness*). There were six dependent variables: the participants’ mean ratings of the AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE and ThE speakers on all seven traits. This data is summarised in [Table 26](#) below:

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Table 26 The Mean Evaluations (and Standard Deviations) for Speaker: Individual Traits (N=100)

Trait	Speaker					
	AmE	BrE	InE	FiE	JpE	ThE
Confidence	5,98 (1,550)	6,34 (1,265)	5,34 (1,485)	5,68 (1,362)	3,16 (1,722)	4,60 (1,954)
Friendliness	5,93 (1,816)	6,27 (1,517)	5,09 (1,753)	5,63 (1,482)	3,24 (1,837)	3,00 (1,886)
Intelligence	5,84 (1,625)	6,19 (1,346)	5,01 (1,720)	5,58 (1,597)	3,61 (1,880)	4,76 (2,031)
Clarity	5,32 (1,669)	5,74 (1,574)	5,64 (1,330)	5,46 (1,500)	5,08 (1,625)	3,12 (1,805)
Fluency	5,17 (1,646)	5,68 (1,537)	5,09 (1,512)	5,17 (1,443)	4,10 (1,592)	4,15 (1,591)
Pleasantness	5,13 (2,102)	5,90 (1,867)	5,36 (1,738)	5,68 (1,510)	3,95 (1,553)	3,26 (1,709)
Gentleness	4,86 (1,928)	5,80 (1,583)	5,33 (1,551)	5,20 (1,602)	4,77 (1,644)	4,26 (1,867)

Table 26 above provides a descriptive presentation of the participants' overall ratings of the six speakers (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) on the seven traits (i.e., *intelligence*, *confidence*, *pleasantness*, *clarity*, *fluency*, *gentleness* & *friendliness*). In each category, following Oyebola (2020), the highest rating is shown in bold print. In general, British English was the most preferred variety of English speech. That is, it was rated highest on all seven traits, a finding that is in line with Oyebola (2020). Furthermore, American English was preferred on a number of traits, namely confidence ($M=5,98$), friendliness ($M=5,93$) and intelligence ($M=5,84$). Indian English was preferred on clarity ($M=5,64$) and gentleness ($M=5,33$). Filipino English was preferred on fluency ($M=5,17$), a ranking that it shares with American English and pleasantness ($M=5,68$). Finally, the two Expanding Circle Englishes (i.e., Japanese English & Thai English) were the least preferred English varieties in terms of all seven traits. All in all, and in line with previous research (e.g., Oyebola, 2020), the results of Table 26 above show that Moroccan EFL learners rate Inner Circle English Englishes (i.e., AmE & BrE) more positively than Non-Inner Circle Englishes (NICE) (i.e., InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). In terms of

NICE, however, the results show that the participants rate Outer Circle Englishes (i.e., InE, FiE) more positively than Expanding Circle Englishes (i.e., JpE & ThE).

Equally important, and in line with previous research (e.g., McKenzie, 2006), the results of [Table 26](#) above show that Moroccan EFL learners were able “to discern differences between the six speakers and indeed, based solely upon the speech samples presented for evaluation, were willing to make judgements regarding each of the speaker’s personal characteristics and abilities” (McKenzie, 2006, p. 132). This also shows that study’s participants were able “to differentiate between speech varieties within a single language of which they are not native speakers (i.e., English) and have stereotypical attitudes towards them” (McKenzie, 2006, p. 132).

3.2.2. Speaker Evaluations: All Traits

[Table 27](#) below provides an overview of Moroccan EFL learners’ evaluations of the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) used as speech stimulus in the present study, taking all the seven traits (i.e., *intelligence*, *confidence*, *pleasantness*, *clarity*, *fluency*, *gentleness* & *friendliness*) into account. The most positive evaluation is 7 and the least positive evaluation is 1. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for each speaker are presented in [Table 27](#) and a scree plot of mean evaluation rankings for each speaker in terms of all traits is provided in [Appendix G1](#).

Table 27 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker: All Traits (N=100)

Variety of English	Mean	Std. Deviation
British English	5,9886	,89518
Filipino English	5,4857	1,12559
American English	5,4614	1,04325
Indian English	5,2657	1,10059
Japanese English	3,9871	1,09120
Thai English	3,8786	,58264

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Parallel to the results found in other research studies (e.g., Oyebola, 2020), British English received the highest rating from the participants ($M=5,9886$). Unexpectedly, Filipino English was ranked the second most preferred variety of English ($M=5,4857$), followed by American English ($M=5,4614$) and Indian English ($M=5,2657$). This finding may be explained by qualitative data, which reveals that the participants found the Filipino English accent as clear and comprehensible. For example, P37¹ states that ‘the Filipino English accent is the most comprehensible in Asia’. In general, the study’s participants seem to hold more positive attitudes towards inner circle (i.e., AmE & BrE) and outer circle (i.e., InE & FiE) Englishes than expanding circle (i.e., JpE & ThE) Englishes.

It should be noted, following Jindapitak and Teo (2012, p. 89), that even though the three other ‘non-native’ speakers (except for the InE speaker) were judged less favourably than the two native speakers (i.e., BrE & AmE speakers) and the ‘non-native’ speaker of Filipino English, Indian English was still considered positive since the mean values of the evaluation of this speaker exceeded the neutral evaluation of 4.0 (i.e., $M=5,2657$). Japanese English and Thai English speakers were perceived ‘negatively’ by the participants with the mean values of 3,9871 and 3,8786, respectively. In Jindapitak and Teo’s (2012) study, a different ranking of the same six English varieties was found. In this regard, Thai tertiary English majors rated both speakers from the Inner Circle (i.e., AmE & BrE speakers) higher than the other four ‘non-native’ speakers (i.e., JpE, ThE, InE & FiE speakers). Jindapitak and Teo (2012) also found that although the participants rated ‘non-native’ speakers less favourably than ‘native’ speakers, ‘non-native’ speakers (except for the InE speaker) were still regarded positive since “the mean values of the evaluation of these speakers exceeded the neutral evaluation of 4.0 (4.20 for the ThE speaker, 4.19 for the JpE speaker, and 4.18 for the FiE speaker)” (p. 89). The authors also

¹ P stands for participant

found that the InE speaker was “the only speaker who was clearly perceived negatively by the informants with the mean value of 3.69” (p. 89).

Next, to examine whether significant differences existed in Moroccan EFL learners’ evaluations of the six speakers, and in light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020), a one-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted in order to compare the overall mean evaluations of the six speakers on all seven traits (i.e., *intelligence, confidence, pleasantness, clarity, fluency, gentleness & friendliness*). The significance value of Mauchly’s Test is 0, and so Greenhouse-Geisser¹ was assumed. The results of the ANOVA test show that there are significant differences in the participants’ ratings of the six speakers in terms of all traits: $F(4, 421) = 49,601, p < 0.05$; partial eta square = 0.508, which suggests a large effect size². Analysis of variance summaries is presented in [Table 28](#) below.

Table 28 Tests of Within-Subjects Effects (Greenhouse-Geisser; All Traits)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Status	377,944	4,255	88,833	102,405	,000	,508
Traits						
Residual	365,379	421,199	,867			
Error						

¹ Mauchly’s test is used in a repeated measures analysis to check the sphericity assumption of whether the variance of the differences between pairs of evaluations is homogeneous (Kerr et al. 2002; Pallant, 2010; Tavakoli, 2012). Following Chien (2018), “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” (p. 100). For readers interested in doing statistics with SPSS and how to apply Greenhouse-Geisser correction when the assumption of sphericity is violated, they are kindly asked to consult Kerr et al. (2002, p. 121).

² As Chien (2018) points out, “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’” (p. 100). In this regard, Cohen (1977, pp. 285-287) suggests “guidelines for interpreting the values of eta squared where: 0.01= a small effect size; 0.06= a moderate effect size; and 0.14= a large effect size” (McKenzie, 2006, p. 126). For further details with regard to the interpretation of such values of eta squared, see Cohen (1977, 1988).

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In order to examine the individual differences between the participants' evaluations of the six speakers (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE), a pairwise comparison analysis (with Bonferroni correction¹) was conducted for the repeated measures factor. In this regard, the post hoc test in Table 29 revealed that a number of differences between the six speakers reached statistical significance (even allowing for the Bonferroni adjusted alpha level) (marked with *). The post hoc test also shows that British English is the most highly evaluated and distinct from the other five English varieties (i.e., AmE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE).

Table 29 Post Hoc Test: Pairwise Comparisons for Speaker (All Traits)

(I) All Traits	(J) All Traits	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
AmE	BrE	-,527*	,102	,000	-,833	-,221
	InE	,196	,118	1,000	-,158	,549
	FiE	-,024	,120	1,000	-,384	,336
	JpE	1,474*	,133	,000	1,075	1,874
	ThE	1,583*	,124	,000	1,208	1,957
BrE	AmE	,527*	,102	,000	,221	,833
	InE	,723*	,109	,000	,394	1,052
	FiE	,503*	,115	,000	,157	,849
	JpE	2,001*	,132	,000	1,604	2,399
	ThE	2,110*	,107	,000	1,788	2,432
InE	AmE	-,196	,118	1,000	-,549	,158
	BrE	-,723*	,109	,000	-1,052	-,394
	FiE	-,220	,100	,447	-,520	,080
	JpE	1,279*	,119	,000	,920	1,637
	ThE	1,387*	,133	,000	,988	1,787
FiE	AmE	,024	,120	1,000	-,336	,384
	BrE	-,503*	,115	,000	-,849	-,157
	InE	,220	,100	,447	-,080	,520
	JpE	1,499*	,117	,000	1,148	1,850

¹ The Bonferroni adjustment (correction for a significance p value) is applied in the present study to control for the increased risk of a Type I error (Kerr et al., 2002; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020; Pallant, 2010; Tavakoli, 2012). That is, instead of conducting a series of ANOVAs separately for each dependent variable and running the risk of an 'inflated Type I error' (i.e., "finding a significant result when there isn't really one" (Pallant, 2010, p. 295)/ "when the researcher chooses to reject the null hypothesis although, it is, in fact, true" (McKenzie, 2010, p. 103), one can use Bonferroni adjustment and divide their normal alpha value (typically .05) by the number of tests that they intend to perform (Pallant, 2010). For example, if there are three dependent variables to investigate, one would divide .05 by 3, giving a new alpha level of .017, and will thus consider their "results significant only if the probability value (Sig.) is less than .017" (Pallant, 2010, p. 295).

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	ThE	1,607*	,145	,000	1,172	2,042
JpE	AmE	-1,474*	,133	,000	-1,874	-1,075
	BrE	-2,001*	,132	,000	-2,399	-1,604
	InE	-1,279*	,119	,000	-1,637	-,920
	FiE	-1,499*	,117	,000	-1,850	-1,148
	ThE	,109	,139	1,000	-,311	,528
ThE	AmE	-1,583*	,124	,000	-1,957	-1,208
	BrE	-2,110*	,107	,000	-2,432	-1,788
	InE	-1,387*	,133	,000	-1,787	-,988
	FiE	-1,607*	,145	,000	-2,042	-1,172
	JpE	-,109	,139	1,000	-,528	,311

Based on estimated marginal means

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

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

*. **AmE**, American English; **BrE**, British English; **InE**, Indian English; **FiE**, Filipino English; **JpE**, Japanese English; **ThE**, Thai English

The ranking of the six speakers (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) for all the traits (i.e., *intelligence, confidence, pleasantness, clarity, fluency, gentleness & friendliness*) is summarised below (in descending order of evaluation). In light of previous research (e.g., McKenzie, 2006, 2010), the presence of a line between the speakers indicates that there is a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the participants' evaluations:

British English
 Filipino English
 American English
Indian English
 Japanese English
 Thai English

The results above show that when the participants' evaluations of all seven traits (i.e., *intelligence, confidence, pleasantness, clarity, fluency, gentleness & friendliness*) are averaged together for each of the six speakers (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE), British English is ranked the first and the most distinct English variety from all the other varieties of English speech. Unexpectedly, Filipino English is ranked the second, followed by American English, Indian English, Japanese English and Thai English. In general, it seems that Moroccan EFL

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learners hold positive attitudes towards Inner and Outer circle Englishes (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE) than Expanding Circle Englishes (i.e., JpE & ThE). Other studies (e.g., McKenzie, 2010; Oyebola, 2020) have found a clear pattern: ‘native’/inner circle speakers of English are rated significantly higher than ‘nonnative’/outer and expanding circle speakers. For example, McKenzie (2010) found that Japanese learners are more favourable towards inner circle varieties of English speech than expanding circle varieties. A similar finding was found in Oyebola (2020) whose Nigerian participants rated ‘native’/inner circle speakers of English significantly higher than non-native/non-inner Circle speakers. Similar to our results, Oyebola (2020) found that in terms of all traits, British English was rated more positively than American English by the participants.

The results of Table 29 can be summarised as follows (see Table 30 below):

❖ Varieties that are not distinct (similar):

- AmE and InE: Not significantly different.
- AmE and FiE: Not significantly different.
- InE and FiE: Not significantly different.
- JpE and ThE: Not significantly different.

❖ Varieties that are distinct (different):

- BrE stands out as distinct from almost all other varieties.
- AmE is distinct from BrE, JpE and ThE but similar to InE and FiE.
- JpE and ThE are distinct from most varieties but similar to each other.
- InE and FiE are distinct from BrE, JpE and ThE but similar to each other and to AmE.

Table 30 Summary of Post Hoc Test (All Traits)

Variety	Distinct From	Not Distinct From
AmE	BrE, JpE, ThE	InE, FiE
BrE	AmE, InE, FiE, JpE, ThE	None
InE	BrE, JpE, ThE	AmE, FiE
FiE	BrE, JpE, ThE	AmE, InE
JpE	AmE, BrE, InE, FiE	ThE
ThE	AmE, BrE, InE, FiE	JpE

In light of previous research (e.g., McKenzie, 2006, 2010), it is clear from this analysis that clear patterns exist among the participants' ratings of all seven traits for the six speakers. However, as McKenzie (2010) rightly notes, the *post hoc test* analysis above “does not indicate whether and, if so, how many evaluative dimensions are located amongst these ... traits” (pp. 103-104). In this regard, McKenzie (2010) points out it has been widely demonstrated that “speakers of standard varieties tend to be rated most positively in terms of competence¹ (i.e., on traits such as intelligence and confidence) but lower on social attractiveness² (i.e., on traits such as pleasantness and gentleness)” (p. 104).

3.2.3. Principal Component Analysis: The Reduction of Data Collected

In light of previous studies (e.g., McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Chien, 2018; Oyebola, 2020), and in order to locate the evaluative dimensions within the data collected in the verbal-guise section of the study, the next step is to carry out a principal component analysis (PCA) to examine whether the participants' overall mean ratings of the six speakers (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) for each of the seven traits (i.e., *intelligence*, *confidence*, *pleasantness*, *clarity*, *fluency*, *gentleness* & *friendliness*) in the verbal-guise task are clustered into different groups or dimensions. To this end, following McKenzie (2010), the overall mean evaluations of the six speakers for each of the seven traits on the semantic-differential scale were tabulated to give six overall scores for each trait and subsequently subjected to principal components analysis. Since there were 100 participants making evaluations of six speakers for seven personality traits, the verbal-guise task produced 700 responses for each of the seven traits. Thus, it was necessary to reduce the amount of data collected from the verbal-guise task into a more manageable size for the purpose of a more specific analysis. Principal Components Analysis is

¹ Competence in McKenzie's (2010) study is equivalent to our status in this study.

² Social attractiveness in McKenzie's (2010) study is equivalent to our solidarity in this study.

thus a method employed to identify groups or clusters of variables (or factors). All the evaluations of the six speakers for each of the seven traits on the bipolar semantic-differential scale were tabulated to produce seven averages cores, one for each trait, and subsequently subjected to PCA tests¹.

In light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2006; Oyebola, 2020; Zhang, 2010), a number of criteria were taken into account to test whether the data collected is suitable for PCA. First, the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above (see Table 32 below). Second, the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy² value was 0.771 (see Table 31 below), exceeding the recommended minimum value of 0.5, which indicates the appropriateness of the sample size (Kaiser, 1974). Third, Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity³ reached statistical significance ($p=0.000<0.05$) (see Table 31 below), which suggests PCA can determine which traits are significantly related to one another.

Table 31 KMO and Bartlett’s Test⁴

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,771
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	290,347
	df	21
	Sig.	,000

¹ Tabachnik and Fidell (2013) point out that factor analysis (or PCA) requires at least 300 cases. Since our data consisted of 700 cases, there were enough cases to conduct PCA. See MacCallum et al. (1999) for “a range of recommendations regarding the minimum sample size necessary to obtain factor solutions that are adequately stable and that correspond closely to population factors” (p. 84).

² “The KMO statistic for an individual variable is the sum of the squared correlation coefficients between this variable and all other variables (but not with itself, hence the $i \neq j$ term) divided by this value added to the sum of the squared partial correlation coefficients. The KMO statistic for multiple variables is the sum of these statistics computed for all variables in the analysis. Similar to correlations, KMO statistics take values between 0 and 1” (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999, p. 224).

³ As Field (2009) points out, Bartlett’s test of sphericity “tests whether the assumption of sphericity has been met and is useful only in univariate repeated-measures designs because MANOVA does not require this assumption” (p. 608).

⁴ Interpretation of the KMO statistics according to Kaiser (1974, p. 35): below .50, **unacceptable**; in the .50s, **miserable**; in the .60s, **mediocre**; in the .70s, **middling**; in the .80s, **meritorious**; in the .90s, **marvelous**. For our data, the value is 0.771, which falls into the range of being ‘middling’, so it can be argued that the sample size is suitable for FA (or PCA).

Table 32 The Commonalities of the Seven Traits¹

Traits	Initial	Extraction
Intelligence	1,000	0,718
Confidence	1,000	0,755
Pleasantness	1,000	0,695
Clarity	1,000	0,668
Fluency	1,000	0,675
Gentleness	1,000	0,581
Friendliness	1,000	0,740

Subsequent principal component analysis revealed the presence of two components with eigenvalues² in excess of one, and these components together accounted for 69.031% of the variance (49,604% & 19,427 %, respectively (see [Table 33](#) & Figure 22 below)).

Table 33 Distribution of Variance

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3,472	49,604	49,604	3,472	49,604	49,604	2,936	41,943	41,943
2	1,360	19,427	69,031	1,360	19,427	69,031	1,896	27,088	69,031
3	,651	9,301	78,332						
4	,503	7,191	85,523						
5	,466	6,656	92,179						
6	,363	5,181	97,360						
7	,185	2,640	100,000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

¹ Note that “[a]s communalities become lower, the roles of sample size and overdetermination become more important. With communalities in the range of .5, it is still not difficult to achieve good recovery of population factors, but one must have well-determined factors (not a large number of factors with only a few indicators each) and possibly a somewhat larger sample, in the range of 100 to 200. When communalities are consistently low, with many or all under .5. but there is high overdetermination of factors (e.g., six or seven indicators per factor and a rather small number of factors), one can still achieve good recovery of population factors, but larger samples are required—probably well over 100. With low communalities, a small number of factors, and just three or four indicators for each factor, a much larger sample is needed—probably at least 300. Finally, under the worst conditions of low communalities and a larger number of weakly determined factors, any possibility of good recovery of population factors probably requires very large samples, well over 500” (MacCallum et al., 1999, p. 06).

² According to Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999), “[t]here are numerous methods of choosing the number of factors which are needed to adequately describe the data. The easiest and most commonly used method is to select any component with an eigenvalue greater than 1 .0.” (p. 228).

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Table 34 below demonstrates that the *intelligent, confident, clear* and *fluent* traits loaded on to *Component 1*, and the *pleasant, gentle* and *friendly* traits loaded on to *Component 2*.

Table 34 Rotated Component Matrix¹

Traits	Component	
	Status (50%)	Solidarity (20%)
Intelligence	,828	,180
Confidence	,836	,236
Pleasantness	,087	,829
Clarity	,817	,014
Fluency	,805	,165
Gentleness	,469	,601
Friendliness	,088	,856

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

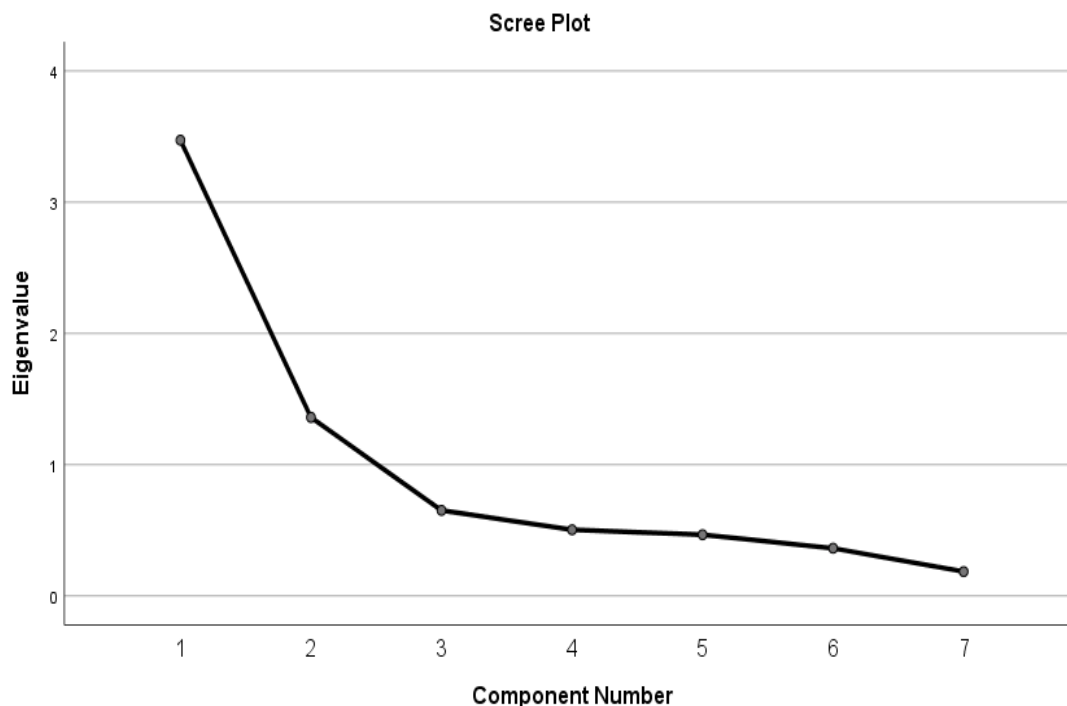


Figure 22 Scree Plot of Principal Component Analysis²

¹ “By default SPSS uses Kaiser’s criterion of retaining factors with eigenvalues greater than 1” (Field, 2009, p. 660).

² Note that scree plots can be used to decide on the correct number of factors (Cattell, 1966). For techniques that can be utilised in deciding on the number of factors including Kaiser’s criterion, scree test and parallel analysis, see Pallant (2010, p. 184).

In summary, the results of the PCA confirmed the existence of the two dimensions of status (competence) and solidarity (social attractiveness), a finding that is in line with previous research studies conducted elsewhere (e.g., Chien, 2018; Hiraga, 2005; McKenzie, 2006, 2008, 2010; Oyebola, 2020; Sykes, 2010; Zhang, 2010). Following the extraction by principal component analysis of the two dimensions of speaker status (i.e., the sum of the mean evaluations for the traits of *intelligent, confident, clear & fluent*) and speaker solidarity (i.e., the sum of the mean evaluations for the traits of *pleasant, gentle & friendly*), Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards varieties of English speech will be analysed in terms of status and solidarity dimensions in the next subsection (3.2.4). As a reminder to the reader, *status* (or competence) refers to “the perceived prestige of the accent”, whereas *solidarity* (or social attractiveness) refers to “the extent to which an individual identifies with an accent” (Hiraga, 2005, p. 289).

3.2.4. MEFLs' Evaluations of the Six English Varieties: Analysis according to Speaker Status and Speaker Solidarity

This subsection provides an analysis, along with a discussion of Moroccan EFL learners' implicit (covert) attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) selected for the purposes of the present study according to the two dimensions of status (competence) and solidarity (social attractiveness) that are extracted from the PCA discussed in subsection 3.2.3 above. To this end, Moroccan EFL learners' evaluations of the six English varieties in terms of speaker status are analysed and discussed in subsubsection 3.2.4.1, their evaluations of these varieties of English speech in terms of speaker solidarity are analysed and discussed in subsubsection 3.2.4.2 and a summary of these social evaluations is provided in subsubsection 3.2.4.3.

3.2.4.1. Speaker Status¹

In light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020), a one-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA)² was conducted in order to compare the mean evaluations of the six speakers on the status dimension (i.e., the sum of the mean evaluations of the traits of *intelligent, confident, clear & fluent*). There were six dependent variables: the participants' mean ratings of the AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE and ThE speakers on the four status traits. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for each speaker are presented in [Table 35](#) below. A scree plot of mean evaluation rankings for speaker status is provided in [Appendix G2](#).

Table 35 MEFLs' Evaluations of the Six English Varieties in Terms of Speaker Status (N=100, 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Status (intelligent, confident, clear, fluent)		
Variety of English	Mean	Std. Deviation
British English	5,9875	1,06445
American English	5,5775	1,24656
Filipino English	5,4725	1,23904
Indian English	5,2700	1,19642
Thai English	4,1575	1,43621
Japanese English	3,9875	1,26100

The significance value of Mauchly's Test is 0, and so Greenhouse-Geisser³ was assumed. The results of the ANOVA test show that there are significant differences in the participants'

¹ As a reminder to the reader, *status* (or competence) refers to "the perceived prestige of the accent" (Hiraga, 2005, p. 289).

² Note that some researchers (e.g., Zhang, 2010, pp. 148-150) used the paired-samples t-test to describe the status rating of different varieties of English speech. In this regard, Zhang (2010) notes that "there are two types of t-test: An independent sample t-test is employed when there are two or more experimental conditions and different groups of informants are measured for each condition; a paired-samples t-test is employed when there are two or more experimental conditions but the same group of informants is measured under different conditions" (p. 139). He also adds that as his study "involved the same group of informants, a paired-samples t-test was thus used" (p. 139).

³ **Reminder:** Mauchly's test is used in a repeated measures analysis to check the sphericity assumption of whether the variance of the differences between pairs of evaluations is homogeneous (Kerr et al. 2002; Pallant, 2010; Tavakoli, 2012). Following Chien (2018), "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.

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ratings towards the six speakers' status: $F(2, 279) = 49,601, p < 0.05$; partial eta square = 0.334, which suggests a large effect size. Analysis of variance summaries is presented in Table 36 below.

Table 36 Tests of Within-Subjects Effects (Greenhouse-Geisser; Status Traits: intelligent, confident, clear & fluent)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Status Traits	330,566	2,825	117,027	49,601	,000	,334
Residual Error	659,778	279,644	2,359			

$F(2, 279) = 49,601, p < 0.05$; partial eta square = 0.334

In order to examine the individual differences between the participants' evaluations of the six speakers in terms of speaker status, a pairwise comparison analysis (with Bonferroni correction¹) was conducted for the repeated measures factor. In this regard, the post hoc test in

Table 37 revealed that a number of differences between the six speakers reached statistical significance (even allowing for the Bonferroni adjusted alpha level) (marked with *). The post hoc test also shows that British English is the most highly evaluated and distinct from the other five varieties (i.e., AmE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) in terms of the dimension of speaker status.

Table 37 Post Hoc Test: Pairwise Comparisons for Speaker (Status Traits: intelligent, confident, clear & fluent)

(I) Status	(J) Status	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b
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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" (p. 100). For readers interested in doing statistics with SPSS and how to apply Greenhouse-Geisser correction when the the assumption of sphericity is violated, they are kindly asked to consult Kerr et al. (2002, p. 121).

¹ **Reminder:** The Bonferroni adjustment (correction for a significance p value) is applied in the present study to control for the increased risk of a Type I error (Kerr et al., 2002; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020; Pallant, 2010; Tavakoli, 2012). That is, instead of conducting a series of ANOVAs separately for each dependent variable and running the risk of an 'inflated Type 1 error' (i.e., "finding a significant result when there isn't really one" (Pallant, 2010, p. 295)/ "when the researcher chooses to reject the null hypothesis although, it is, in fact, true" (McKenzie, 2010, p. 103), one can use Bonferroni adjustment and divide their normal alpha value (typically .05) by the number of tests that they intend to perform (Pallant, 2010). For example, if there are three dependent variables to investigate, one would divide .05 by 3, giving a new alpha level of .017, and will thus consider their "results significant only if the probability value (**Sig.**) is less than .017" (Pallant, 2010, p. 295).

J)					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
AmE	BrE	-,410*	,108	,004	-,736	-,084
	InE	,307	,129	,284	-,080	,695
	FiE	,105	,137	1,000	-,306	,516
	JpE	1,590*	,153	,000	1,130	2,050
	ThE	1,420*	,200	,000	,818	2,022
BrE	AmE	,410*	,108	,004	,084	,736
	InE	,717*	,117	,000	,364	1,071
	FiE	,515*	,121	,001	,152	,878
	JpE	2,000*	,151	,000	1,545	2,455
	ThE	1,830*	,180	,000	1,289	2,371
InE	AmE	-,307	,129	,284	-,695	,080
	BrE	-,717*	,117	,000	-1,071	-,364
	FiE	-,202	,113	1,000	-,542	,137
	JpE	1,283*	,133	,000	,882	1,683
	ThE	1,113*	,213	,000	,472	1,753
FiE	AmE	-,105	,137	1,000	-,516	,306
	BrE	-,515*	,121	,001	-,878	-,152
	InE	,202	,113	1,000	-,137	,542
	JpE	1,485*	,131	,000	1,090	1,880
	ThE	1,315*	,226	,000	,636	1,994
JpE	AmE	-1,590*	,153	,000	-2,050	-1,130
	BrE	-2,000*	,151	,000	-2,455	-1,545
	InE	-1,283*	,133	,000	-1,683	-,882
	FiE	-1,485*	,131	,000	-1,880	-1,090
	ThE	-,170	,248	1,000	-,917	,577
ThE	AmE	-1,420*	,200	,000	-2,022	-,818
	BrE	-1,830*	,180	,000	-2,371	-1,289
	InE	-1,113*	,213	,000	-1,753	-,472
	FiE	-1,315*	,226	,000	-1,994	-,636
	JpE	,170	,248	1,000	-,577	,917

Based on estimated marginal means

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

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

*. **AmE**, American English; **BrE**, British English; **InE**, Indian English; **FiE**, Filipino English; **JpE**, Japanese English; **ThE**, Thai English

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The ranking of the speakers of the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) for status traits is summarised below (in descending order of evaluation). In light of previous research (e.g., McKenzie, 2006, 2010), the presence of a line between the speakers indicates that there is a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the participants' evaluations:

British English

American English

Filipino English

Indian English

Thai English

Japanese English

The results above again show that when the participants' evaluations of the six speakers in terms of the status dimension (i.e., the sum of the mean evaluations of the traits of *intelligent*, *confident*, *clear* & *fluent*) are averaged together for each of the speakers, a clear pattern emerges: 'native'/inner circle speakers of English are rated significantly higher than 'nonnative'/outer and expanding circle speakers. This finding is consistent with results obtained in previous research studies (e.g., Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2010; Oyebola, 2020). For example, McKenzie (2010) found that Japanese learners held positive attitudes towards speakers from the US, the UK and Japan. Oyebola (2020) also found that "a clear hierarchy emerges where the British English speaker is the most preferred, followed by the American English speaker while Nigerian English speaker 2 is the least preferred" (pp. 153-154). Chien (2018) also found that the two inner circle (IC) varieties of General American English and Standard Southern British English are evaluated significantly higher than the varieties of the expanding circle (EC) (i.e., Japanese English, Spanish English & Taiwanese English) in terms of status traits. However, he found that the non-native variety of Indian English that is spoken in the outer circle (OC) is evaluated distinctly higher than the IC variety of Australian English on the status dimension. Finally, similar to our results, Oyebola (2020) found that in terms of the status

dimension, British English was rated more positively than American English by the participants.

The results of

Table 37 can be summarised as follows (see Table 38 below):

❖ **Varieties that are not distinct (similar):**

- AmE and InE: Not significantly different.
- AmE and FiE: Not significantly different.
- InE and FiE: Not significantly different.
- JpE and ThE: Not significantly different.

❖ **Varieties that are distinct (different):**

- BrE stands out as distinct from almost all other varieties.
- AmE is distinct from BrE, JpE, and ThE but similar to InE and FiE.
- JpE and ThE are distinct from most varieties but similar to each other.
- InE and FiE are distinct from BrE, JpE and ThE but similar to each other and to AmE.

Table 38 Summary of Post Hoc Test (Status Traits: intelligent, confident, clear & fluent)

Variety	Distinct From	Not Distinct From
AmE	BrE, JpE, ThE	InE, FiE
BrE	AmE, InE, FiE, JpE, ThE	None
InE	BrE, JpE, ThE	AmE, FiE
FiE	BrE, JpE, ThE	AmE, InE
JpE	AmE, BrE, InE, FiE	ThE
ThE	AmE, BrE, InE, FiE	JpE

3.2.4.2. Speaker Solidarity¹

In light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020), a one-way repeated measures analysis of variance² was conducted in order to compare the mean evaluations of the six speakers on the solidarity dimension (i.e., the sum of the mean evaluations

¹ As a reminder to the reader, *solidarity* (or social attractiveness) refers to “the extent to which an individual identifies with an accent” (Hiraga, 2005, p. 289).

² Note that some researchers (e.g., Zhang, 2010, pp. 150-154) used the paired-samples t-test to describe the solidarity rating of different varieties of English speech.

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of the traits of *pleasant, gentle & friendly*). There were six dependent variables: the participants' mean ratings of the AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE and ThE speakers on the three solidarity traits. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for each speaker are presented in Table 39 below. A scree plot of mean evaluation rankings for speaker solidarity is provided in Appendix G3.

Table 39 MEFLs' Evaluations of the Six English Varieties in Terms of Speaker Solidarity (N=100, 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Solidarity (pleasant, gentle, friendly)		
Variety of English	Mean	Std. Deviation
British English	5,9900	1,20740
Filipino English	5,5033	1,23592
American English	5,3067	1,48292
Indian English	5,2600	1,27796
Japanese English	3,9867	1,17486
Thai English	3,5067	1,41301

The significance value of Mauchly's Test is 0, and so Greenhouse-Geisser¹ was assumed. The results of the ANOVA test show that there are significant differences in the participants' ratings towards the six speakers' solidarity: $F(3, 637) = 71,706, p < 0.05$; partial eta square = 0.420, which suggests a large effect size. Analysis of variance summaries is presented in Table 40 below.

Table 40 Tests of Within-Subjects Effects (Greenhouse-Geisser; Solidarity Traits: pleasant, gentle & friendly)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Solidarity Traits	461,873	3,520	131,202	71,706	,000	,420
Residual Error	637,683	348,512	1,830			

¹ **Reminder:** Mauchly's test is used in a repeated measures analysis to check the sphericity assumption of whether the variance of the differences between pairs of evaluations is homogeneous (Kerr et al. 2002; Pallant, 2010; Tavakoli, 2012). Following Chien (2018), "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" (p. 100). For readers interested in doing statistics with SPSS and how to apply Greenhouse-Geisser correction when the the assumption of sphericity is violated, they are kindly asked to consult Kerr et al. (2002, p. 121).

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In order to examine the individual differences between the participants' evaluations of the six speakers in terms of speaker solidarity, a pairwise comparison analysis (with Bonferroni correction¹) was conducted for the repeated measures factor. In this regard, the post hoc test in Table 41 revealed that a number of differences between the six speakers reached statistical significance (even allowing for the Bonferroni adjusted alpha level) (marked with *). The post hoc test also shows that British English is the most highly evaluated in terms of the dimension of speaker solidarity.

Table 41 Post Hoc Test: Pairwise Comparisons for Speaker (Solidarity Traits: pleasant, gentle & friendly)

(I) Solidarity	(J) Solidarity	Mean Difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
AmE	BrE	-,683*	,149	,000	-1,132	-,235
	InE	,047	,172	1,000	-,471	,564
	FiE	-,197	,167	1,000	-,699	,306
	JpE	1,320*	,188	,000	,754	1,886
	ThE	1,800*	,204	,000	1,187	2,413
BrE	AmE	,683*	,149	,000	,235	1,132
	InE	,730*	,153	,000	,270	1,190
	FiE	,487*	,149	,023	,037	,936
	JpE	2,003*	,173	,000	1,482	2,525
	ThE	2,483*	,197	,000	1,889	3,077
InE	AmE	-,047	,172	1,000	-,564	,471
	BrE	-,730*	,153	,000	-1,190	-,270
	FiE	-,243	,128	,893	-,627	,141
	JpE	1,273*	,138	,000	,860	1,687
	ThE	1,753*	,148	,000	1,307	2,200
FiE	AmE	,197	,167	1,000	-,306	,699
	BrE	-,487*	,149	,023	-,936	-,037
	InE	,243	,128	,893	-,141	,627
	JpE	1,517*	,144	,000	1,083	1,950

¹ **Reminder:** The Bonferroni adjustment (correction for a significance p value) is applied in the present study to control for the increased risk of a Type I error (Kerr et al., 2002; McKenzie, 2006, 2010; Oyebola, 2020; Pallant, 2010; Tavakoli, 2012). That is, instead of conducting a series of ANOVAs separately for each dependent variable and running the risk of an 'inflated Type 1 error' (i.e., "finding a significant result when there isn't really one" (Pallant, 2010, p. 295)/ "when the researcher chooses to reject the null hypothesis although, it is, in fact, true" (McKenzie, 2010, p. 103), one can use Bonferroni adjustment and divide their normal alpha value (typically .05) by the number of tests that they intend to perform (Pallant, 2010). For example, if there are three dependent variables to investigate, one would divide .05 by 3, giving a new alpha level of .017, and will thus consider their "results significant only if the probability value (**Sig.**) is less than .017" (Pallant, 2010, p. 295).

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	ThE	1,997*	,162	,000	1,510	2,483
JpE	AmE	-1,320*	,188	,000	-1,886	-,754
	BrE	-2,003*	,173	,000	-2,525	-1,482
	InE	-1,273*	,138	,000	-1,687	-,860
	FiE	-1,517*	,144	,000	-1,950	-1,083
	ThE	,480*	,104	,000	,166	,794
ThE	AmE	-1,800*	,204	,000	-2,413	-1,187
	BrE	-2,483*	,197	,000	-3,077	-1,889
	InE	-1,753*	,148	,000	-2,200	-1,307
	FiE	-1,997*	,162	,000	-2,483	-1,510
	JpE	-,480*	,104	,000	-,794	-,166

Based on estimated marginal means

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

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

*. **AmE**, American English; **BrE**, British English; **InE**, Indian English; **FiE**, Filipino English; **JpE**, Japanese English; **ThE**, Thai English

The ranking of the six speakers for solidarity traits is summarised below (in descending order of evaluation). In light of previous research (e.g., McKenzie, 2006, 2010), the presence of a line between the speakers indicates that there is a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the participants' evaluations:

British English
Filipino English
American English
Indian English
Japanese English
Thai English

The results above show that when the participants' evaluations of all the solidarity traits (i.e., *pleasant, gentle & friendly*) are averaged together for each of the six speakers, British English is ranked the first variety among all the other varieties of English speech (a finding that is in line with Oyebola's (2020) study).. Similar to the results found in the analysis of the participants' evaluations of the six English varieties in terms of all traits (see subsection 3.2.2 above), Filipino English is ranked the second, followed by American English, Indian English, Japanese English and Thai English. In general, it seems that Moroccan EFL learners hold positive attitudes towards Inner (i.e., AmE & BrE) and Outer (i.e., InE & FiE) circle Englishes

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than Expanding (i.e., JpE & ThE) Circle Englishes. British English was rated more positively than American English by the participants. Additionally, the findings of this study are contrary to McKenzie's (2010) findings whose study found that in terms of social attractiveness (equivalent to solidarity in this study), the speaker of heavily-accented Japanese English (HJE) was rated significantly more favourably than the other five speakers (i.e., Glasgow Vernacular, Southern United States English, Moderately-accented Japanese English, Scottish Standard English & Mid-West United States English). Similar to our study, however, Chien (2018) found that an inner circle English variety (i.e., General American English) was rated as the most socially attractive¹ English variety, followed by Indian English (an outer circle variety). In Oyebola's (2020) study, it was found that inner circle Englishes (i.e., BrE & AmE) were rated as the most socially attractive varieties of English speech.

The results of Table 41 can be summarised as follows (see Table 42 below):

- AmE is similar to InE and FiE but distinct from BrE, JpE and ThE.
- BrE is distinct from all other varieties.
- InE is similar to AmE and FiE but distinct from BrE, JpE and ThE.
- FiE is similar to AmE and InE but distinct from BrE, JpE and ThE.
- JpE and ThE are distinct from all other varieties.

Table 42 Summary of Post Hoc Test (Solidarity Traits: pleasant, gentle & friendly)

Variety	Distinct From	Not Distinct From
AmE	BrE, JpE, ThE	InE, FiE
BrE	AmE, InE, FiE, JpE, ThE	None
InE	BrE, JpE, ThE	AmE, FiE
FiE	BrE, JpE, ThE	AmE, InE
JpE	AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, ThE	None
ThE	AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE	None

¹ In other words, it was rated higher in terms of the solidarity dimension/ speaker solidarity.

3.2.4.3. Summary of MEFLs' Evaluations of the Six English Varieties in Terms of Speaker Status and Speaker Solidarity

In general, the results of the verbal-guise task show that British English was rated higher by Moroccan EFL learners than all the other five varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) in terms of (1) all individual traits (see subsection 3.2.1 above) and (2) all traits (see subsection 3.2.2 above). The results also show that British English received highest evaluations across status (see subsection 3.2.4.1 above) and solidarity (see subsection 3.2.4.2 above) traits (see Figure 23 below). Furthermore, in line with previous research studies (e.g., Chien, 2018), Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) do differ along the dimensions of speaker status and solidarity. For example, the two IC varieties of British English and American English are evaluated significantly higher than the varieties of the OC (i.e., InE & FiE) and the EC (i.e., JpE & ThE) across status traits. This finding is consistent with those obtained in past attitudinal research investigating people's attitudes towards English language variation in countries like Taiwan, Britain, Japan and Nigeria (e.g., Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2010; Oyebola, 2020). In terms of the solidarity dimension, it was found that British English was ranked as the most socially attractive English variety followed by Filipino English.

All in all, the findings of the verbal-guise task generally reveal that Moroccan EFL learners hold positive attitudes towards IC (i.e., AmE, BrE) Englishes than OC (i.e., InE & FiE) and EC (i.e., JpE & ThE) Englishes, which are grouped under the label *non-inner circle Englishes* (NICE). In terms of NICE (i.e., InE, FiE, JpE & ThE), it was found that the participants prefer outer circle Englishes (i.e., InE & FiE) over expanding circle Englishes (i.e., JpE & ThE).

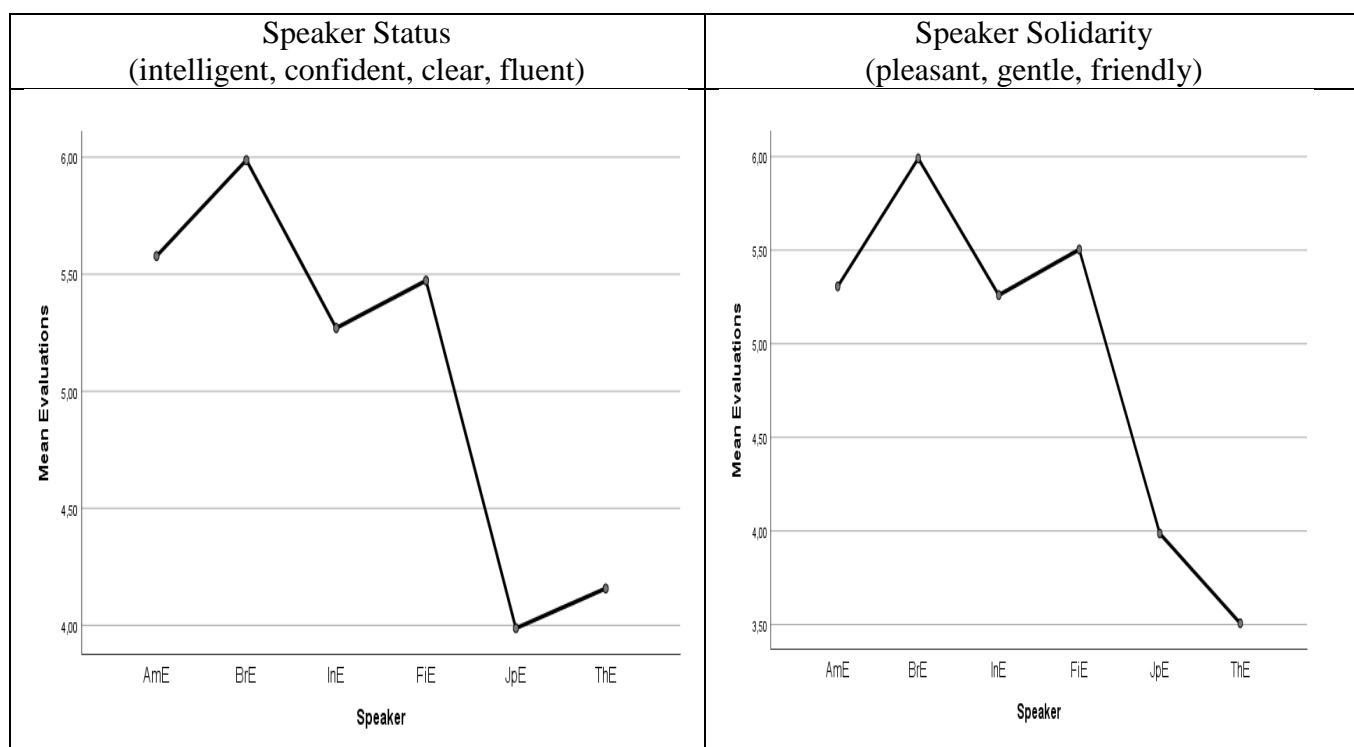


Figure 23 Summary of MEFLLs' Evaluations of the Six English Varieties in Terms of Speaker Status and Speaker Solidarity

* **AmE**, American English; **BrE**, British English; **InE**, Indian English; **FiE**, Filipino English; **JpE**, Japanese English; **ThE**, Thai English

3.3. The Main Effects of MEFLLs' Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

This section of Chapter 3 details the results of Section 1 of the verbal-guise task that was employed as the main research instrument in the present study to investigate Moroccan EFL learners' implicit (covert) attitudes towards six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). The objective of this section was to elicit background information from the participants with regard to their *gender, age, education, self-perceived proficiency in English, English language learning period and living-abroad experience*.

In light of previous research (e.g., McKenzie, 2006), background information was collected from the participants for several reasons. First, it was collected "to investigate whether, to what extent and in what ways variations in the informants' social background may account for differences in attitudes towards the varieties of speech selected for evaluation" (McKenzie, 2006, p. 147). Second, background information was collected "to provide greater clarity to the

results [and] to investigate the potential influence of each of the social variables” on the two dimensions extracted previously, namely speaker status and speaker solidarity (McKenzie, 2006, p. 147). Finally, the analysis “was divided into two principal stages,” namely, step 1, where “the independent (social) variables were analysed individually to determine the significant main effects (if any) in the informants’ ratings” in terms of status and solidarity of each speaker, and step 2, where “the dependent variables which demonstrated main effects were subsequently analysed in combination, in order to identify any interaction effects” (McKenzie, 2006, p. 147). In this study, social variables are defined as “aspects of a speaker’s social identity (e.g. social class, gender, age or ethnicity) which are correlated with language behaviour in quantitative sociolinguistic research” (Smith et al., 2015, p. 285).

Main effects and interaction effects are summarised by McKenzie (2006) as follows:

- A *main effect* “occurs when the independent variable, irrespective of any other variable, has a unique and overall significant effect on the dependent variable” (McKenzie, 2006, p. 147).
- An *interaction effect* “occurs when the effect of one independent variable differs depending on the level of a second independent variable (i.e., when the relationship between dependent and independent variables is mediated by a third variable” (McKenzie, 2006, p. 147).

In light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018), the aim of this section is to analyse the main effect of the participants’ social variables (i.e., gender, age, education, self-perceived proficiency in English, English language learning period & living-abroad experience) on the evaluations of the six speakers according to status and solidarity by employing a one-way between groups MANOVA (see subsubsection 2.8.2.2.3, Chapter 2). For the MANOVA test, the independent variables are the social variables of gender (female & male), age¹ (between 18-30 years, between 31-44 years & between 45-58 years), education (BA student, MA student

¹ Note that the independent variable, *age*, was initially collected in the form of continuous data and was later recoded as between 18-30 years, between 31-44 years and 45-58 years so that it could be used in the MANOVA test, which requires categorical data as independent variables.

& doctoral student), self-perceived proficiency in English (beginner, intermediate, higher intermediate & advanced), English language learning period (less than 5 years, 5-10 years & more than 10 years) and living-abroad experience (yes & no). The dependent variables are MEFLs' status/solidarity ratings of the six speakers. To this end, the main effect of gender on MEFLs' evaluations is analysed discussed in subsection 3.3.1, the main effect of age on their evaluations in subsection 3.3.2, the main effect of education on their evaluations in subsection 3.3.3, the main effect of self-perceived proficiency in English on their evaluations in subsection 3.3.4, the main effect of English language learning period on their evaluations in subsection 3.3.5 and the main effect of living-abroad experience on their evaluations in subsection 3.3.6.

3.3.1. The Main Effects of Gender on MEFLs' Evaluations

A number of studies (e.g., McKenzie, 2006) demonstrated that gender differences exist along listeners' ratings of varieties of English speech. This subsection offers an examination of how the gender of Moroccan EFL learners influences the way the six varieties of English (i.e, AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) selected for the study's purposes are evaluated. The distribution of Moroccan EFL learners according to gender is presented in [Table 43](#) below.

Table 43 Distribution of Moroccan EFL Learners: Male and Female

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	43	43,0
Female	57	57,0
Total	100	100,0

3.3.1.1. Speaker Status

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA (MANOVA) was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' gender on speaker

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status. The dependent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties on the intelligent, confident, clear and fluent traits. The independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female.

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.353 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's Test of Equality of Variance for all six speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality is not violated. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker status according to gender are detailed in Table 44 below. As a reminder to the reader, a mean value of one corresponds to the least favourable evaluation, whereas a mean value of seven corresponds to the most favourable rating.

Table 44 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Status according to Gender

Speaker Status	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AmE	Male	5,4593	1,26059	43
	Female	5,6667	1,23954	57
	Total	5,5775	1,24656	100
BrE	Male	6,0872	,95725	43
	Female	5,9123	1,14124	57
	Total	5,9875	1,06445	100
InE	Male	5,2442	1,06694	43
	Female	5,2895	1,29455	57
	Total	5,2700	1,19642	100
FiE	Male	5,1628	1,26289	43
	Female	5,7061	1,17842	57
	Total	5,4725	1,23904	100
JpE	Male	3,7500	1,16113	43
	Female	4,1667	1,31300	57
	Total	3,9875	1,26100	100
ThE	Male	4,3081	1,34611	43
	Female	4,0439	1,50232	57
	Total	4,1575	1,43621	100

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The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated a significant overall effect of gender on Moroccan EFL learners' evaluations of speaker status: $F(6.93) = 2249$, $p < 0.05$; Wilks' Lambda = 0.873; partial eta squared = 0.127, which suggests a moderate effect.

Table 45 below illustrates that when the results of the effects of Moroccan EFL learners' gender on speaker status were considered separately, only one difference reached statistical significance.

- FiE speaker: $F(1,98) = 4,899$, $p < 0.05$, partial eta squared = 0,048, which suggests a small to moderate effect size

Table 45 Test of Between-Subjects Effects for Speaker Status according to Gender

Source	Speaker Status	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender	AmE	1,054	1	1,054	,676	,413	,007
	BrE	,750	1	,750	,660	,419	,007
	InE	,050	1	,050	,035	,852	,000
	FiE	7,236	1	7,236	4,899	,029	,048
	JpE	4,255	1	4,255	2,723	,102	,027
	ThE	1,712	1	1,712	,828	,365	,008
Error	AmE	152,783	98	1,559			
	BrE	111,422	98	1,137			
	InE	141,660	98	1,446			
	FiE	144,751	98	1,477			
	JpE	153,167	98	1,563			
	ThE	202,495	98	2,066			

3.3.1.2. Speaker Solidarity

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA (MANOVA) was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' gender on speaker solidarity. The dependent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties on the

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pleasant, gentle and friendly traits. The independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female.

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.072 (i.e., $p>0.05$) and the probability associated with Levene's Test of Equality of Variance for all six speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality is not violated. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker solidarity according to gender are detailed in [Table 46](#) below.

Table 46 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Solidarity according to Gender

Speaker Solidarity	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AmE	Male	5,3721	1,50521	43
	Female	5,2573	1,47737	57
	Total	5,3067	1,48292	100
BrE	Male	6,0543	1,12671	43
	Female	5,9415	1,27261	57
	Total	5,9900	1,20740	100
InE	Male	5,2248	1,35053	43
	Female	5,2865	1,23191	57
	Total	5,2600	1,27796	100
FiE	Male	5,3256	1,22472	43
	Female	5,6374	1,23809	57
	Total	5,5033	1,23592	100
JpE	Male	3,8140	1,28133	43
	Female	4,1170	1,08103	57
	Total	3,9867	1,17486	100
ThE	Male	3,5891	1,58337	43
	Female	3,4444	1,28071	57
	Total	3,5067	1,41301	100

The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated no significant overall effect was found between the responses of the male group and the female group: $F(6.93)=1299$, $p>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.923; partial eta squared=0.077, which suggests a negligible to small (although not

significant) effect size. This finding is similar to the results of previous studies (e.g., Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2010). In this regard, Chien's (2018) study showed no significant effect of gender on Taiwanese and British participants' evaluations of seven speakers of English varieties (i.e., General American English, Standard Southern British English, Indian English, Australian English, Japanese English, Taiwanese English & Spanish English) in terms of the solidarity dimension. Furthermore, McKenzie's (2010) study showed that "no significant overall effect was found between the responses of the male group and the female group: $F(6, 551) = 1.47, p > 0.05$ ($p = 1.88$); Wilks' Lambda = 0.98; partial eta squared = 0.016" (p. 111). As no overall effect was found between Moroccan EFL learners' gender and speaker solidarity, and in light of previous research (Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2006), there was no need to conduct further analyses on each individual speaker.

3.3.1.3. Summary of the Main Effects of Gender on MEFLs' Evaluations

In sum, the MANOVA test (3.3.1.1 & 3.3.1.2) showed that there were significant differences between Moroccan male and female evaluations of the six varieties of English speech in terms of the status dimension only, a finding that is in line with McKenzie (2006).

3.3.2. The Main Effects of Age on MEFLs' Evaluations

This subsection offers an examination of how the age of Moroccan EFL learners influences the way the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) selected for the study's purposes are evaluated. The distribution of Moroccan EFL learners according to age is presented in [Table 47](#).

Table 47 Distribution of Moroccan EFL Learners: Age

Age	Frequency	Percent
18-30	64	64,0
31-44	28	28,0
45-58	8	8,0

Total	100	100,0
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3.3.2.1. Speaker Status

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' age on speaker status. The dependent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties of English speech on the intelligent, confident, clear and fluent traits. The independent variable, *age*, was initially collected in the form of continuous data and was later recoded as between 18-30 years, between 31-44 years and 45-58 years so that it could be utilised in the MANOVA test, which requires categorical data as independent variables.

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.041 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's Test of Equality of Variance for all six speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality is not violated. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker status according to age are detailed in [Table 48](#) below.

Table 48 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Status according to Age

Speaker Status	Age	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AmE	18-30	5,4009	1,27130	53
	31-44	5,8672	1,23292	32
	45-58	5,5833	1,14434	15
	Total	5,5775	1,24656	100
BrE	18-30	5,9811	1,11787	53
	31-44	6,0000	,96093	32
	45-58	5,9833	1,15134	15
	Total	5,9875	1,06445	100
InE	18-30	5,1132	1,30141	53
	31-44	5,2109	1,05515	32
	45-58	5,9500	,87729	15
	Total	5,2700	1,19642	100

FiE	18-30	5,3066	1,25637	53
	31-44	5,4922	1,21729	32
	45-58	6,0167	1,13573	15
	Total	5,4725	1,23904	100
JpE	18-30	3,9104	1,22680	53
	31-44	4,0156	1,23937	32
	45-58	4,2000	1,47660	15
	Total	3,9875	1,26100	100
ThE	18-30	4,1651	1,48141	53
	31-44	4,1016	1,32723	32
	45-58	4,2500	1,58678	15
	Total	4,1575	1,43621	100

The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated no significant overall effect was found between the participants' age and the dependent variables (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE and ThE): $F(12.184)=1391$, $p>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.841; partial eta squared=0.083, which suggests a negligible to small (although not significant) effect size. Again, as no overall effect was found between Moroccan EFL learners' age and speaker status, there was no need to conduct further analyses on each individual speaker.

3.3.2.2. Speaker Solidarity

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA (MANOVA) was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' age on speaker solidarity. The dependent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties on the pleasant, gentle, and friendly traits. The independent variable, *age*, was composed of three levels: between 18-30 years, between 31-44 years and 45-58 years.

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.040 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's Test of Equality of Variance for all six speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality is not violated.

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The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker solidarity according to age are detailed in Table 49 below.

Table 49 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Solidarity according to Age

Speaker Solidarity	Age	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AmE	18-30	5,3208	1,48203	53
	31-44	5,5833	1,40148	32
	45-58	4,6667	1,55839	15
	Total	5,3067	1,48292	100
BrE	18-30	6,1069	1,22435	53
	31-44	5,8229	1,22689	32
	45-58	5,9333	1,13529	15
	Total	5,9900	1,20740	100
InE	18-30	5,3396	1,26506	53
	31-44	4,8854	1,26890	32
	45-58	5,7778	1,18634	15
	Total	5,2600	1,27796	100
FiE	18-30	5,3648	1,35915	53
	31-44	5,4792	1,06066	32
	45-58	6,0444	1,03023	15
	Total	5,5033	1,23592	100
JpE	18-30	4,0503	1,15913	53
	31-44	3,8958	1,04534	32
	45-58	3,9556	1,52163	15
	Total	3,9867	1,17486	100
ThE	18-30	3,5786	1,47653	53
	31-44	3,2917	1,23784	32
	45-58	3,7111	1,56787	15
	Total	3,5067	1,41301	100

The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated no significant overall effect was found between the participants' age and speaker solidarity: $F(12,184)=1718$, $p>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.809; partial eta squared=0.101, which suggests a negligible to small (although not significant) effect size. Again, as no overall effect was found between Moroccan EFL learners' age and speaker solidarity, there was no need to conduct further analyses on each individual speaker.

3.3.2.3. Summary the Main Effects of Age on MEFLs' Evaluations

In sum, the MANOVA test (3.3.2.1 & 3.3.2.2) showed that there were no significant differences between the age of Moroccan EFL learners and their evaluations of the six varieties of English speech in terms of both speaker status and speaker solidarity.

3.3.3. The Main Effects of Education on Moroccan EFL Learners' Evaluations

This subsection offers an examination of how the education of Moroccan EFL learners influences the way the six varieties of English (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) selected for the study's purposes are evaluated. The distribution of Moroccan EFL learners according to education is presented in [Table 50](#) below.

Table 50 Distribution of MEFLs: Education

Education	Frequency	Percent
BA Student	40	40,0
MA Student	23	23,0
Doctoral Student	37	37,0
Total	100	100,0

3.3.3.1. Speaker Status

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' education on speaker status. The dependent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties on the intelligent, confident, clear and fluent traits. The independent variable, *education*, was composed of three levels: BA student, MA student and doctoral student.

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.002 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's Test of Equality of Variance for all six speakers is

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insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality is not violated.

The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker status according to education are detailed in Table 51 below.

Table 51 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Status according to Education

Speaker Status	Education	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AmE	BA Student	5,5547	1,36892	32
	MA Student	5,6250	1,05957	28
	Doctoral Student	5,5625	1,29440	40
	Total	5,5775	1,24656	100
BrE	BA Student	6,0312	1,20441	32
	MA Student	6,0536	,97505	28
	Doctoral Student	5,9063	1,02639	40
	Total	5,9875	1,06445	100
InE	BA Student	5,6406	1,13759	32
	MA Student	5,1161	1,31846	28
	Doctoral Student	5,0813	1,11140	40
	Total	5,2700	1,19642	100
FiE	BA Student	5,9297	1,04964	32
	MA Student	5,5714	1,10105	28
	Doctoral Student	5,0375	1,34516	40
	Total	5,4725	1,23904	100
JpE	BA Student	4,0625	1,19980	32
	MA Student	4,1696	1,40280	28
	Doctoral Student	3,8000	1,21053	40
	Total	3,9875	1,26100	100
ThE	BA Student	4,1250	1,39411	32
	MA Student	3,8929	1,59633	28
	Doctoral Student	4,3687	1,35281	40
	Total	4,1575	1,43621	100

The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated no significant overall effect was found between the participants' education and speaker status: $F(12.184)=1465$, $p>0.05$; Wilks'

Lambda=0.833; partial eta squared=0.083, which suggests a negligible to small (although not significant) effect size. Again, as no overall effect was found between Moroccan EFL learners' education and speaker status, there was no need to conduct further analyses on each individual speaker.

3.3.3.2. Speaker Solidarity

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA (MANOVA) was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' education on speaker solidarity. The dependent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties on the pleasant, gentle and friendly traits. The independent variable, *education*, was composed of three levels: BA student, MA student and doctoral student.

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.870 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's Test of Equality of Variance for all six speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality is not violated. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker solidarity according to education are detailed in [Table 52](#) below.

Table 52 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Solidarity according to Education

Speaker Solidarity	Education	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AmE	BA Student	5,3542	1,51205	32
	MA Student	5,0119	1,51666	28
	Doctoral Student	5,4750	1,44192	40
	Total	5,3067	1,48292	100
BrE	BA Student	6,0104	1,04207	32
	MA Student	5,8095	1,28437	28
	Doctoral Student	6,1000	1,28812	40
	Total	5,9900	1,20740	100
InE	BA Student	5,4167	1,28961	32

FiE	MA Student	5,2500	1,43909	28
	Doctoral Student	5,1417	1,16425	40
	Total	5,2600	1,27796	100
	BA Student	5,8021	1,11316	32
	MA Student	5,4881	1,46139	28
JpE	Doctoral Student	5,2750	1,13451	40
	Total	5,5033	1,23592	100
	BA Student	3,7812	,99680	32
	MA Student	4,5595	1,25725	28
	Doctoral Student	3,7500	1,13667	40
ThE	Total	3,9867	1,17486	100
	BA Student	3,1979	1,32216	32
	MA Student	3,9762	1,47386	28
	Doctoral Student	3,4250	1,38980	40
	Total	3,5067	1,41301	100

The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated no significant overall effect was found between the participants' education and speaker solidarity: $F(12,184)=1.618, p>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.818; partial eta squared=0.095, which suggests a negligible to small (although not significant) effect size. Again, as no overall effect was found between Moroccan EFL learners' education and speaker solidarity, there was no need to conduct further analyses on each individual speaker.

3.3.3.3. Summary of the Main Effects of Education on MEFLs' Evaluations

In sum, the MANOVA test (3.3.3.1 & 3.3.3.2) showed that there were no significant differences between the education of Moroccan EFL learners and their evaluations of the six varieties of English speech in terms of both speaker status and speaker solidarity.

3.3.4. The Main Effects of Self-Perceived Proficiency in English on MEFLs' Evaluations

This subsection offers an examination of the effect of Moroccan EFL learners' self-perceived proficiency in English (or self-perceived competence¹) on the evaluations of the speakers of the six varieties of English speech (i.e, AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). The distribution of Moroccan EFL learners according to self-perceived proficiency in English is presented in Table 53 below.

Table 53 Distribution of MEFLs: Self-Perceived Proficiency in English

Self-Perceived Proficiency in English	Frequency	Percent
Beginner	4	4,0
Intermediate	25	25,0
Higher Intermediate	30	30,0
Advanced	41	41,0
Total	100	100,0

3.3.4.1. Speaker Status

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' self-perceived proficiency in English on speaker status. The dependent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties on the intelligent, confident, clear and fluent traits. The independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of four levels: beginner, intermediate, higher intermediate and advanced. Following Chien (2018, p. 124), and given the fact that the majority of Moroccan EFL learners described their self-perceived proficiency in English as Higher Intermediate and advanced, it was decided to re-arrange the participants' responses into "lower

¹ In this study, self-perceived competence is defined as a reflection of "the individual's perception of his/her competence in a foreign language" (Dewaele, 2005, p. 124).

level of English” (i.e., beginner & intermediate) and “higher level of English” (i.e., higher-intermediate & advanced).

The sig. value of Box’s Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.065 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene’s Test of Equality of Variance for all six speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality is not violated. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker status according to self-perceived proficiency in English are detailed in Table 54 below.

Table 54 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Status according to Self-Perceived Proficiency in English

Speaker Status	Self-Perceived Proficiency in English	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ame	Lower English Level	5,2672	1,48944	29
	Higher English Level	5,7042	1,11988	71
	Total	5,5775	1,24656	100
BrE	Lower English Level	5,9310	1,10981	29
	Higher English Level	6,0106	1,05258	71
	Total	5,9875	1,06445	100
InE	Lower English Level	5,1552	1,16000	29
	Higher English Level	5,3169	1,21593	71
	Total	5,2700	1,19642	100
FiE	Lower English Level	5,3621	1,46322	29
	Higher English Level	5,5176	1,14356	71
	Total	5,4725	1,23904	100
JpE	Lower English Level	3,7500	1,29042	29
	Higher English Level	4,0845	1,24495	71
	Total	3,9875	1,26100	100
ThE	Lower English Level	4,1034	1,40076	29
	Higher English Level	4,1796	1,45969	71
	Total	4,1575	1,43621	100

The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated no significant overall effect was found between the participants’ education and speaker status: $F(6.93)=0.982$, $p>0.05$; Wilks’ Lambda=0.940; partial eta squared=0.060, which suggests a negligible to small (although not significant) effect size. Again, as no overall effect was found between Moroccan EFL learners’ self-perceived proficiency in English and speaker status, there was no need to conduct further analyses on each individual speaker.

3.3.4.2. Speaker Solidarity

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA (MANOVA) was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' self-perceived proficiency in English on speaker solidarity. The dependent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties on the pleasant, gentle and friendly traits. The independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of four levels: beginner, intermediate, higher intermediate and advanced, which were re-arranged into "lower level of English" (i.e., beginner & intermediate) and "higher level of English" (i.e., higher-intermediate & advanced).

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.742 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's Test of Equality of Variance for all six speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality is not violated. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker solidarity according to self-perceived proficiency in English are detailed in Table 55 below.

Table 55 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Solidarity according to Self-Perceived Proficiency in English

Speaker Solidarity	Self-Perceived Proficiency in English	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AmE	Lower English Level	4,9770	1,42520	29
	Higher English Level	5,4413	1,49473	71
	Total	5,3067	1,48292	100
BrE	Lower English Level	5,9080	1,37695	29
	Higher English Level	6,0235	1,13993	71
	Total	5,9900	1,20740	100
InE	Lower English Level	4,9540	1,29015	29
	Higher English Level	5,3850	1,26070	71
	Total	5,2600	1,27796	100
FiE	Lower English Level	5,4138	1,23332	29
	Higher English Level	5,5399	1,24386	71
	Total	5,5033	1,23592	100
JpE	Lower English Level	3,7471	1,23974	29
	Higher English Level	4,0845	1,14187	71
	Total	3,9867	1,17486	100
ThE	Lower English Level	3,3218	1,68674	29
	Higher English Level	3,5822	1,29065	71
	Total	3,5067	1,41301	100

The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated a significant overall effect of self-perceived proficiency in English on Moroccan EFL learners' evaluations of speaker solidarity: $F(6.93)=2.853$, $p<0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.845; partial eta squared=0.155, which suggests a moderate effect.

Table 56 below illustrates that when the results of the effects of Moroccan EFL learners' gender on speaker solidarity were considered separately, only one difference reached statistical significance.

- AmE speaker: $F(1,98)=16.114$, $p<0.05$, partial eta squared=0.141, which suggests a small to moderate effect size

Table 56 Test of Between-Subjects Effects for Speaker Solidarity according to Self-Perceived Proficiency in English

Source	Speaker Solidarity	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
SPPiE	AmE	30,742	1	30,742	16,114	,000	,141
	BrE	3,733	1	3,733	2,602	,110	,026
	InE	1,222	1	1,222	,746	,390	,008
	FiE	,218	1	,218	,141	,708	,001
	JpE	,905	1	,905	,653	,421	,007
	ThE	1,495	1	1,495	,747	,390	,008
Error	AmE	186,965	98	1,908			
	BrE	140,590	98	1,435			
	InE	160,463	98	1,637			
	FiE	151,004	98	1,541			
	JpE	135,744	98	1,385			
	ThE	196,167	98	2,002			

3.3.4.3. Summary of the Main Effects of Self-Perceived Proficiency in English on MEFLs' Evaluations

In sum, the MANOVA test (3.3.4.1 & 3.3.4.2) showed that there were significant differences between Moroccan EFL learners' self-perceived proficiency in English and their evaluations of

the six varieties of English speech in terms of speaker solidarity only. Chien (2018) and McKenzie (2006) found significant main effects between their participants' self-perceived proficiency in English and their evaluations of the speakers recorded, but in terms of speaker status (competence) only.

3.3.5. The Main Effects of English Language Learning Period on MEFLs' Evaluations

This subsection offers an examination of the effect of Moroccan EFL learners' English language learning period on the evaluations of the speakers of the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). The distribution of Moroccan EFL learners according to English language learning period is presented in [Table 57](#) below.

Table 57 Distribution of MEFLs: English Language Learning Period

English Language Learning Period	Frequency	Percent
Less than 5 years	26	26,0
5-10 years	27	27,0
More than 10 years	47	47,0
Total	100	100,0

3.3.5.1. Speaker Status

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' English language learning period on speaker status. The dependent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties on the intelligent, confident, clear and fluent traits. The independent variable, *English language learning period*, was composed of three levels: less than 5 years, 5-10 years and more than 10 years.

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The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.007 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's Test of Equality of Variance for all six speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality is not violated. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker status according to English language learning period are detailed in Table 58 below.

Table 58 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Status according to English Language Learning Period

English Language Learning Period	How long have you been learning English?	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AmE	Less than 5 years	5,4737	1,36658	38
	5-10 years	5,6932	1,13371	22
	More than 10 years	5,6125	1,20887	40
	Total	5,5775	1,24656	100
BrE	Less than 5 years	5,9342	1,19357	38
	5-10 years	6,1364	,95034	22
	More than 10 years	5,9563	1,01098	40
	Total	5,9875	1,06445	100
InE	Less than 5 years	5,5263	1,15048	38
	5-10 years	5,0682	1,38052	22
	More than 10 years	5,1375	1,11653	40
	Total	5,2700	1,19642	100
FiE	Less than 5 years	5,8026	1,16706	38
	5-10 years	5,5568	1,03490	22
	More than 10 years	5,1125	1,33607	40
	Total	5,4725	1,23904	100
JpE	Less than 5 years	4,0921	1,29372	38
	5-10 years	4,1136	1,35780	22
	More than 10 years	3,8188	1,18618	40
	Total	3,9875	1,26100	100
ThE	Less than 5 years	4,1776	1,44833	38
	5-10 years	3,7841	1,59481	22
	More than 10 years	4,3438	1,32734	40
	Total	4,1575	1,43621	100

The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated no significant overall effect was found between the participants' English language learning period and speaker status: $F(12.186)=1.480$, $p>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.832; partial eta squared=0.088, which suggests a

negligible to small (although not significant) effect size. Again, as no overall effect was found between Moroccan EFL learners' English language learning period and speaker status, there was no need to conduct further analyses on each individual speaker.

3.3.5.2. Speaker Solidarity

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA (MANOVA) was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' English language learning period on speaker solidarity. The independent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties on the pleasant, gentle and friendly traits. The dependent variable, *English language learning period*, was composed of three levels: less than 5 years, 5-10 years and more than 10 years.

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.715 (i.e., $p>0.001$) indicated no violation of the equal assumption violation. Except for the AmE speaker ($p=0.045$), the probability associated with Levene's Test of Equality of Variance¹ for the rest of the five speakers (i.e., BrE, InE, FiE, JpE and ThE) is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality of variance is not violated. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker solidarity according to English language learning period are detailed in [Table 59](#) below.

¹ Note that when the significance for the Levene's test of equality is less than 0.05, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013, p. 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. For attitudinal studies that applied this more stringent alpha level, see Chien (2018) and McKenzie (2006).

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Table 59 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Solidarity according to English Language Learning Period

Speaker Solidarity	How long have you been learning English?	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AmE	Less than 5 years	5,2193	1,69485	38
	5-10 years	5,0000	1,34911	22
	More than 10 years	5,5583	1,32344	40
	Total	5,3067	1,48292	100
BrE	Less than 5 years	5,9912	1,23873	38
	5-10 years	5,5606	1,37007	22
	More than 10 years	6,2250	1,03607	40
	Total	5,9900	1,20740	100
InE	Less than 5 years	5,4211	1,32584	38
	5-10 years	5,0455	1,42278	22
	More than 10 years	5,2250	1,15566	40
	Total	5,2600	1,27796	100
FiE	Less than 5 years	5,7895	1,20415	38
	5-10 years	5,2727	1,48942	22
	More than 10 years	5,3583	1,08443	40
	Total	5,5033	1,23592	100
JpE	Less than 5 years	3,9737	1,09430	38
	5-10 years	4,4697	1,29574	22
	More than 10 years	3,7333	1,12521	40
	Total	3,9867	1,17486	100
ThE	Less than 5 years	3,2719	1,40538	38
	5-10 years	4,0303	1,46533	22
	More than 10 years	3,4417	1,35114	40
	Total	3,5067	1,41301	100

The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated no significant overall effect was found between the participants' English language learning period and speaker solidarity: $F(12,184)=1.750$, $p>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.806; partial eta squared=0.102, which suggests a negligible to small (although not significant) effect size. Again, as no overall effect was found between Moroccan EFL learners' English language learning period and speaker solidarity, there was no need to conduct further analyses on each individual speaker.

**3.3.5.3. Summary of the Main Effects of English Language Learning Period
on MEFLs' Evaluations**

In sum, the MANOVA test (3.3.5.1 & 3.3.5.2) showed that there were no significant differences between Moroccan EFL learners' English language learning period and their evaluations of the six varieties of English speech in terms of both speaker status and speaker solidarity.

3.3.6. The Main Effects of Living-Abroad Experience on MEFLs' Evaluations

This subsection offers an examination of the effect of Moroccan EFL learners' living-abroad experience on the evaluations of the speakers of the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). The distribution of Moroccan EFL learners according to living-abroad experience is presented in [Table 60](#) below.

Table 60 Distribution of MEFLs: Living-Abroad Experience

Living-Abroad Experience	Frequency	Percent
Yes	24	24,0
No	76	76,0
Total	100	100,0

3.3.6.1. Speaker Status

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' living-abroad experience on speaker status. The dependent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties on the intelligent, confident, clear and fluent traits. The independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of two levels: yes and no. The living-abroad experience was taken into account in the present study as it was thought that living in English-speaking countries is

a potential variable that may account for differences in attitudes towards the varieties of English speech selected for evaluation.

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.101 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's Test of Equality of Variance for all six speakers is insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality is not violated. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker status according to living-abroad experience are detailed in [Table 61](#) below.

Table 61 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Status according to Living-Abroad Experience

Speaker Status	Have you ever lived in or visited English-speaking countries?	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AmE	Yes	6,2262	,99028	21
	No	5,4051	1,25595	79
	Total	5,5775	1,24656	100
BrE	Yes	6,3690	,90353	21
	No	5,8861	1,08589	79
	Total	5,9875	1,06445	100
InE	Yes	5,6310	,97024	21
	No	5,1741	1,23734	79
	Total	5,2700	1,19642	100
FiE	Yes	5,4524	,93748	21
	No	5,4778	1,31265	79
	Total	5,4725	1,23904	100
JpE	Yes	3,8571	1,42428	21
	No	4,0222	1,22159	79
	Total	3,9875	1,26100	100
ThE	Yes	4,5714	1,70687	21
	No	4,0475	1,34634	79
	Total	4,1575	1,43621	100

The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated a significant overall effect of living-abroad experience on Moroccan EFL learners' evaluations of speaker status: $F(6.93)=2.240$, $p<0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.874; partial eta squared=0.126, which suggests a moderate effect.

Table 62 below illustrates that when the results of the effects of Moroccan EFL learners' living-abroad experience on speaker status were considered separately, only one difference reached statistical significance.

- AmE speaker: $F(1,98)=7.685$, $p<0.05$, partial eta squared=0,073, which suggests a small to moderate effect size

Table 62 Test of Between-Subjects Effects for Speaker Status according to Living-Abroad Experience

Source	Speaker Status	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Living- Abroad Experience	AmE	11,186	1	11,186	7,685	,007	,073
	BrE	3,870	1	3,870	3,502	,064	,034
	InE	3,463	1	3,463	2,455	,120	,024
	FiE	,011	1	,011	,007	,934	,000
	JpE	,452	1	,452	,282	,597	,003
	ThE	4,555	1	4,555	2,236	,138	,022
Error	AmE	142,651	98	1,456			
	BrE	108,302	98	1,105			
	InE	138,247	98	1,411			
	FiE	151,976	98	1,551			
	JpE	156,970	98	1,602			
	ThE	199,652	98	2,037			

3.3.6.2. Speaker Solidarity

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of ANOVA (MANOVA) was conducted in order to investigate the overall effects of the differences in the participants' living-abroad experience on speaker solidarity. The dependent variables were the participants' ratings of the six varieties on the pleasant, gentle and friendly traits. The dependent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of two levels: yes and no.

The sig. value of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.220 (i.e., $p>0.001$) and the probability associated with Levene's Test of Equality of Variance for all six speakers is

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insignificant (exceeded 0.05), which indicates that the assumption of equality is not violated. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for speaker solidarity according to living-abroad experience are detailed in Table 63 below.

Table 63 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for Speaker Solidarity according to Living-Abroad Experience

Speaker Solidarity	Living-Abroad Experience	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AmE	Yes	5,6984	1,49036	21
	No	5,2025	1,47285	79
	Total	5,3067	1,48292	100
BrE	Yes	6,0159	1,39234	21
	No	5,9831	1,16318	79
	Total	5,9900	1,20740	100
InE	Yes	5,4127	1,31193	21
	No	5,2194	1,27421	79
	Total	5,2600	1,27796	100
FiE	Yes	5,1111	1,44658	21
	No	5,6076	1,16178	79
	Total	5,5033	1,23592	100
JpE	Yes	3,7619	1,11626	21
	No	4,0464	1,18962	79
	Total	3,9867	1,17486	100
ThE	Yes	3,0952	1,32137	21
	No	3,6160	1,42434	79
	Total	3,5067	1,41301	100

The results of the MANOVA test demonstrated no significant overall effect was found between the participants' living-abroad experience and speaker solidarity: $F(6.93)=1.917$, $p>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.890; partial eta squared=0.110, which suggests a negligible to small (although not significant) effect size. Again, as no overall effect was found between Moroccan EFL learners' living-abroad experience and speaker solidarity, there was no need to conduct further analyses on each individual speaker.

3.3.6.3. Summary of the Main Effects of Living-Abroad Experience on MEFLs' Evaluations

In sum, the MANOVA test (3.3.6.1 & 3.3.6.2) showed that there were significant differences between Moroccan EFL learners' living-abroad experience and their evaluations of the six varieties of English speech in terms of speaker status only, a finding that is in line with McKenzie (2006).

3.3.7. Summary of Main Effects of MEFLs' Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

Although significant main effects were found for both the status and solidarity of speakers, Shaughnessy *et al.* (2014) suggest that "it is important to be aware, in general, that main effects should be interpreted with caution because the presence of any interaction effects also have to be taken into account" (p. 273-274). The findings of the main effects of social variables on Moroccan EFL learners' evaluations of the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) in terms of speaker status and speaker solidarity can be summarised as follows:

Although Moroccan EFL learners' evaluations of the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) do differ according to the six social variables (i.e., *gender, age, education, self-perceived proficiency in English, English language learning period & living-abroad experience*), only three of these social variables (i.e., *gender, self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) demonstrated significant main effects on speaker status or speaker solidarity evaluations in the MANOVA tests discussed in subsections 3.3.1, 3.3.4 and 3.3.6 above (see [Table 64](#) below).

Table 64 Summary of Main Effects of MEFLs' Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

Main Effect	Gender	Age	Education	SPPIE	ELLP	LAE
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Speaker Status	FiE	No Significance	No Significance	No Significance	No Significance	AmE
Speaker Solidarity	No Significance	No Significance	No Significance	AmE	No Significance	No Significance

* **SPPIE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **ELLP**, English Language Learning Period; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4. The Interaction Effects of MEFLs' Social Variables and Speaker Evaluations

The following section provides the interaction effects analysis of the Moroccan EFL learners' social variables that demonstrated significant main effects in the MANOVA tests (i.e., gender (3.3.1), self-perceived proficiency in English (3.3.4) & living-abroad experience (3.3.6)) on the evaluations of the six speakers of varieties of English speech in terms of status and solidarity dimensions. As a reminder to the reader, an interaction effect “occurs when the effect of one independent variable differs depending on the level of a second independent variable” (Shaughnessy et al., 2014, p. 250).

A three-way between groups ANOVA test was conducted to explore the interaction effects of three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English* & *living-abroad experience*) of Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & The). In this $2 \times 2 \times 2$ factorial design of the ANOVA test, the three independent variables of *gender* (male & female), *self-perceived proficiency in English* (lower English level & higher English level) and *living-abroad experience* (yes & no) are consistent. The dependent variables are Moroccan EFL learners' ratings of each variety of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) according to speaker status and speaker solidarity.

According to Shaughnessy et al. (2014), “a three-factor design introduces the possibility of obtaining four different interaction effects” (p. 253). Put slightly different, “[i]f the three independent variables are symbolized as A, B, and C, the three-factor design allows a test of

the main effects of A, B, and C; two-way interaction effects of $A \times B$, $A \times C$, $B \times C$; and the three-way interaction effect of $A \times B \times C$ " (p. 253). If we apply this to the study's independent variables, the following four interaction effects will be obtained:

- Three two-way interaction effects
 1. $A \times B$ (Gender \times SPPiE)
 2. $A \times C$ (Gender \times LAE)
 3. $B \times C$ (SPPiE \times LAE)
- One three-way interaction effect
 $A \times B \times C$ (Gender \times SPPiE \times LAE)
* SPPiE, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; LAE, Living-Abroad Experience

As Shaughnessy et al. point out (2014), "[w]hen no interaction effect occurs in a complex design, the effects of each independent variable can be generalized across the levels of the other independent variable; thus, external validity of the independent variables increases" (p. 263). On the other hand, "[t]he presence of an interaction effect identifies boundaries for the external validity of a finding by specifying the conditions in which an effect of an independent variable occurs" (Shaughnessy et al., 2014, p. 263).

3.4.1. American English Speaker Status

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the status of the American English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no. The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the American English speaker on *intelligent*, *confident*, *clear* and *fluent* traits.

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The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for American English speaker status according to the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender, self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) are detailed in Table 65 below. Table 66 summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of AmE speaker status.

1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,92)=3,655$, $p(0.059)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.038, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,92)=2,212$, $p(0.140)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.023, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,052$, $p(0.821)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,107$, $p(0.744)>0.005$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 65 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for AmE Speaker Status according to Gender, SPPiE and LAE (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Gender	SPPiE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower English Level	No	6,6667	,38188	3
		Total	5,3182	1,42781	11
	Higher English Level	Yes	5,6071	1,38576	14
		No	6,4500	,62249	5
		Total	5,1667	1,19707	24
	Total	Yes	5,3879	1,21484	29
		No	6,5313	,52504	8
		Total	5,2143	1,25461	35
Female	Lower English Level	No	5,4593	1,26059	43
		Total	5,0833	1,66458	3
	Higher English Level	Yes	4,9167	1,60728	12
		No	4,9500	1,55896	15
		Total	6,3250	,90562	10
	Total	Yes	5,7969	1,01687	32
		No	5,9226	1,00682	42
		Total	6,0385	1,17192	13
Total	Lower English Level	No	5,5568	1,25042	44
		Total	5,6667	1,23954	57
	Higher English Level	Yes	5,8750	1,38519	6
		No	5,1087	1,50345	23
		Total	5,2672	1,48944	29
	Total	Yes	6,3667	,80104	15
		No	5,5268	1,13185	56

Total	5,7042	1,11988	71
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Table 66 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPIE and LAE on AmE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * SPPIE	5,108	1	5,108	3,655	,059	,038
Gender * LAE	3,091	1	3,091	2,212	,140	,023
SPPIE * LAE	,072	1	,072	,052	,821	,001
Gender * SPPIE * LAE	,150	1	,150	,107	,744	,001
Error	128,581	92	1,398			

a. R Squared = ,164 (Adjusted R Squared = ,101)

* **SPPIE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.2. American English Speaker Solidarity

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the solidarity of the American English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no. The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the American English speaker on the *pleasant*, *gentle* and *friendly* traits.

The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for American English speaker solidarity according to the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) are detailed in [Table 67](#) below.

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Table 68 summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of AmE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,92)=1,094$, $p(0.298)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.012, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,92)=1,093$, $p(0.299)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.012, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,580$, $p(0.448)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.006, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=3,494$, $p(0.065)>0.005$; partial eta squared=0.037, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 67 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for AmE Speaker Solidarity according to Gender, SPPiE and LAE (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Gender	SPPiE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower English Level	No	6,6667	,33333	3
		Total	4,6061	1,59735	11
		Yes	5,0476	1,65822	14
	Higher English Level	No	5,4667	2,16795	5
		Total	5,5417	1,29216	24
		Yes	5,5287	1,42961	29
	Total	No	5,9167	1,76158	8
		Total	5,2476	1,44019	35
		Yes	5,3721	1,50521	43
Female	Lower English Level	No	5,3721	1,50521	43
		Total	4,6667	,57735	3
		Yes	4,9722	1,35183	12
	Higher English Level	No	4,9111	1,22453	15
		Total	5,8333	1,42508	10
		Yes	5,2396	1,58450	32
	Total	No	5,3810	1,55229	42
		Total	5,5641	1,35663	13
		Yes	5,1667	1,51393	44
Total	Lower English Level	No	5,1667	1,51393	44
		Total	5,2573	1,47737	57
		Yes	5,6667	1,17379	6
	Higher English Level	No	4,7971	1,45206	23
		Total	4,9770	1,42520	29
		Yes	5,7111	1,63720	15
	Total	No	5,3690	1,46153	56
		Total	5,4413	1,49473	71
		Yes	5,3690	1,46153	56

Table 68 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPiE and LAE on AmE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * SPPiE	2,376	1	2,376	1,094	,298	,012
Gender * LAE	2,374	1	2,374	1,093	,299	,012

SPPiE * LAE	1,259	1	1,259	,580	,448	,006
Gender * SPPiE * LAE	7,588	1	7,588	3,494	,065	,037
Error	199,816	92	2,172			

a. R Squared = ,082 (Adjusted R Squared = ,012)

* **SPPiE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.3. British English Speaker Status

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the status of the British English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no. The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the British English speaker on the *intelligent*, *confident*, *clear* and *fluent* traits.

The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for British English speaker status according to the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) are detailed in [Table 69](#) below. [Table 70](#) summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of BrE speaker status.

1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,92)=0,004$, $p(0.950)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,194$, $p(0.661)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,416$, $p(0.521)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.004, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,185$, $p(0.668)>0.005$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.

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Table 69 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for BrE Speaker Status according to Gender, SPPIE and LAE (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Gender	SPPIE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower English Level	No	6,7500	,43301	3
		Total	5,9318	1,10165	11
	Higher English Level	Yes	6,1071	1,04105	14
		No	6,6500	,28504	5
		Total	5,9583	,97987	24
	Total	Yes	6,0776	,93327	29
		No	6,6875	,32043	8
		Total	5,9500	1,00330	35
Female	Lower English Level	No	6,0872	,95725	43
		Total	6,4167	1,01036	3
	Higher English Level	Yes	5,6042	1,20349	12
		No	5,7667	1,18196	15
		Total	6,1000	1,15590	10
	Total	Yes	5,9219	1,14553	32
		No	5,9643	1,13639	42
		Total	6,1731	1,09156	13
Total	Lower English Level	No	5,8352	1,15631	44
		Total	5,9123	1,14124	57
	Higher English Level	Yes	6,5833	,71880	6
		No	5,7609	1,14186	23
		Total	5,9310	1,10981	29
	Total	Yes	6,2833	,97681	15
		No	5,9375	1,06840	56
		Total	6,0106	1,05258	71

Table 70 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPIE and LAE on BrE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * SPPIE	,005	1	,005	,004	,950	,000
Gender * LAE	,222	1	,222	,194	,661	,002
SPPIE * LAE	,477	1	,477	,416	,521	,004
Gender * SPPIE * LAE	,212	1	,212	,185	,668	,002
Error	105,598	92	1,148			

a. R Squared = ,059 (Adjusted R Squared = ,013)

* **SPPIE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.4. British English Speaker Solidarity

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in*

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English & living-abroad experience) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the solidarity of the British English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no. The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the British English speaker on the *pleasant*, *gentle* and *friendly* traits.

The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for British English speaker solidarity according to the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) are detailed in [Table 71](#) below. [Table 72](#) summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of BrE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,92)=0,032$, $p(0.858)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,388$, $p(0.535)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.004, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=1,917$, $p(0.170)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.020, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,010$, $p(0.922)>0.005$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

Table 71 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for BrE Speaker Solidarity according to Gender, SPPiE and LAE (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Gender	SPPiE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower English Level	No	6,7778	,38490	3
		Total	5,7879	1,39262	11
	Higher English Level	Yes	6,0000	1,30089	14
		No	6,0667	,98319	5
		Total	6,0833	1,09125	24
	Total	Yes	6,0805	1,05656	29
		No	6,3333	,85449	8
		Total	5,9905	1,18124	35

Female	Lower English Level	No	6,0543	1,12671	43
		Total	6,2222	1,07152	3
	Higher English Level	Yes	5,7222	1,59439	12
		No	5,8222	1,48467	15
		Total	5,7000	1,80842	10
	Total	Yes	6,0729	,96807	32
		No	5,9841	1,20512	42
		Total	5,8205	1,64213	13
Total	Lower English Level	No	5,9773	1,16228	44
		Total	5,9415	1,27261	57
	Higher English Level	Yes	6,5000	,78174	6
		No	5,7536	1,46755	23
		Total	5,9080	1,37695	29
	Total	Yes	5,8222	1,55260	15
		No	6,0774	1,01303	56
		Total	6,0235	1,13993	71

Table 72 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPiE and LAE on BrE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * SPPiE	,049	1	,049	,032	,858	,000
Gender * LAE	,590	1	,590	,388	,535	,004
SPPiE * LAE	2,910	1	2,910	1,917	,170	,020
Gender * SPPiE * LAE	,015	1	,015	,010	,922	,000
Error	139,690	92	1,518			

a. R Squared = ,032 (Adjusted R Squared = -,042)

* **SPPiE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.5. Indian English Speaker Status

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the status of the Indian English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no.

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The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the Indian English speaker on the *intelligent*, *confident*, *clear* and *fluent* traits.

The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for Indian English speaker status according to the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English* & *living-abroad experience*) are detailed in Table 73 below. Table 74 summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of InE speaker status.

1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,94)=0,110$, $p(0.741)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests no effect.
2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,94)=0,140$, $p(0.709)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,94)=0,385$, $p(0.537)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.004, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,94)=0,155$, $p(0.694)>0.005$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 73 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for InE Speaker Status according to Gender, SPPiE and LAE (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Gender	SPPiE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower English Level	No	5,6667	1,01036	3
		Total	5,1818	,95584	11
	Higher English Level	Yes	5,2857	,94999	14
		No	5,5000	1,15920	5
		Total	5,1667	1,14604	24
	Total	Yes	5,2241	1,13457	29
		No	5,5625	1,03294	8
		Total	5,1714	1,07575	35
Female	Lower English Level	No	5,2442	1,06694	43
		Total	5,8333	1,12731	3
	Higher English Level	Yes	4,8333	1,36654	12
		No	5,0333	1,34916	15
		Total	5,6250	,98072	10
	Total	Yes	5,3047	1,36301	32
		No	5,3810	1,27862	42
		Total	5,6731	,97031	13
Total	Lower English Level	No	5,1761	1,36461	44

Higher English Level	Total	5,2895	1,29455	57
	Yes	5,7500	,96177	6
	No	5,0000	1,17502	23
	Total	5,1552	1,16000	29
Total	Yes	5,5833	1,00297	15
	No	5,2455	1,26535	56
	Total	5,3169	1,21593	71

Table 74 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPIE and LAE on InE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * SPPIE	,163	1	,163	,110	,741	,001
Gender * LAE	,208	1	,208	,140	,709	,002
SPPIE * LAE	,569	1	,569	,385	,537	,004
Gender * SPPIE * LAE	,230	1	,230	,155	,694	,002
Error	137,754	94	1,465			

a. R Squared = ,040 (Adjusted R Squared = -,033)

* **SPPIE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.6. Indian English Speaker Solidarity

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the solidarity of the Indian English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no. The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the Indian English speaker on the *pleasant*, *gentle* and *friendly* traits.

The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for Indian English speaker solidarity according to the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) are detailed in

Table 75 below. Table 76 summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of InE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,92)=0,505$, $p(0.479)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.005, which suggests no effect.
2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,92)=1,733$, $p(0.191)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.018, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,787$, $p(0.377)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.008, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,596$, $p(0.442)>0.005$; partial eta squared=0.006, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 75 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for InE Speaker Solidarity according to Gender, SPPiE and LAE
($N=100$; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Gender	SPPiE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower Level of English	Yes	5,2222	1,64429	3
		No	4,9394	1,11373	11
		Total	5,0000	1,17670	14
	Higher Level of English	Yes	4,6000	2,04668	5
		No	5,4861	1,27775	24
		Total	5,3333	1,43372	29
	Total	Yes	4,8333	1,80827	8
		No	5,3143	1,23918	35
		Total	5,2248	1,35053	43
Female	Lower Level of English	Yes	5,4444	,83887	3
		No	4,7778	1,53960	12
		Total	4,9111	1,42799	15
	Higher Level of English	Yes	5,8667	,77300	10
		No	5,2812	1,21257	32
		Total	5,4206	1,14305	42
	Total	Yes	5,7692	,77441	13
		No	5,1439	1,31066	44
		Total	5,2865	1,23191	57
Total	Lower Level of English	Yes	5,3333	1,17379	6
		No	4,8551	1,32507	23
		Total	4,9540	1,29015	29
	Higher Level of English	Yes	5,4444	1,40106	15
		No	5,3690	1,23367	56

Total	Total	5,3850	1,26070	71
	Yes	5,4127	1,31193	21
	No	5,2194	1,27421	79
	Total	5,2600	1,27796	100

Table 76 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPIE and LAE on InE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * SPPIE	,826	1	,826	,505	,479	,005
Gender * LAE	2,836	1	2,836	1,733	,191	,018
SPPIE * LAE	1,288	1	1,288	,787	,377	,008
Gender * SPPIE * LAE	,975	1	,975	,596	,442	,006
Error	150,557	92	1,636			

a. R Squared = ,069 (Adjusted R Squared = ,002)

* **SPPIE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.7. Filipino English Speaker Status

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the status of the Filipino English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no. The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the Filipino English speaker on the *intelligent*, *confident*, *clear* and *fluent* traits.

The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for Filipino English speaker status according to the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) are detailed in [Table 77](#) below. [Table 78](#) summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of FiE speaker status.

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1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,92)=0,088$, $p(0.768)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.001, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,460$, $p(0.499)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.005, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=1,143$, $p(0.288)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.012, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,293$, $p(0.590)>0.005$; partial eta squared=0.003, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 77 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for FiE Speaker Status according to Gender, SPPiE and LAE (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Gender	SPPiE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower Level of English	Yes	5,2500	,90139	3
		No	5,2273	1,74089	11
		Total	5,2321	1,56729	14
	Higher Level of English	Yes	4,8500	,82158	5
		No	5,1875	1,17550	24
		Total	5,1293	1,11728	29
	Total	Yes	5,0000	,81284	8
		No	5,2000	1,35147	35
		Total	5,1628	1,26289	43
Female	Lower Level of English	Yes	6,1667	1,23322	3
		No	5,3125	1,43861	12
		Total	5,4833	1,40302	15
	Higher Level of English	Yes	5,6000	,85147	10
		No	5,8438	1,16700	32
		Total	5,7857	1,09541	42
	Total	Yes	5,7308	,92681	13
		No	5,6989	1,25242	44
		Total	5,7061	1,17842	57
Total	Lower Level of English	Yes	5,7083	1,08877	6
		No	5,2717	1,55379	23
		Total	5,3621	1,46322	29
	Higher Level of English	Yes	5,3500	,89043	15
		No	5,5625	1,20534	56
		Total	5,5176	1,14356	71
	Total	Yes	5,4524	,93748	21
		No	5,4778	1,31265	79
		Total	5,4725	1,23904	100

Table 78 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPiE and LAE on FiE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * SPPiE	,135	1	,135	,088	,768	,001
Gender * LAE	,705	1	,705	,460	,499	,005
SPPiE * LAE	1,752	1	1,752	1,143	,288	,012
Gender * SPPiE * LAE	,448	1	,448	,293	,590	,003
Error	140,964	92	1,532			

a. R Squared = ,073 (Adjusted R Squared = ,002)

* **SPPiE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.8. Filipino English Speaker Solidarity

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the solidarity of the Filipino English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no. The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the Filipino English speaker on the *pleasant*, *gentle* and *friendly* traits.

The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for Filipino English speaker solidarity according to the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) are detailed in [Table 79](#) below. [Table 80](#) summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of FiE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,92)=0,024$, $p(0.768)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

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2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,645$, $p(0.499)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.007, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. SPPIE * LAE: $F(1,92)=2,165$, $p(0.288)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.023, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPIE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,534$, $p(0.590)>0.005$; partial eta squared=0.006, which suggests a negligible effect.

Table 79 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for FiE Speaker Solidarity according to Gender, SPPIE and LAE (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Gender	SPPIE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower Level of English	Yes	5,1111	1,57527	3
		No	5,4545	1,17637	11
		Total	5,3810	1,21146	14
	Higher Level of English	Yes	4,6000	1,67332	5
		No	5,4444	1,13643	24
		Total	5,2989	1,25149	29
	Total	Yes	4,7917	1,54239	8
		No	5,4476	1,13167	35
		Total	5,3256	1,22472	43
Female	Lower Level of English	Yes	6,0000	1,00000	3
		No	5,3056	1,35928	12
		Total	5,4444	1,29509	15
	Higher Level of English	Yes	5,1000	1,49113	10
		No	5,8958	1,08901	32
		Total	5,7063	1,22575	42
	Total	Yes	5,3077	1,41068	13
		No	5,7348	1,18252	44
		Total	5,6374	1,23809	57
Total	Lower Level of English	Yes	5,5556	1,27657	6
		No	5,3768	1,24845	23
		Total	5,4138	1,23332	29
	Higher Level of English	Yes	4,9333	1,51291	15
		No	5,7024	1,12219	56
		Total	5,5399	1,24386	71
	Total	Yes	5,1111	1,44658	21
		No	5,6076	1,16178	79
		Total	5,5033	1,23592	100

Table 80 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPIE and LAE on FiE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
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Gender * SPPiE	,037	1	,037	,024	,876	,000
Gender * LAE	,973	1	,973	,645	,424	,007
SPPiE * LAE	3,267	1	3,267	2,165	,145	,023
Gender * SPPiE * LAE	,806	1	,806	,534	,467	,006
Error	138,804	92	1,509			

a. R Squared = ,082 (Adjusted R Squared = ,012)

* **SPPiE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.9. Japanese English Speaker Status

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English* & *living-abroad experience*) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the status of the Japanese English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no. The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the Japanese English speaker on the *intelligent*, *confident*, *clear* and *fluent* traits.

The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for Japanese English speaker status according to the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English* & *living-abroad experience*) are detailed in [Table 81](#) below. [Table 82](#) summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of JpE speaker status.

1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,92)=1,755$, $p(0.189)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.019, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,384$, $p(0.537)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.004, which suggests a negligible effect.

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3. SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=2,004$, $p(0.160)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.021, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,041$, $p(0.840)>0.005$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.

Table 81 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for JpE Speaker Status according to Gender SPPiE and LAE (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Gender	SPPiE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower Level of English	Yes	3,8333	2,15542	3
		No	3,0000	,72457	11
		Total	3,1786	1,11557	14
	Higher Level of English	Yes	3,8000	1,69004	5
		No	4,0729	,97657	24
		Total	4,0259	1,09655	29
	Total	Yes	3,8125	1,72041	8
		No	3,7357	1,02710	35
		Total	3,7500	1,16113	43
Female	Lower Level of English	Yes	4,5000	,90139	3
		No	4,2292	1,34189	12
		Total	4,2833	1,24236	15
	Higher Level of English	Yes	3,7000	1,36321	10
		No	4,2578	1,33876	32
		Total	4,1250	1,34940	42
	Total	Yes	3,8846	1,28540	13
		No	4,2500	1,32397	44
		Total	4,1667	1,31300	57
Total	Lower Level of English	Yes	4,1667	1,52206	6
		No	3,6413	1,23819	23
		Total	3,7500	1,29042	29
	Higher Level of English	Yes	3,7333	1,41884	15
		No	4,1786	1,19060	56
		Total	4,0845	1,24495	71
	Total	Yes	3,8571	1,42428	21
		No	4,0222	1,22159	79
		Total	3,9875	1,26100	100

Table 82 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPiE and LAE on JpE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * SPPiE	2,702	1	2,702	1,755	,189	,019
Gender * LAE	,592	1	,592	,384	,537	,004

SPPiE * LAE	3,084	1	3,084	2,004	,160	,021
Gender * SPPiE * LAE	,063	1	,063	,041	,840	,000
Error	141,619	92	1,539			

a. R Squared = ,100 (Adjusted R Squared = ,032)

* **SPPiE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.10. Japanese English Speaker Solidarity

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English* & *living-abroad experience*) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the solidarity of the Japanese English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no. The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the Japanese English speaker on the *pleasant*, *gentle* and *friendly* traits.

The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for Japanese English speaker solidarity according the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English* & *living-abroad experience*) are detailed in [Table 83](#) below. [Table 84](#) summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of JpE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,92) = 1,429$, $p(0.235) > 0.05$; partial eta squared=0.015, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,92) = 0,016$, $p(0.899) > 0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
3. SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92) = 0,743$, $p(0.391) > 0.05$; partial eta squared=0.008, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92) = 0,121$, $p(0.729) > 0.005$; partial eta squared=0.001, which a negligible effect.

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Table 83 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for JpE Speaker Solidarity according to Gender, SPPiE and LAE (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Gender	SPPiE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower Level of English	Yes	3,3333	1,15470	3
		No	3,3636	1,34540	11
		Total	3,3571	1,26399	14
	Higher Level of English	Yes	3,7333	1,55278	5
		No	4,0972	1,20978	24
		Total	4,0345	1,25149	29
	Total	Yes	3,5833	1,34223	8
		No	3,8667	1,28134	35
		Total	3,8140	1,28133	43
Female	Lower Level of English	Yes	4,3333	,88192	3
		No	4,0556	1,22130	12
		Total	4,1111	1,13855	15
	Higher Level of English	Yes	3,7333	1,02800	10
		No	4,2396	1,07508	32
		Total	4,1190	1,07401	42
	Total	Yes	3,8718	,99572	13
		No	4,1894	1,10530	44
		Total	4,1170	1,08103	57
Total	Lower Level of English	Yes	3,8333	1,06979	6
		No	3,7246	1,30133	23
		Total	3,7471	1,23974	29
	Higher Level of English	Yes	3,7333	1,16972	15
		No	4,1786	1,12630	56
		Total	4,0845	1,14187	71
	Total	Yes	3,7619	1,11626	21
		No	4,0464	1,18962	79
		Total	3,9867	1,17486	100

Table 84 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPiE and LAE on JpE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * SPPiE	1,978	1	1,978	1,429	,235	,015
Gender * LAE	,023	1	,023	,016	,899	,000
SPPiE * LAE	1,029	1	1,029	,743	,391	,008
Gender * SPPiE * LAE	,167	1	,167	,121	,729	,001
Error	127,378	92	1,385			

a. R Squared = ,068 (Adjusted R Squared = -,003)

* **SPPiE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.11. Thai English Speaker Status

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the status of the Thai English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no. The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the Thai English speaker on the *intelligent*, *confident*, *clear* and *fluent* traits.

The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for Thai English speaker status according to the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) are detailed in [Table 85](#) below. [Table 86](#) summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of the speaker status.

1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,92) = 1,278$, $p(0.261) > 0.05$; partial eta squared = 0.014, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,92) = 0,209$, $p(0.649) > 0.05$; partial eta squared = 0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.
3. SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92) = 0,301$, $p(0.585) > 0.05$; partial eta squared = 0.003, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92) = 0,007$, $p(0.934) > 0.005$; partial eta squared = 0.000, which no effect.

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Table 85 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for ThE Speaker Status according to Gender, SPPiE and LAE (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

Gender	SPPiE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower Level of English	Yes	4,5833	1,70171	3
		No	4,5682	1,32802	11
		Total	4,5714	1,34246	14
	Higher Level of English	Yes	4,5000	2,31840	5
		No	4,1146	1,12525	24
		Total	4,1810	1,35274	29
	Total	Yes	4,5313	1,97501	8
		No	4,2571	1,19202	35
		Total	4,3081	1,34611	43
Female	Lower Level of English	Yes	3,9167	1,52753	3
		No	3,6042	1,37121	12
		Total	3,6667	1,35181	15
	Higher Level of English	Yes	4,8000	1,64907	10
		No	3,9844	1,48506	32
		Total	4,1786	1,54534	42
	Total	Yes	4,5962	1,60578	13
		No	3,8807	1,44923	44
		Total	4,0439	1,50232	57
Total	Lower Level of English	Yes	4,2500	1,49164	6
		No	4,0652	1,40861	23
		Total	4,1034	1,40076	29
	Higher Level of English	Yes	4,7000	1,81806	15
		No	4,0402	1,33295	56
		Total	4,1796	1,45969	71
	Total	Yes	4,5714	1,70687	21
		No	4,0475	1,34634	79
		Total	4,1575	1,43621	100

Table 86 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPiE and LAE on ThE Speaker Status

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * SPPiE	2,671	1	2,671	1,278	,261	,014
Gender * LAE	,436	1	,436	,209	,649	,002
SPPiE * LAE	,628	1	,628	,301	,585	,003
Gender * SPPiE * LAE	,015	1	,015	,007	,934	,000
Error	192,242	92	2,090			

a. R Squared = ,059 (Adjusted R Squared = -,013)

* **SPPiE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.12. Thai English Speaker Solidarity

A three-way ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the interaction effects of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) of the Moroccan EFL learners on the evaluations of the solidarity of the Thai English speaker. The first independent variable, *gender*, was composed of two levels: male and female. The second independent variable, *self-perceived proficiency in English*, was composed of two levels: lower English level and higher English level. The third independent variable, *living-abroad experience*, was composed of the two levels: yes and no. The dependent variable was Moroccan EFL learners' mean ratings of the Thai English speaker on the *pleasant*, *gentle* and *friendly* traits.

The means and standard deviations of the participants' ratings for Thai English speaker solidarity according to the three social variables that were found to be significant main effects (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) are detailed in [Table 87](#) below. [Table 88](#) summarises the ANOVA tests and demonstrates no significant two-way or three-way interaction effects in Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on the evaluations of ThE speaker solidarity.

1. Gender * SPPiE: $F(1,92)= 1,985$, $p(0.162)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.021, which suggests a negligible effect.
2. Gender * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,038$, $p(0.846)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.000, which suggests no effect.
3. SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,185$, $p(0.668)>0.05$; partial eta squared=0.002, which suggests a negligible effect.
4. Gender * SPPiE * LAE: $F(1,92)=0,056$, $p(0.813)>0.005$; partial eta squared=0.001, which a negligible effect.

Table 87 Mean Evaluations and Standard Deviations for ThE Speaker Solidarity according to Gender, SPPiE and LAE (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

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Gender	SPPiE	LAE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	Lower Level of English	Yes	2,8889	1,64429	3
		No	2,9697	1,94053	11
		Total	2,9524	1,82038	14
	Higher Level of English	Yes	3,4000	1,96356	5
		No	4,0000	1,26644	24
		Total	3,8966	1,38617	29
	Total	Yes	3,2083	1,74517	8
		No	3,6762	1,55821	35
		Total	3,5891	1,58337	43
Female	Lower Level of English	Yes	3,3333	1,52753	3
		No	3,7500	1,58990	12
		Total	3,6667	1,53271	15
	Higher Level of English	Yes	2,9333	,96609	10
		No	3,5000	1,23277	32
		Total	3,3651	1,18895	42
	Total	Yes	3,0256	1,05814	13
		No	3,5682	1,32474	44
		Total	3,4444	1,28071	57
Total	Lower Level of English	Yes	3,1111	1,44016	6
		No	3,3768	1,77042	23
		Total	3,3218	1,68674	29
	Higher Level of English	Yes	3,0889	1,32417	15
		No	3,7143	1,26080	56
		Total	3,5822	1,29065	71
	Total	Yes	3,0952	1,32137	21
		No	3,6160	1,42434	79
		Total	3,5067	1,41301	100

Table 88 Interaction Effects of Gender, SPPiE and LAE on ThE Speaker Solidarity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender * SPPiE	3,956	1	3,956	1,985	,162	,021
Gender * LAE	,075	1	,075	,038	,846	,000
SPPiE * LAE	,369	1	,369	,185	,668	,002
Gender * SPPiE * LAE	,112	1	,112	,056	,813	,001
Error	183,358	92	1,993			

a. R Squared = ,072 (Adjusted R Squared = ,002)

* **SPPiE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.4.13. Summary of the Interaction Effects of MEFLs' Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

In line with previous research studies (e.g., McKenzie, 2006), the results of the three-way ANOVA tests discussed in the subsections above (3.4.1 to 3.4.12) indicate that there were no significant interaction effects between any of the three social variables (i.e., *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English & living-abroad experience*) on Moroccan EFL learners' evaluations of the six speakers in terms of status (or competence) and solidarity (or social attractiveness) dimensions. Table 89 summarises the interaction effect of these social variables on the participants' evaluations and demonstrates that no two-way or three-way significant interaction effects were found for both speaker status and speaker solidarity.

Table 89 Summary of the Interaction Effects of MEFLs' Social Variables on Speaker Evaluations

Interaction Effect of Social Variables	Gender × SPPIE	Gender × LAE	SPPIE × LAE	Gender × SPPIE × LAE
Speaker Status	No Significance	No Significance	No Significance	No Significance
Speaker Solidarity	No Significance	No Significance	No Significance	No Significance

* **SPPIE**, Self-Perceived Proficiency in English; **LAE**, Living-Abroad Experience

3.5. MEFLs' Identifications and Misidentifications of Speakers' Origins

This section provides further details about the participants' identifications and misidentifications of the six English speakers' origins. To this end, an outline of the participants' correct and incorrect identification rate is presented in subsection 3.5.1, followed by an analysis and a discussion of their identification and misidentification of speakers' origins in subsection 3.5.2 and the effect of the participants' identifications and misidentifications of speakers' origins on evaluations in subsection 3.5.3.

3.5.1. MEFLs' Overall Correct and Incorrect Identification Rate

This subsection provides an analysis of the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners were able or unable to identify the varieties of English speech selected in the verbal-guise task (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). The percentages of correct and incorrect identifications for each English variety are shown in [Table 90](#) and [Figure 24](#). In this regard, the results show that the most correctly identified English variety is British English ($n= 81, 81,0\%$). The second correctly identified variety of English speech is Indian English ($n= 73, 73,0\%$). Unexpectedly, American English has been ranked as the third correctly identified variety of English speech ($n= 66, 66,0\%$).

Clearly, the speakers of American English and British English (i.e., inner circle varieties of English) and Indian English (an outer circle variety of English) were more frequently correctly identified than incorrectly identified. This could be largely attributable to the fact that the participants are frequently exposed to American and British varieties of English either in academic settings or through movies and social media. Put slightly different, the apparent ease with which Moroccan EFL learners could recognise these varieties of English can be possibly attributable to the influence and presence of American and British cultures through movies and academia. As for Indian English, ease of identification may be explained by the fact that the participants are familiar with the Indian accent in Bollywood movies.

In contrast to inner circle varieties and Indian English, an outer circle variety, Filipino English (an outer circle variety) and expanding circle varieties (i.e., JpE & ThE) were the least correctly identified ones. Relatedly, a substantial proportion of the participants mistakenly identified Filipino English ($n= 94, 94\%$), Japanese English ($n= 87, 87\%$) and Thai English ($n= 86, 86\%$). One plausible explanatory basis for that could be the fact that Moroccan EFL learners are not exposed to, and therefore not familiar with, these varieties of English speech.

Table 90 MEFLs' Overall Correct and Incorrect Identifications of Speakers' Origins

	Correct		Incorrect	
	No	[%]	No	[%]
American Speaker	66	66,0%	34	34,0%
British Speaker	81	81,0%	19	19,0%
Indian Speaker	73	73,0%	27	27,0%
Filipino Speaker	6	6,0%	94	94,0%
Japanese Speaker	13	13,0%	87	87,0%
Thai Speaker	14	14,0%	86	86,0%

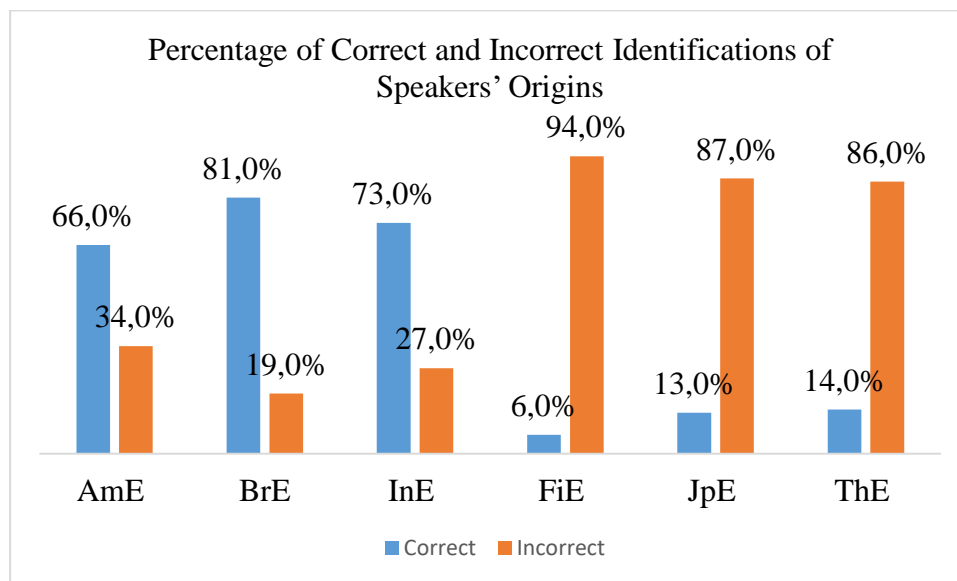


Figure 24 MEFLs' Overall Correct and Incorrect Identifications of Speakers' Origins

3.5.2. MEFLs' Identification and Misidentification Patterns of Speakers' Origins

In light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018), the purpose of this subsection is to analyse Moroccan EFL learners' identifications and misidentifications of the six recorded speakers' countries of origin. Following Chien (2018), Moroccan EFL learners' identifications of these varieties of English speech will be analysed using Kachru's (1985) three-circle model of World Englishes introduced in subsection 1.9.2.2 above. First, an account of the participants' (mis)identifications of inner circle Englishes (i.e., AmE & BrE) is provided in

subsubsection 3.5.2.1. Second, the participants' (mis)identifications of outer circle Englishes (i.e., InE & FiE) are presented in subsubsection 3.5.2.2. Finally, the participants' (mis)identifications of expanding circle Englishes (i.e., JpE & ThE) are covered in subsubsection 3.5.2.3.

3.5.2.1. Inner Circle Englishes (AmE & BrE)

This subsubsection examines the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners were able or unable to identify the origins of the two speakers of inner circle Englishes (i.e., AmE & BrE). To this end, the participants' (mis)identifications of the American English speaker are presented in subsubsection 3.5.2.1.1, whereas their (mis)identifications of the British English speaker are presented in subsubsection 3.5.2.1.2.

3.5.2.1.1. American English

As [Table 91](#) and [Figure 25](#) illustrate below, the majority of the participants ($n= 66$, 66,0%) were able to identify the origin of the American English speaker correctly. The open-ended question on the justification of the choice of the speaker's origin shows that participants could identify the American English speaker 'from the way of speaking' (P22) based on specific American speech patterns, such as intonation or certain vocabulary items, and 'from the accent' (P12). However, the participants did not provide further details about which specific features of American English accents they recognised.

Equally important, participants believed that fluency and lack of hesitation are common in native speech. In this regard, P33 states that the speaker 'is very fluent and speaks faster without hesitation. Her accent indicates that she is a native speaker.' Moreover, participants' exposure to authentic media helped them recognise the American accent. For example, P41 points out that '[t]he woman seems to be American. My conclusion came from the fact of

watching videos of Americans speaking'. Similarly, personal exposure to native American speakers and familiarity with American English speakers helped participants recognise the accent correctly ('Based on my exposure to American native speakers' (P63)).

On the other hand, some participants could not recognise the American English speaker as they associated the accent with other accents used by English speakers from inner or outer circle countries. In this respect, P4 states that 'the accent sounds a bit nasalized, which is something I associate with Filipinos.' (4). Similarly, P8 states that he 'depended on the girl's accent. It seems very close to a British accent'. Additionally, P9 states that '[i]t sounded similar to the English spoken by Korean people I heard before!' Thus, some participants were confused between American and British English accents, indicating a misidentification (e.g., 'I believe that the accent is British. The accent is very soft.' (P58)).

Table 91 MEFLs' Perceived Origins of the American Speaker

	Frequency	Percent
China	2	2,0
Germany	4	4,0
India	1	1,0
Japan	1	1,0
South Korea	2	2,0
Spain	2	2,0
Sri Lanka	1	1,0
Taiwan	1	1,0
Thailand	2	2,0
The Philippines	2	2,0
UK	16	16,0
US	66	66,0
Total	100	100,0

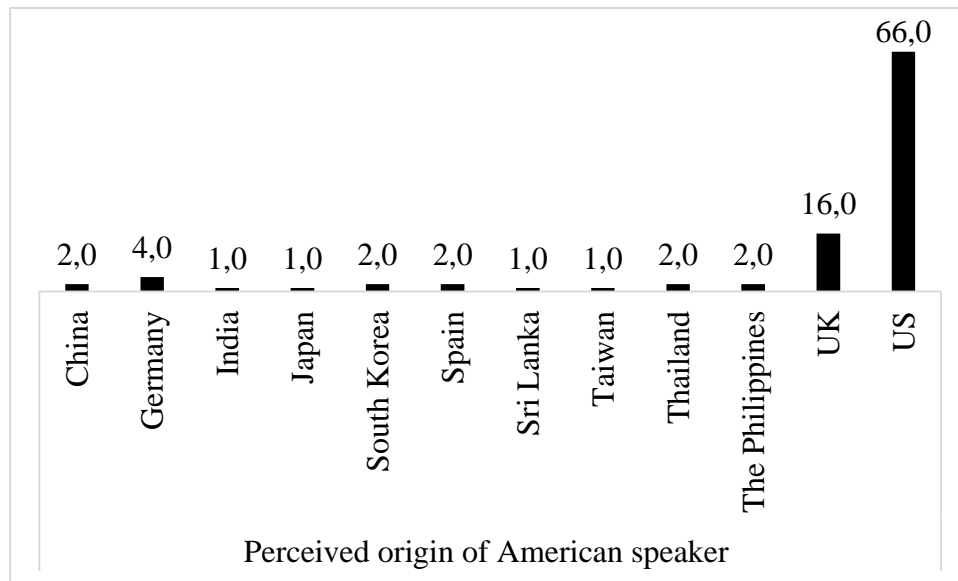


Figure 25 MEFLs' Perceived Origins of the American Speaker

❖ **Correct Identification of the American English Speaker**

- 'From her way of speaking' (P22)
- 'From her accent' (P12)
- 'She is very fluent and speaks faster without hesitation. Her accent indicates that she is a native speaker.' (P33)
- 'The woman seems to be American. My conclusion came from the fact of watching videos of Americans speaking.' (P41)
- 'Based on my exposure to American native speakers' (P63)
- 'I made it because I have heard this accent before.' (P64)
- 'Well, her American accent is just perfect. So, I believe my instinct that she is American.' (P65)
- 'I've exposed myself to multiple accents in the media that I chose to engage with and this seems like a standard American accent.' (P73)
- 'I did understand all what she said. Everything was clear and from her accent I guess she is from the US.' (P95)
- 'It seems similar to the American accent I'm always exposed to.' (P80)

❖ **Incorrect Identification of the American English Speaker**

- 'The accent sounds a bit nasalised, which is something I associate with Filipinos.' (P4)
- 'I depended on the girl's accent. It seems very close to British accent.' (P8)
- 'It sounded similar to the English spoken by Korean people I heard before!' (P9)
- 'I believe that the accent is British. The accent is very soft.' (P58)

3.5.2.1.2. British English

Table 92 and Figure 26 below reveal that the majority of the participants ($n= 81$, 81,0%) were able to identify the origin of the British English speaker correctly. The open-ended question on the justification of the choice of the speaker's origin shows that participants could identify the British English speaker correctly based on the resemblance of the British accents (e.g., 'The speaker's accent resembles that of UK citizens.' (P15)). Moreover, some participants referred to non-rhotic pronunciation, and acknowledged the stress variation and other pronunciation features, as P16 stated: 'Non-rhotic English makes you immediately think of UK English speakers (though they aren't the only ones - nor do they all speak a non-rhotic English). But there's also other 'typical' UK stress variation and pronunciation'. Similarly, P17 states that 'the r sound is not pronounced as in American English. Her accent is British.' and identified British accent correctly by focusing on the non-rhotic aspect of the accent.

However, some participants misidentified the British accent as they associated it with American English (e.g., 'sounds like a US variety for me' (P4), 'I guess she speaks American English' (P136), 'She has an American accent.' (P208)). Some participants also doubted the native speaker status of the speaker (e.g., 'this girl speaks very clearly and confident, but she does not seem as a native speaker.' (P8)).

Table 92 MEFLs' Perceived Origins of the British Speaker

	Frequency	Percent
China	1	1,0
Germany	5	5,0
India	1	1,0
South Korea	1	1,0
Spain	1	1,0
Taiwan	1	1,0
Thailand	1	1,0
The Philippines	1	1,0
UK	81	81,0
US	7	7,0

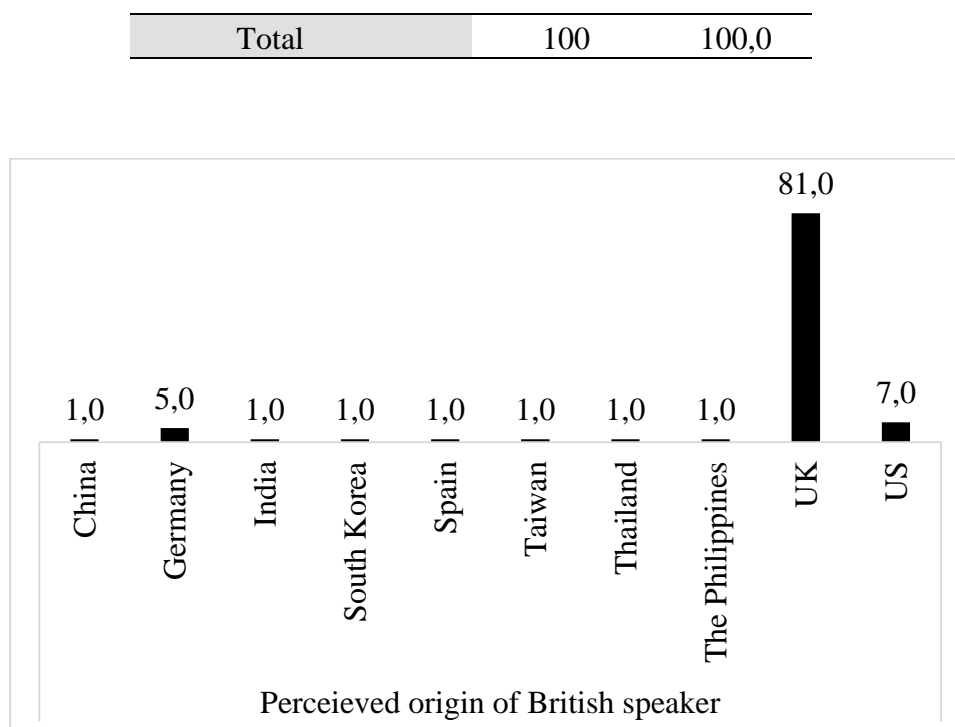


Figure 26 MEFLs' Perceived Origins of the British Speaker

❖ Correct Identification of the British English Speaker

- 'The speaker's accent resembles that of UK citizens.' (P15)
- 'Non-rhotic English makes you immediately think of UK English speakers (though they aren't the only ones - nor do they all speak a non-rhotic English). But there's also other 'typical' UK stress variation and pronunciation.' (P16)
- 'The r sound is not pronounced as in American English. Her accent is British.' (P17)
- 'The speaker must be British.' (P21)
- 'It sounds more UK than US or any other given choice.' (P46)
- 'I'm familiar with the British accent so it was easy for me to know the accent.' (P56)
- 'I am familiar with the British accent. (P75)
- 'It's definitely a native English speaker speaking. It feels that the speaker is British.' (P80)
- 'The word Wednesday was uttered in a UK accent.' (P87)
- 'The British don't pronounce r at the end of the word.' (P88)

❖ Incorrect Identification of the British English Speaker

- 'Sounds like a US variety for me.' (P4)
- 'This girl speaks very clear and confident, but she does not seem as a native speaker.' (P8)
- 'I guess she speaks American English.' (P136)
- 'She has an American accent.' (P208)

3.5.2.2. Outer Circle Englishes (InE & FiE)

This subsection examines the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners were able or unable to identify the origins of the two speakers of outer circle Englishes (i.e., InE & FiE). To this end, the participants' (mis)identifications of the Indian English speaker are provided in subsection 3.5.2.2.1, whereas their (mis)identifications of the Filipino English speaker are introduced in subsection 3.5.2.2.2.

3.5.2.2.1. Indian English

Table 93 and Figure 27 below reveal that the majority of the participants ($n= 73$, 73,0%) were able to identify the origin of the Indian English speaker correctly. The open-ended question on the justification of the choice of the speaker's origin shows that participants exposure to Indian content on platforms like YouTube is found to cause participants' familiarity with the Indian English accent ('She sounds like those Indians who are making videos on YouTube' (P2). Some participants also identified the Indian English speaker correctly as they are aware of distinctive phonetic patterns and specific phonetic features (e.g., retroflex sounds or particular vowel pronunciations) in Indian English, (e.g., 'The articulation of English sounds is Indian.' (P17), 'Her accent is Indian.' (P21), 'The Indian accent is known for tapping the "r" sound.' (P36)). Moreover, participants identified the Indian English accent correctly based on their knowledge of distinctive rhythm and stress patterns and prosodic features that the accent has as P37 ('It was never hard to recognize an Indian accent') and P39 ('From her intonation and accent') stated. Finally, correct identification of the Indian accent is not only about recognition of the accent but is also related to perceived fluency and cultural biases as P41 said:

I am familiar with the Indian accent. What is interesting here is that I think this woman sounds gentle and pleasant. The fluency is not 100%, at least the phonological fluency. I know that everyone has an accent and it is okay to have

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an accent. Culturally, we just cannot help to say that American or British is more fluent than someone with an Indian accent.

On the other hand, some participants identified the Indian English accent incorrectly. The reason for misidentification of the accent may be attributable to the participants' unfamiliarity with the Indian English phonological system (e.g., 'The way she pronounces certain sounds in audio tapes, like the /T/ sound, pushes me to categorize her accent under the Chinese box.' (P14)) or associating the pronunciation with the Hispanic accent (e.g., 'The way she said STELLA and how she pronounces the letter 'T'. She's Hispanic. She reminds me of the actress Sofia Vergara' (P80). Moreover, some participants could not distinguish between English accents used in South Asian countries or Egypt (e.g., 'It could be Sri Lankan.' (P4) and 'This looks very much like Egyptians and I do not think it is from Spain, but I had to select one. All sounds received high stress and no contractions.' (P107)).

Table 93 MEFLs' Perceived Origins of the Indian Speaker

	Frequency	Percent
China	3	3,0
Germany	6	6,0
India	73	73,0
Japan	2	2,0
South Korea	1	1,0
Spain	3	3,0
Sri Lanka	1	1,0
Taiwan	3	3,0
Thailand	2	2,0
The Philippines	2	2,0
UK	3	3,0
US	1	1,0
Total	100	100,0

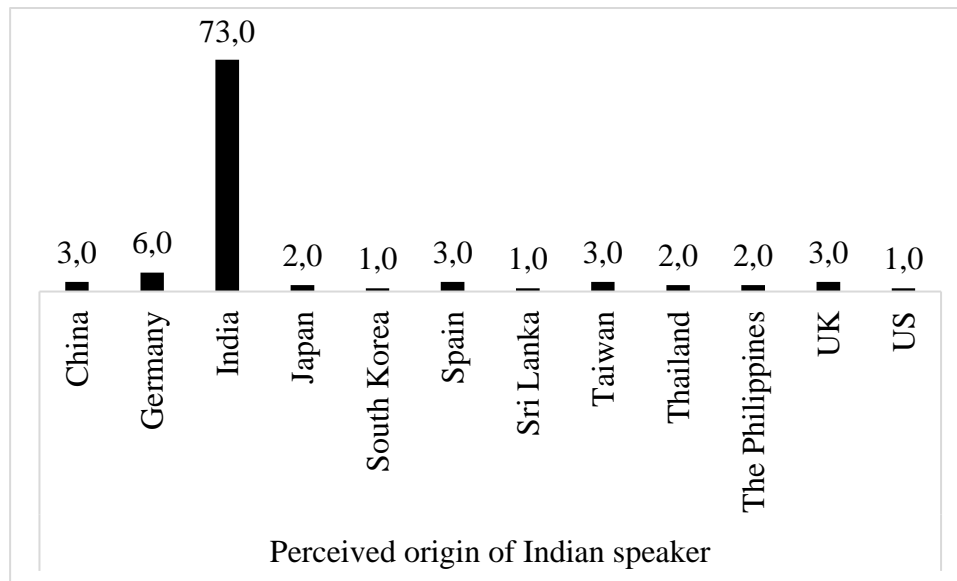


Figure 27 MEFLs' Perceived Origins of the Indian Speaker

❖ **Correct Identification of the Indian English Speaker**

- 'She sounds like those Indians who are making videos on YouTube.' (P2)
- 'The articulation of English sounds is Indian.' (P17)
- 'Her accent is Indian.' (P21)
- 'The Indian accent is known for tapping the "r" sound.' (P36)
- 'It was never hard to recognize an Indian accent' (P37)
- 'From her intonation and accent' (P39)
- 'I am familiar with the Indian accent. What is interesting here is that I think this woman sounds gentle and pleasant. The fluency is not 100%, at least the phonological fluency. I know that everyone has an accent and it is okay to have an accent. Culturally, we just cannot help to say the American or the British is more fluent than someone with an Indian accent.' (P41)
- 'I guess this accent is Indian.' (P43)
- 'She sounds fluent, but she has an Indian accent.' (P55)
- 'I watch Indian movies so I'm familiar with the Indian accent.' (P56)
- 'Her accented speech sounds as an Indian woman speaking English.' (P71)
- 'This accent is very similar to the accent that Indian characters are portrayed with in media.' (P73)

❖ **Incorrect Identification of the Indian English Speaker**

- 'The way she pronounces certain sounds in audio tape, like the /T/ sound, pushes me to categorise her accent under the Chinese box.' (P14)
- 'The way she said STELLA and how she pronounces the letter 'T'. She's definitely Hispanic. She reminds me of the actress Sofia Vergara.' (P80)
- 'It could be Sri Lankan.' (P4)

- ‘This looks very much like Egyptians and I do not think it is from Spain, but I had to select one. All sounds received high stress and no contractions.’ (P107)

3.5.2.2.2. Filipino English

Table 94 and Figure 28 below show that the majority of the participants ($n=94$, 94%) failed to recognise the origin of the Filipino English speaker. Qualitative data shows that the participants found the Filipino English accent as clear and comprehensible (e.g., ‘I think the speaker is from the Philippines. The speaker speaks a clear language, and the Filipino English accent is the most comprehensible in Asia.’ (P37). Moreover, participants reflected a positive stereotype by saying ‘Filipinos have the most comprehensible accent in Asia.’ (P37). Even without direct experience with Filipino English, P104 identified the accent based on intuition: ‘The intonation is not typical of Received Pronunciation. I don't know many accents. I just guessed that Philippine people are melodic. I never heard any of them speak in English though’.

On the other hand, some participants misidentified the Filipino English accent which they found similar to German or Moroccan (e.g., ‘Germans have a good English accent.’ (P1) and ‘She sounds Moroccan!’ (P9)). Similarly, P11 incorrectly identified Filipino English, the speaker of which the participant thought German: ‘In my experience, German English speakers usually have a very good grasp of the nuances of the English language and can give a similar impression to that of a native speaker from the U.S’. P14 also misidentified Filipino English by associating it with American English, ‘The speaker's accent is into the American accent as far as my prior notice of this accent is concerned. Within a certain accent, there are other accents.’

Table 94 MEFLs' Perceived Origins of the Filipino Speaker

	Frequency	Percent
China	6	6,0
Germany	14	14,0
India	1	1,0
Japan	5	5,0
South Korea	10	10,0
Spain	10	10,0
Sri Lanka	6	6,0
Taiwan	1	1,0
Thailand	4	4,0
The Philippines	6	6,0
UK	6	6,0
US	31	31,0
Total	100	100,0

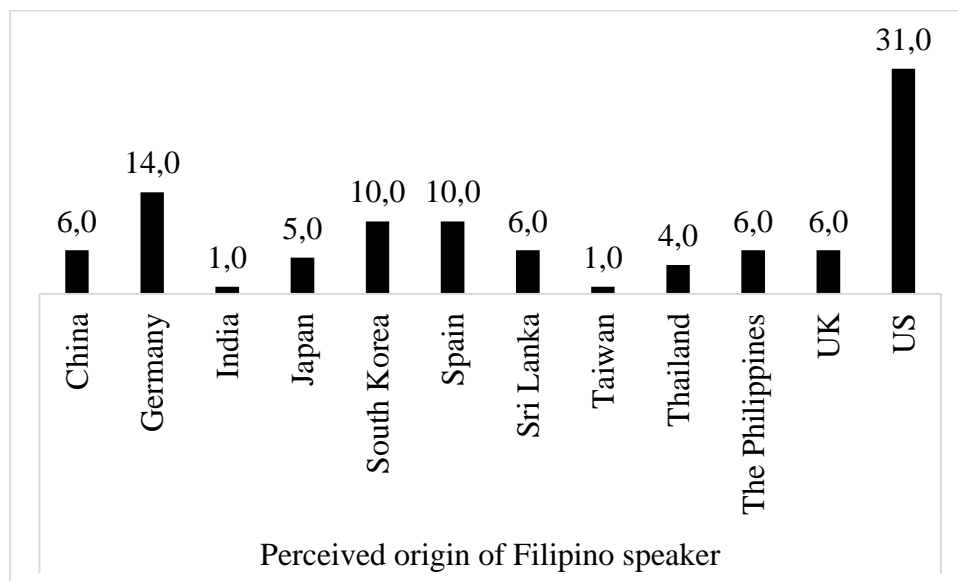


Figure 28 MEFLs' Perceived Origins of the Filipino Speaker

❖ **Correct Identification of the Filipino English Speaker**

- 'I think the speaker is from the Philippines. The speaker speaks clear language, and the Filipino English accent is the most comprehensible in Asia.' (P36)
- 'Filipinos have the most comprehensible accent in Asia.' (P37)

- ‘The intonation is not typical of Received Pronunciation. I don't know many accents. I just guessed that Philippine people are melodic. I never heard any of them speak in English though.’ (P104)

❖ **Incorrect Identification of the Filipino English Speaker**

- ‘Germans have a good English accent.’ (P1)
- ‘She sounds Moroccan!’ (P9)
- ‘In my experience, German English speakers usually have a very good grasp of the nuances of the English language, and can give of a similar impression of that of a native speaker from the US.’ (P11)
- ‘The speaker's accent is into the American accent as far as my prior notice of this accent is concerned. Within a certain accent, there are other accents.’ (P14)
- ‘The speaker sounds like a US native speaker.’ (P15)
- ‘I'm not really sure. There was the 'happy' tone that I'd expect from Korean or Japanese or Thai speakers (I don't know about the others but I don't think it's a German speaker at least, since they tend to pronounce /w/ as /v/). I chose Korean, (stereotypically) because they usually showcase a more standard accent, compared to others, though they usually pronounce /f/ as /p/ instead’. (P16)
- ‘The accent used is British.’ (P17)
- ‘I watched videos on YouTube of a German woman. She was speaking in English in a very normal speed and her accent is very clear to the listener unlike the natives who swallow words.’ (P33)
- ‘She sounds like a Chinese speaker.’ (P103)

3.5.2.3. Expanding Circle Englishes (JpE & ThE)

This subsection examines the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners were able or unable to identify the origins of the two speakers of expanding circle Englishes (i.e., JpE & ThE). To this end, the participants’ (mis)identifications of the Japanese English speaker are presented in subsection 3.5.2.3.1, whereas their (mis)identifications of the Thai English speaker are presented in subsection 3.5.2.3.2.

3.5.2.3.1. Japanese English

Table 95 and [Figure 29](#) below show that only a minority of the participants ($n= 13$, 13%) could identify the origin of the Japanese English speaker correctly. The few participants who

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identified the Japanese English accent correctly based their judgements on cues such as accent and tone (e.g., ‘Based on the accent and the tone of the speaker’ (P5)) or the pronunciation of certain sounds differently as P83 stated ‘because the Japanese people can't pronounce the letter R.’ Similarly, overall speech patterns such as rhythm, intonation, and pronunciation habits or particular phonetic traits that the speaker used led participants to identify the Japanese English accent correctly, as P22 (‘From her way of speaking’) and P67 (‘Her way of pronouncing certain sounds.’ stated. Moreover, because of the participants’ familiarity with Asian accents, P71 (‘Her English speech is accented and she sounds an Asian speaker of English.’) and P82 (‘I made this decision based on how I perceived the speaker's accent.’) recognised the accent and identified the Japanese English variety correctly.

On the other hand, some participants misidentified the Japanese English variety because of difficulty in distinguishing it from other Asian English accents. For example, P4 stated ‘it sounds like an East Asian accent, but sounds to me more like a Chinese accent than a Korean or Japanese.’ Similarly, P15 stated that ‘this sounds like the English pronunciation of a Chinese EFL learner.’ P36 (‘It just felt like a South Korean talking.’) and P43 (‘I think the speaker is Korean.’) also misidentified the accent based on similar intonation and phonetic patterns between Korean and Japanese English speakers. Moreover, P49 misidentified the Japanese English accent as the participant found it similar to Indian English, ‘the intonation of the sounds is similar to Indian language.’

Table 95 MEFLs’ Perceived Origins of the Japanese Speaker

	Frequency	Percent
China	26	26,0
Germany	2	2,0
India	9	9,0
Japan	13	13,0
South Korea	9	9,0
Spain	3	3,0
Sri Lanka	9	9,0

Taiwan	5	5,0
Thailand	6	6,0
The Philippines	14	14,0
UK	2	2,0
US	2	2,0
Total	100	100,0

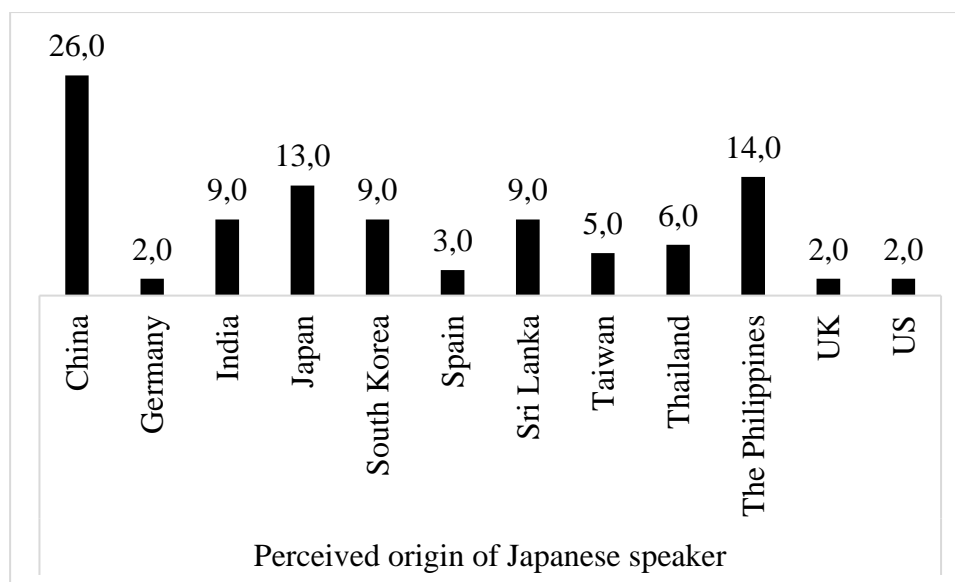


Figure 29 MEFLs' Perceived Origins of the Japanese Speaker

❖ **Correct Identification of the Japanese English Speaker**

- 'Based on the accent and the tone of the speaker' (P5)
- 'Because the Japanese people can't pronounce the letter R' (P83)
- 'From her way of speaking' (P22)
- 'Her way of pronouncing certain sounds.' (P67)
- 'Her English speech is accented and she sounds an Asian speaker of English.' (P71)
- 'I made this decision based on how I personally perceived the speaker's accent.' (P82)

❖ **Incorrect Identification of the Japanese English Speaker**

- 'It sounds like an east Asian accent, but sounds to me more like a Chinese accent than a Korean or Japanese.' (P4)
- 'This sounds like the English pronunciation of a Chinese EFL learner' (P15)
- 'It just felt like a South Korean talking.' (P36)
- 'I think the speaker is Korean.' (P43)
- 'The intonation of the sounds is similar to Indian language.' (P49)
- 'Everything was clear, and from her accent I guess she is from the Philippines.' (P95)

- ‘I think she may be from India because they tend to convert /l/ sound to /r/ sound and they flip the /d/ sound a little.’ (P107)

3.5.2.3.2. Thai English

Table 96 and Figure 30 below show that only few participants ($n= 14$, 14%) were able to identify the Thai English speaker’s origin. Some of them recognised the Thai English accent based on a general observation of the speaker’s speech (‘From her way of speaking’ (P22)). Specific patterns in the rise and fall of the tone in speaking and accent, as P39 stated ‘the intonation and accent’, also led some participants to recognise the accent correctly. P47 (‘She has a Thai accent.’) and P77 (‘She sounded from an Asian country, and I guessed Thailand.’) recognised the accent directly and correctly. Despite identifying the accent as Asian, P72 (‘It sounds like an Asian accent’) did not specify the exact country.

On the other hand, some participants misidentified the Thai English accent because of the confusion or lack of familiarity with distinctive features of the Thai accent (‘I’m not quite sure about this one. It could be either Sri Lanka or Taiwan.’ (P19)). Moreover, the perception of similarity between Thai English and Filipino English led to misidentification of the accent (‘I used to talk to a friend of mine who is from the Philippines.’ (P23)). Being influenced by certain phonetic features associated more with Spanish-accented English (‘The way the speaker speaks seems to be more likely a Spanish accent of English.’ (P43) and ‘The way she pronounced the words makes her sound like a person reading English with a Spanish accent.’ (P64)) also resulted in some participants incorrectly identifying the Thai English accent.

Table 96 MEFLs’ Perceived Origins of the Thai Speaker

	Frequency	Percent
China	20	20,0
India	9	9,0
Japan	10	10,0
South Korea	12	12,0
Spain	4	4,0

Sri Lanka	10	10,0
Taiwan	7	7,0
Thailand	14	14,0
The Philippines	12	12,0
UK	1	1,0
US	1	1,0
Total	100	100,0

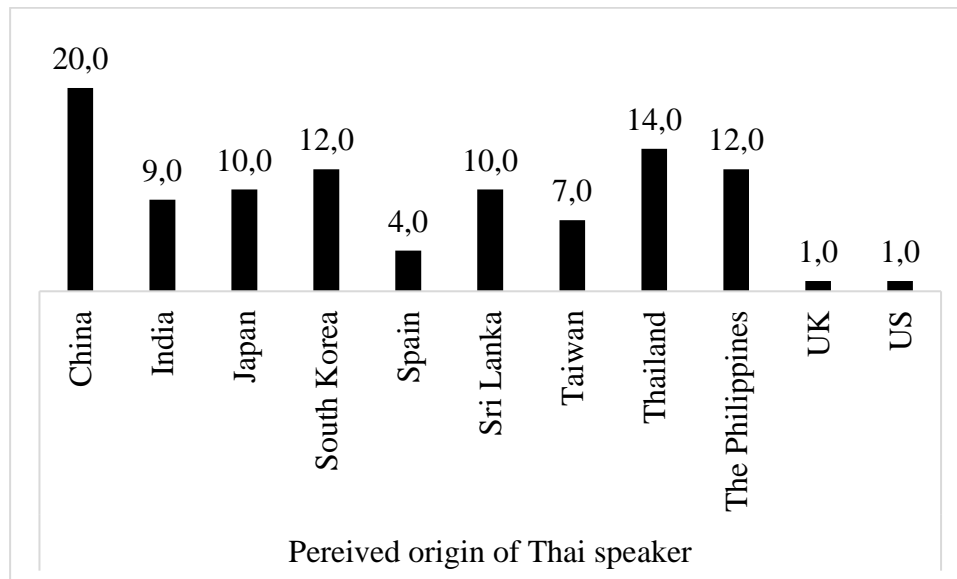


Figure 30 MEFLs' Perceived Origins of the Thai Speaker

❖ **Correct Identification of the Thai English Speaker**

- 'From her way of speaking' (P22)
- 'The intonation and accent' (P39)
- 'She has a Thai accent.' (P47)
- 'It sounds like an Asian accent.' (P72)
- 'She sounded from an Asian country, and I guessed Thailand.' (P77)

❖ **Incorrect Identification of the Thai English Speaker**

- 'I'm not quite sure about this one. It could be either Sri Lanka or Taiwan.' (P19)
- 'I used to talk to a friend of mine who is from the Philippines.' (P23)
- 'The way the speaker speaks seems to be more likely a Spanish accent of English.' (P43)
- 'The way she pronounced the words makes her sound like a person reading English with a Spanish accent.' (P64)
- 'It seems Chinese.' (P67)
- 'It's just similar to the Chinese accent that I've heard online.' (P73)

- ‘I guess Japanese and Chinese people twist their tongue when speaking English.’ (P78)
- ‘The Philippines accent’ (P83)

**3.5.2.4. Summary of MEFLs’ Identification and Misidentification Patterns
of Speakers’ Origins**

This subsection provides a summary of Moroccan EFL learners’ identification and misidentification patterns of speakers’ origins. First, a summary of the participants’ (mis)identifications of inner circle Englishes (i.e., AmE & BrE) is provided in subsection 3.5.2.4.1. Second, a summary of their (mis)identifications of outer circle Englishes (i.e., InE & FiE) is provided in subsection 3.5.2.4.2. Finally, a summary of their (mis)identifications of expanding circle Englishes (i.e., JpE & ThE) is provided in subsection 3.5.2.4.3.

3.5.2.4.1. Identification of Inner Circle Englishes (AmE & BrE)

On the one hand, the study revealed that correct identifications of English varieties tend to be based on exposure to these varieties of English through media, personal interactions, or a combination of specific speech features like fluency and pace. For example, participants were able to recognise British English based on phonetic features such as non-rhotic pronunciation and specific stress patterns.

On the other hand, incorrect identification often arises from reliance on ambiguous accent features that can be misinterpreted, such as nasalization or an association with non-native English speakers. Thus, familiarity and detailed listening are key to accurate accent identification. However, because of misattribution to American English features or doubt on the speaker’s native status, some participants misidentified the British English accent.

3.5.2.4.2. Identification of Outer Circle Englishes (InE & FiE)

On the one hand, the correct identification of outer circle Englishes often stems from familiarity with specific phonetic and prosodic features and characteristics of Indian English, such as the articulation of certain sounds, tapping of the “r” sound and distinct intonation patterns. For example, the correct identification of Filipino English generally highlights the clarity and comprehensibility of Filipino English.

On the other hand, incorrect identifications usually arise from a lack of exposure to these features, leading to confusion with other accents that might share superficial similarities. In addition, cultural biases and stereotypes can influence these perceptions, as seen in the comparison with other prominent non-native English accents. The incorrect identification of Filipino English often involves comparing the accent to other accents such as German and Moroccan accents, reflecting a lack of familiarity with Filipino English. Misidentifications also show how accents can be perceived differently based on the listener’s prior experiences and exposure to different English varieties.

3.5.2.4.3. Identification of Expanding Circle Englishes (JpE & ThE)

On the one hand, the results revealed that correct identifications primarily relied on specific phonetic features (such as difficulty with the sound 'r') and general speech patterns that listeners associated with the Japanese English speaker. In addition, correct identification of Thai English shows varying degrees of specificity, from recognising an Asian accent to accurately pinpointing it as Thai, suggesting that listeners who are more familiar with Thai English can identify it more precisely.

On the other hand, incorrect identifications often involve confusing a Japanese accent with other East Asian accents, particularly Chinese and Korean. This confusion indicates that the

overlapping characteristics among East Asian English speakers can lead to misidentification. Considering the Thai English accent, the incorrect identifications indicate that certain phonetic features of Thai English might be confused with other accents, both within Asia and from other regions, highlighting the complexity and subjectivity involved in accent recognition. This analysis underscores the importance of exposure and familiarity in accurately identifying spoken accents.

3.5.3. The Effects of MEFLs' Identifications and Misidentifications of Speakers' Origins on Evaluations

This subsection provides an examination of the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners' (mis)identifications of the six recorded speakers' countries of origin affect their status and solidarity evaluations. First, MEFLs' (mis)identifications of the American English speaker are discussed in subsubsection 3.5.3.1. Second, MEFLs' (mis)identifications of the British English speaker are discussed in subsubsection 3.5.3.2. Third, MEFLs' (mis)identifications of the Indian English speaker are discussed in subsubsection 3.5.3.3. Fourth, MEFLs' (mis)identifications of the Filipino English speaker are discussed in subsubsection 3.5.3.4. Fifth, MEFLs' (mis)identifications of the Japanese English speaker are discussed in subsubsection 3.5.3.5. Sixth, MEFLs' (mis)identifications of the Thai English speaker are discussed in subsubsection 3.5.3.6. Finally, a summary of the effects of MEFLs' identifications and misidentifications of speakers' origins on evaluations is provided in subsubsection 3.5.3.7.

3.5.3.1. American English Speaker

This subsubsection examines the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners' (mis)identifications of the American English speaker's country of origin affect their status and

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solidarity evaluations. In this respect, preliminary assumption testing indicated that no violations were present: Box's test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.832 and Levene's Test of Equality exceeded 0.05 for both status and solidarity. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for the status and solidarity of the AmE speaker according to identification are detailed in Table 97 below.

Table 97 MEFLs' Evaluations of AmE Speaker Status and Solidarity according to Identifications (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

AmE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	5,6402	1,28162	66
	Incorrect	5,4559	1,18461	34
	Total	5,5775	1,24656	100
Solidarity	Correct	5,6465	1,35354	66
	Incorrect	4,6471	1,51966	34
	Total	5,3067	1,48292	100

The results from the MANOVA test demonstrated a significant overall effect for identification on evaluations of the status and the solidarity of the AmE speaker: $F(2,555)=6.665$, $p<0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.98; partial eta squared=0.023, which suggests a small to moderate effect size.

Table 98 below indicates that when the results for the effects of identification on the two dependent variables were considered separately, only the difference in evaluations for status reached statistical significance: $F(1,98)=11,247$, $p(0.001)<0.05$; partial eta squared= 0.103, which suggests a small to moderate effect size.

Table 98 Test of Between-Subjects Effects for the Status and the Solidarity of AmE Speaker according to Identification

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Identification	Status	,762	1	,762	,488	,487	,005
	Solidarity	22,413	1	22,413	11,247	,001	,103

Error	Status	153,075	98	1,562			
	Solidarity_	195,293	98	1,993			

3.5.3.2. British English Speaker

This subsection examines the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners' (mis)identifications of the British English speaker's country of origin affect their status and solidarity evaluations. In this respect, preliminary assumption testing indicated that Box's test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was =0.176 (i.e., $p > 0.005$), which indicates that it did not violate the equal variance assumption as it exceeded 0.05. Levene's Test of Equality for the BrE speaker status is significant (as it has not exceeded 0.05, and has thus violated the assumption of equality of variance) and for the BrE speaker solidarity is insignificant, which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for the status and solidarity of the BrE speaker according to identification are detailed in [Table 99](#) below.

Table 99 MEFLs' Evaluations of BrE Speaker Status and Solidarity according to Identifications (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

BrE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	6,0463	,96429	81
	Incorrect	5,7368	1,42027	19
	Total	5,9875	1,06445	100
Solidarity	Correct	6,0123	1,19773	81
	Incorrect	5,8947	1,27682	19
	Total	5,9900	1,20740	100

The results from the MANOVA demonstrated that although there were differences in the evaluations for the status and solidarity of the BrE speaker according to identification, no significant overall effect was found between the responses of the correct identifications group

and incorrect identifications group: $F(2,555)=2.709$, $p(0.067)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda=0.99; partial eta squared=0.01, which suggests a small (although not significant) effect size.

3.5.3.3. Indian English Speaker

This subsection examines the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners' (mis)identifications of the Indian English speaker's country of origin affect their status and solidarity evaluations. In this respect, preliminary assumption testing indicated that no violations were present: Box's test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.898 and Levene's Test of Equality exceeded 0.05 for both status and solidarity. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for the status and solidarity of the InE speaker according to identification are detailed in Table 100 below.

Table 100 MEFLs' Evaluations of InE Speaker Status and Solidarity according to Identifications (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

InE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	5,1541	1,15292	73
	Incorrect	5,5833	1,27664	27
	Total	5,2700	1,19642	100
Solidarity	Correct	5,1279	1,24056	73
	Incorrect	5,6173	1,33238	27
	Total	5,2600	1,27796	100

The results from the MANOVA demonstrated that although there were differences in the evaluations for the status and solidarity of the InE speaker according to identification, no significant overall effect was found between the responses of the correct identifications group and incorrect identifications group: $F(2,555)=2.709$, $p(=0.067)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda= 0.99; partial eta squared=0.01, which suggests a small (although not significant) effect size.

3.5.3.4. Filipino English Speaker

This subsection examines the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners' (mis)identifications of the Filipino English speaker's country of origin affect their status and solidarity evaluations. In this respect, preliminary assumption testing indicated that Box's test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was $=0.159$ (i.e., $p>0.005$), which indicates that it did not violate the equal variance assumption as it exceeded 0.05. Levene's Test of Equality for the FiE speaker status is significant (as it has not exceeded 0.05, and has thus violated the assumption of equality of variance) and for the FiE speaker solidarity is insignificant, which did not violate the assumption of equality of variance. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for the status and solidarity of the BrE speaker according to identification are detailed in [Table 101](#) below.

Table 101 MEFLs' Evaluations of FiE Speaker Status and Solidarity according to Identifications (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

FiE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	4,6250	,46771	6
	Incorrect	5,5266	1,25428	94
	Total	5,4725	1,23904	100
Solidarity	Correct	4,3889	,92896	6
	Incorrect	5,5745	1,22245	94
	Total	5,5033	1,23592	100

The results from the MANOVA demonstrated that although there were differences in the evaluations for the status and solidarity of the FiE speaker according to identification, no significant overall effect was found between the responses of the correct identifications group and incorrect identifications group: $F(2,555)=2.709$, $p(=0.067)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda= 0.99; partial eta squared=0.01, which suggests a small (although not significant) effect size.

3.5.3.5. Japanese English Speaker

This subsection examines the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners' (mis)identifications of the Japanese English speaker's country of origin affect their status and solidarity evaluations. In this respect, preliminary assumption testing indicated that no violations were present: Box's test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.304 and Levene's Test of Equality exceeded 0.05 for both status and solidarity. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for the status and solidarity of the AmE speaker according to identification are detailed in [Table 102](#) below.

Table 102 MEFLs' Evaluations of JpE Speaker Status and Solidarity according to Identifications (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

JpE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	3,8077	1,36608	13
	Incorrect	4,0144	1,25079	87
	Total	3,9875	1,26100	100
Solidarity	Correct	3,9231	1,40866	13
	Incorrect	3,9962	1,14514	87
	Total	3,9867	1,17486	100

The results from the MANOVA demonstrated that although there were differences in the evaluations for the status and solidarity of the JpE speaker according to identification, no significant overall effect was found between the responses of the correct identifications group and incorrect identifications group: $F(2,555)=2.709$, $p(=0.067)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda= 0.99; partial eta squared=0.01, which suggests a small (although not significant) effect size.

3.5.3.6. Thai English Speaker

This subsection examines the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners' (mis)identifications of the Thai English speaker's country of origin affect their status and solidarity evaluations. In this respect, preliminary assumption testing indicated that no

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violations were present: Box's test of Equality of Covariance Matrices=0.832 and Levene's Test of Equality exceeded 0.05 for both status and solidarity. The means and standard deviations of the evaluations for the status and solidarity of the AmE speaker according to identification are detailed in Table 103 below.

Table 103 MEFLs' Evaluations of The Speaker Status and Solidarity according to Identifications (N=100; 1= lowest, 7= highest)

ThE Speaker	Identification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Status	Correct	4,1786	1,33528	14
	Incorrect	4,1541	1,45934	86
	Total	4,1575	1,43621	100
Solidarity	Correct	3,7143	1,03657	14
	Incorrect	3,4729	1,46726	86
	Total	3,5067	1,41301	100

The results from the MANOVA demonstrated that although there were differences in the evaluations for the status and solidarity of the ThE speaker according to identification, no significant overall effect was found between the responses of the correct identifications group and incorrect identifications group: $F(2,555)=2.709$, $p(=0.067)>0.05$; Wilks' Lambda= 0.99; partial eta squared=0.01, which suggests a small (although not significant) effect size.

3.5.3.7. Summary of the Effects of MEFLs' Identifications and Misidentifications of Speakers' Origins on Evaluations

Table 104 below shows that the role of speaker identification did not demonstrate significant effects on Moroccan EFL learners' evaluations of British English, Indian English, Filipino English, Japanese English and Thai English. However, it was found that the American English speaker received a significantly higher solidarity evaluation ($p(0.001)<0.05$) from the participants who correctly identified her country of origin.

Table 104 Summary of the Effects of MEFLs' Identifications and Misidentifications of Speakers' Origins on Evaluations

Speaker's Origin	MEFL's Status and Solidarity Evaluations
------------------	--

US	Solidarity ($p(0.001)<0.05$)
UK	No Significance
India	No Significance
The Philippines	No Significance
Japan	No Significance
Thailand	No Significance

3.6. Relating the Findings to Research Questions One, Two and Three

This section provides a discussion of the results obtained from data elicited from the study's participants regarding their implicit (overt) attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech selected for the purposes of the present study (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). As a reminder to the reader, one of the study's objectives is to investigate, using an indirect approach of attitude measurement (i.e., the verbal-guise task), Moroccan EFL learners' implicit attitudes towards six varieties of English speech. In what follows, an account of the extent to which the findings relate to research questions one, two and three is provided in subsection 3.6.1, subsection 3.6.2 and subsection 3.6.3, respectively.

3.6.1. Research Question One: What Are The Participants' Implicit Attitudes Towards the Selected Varieties Of English?

The first research question in this study sought to explore Moroccan EFL learners' implicit (covert) attitudes towards six varieties of English speech that represent Kachru's Inner (i.e., American English & British English), Outer (Indian English & Filipino English) and Expanding (Japanese English & Thai English) circles. In this respect, the findings show that although Moroccan EFL learners seem to prefer inner circle Englishes (i.e., AmE & BrE) the most, they do appreciate and respect the linguistic diversity exhibited in non-inner circle Englishes (i.e., InE, FiE, JpE & ThE).

3.6.2. Research Question Two: What Social Variables (If Any) Appear to Be Significant in Determining Moroccan EFL Learners' Attitudes towards the Selected Varieties Of English?

The second research question in this study sought to investigate the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners' social variables determine their attitudes towards different English varieties. In this regard, it was found that not all the six social variables (i.e., gender, age, education, self-perceived proficiency in English, English language learning period & living-abroad experience) account for the participants' social evaluations of the speakers recorded in terms of speaker status and speaker solidarity. The three main social variables that demonstrated significant main effects in the MANOVA tests in this study were *gender*, *self-perceived proficiency in English* and *living-abroad experience*. No two-way or three-way significant interaction effects, however, were found for both speaker status and speaker solidarity.

3.6.3. Research Question Three: Are Moroccan EFL Learners Able to Identify the Origins of the Speakers of the Selected Varieties of English?

The third research question in this study sought to determine the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners were able to identify the origins of the speakers recorded. In this respect, the findings of the study show that majority of the participants were able to identify the origins of inner circle (i.e., AmE & BrE) speakers correctly. As for outer circle speakers, it was found that the majority of Moroccan EFL learners were able to identify the origin of the Indian English speaker. The three other Englishes (i.e., FiE, JpE & ThE) were the least correctly identified varieties of English speech.

3.7. Chapter Summary

The present chapter provided a detailed analysis along with a discussion of the results of the verbal-guise task that was adopted in the present study as an indirect measure to elicit the participants' implicit attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). First, the results of the verbal-guise task were presented in section 3.2. Second, an outline of the main effects of Moroccan EFL learners' social variables on speaker evaluations was provided in section 3.3. Third, an outline of the interaction effects of Moroccan EFL learners' social variables and speaker evaluations was presented in section 3.4. Fourth, a discussion of the effect of MEFLs' identification and misidentification patterns on their social evaluations of the speakers of varieties of English speech was detailed in section 3.5. Finally, an account of the extent to which the findings relate to research questions one, two and three was provided in section 3.6.

Chapter 4. Results & Discussion: Moroccan EFL Learners' Explicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English Speech

4.1. Introduction

The present chapter provides a detailed analysis along with a discussion of the results of the online questionnaire that was used in the study to investigate Moroccan EFL learners' explicit (overt) attitudes towards the same six varieties of English speech utilised in the verbal-guise task discussed in Chapter 3. First, an outline of the role of World Englishes on the participants' attitudes is provided in section 4.2. Second, an outline of their explicit attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech selected for the purposes of the present study (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) is presented in section 4.3. Third, an account of the extent to which the chapter's results relate to research questions four and five is discussed in section 4.4. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in section 4.5.

As a reminder to the reader, the present chapter seeks to answer the following research questions:

- **Research Question Four:** What role do World Englishes play on the participants' attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?
- **Research Question Five:** What are the participants' explicit attitudes towards the selected varieties of English?

4.2. The Role of World Englishes on MEFLs' Attitudes

This section provides a discussion of the role of World Englishes on Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes. In light of previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018), a Likert scale task was adopted in the present study as a direct approach to investigate the role of World Englishes on Moroccan EFL learners' language attitudes. In this task, the participants were asked to indicate their degree of disagreement or agreement on a six-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 completely

disagree to 6 completely agree. The next subsections (4.2.1 to 4.2.7) provide further details regarding the participants' responses to each each Likert scale item.

4.2.1. Likert Scale Question One

As shown in [Table 105](#) and [Figure 31](#) below, the majority of Moroccan EFL learners ($n=512$, 94.1%) agrees that that they can easily recognise the difference between native and non-native speakers of English. Equally important, a negligible and/or almost non-existent proportion of Moroccan EFL learners ($n=32$, 5.9%) disagrees or somewhat disagrees that they cannot or somewhat find it challenging to distinguish between native and non-native speakers of English. Similar results were found by Chien (2018) whose study showed that an overwhelming majority of Taiwanese participants indicated they could distinguish between native and non-native varieties of English speech.

Table 105 Likert Scale Question One

Likert Scale Question One	Frequency	Percent
Disagree	8	1,5
Somewhat Disagree	24	4,4
Somewhat Agree	80	14,7
Agree	192	35,3
Completely Agree	240	44,1
Total	544	100,0

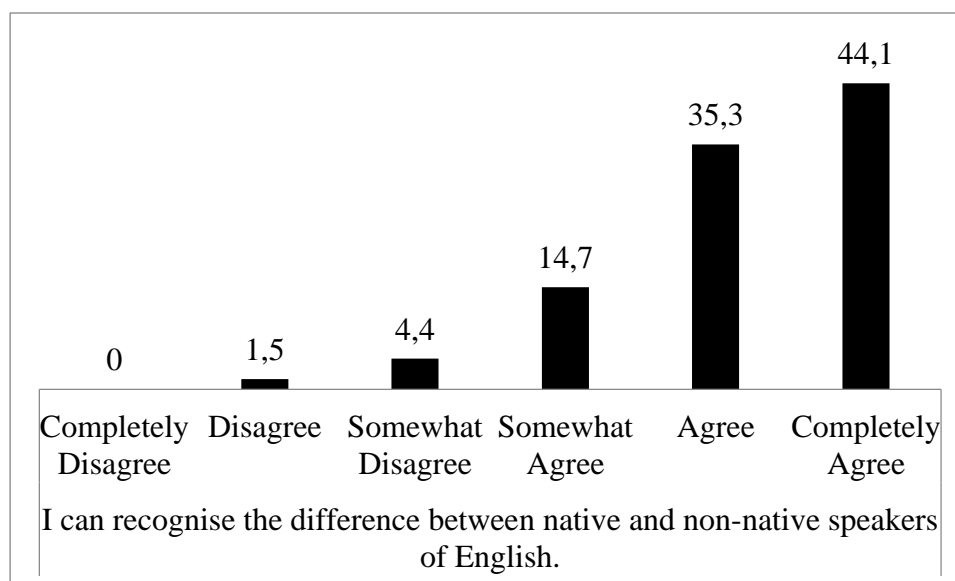


Figure 31 MEFLs' Responses to the Likert Scale Question One

4.2.2. Likert Scale Question Two

As [Table 106](#) and [Figure 32](#) show below, Moroccan EFL learners have ambivalent attitudes towards learning English from native English-speaking teachers. Conveniently, almost a half of the participants surveyed ($n=264$, 48.5%) expressed their agreement with the importance of learning English from a native speaker, whereas the other half ($n=280$, 51.6%) expressed their indifference towards being taught by a native English-speaking teacher. The findings obtained further lend support to the fact that native English-speaking teachers are not always better than non-native English-speaking teachers as language teachers. This finding is different from Chien's (2018) study who found that a total of 88% of Taiwanese participants indicated their agreement with the importance of learning English from native speakers from inner circle countries such as the U.S. and the UK.

Table 106 Likert Scale Question Two

Likert Scale Question Two	Frequency	Percent
Completely Disagree	40	7,4
Disagree	120	22,1
Somewhat Disagree	120	22,1
Somewhat Agree	104	19,1
Agree	80	14,7
Completely Agree	80	14,7
Total	544	100,0

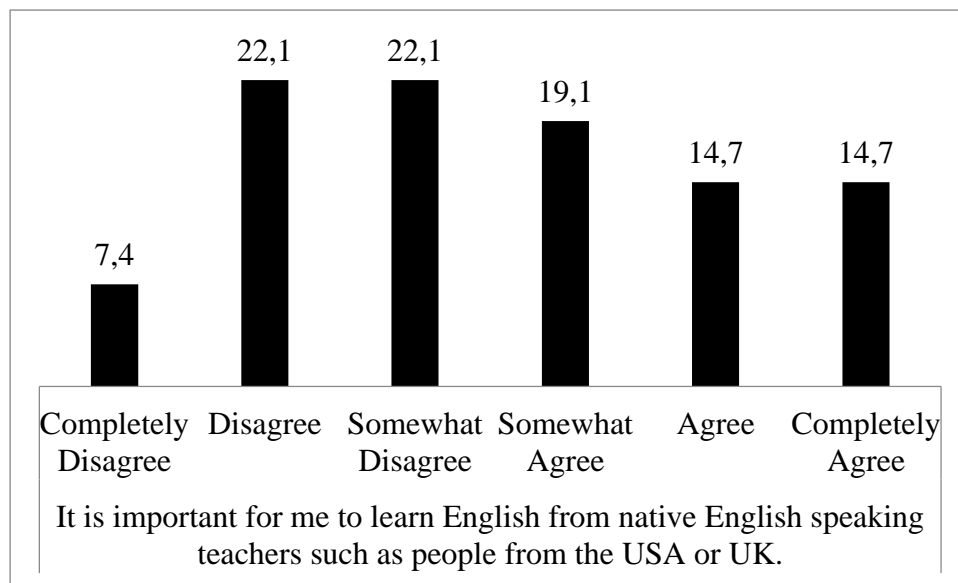


Figure 32 MEFLs' Responses to the Likert Scale Question Two

4.2.3. Likert Scale Question Three

The Likert scale question in Table 107 and Figure 33 below discusses the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners are interested in knowing or learning the differences that exist between varieties of English. Predictably, a large proportion of the participants expressed their deep interest in learning the differences between the different varieties of English. Conveniently, the majority of the participants ($n=432$, 79.4%) state that they are open to learning the differences that exist between the different varieties of English. Additionally, only a small number of participants ($n=112$, 20.6%) indicated that they are not willing to or are not interested in knowing the differences that exist in the different varieties of English speech. In

Chapter 4: Results & Discussion: Explicit (overt) Attitudes towards World Englishes

fact, these results are contrary to those obtained by Chien (2018) who found 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” (p. 170). The difference in interests between the study’s participants and those of Chien’s (2018) study may be explained by the fact that Moroccan EFL learners are more interested in learning about the different varieties of English that exist around the world as they usually hear such accents on TV shows and social media content or because of the fact that some of them had previous interactions with speakers from inner, outer and expanding countries, or are willing to do so in the future.

Table 107 Likert Scale Question Three

Likert Scale Question Three	Frequency	Percent
Completely Disagree	24	4,4
Disagree	64	11,8
Somewhat Disagree	24	4,4
Somewhat Agree	96	17,6
Agree	192	35,3
Completely Agree	144	26,5
Total	544	100,0

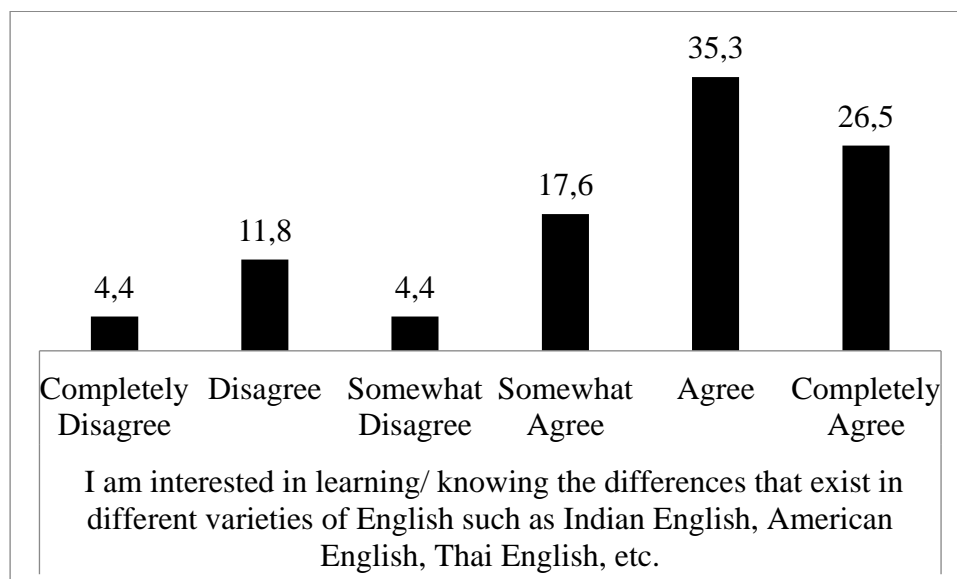


Figure 33 MEFLs' Responses to the Likert Scale Question Three

4.2.4. Likert Scale Question Four

The Likert scale question in [Table 108](#) and [Figure 34](#) below deals with the importance of knowing and understanding speakers of different varieties of English to pass tests in English such as GEPT, TOEFL, TOEIC, IELTS, etc. In line with Chien's (2018) study, a decent amount of the participants attached huge importance to knowing these varieties of English to pass the tests mentioned. The deciding role played by understanding speakers of different varieties of English in passing such tests is largely manifested in the number of participants who supported the idea. Relatedly, the majority of the participants ($n=376$, 69.2%) agrees that understanding the speakers of different varieties enables them to pass different tests, whereas only a minority of the participants ($n=168$, 30.9%) assumes that understanding speakers of different varieties of English plays an insignificant role in passing these tests.

Table 108 Likert Scale Question Four

Likert Scale Question Four	Frequency	Percent
Completely Disagree	56	10,3
Disagree	64	11,8
Somewhat Disagree	48	8,8
Somewhat Agree	112	20,6
Agree	176	32,4
Completely Agree	88	16,2
Total	544	100,0

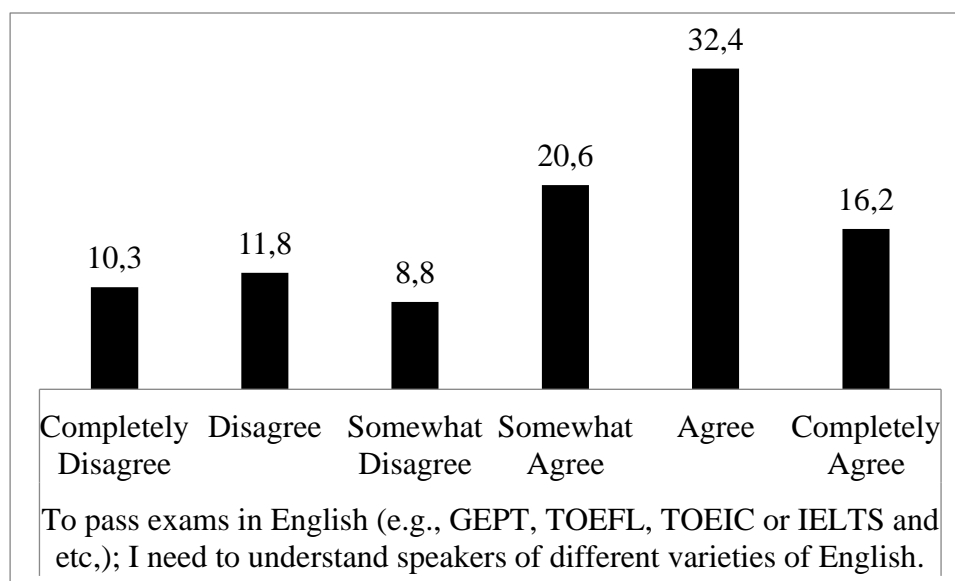


Figure 34 MEFLs' Responses to the Likert Scale Question Four

4.2.5. Likert Scale Question Five

The Likert scale question in [Table 109](#) and [Figure 35](#) below looks at the importance of being able to understand both native and non-native speakers of English to make and sustain friends across the world and form networks. The findings demonstrate that it is crucial to understand both native and non-native speakers of English in order to make international networks. Conveniently, a large proportion of the participants ($n=400$, 73.6%) agrees that understanding both native and non-native speakers of English is a requirement to make new friends across the world, a finding that is in line with Chien's (2018) study. Expectedly, only a small proportion of the participants ($n=144$, 26.5%) disagrees with the assumption that making new friends across the world requires being able to understand native and non-native speakers of English. It is, therefore, noteworthy that the results attained clearly show that being able to understand and use English as a lingua franca is a requirement to make and sustain new friends worldwide, which further stresses the importance of English as an international language.

Table 109 Likert Scale Question Five

Likert Scale Question Five	Frequency	Percent
Completely Disagree	56	10,3
Disagree	48	8,8
Somewhat Disagree	40	7,4
Somewhat Agree	88	16,2
Agree	192	35,3
Completely Agree	120	22,1
Total	544	100,0

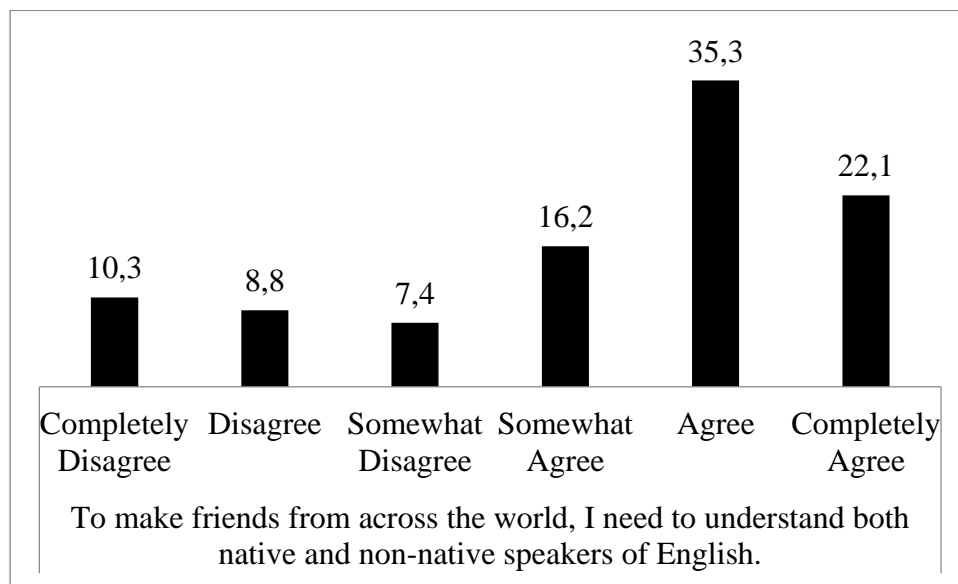


Figure 35 MEFLs' Responses to the Likert Scale Question Five

4.2.6. Likert Scale Question Six

The Likert scale question in Table 110 and Figure 36 below looks at a long-debated issue pertinent to speaking English with an accent. The findings indicate that Moroccan EFL learners have ambivalent attitudes regarding speaking English with an accent (Moroccan English, in our case). More specifically, more than a half of the participants ($n=296$, 54.4%) agrees that they would be more successful if they spoke English without an accent, whereas almost another half of them ($n=248$, 45.5%) disagrees with the idea that they would be more successful if they speak English without an accent. This finding brings into the surface the long-

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debated issue as to whether students or language learners should opt for native-like proficiency and accent or not. In Chien's (2018) study, however, it was found 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" (p. 172).

Table 110 Likert Scale Question Six

Likert Scale Question Six	Frequency	Percent
Completely Disagree	72	13,2
Disagree	72	13,2
Somewhat Disagree	104	19,1
Somewhat Agree	96	17,6
Agree	136	25,0
Completely Agree	64	11,8
Total	544	100,0

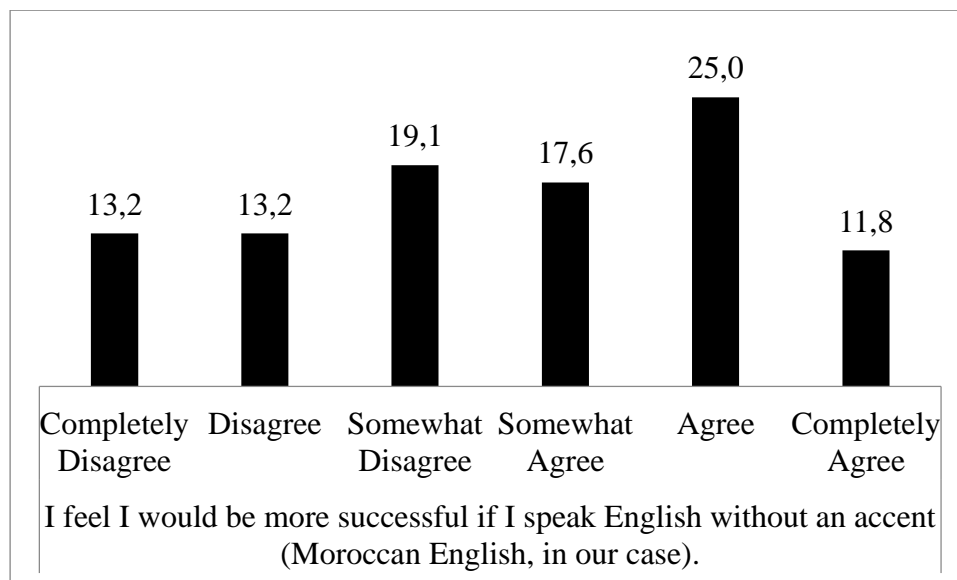


Figure 36 MEFLs' Responses to the Likert Scale Question Six

4.2.7. Likert Scale Question Seven

Table 111 and Figure 37 below show responses regarding whether we should focus on accent or on getting the message through in our conversations. Interestingly, the findings indicate that a large proportion of Moroccan EFL learners ($n=536$, 98.6%) agrees with the idea

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that accent does not matter as long as there is mutual intelligibility, and most importantly as long as it does not intervene with meaning. Similarly, a non-significant, trivial, if not daring to say, non-existent proportion of the participants ($n=8$, 1.5%) disagrees with the idea that accent does not matter as long as the message is conveyed. These findings are also in line with those obtained by Chien (2018) who found that “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” (p. 173). These results clearly show that there is a high level of language awareness among Moroccan EFL learners, which is largely manifested in their flexibility with and openness to the fact that meaning and negotiation strategies are more important than accent itself.

Table 111 Likert Scale Question Seven

Likert Scale Question Seven	Frequency	Percent
Completely Disagree	0	0
Disagree	8	1,5
Somewhat Disagree	0	0
Somewhat Agree	64	11,8
Agree	200	36,8
Completely Agree	272	50,0
Total	544	100,0

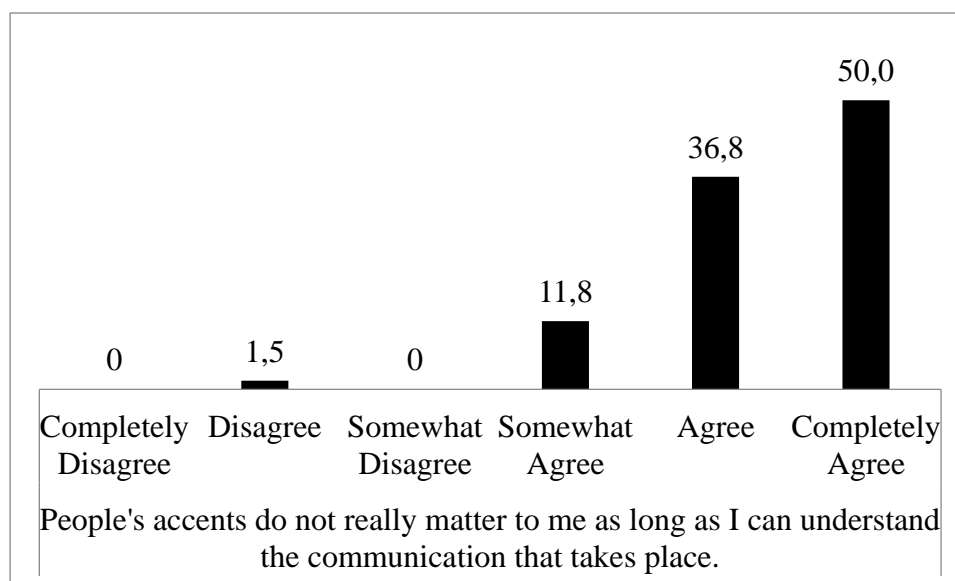


Figure 37 MEFLs' Responses to the Likert Scale Question Seven

4.3. MEFLs' Explicit Attitudes towards Varieties of English

The aim of this section is to provide a discussion of Moroccan EFL learners' explicit attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech mentioned in the Multiple-Choice questions section (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). In this task, the participants were asked to choose (1) their most preferred variety of English, (2) their most familiar variety of English, (3) the most appropriate variety of English for daily use and (4) their most appropriate variety for learning and teaching purposes. These four Multiple-Choice questions are discussed in subsections 4.3.1, 4.3.2, 4.3.3 and 4.3.4, respectively.

4.3.1. Multiple-Choice Question One

Table 112 and Figure 38 below show that when the participants were asked about their favourite English variety, the majority of participants ($n=534$, 98.1%) chose American English and British English. A very small minority has chosen Indian English and Filipino English ($n=6$, 1.1% & $n=4$, 0.7%, respectively). None, however, has chosen Japanese English and Thai English. In line with previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018), results show that Inner Circle

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Englishes are the most preferred varieties of English speech among Moroccan EFL learners. Outer Circle Englishes come next, and Expanding Circle Englishes are the least preferred by Moroccan EFL learners as they were not chosen by any participant.

Table 112 MEFLs' Responses to the most preferred English Variety

Multiple-Choice Question One	Frequency	Percent
American English	263	48,3
British English	271	49,8
Indian English	6	1,1
Filipino English	4	,7
Japanese English	0	0
Thai English	0	0
Total	544	100,0

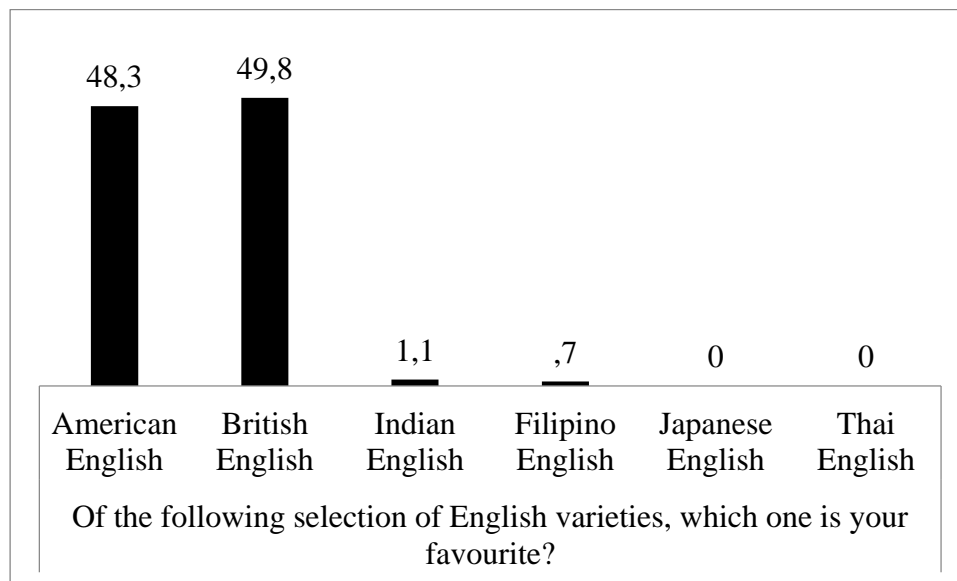


Figure 38 MEFLs' Responses to the most preferred English Variety

These findings are best explained by the following quotes:

- I really prefer American English for many reasons. First, the accent is really amazing. I love to listen to Americans while they talk. Second, I got the impression that American English is really very expressive, which could be due to attractiveness. Third, American English, especially if combined with what is academic, is really expressive and easily understood. I spent a year fully immersed in the American society and I really fell in love with their English. (P1)
- The pronunciation of American English is just better. (p11)

- I was influenced by the American accent because most of my family members live in the United States of America, so since I was a child, this is why it became a preference for me, because it is easier and more understandable for me. (P47)
- I prefer American English because it sounds appealing to the ear and does not require some degree of formality. (P102)
- British English is my favourite because I consider it as the source or the mother of all English varieties. (P230)

4.3.2. Multiple-Choice Question Two

Table 113 and Figure 39 below illustrate that when the participants were asked about their most familiar English variety, the vast majority of the participants ($n=385$, 65.8%) has chosen American English, a finding that is in line with Chien (2018) study who found that North American English was deemed as Taiwanese participants' most familiar variety of English speech. British English has been chosen by 33.5% of the participants. Filipino English has been chosen by 0.7% of the participants. Indian English, Japanese English and Thai English were not chosen by any of the participants. This again shows that almost all of the participants surveyed favour Inner Circle Englishes.

Table 113 MEFLs' Responses to the Most Familiar English Variety

Multiple-Choice Question Two	Frequency	Percent
American English	358	65,8
British English	182	33,5
Indian English	0	0
Filipino English	4	,7
Japanese English	0	0
Thai English	0	0
Total	544	100,0

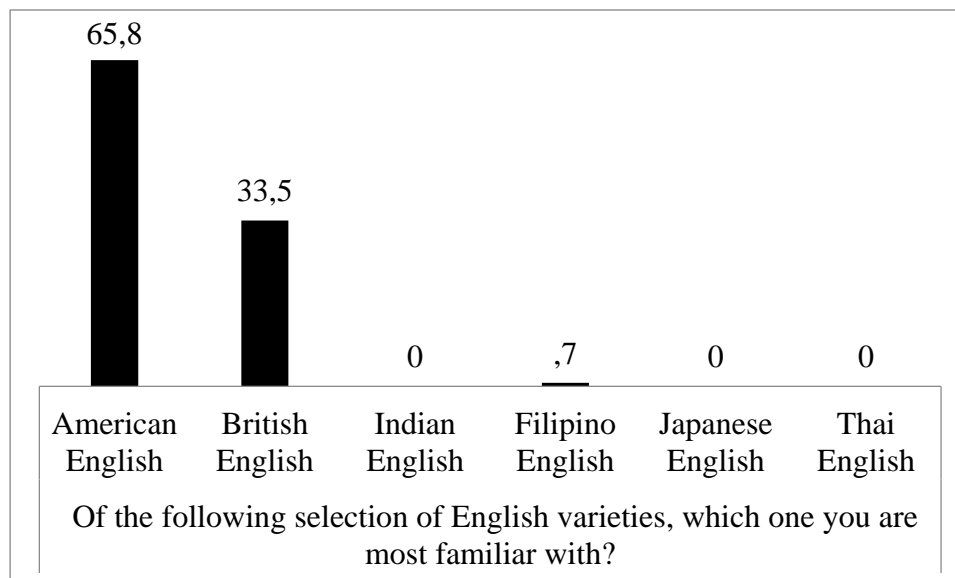


Figure 39 MEFLs' Responses to the Most Familiar English Variety

These findings are best explained by the following quotes:

- I am mostly familiar with the American variety of English for different reasons. First, I spent a year in the U.S. as an exchange student and I constantly listened to and engaged in meaningful integrations with native speakers. Actually, being immersed in the American society increased significantly my familiarity with the language, as I authentically listened to and picked up the language. Additionally, my initial familiarity with the language is largely attributable to me studying English at school and importantly watching films, series and shows. (P1)
- I watch many American movies. (P10)
- I've interacted with many American English speakers, so it's the most familiar one. (P78)
- I am into Americans shows and films, also I listen to audiobooks read by Americans. (P105)
- We are exposed to numerous American shows and cinematic works and it is very easy to understand. (206)

4.3.3. Multiple-Choice Question Three

Table 114 and Figure 40 below show that when the participants were asked about the most appropriate English variety for daily life usage, numbers show that the findings are similar to those of the participants' most familiar English variety. A similar result was found by Chien (2018) whose study showed that North American English was deemed as Taiwanese participants' most suitable variety to be applied for daily life usage.

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Table 114 MEFLs' Responses to the Most Appropriate English Variety for Daily Life Usage

Multiple-Choice Question Three	Frequency	Percent
American English	358	65,8
British English	182	33,5
Indian English	0	0
Filipino English	4	,7
Japanese English	0	0
Thai English	0	0
Total	544	100,0

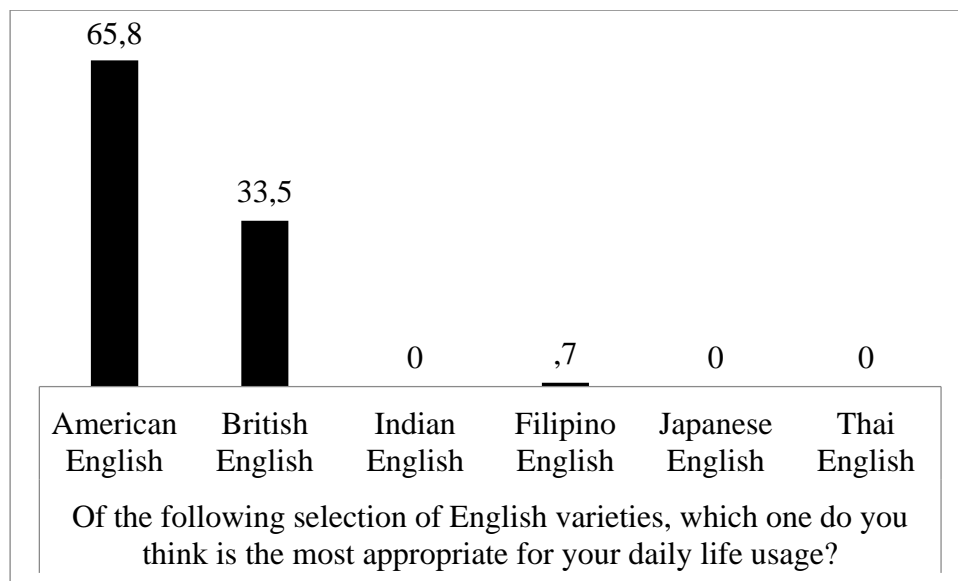


Figure 40 MEFLs' Responses to the Most Appropriate English Variety for Daily Life Usage

These findings are best explained by the following quotes:

- The American variety of English is the most appropriate one. During my stay in the U.S., I mainly used it as a lingua franca to interact with international students and other people with different languages. I am a firm believer that speaking American English fluently would allow anyone to communicate effectively wherever they go. (P1)
- I meet American people so I would use it daily. (P18)
- American English is the most appropriate for our daily life because of its diversity. (P39)
- American English is easier compared to British English. For example, English learners tend to use/speak American English more often compared to British English so it is natural for American English to be more appropriate. (P112)
- I believe American English is more widely spoken than any other variety. To have higher chances to be intelligible to others, American English is the way. (P290)

4.3.4. Multiple-Choice Question Four

Table 115 and Figure 41 below illustrate that when the participants were asked about the most appropriate variety for teaching and learning purposes, 57.4% chose British English and 42.6% chose American English. The findings show that Inner Circle Englishes are believed to be the most appropriate English varieties for teaching and learning purposes. British English, however, received the highest ranking among the participants, which means that they seem to prefer British English over American English as far as teaching and learning purposes are concerned. In Chien's (2018) study, however, North American English was ranked as the most suitable English variety for teaching and learning purposes.

Table 115 MEFLs' Responses to the Most Appropriate English Variety for Teaching and Learning Purposes

Multiple-Choice Question Four	Frequency	Percent
American English	232	42,6
British English	312	57,4
Indian English	0	0
Filipino English	0	0
Japanese English	0	0
Thai English	0	0
Total	544	100,0

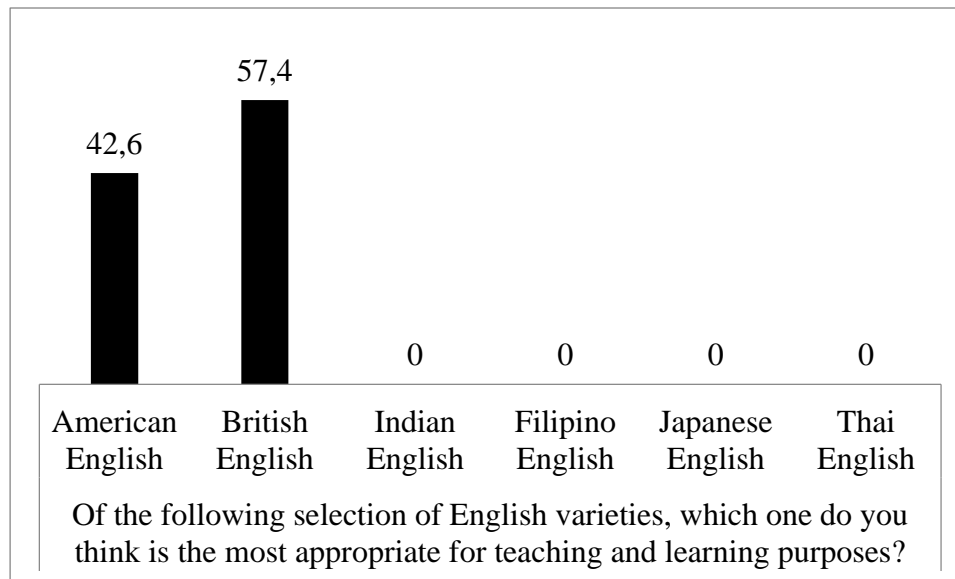


Figure 41 MEFLs' Responses to the Most Appropriate English Variety for Teaching and Learning Purposes

These findings are best explained by the following quotes:

- As a language learner, I would really prefer to be exposed extensively to the American variety of English. I can relate this to my experience as an exchange student. Spending a year in the USA made me question the varieties of English students are exposed to and also question the amount of time students should be exposed to it. The exchange experience made me come to the realization that students need to consistently and constantly be exposed to the American variety of English so that their communicative and intercultural communicative competence are enhanced. Though I spent years studying English in traditional ways, my experience exposed its weaknesses as I was not able to fully and easily communicate with native speakers. Reconsideration of how English is taught in Morocco would be really highly valued. (P1)
- I chose British because British English is the original variety of English. British English vocabulary is more appropriate for teaching. However, I believe teachers should not impose a certain variety on students. Students should be given the choice. (P19)
- Like I mentioned in a previous inquiry, British English sounds better for academic/educational purposes. I also think the American English is a bit difficult to listen to and extract words from for someone who is unfamiliar with it. (P87)
- Well, I think using the British variety is more appropriate because it's the original. Using it for teaching purposes allows non-native speakers to know the basics of the language, along with the accent, of course.
- The American one because students are exposed to it more than any other English variety through the Internet and social media. (P107)

4.4. Relating the Findings to Research Questions Four and Five

This section provides a discussion of the results obtained from data elicited from the study's participants regarding their ability to categorise varieties of English speech as either native or non-native speech, along with their explicit attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech selected for the purposes of the present study (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE). As a reminder to the reader, one of the study's objectives is to investigate, using a direct approach of attitude measurement (i.e., an online questionnaire & a semi-structured interview), (1) the role of World Englishes on MEFLs' language attitudes and (2) their explicit attitudes towards varieties of English speech. In what follows, an account of the extent to which the findings relate to research questions four and five is discussed in subsection 4.4.1 and subsection 4.4.2, respectively.

4.4.1. Research Question Four: What Role Do World Englishes Play on the Participants' Attitudes towards the Selected Varieties of English?

The fourth research question in this study sought to explore what role World Englishes play with regard to Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards six varieties of English speech that represent Kachru's *Inner* (AmE & BrE), *Outer* (InE & FiE) and *Expanding* (JpE & ThE) circles.

The role of World Englishes on Moroccan EFL learners' explicit attitudes towards varieties of English speech can be summarised as follows:

With regard to Moroccan EFL learners' ability to recognise differences between native and non-native speakers of English, the majority of Moroccan EFL learners expressed explicitly that they are able to recognise the differences between native and non-native speakers of English.

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With regard to whether it is important for Moroccan EFL learners to learn English from native English-speaking teachers from countries such as the USA and the UK, Moroccan EFL learners seem to have ambivalent attitudes towards learning English from a native English-speaker teacher. Some of them expressed their agreement with being taught by a NEST, while the other ones expressed their disagreement with the idea of being taught by a NEST.

With regard to Moroccan EFL learners' interest in learning/knowing the differences that exist in different varieties of English such as Indian English, American English, Thai English, etc., the majority of Moroccan EFL learners expressed their willingness to learn the differences that exist in such English varieties.

With regard to Moroccan EFL learners' need to understand speakers of different varieties of English to be able to pass tests like GEPT, TOEFL, TOEIC or IELTS, etc., the majority of Moroccan EFL learners agreed that understanding English varieties is important.

With regard to Moroccan EFL learners' need to understand both native and non-native speakers to be able to make friends from across the world, the majority of Moroccan EFL learners agree that understanding both native and non-native speakers of English is a requirement to make new friends across the world.

With regard to Moroccan EFL learners' feeling of being more successful when speaking English without an accent (Moroccan English, in our case), Moroccan EFL learners seem to have ambivalent attitudes regarding speaking English with an accent. For example, some of them agree that their success is largely related to speaking English without an accent, while others disagree with the idea that they would be more successful if they spoke English without an accent.

With regard to whether people's accents do not really matter to Moroccan EFL learners as long as they can understand the communication that takes place, the majority of MEFLs agree with the idea that accent does not matter as long as there is mutual intelligibility.

4.4.2. Research Question Five: What Are the Participants' Explicit Attitudes towards the Selected Varieties of English?

The fifth research question in this study sought to explore Moroccan EFL learners' explicit (overt) attitudes towards six varieties of English speech that represent Kachru's *Inner* (AmE & BrE), *Outer* (InE & FiE) and *Expanding* (JpE & ThE) circles. In this respect, the responses of the Multiple-Choice questions show that almost all the participants (1) prefer Inner Circle Englishes (i.e., AmE & BrE) over non-inner circle Englishes (i.e., InE, FiE, JpE & ThE), (2) consider American English and British English to be their most familiar varieties of English, (3) believe that American English and British English are the most appropriate English varieties for their daily life usage and (4) believe that American English and British English are the most appropriate English varieties for teaching and learning purposes.

As far as the participants' explicit attitudes towards varieties of English speech are concerned, the findings of the study show that Moroccan EFL learners prefer Inner Circle over Non-Inner Circle Englishes (NICE). These findings are consistent with those of previous research (e.g., Almegren, 2018; Chien, 2018; Jindapitak & Teo, 2012; Mourchid, 2018). For example, Chien (2018) found that (1) most of the Taiwanese participants in his study chose Inner Circle varieties of English as their favourite (British English 47.0% & North American English 31.2%), (2) that the majority of his participants are familiar with North American English (64.0%) and (3) that the majority of participants expressed their preference for North American English as the most suitable English variety for daily life usage (57.4%) and the most appropriate English variety for teaching and learning purposes (61.2%). In the same vein,

Chapter 4: Results & Discussion: Explicit (overt) Attitudes towards World Englishes

Jindapitak & Teo (2012), Mourchid (2018) and Almegren (2018) found that participants in their studies held more favourable attitudes towards Inner Circle varieties of English. One explanatory basis for this could be the social value and status associated with speaking English with British and American accents. Another plausible explanation for this finding may be related to the fact that learners are used to hearing native speakers of English on social media, TV and the radio more than non-native speakers of English.

In line with previous research (e.g., Chien, 2018; Almegren, 2018), the results of the present study show that Moroccan EFL learners are able to recognise differences between native and non-native speakers of English. In this regard, the findings of Almegren's (2018) study show that "Saudi students are aware of some varieties of the English language, though they seem to have varied attitudes towards the diverse varieties of World Englishes" (p. 238). Moroccan EFL learners' ability to easily identify native from non-native speakers of English can be largely attributable to many factors including their exposure to and familiarity with native speakers through movies, films and direct contact. It can also be attributable to their level of language awareness.

As for the importance for Moroccan EFL learners to learn English from NESTs from countries such as the USA and the UK, Moroccan EFL learners seem to have ambivalent attitudes towards learning English from a native English-speaker teacher. Some of them expressed their agreement with being taught by a NEST, while others expressed their disagreement with the idea of being taught by a NEST. Furthermore, the majority of Moroccan EFL learners expressed their willingness to learn the differences that exist in varieties of English.

The majority of Moroccan EFL learners also agreed that understanding English varieties is important to pass tests like GEPT, TOEFL, TOEIC or IELTS, etc., a finding that is supported

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by Chien's (2018) study whose findings show that "the majority of the Taiwanese participants concur that understanding the intelligibility of both NS and NNSs speech is essential to pass different levels of domestic (e.g. GEPT) or international English proficiency tests (e.g. IELTS and TOEFL)" (pp. 269-270).

As for the need to understand both native and non-native speakers to be able to make friends from across the world, the majority of Moroccan EFL learners agree that understanding both native and non-native speakers of English is an essential factor in making new friends across the world. This finding is also in line with Chien's (2018) study whose findings show that "a very high proportion of Taiwanese respondents are agreeable towards the idea that understanding both NSs and NNSs is important" (p. 270).

As for Moroccan EFL learners' feeling of being more successful when speaking English without an accent (Moroccan Arabic, in our case), Moroccan EFL learners seem to have ambivalent attitudes regarding speaking English with an accent. For example, some of them agree that their success is largely related to speaking English without an accent, while others disagree with the idea that they would be more successful if they spoke English without an accent.

Finally, the majority of Moroccan EFL learners agree that people's accents do not really matter to them as long as they can understand the communication that takes place. Again, this finding is consistent with Chien's (2018) study whose findings show that "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" (p. 271).

4.5. Chapter Summary

The present chapter provided a detailed analysis along with a discussion of the results of the online questionnaire that was used in the study to investigate Moroccan EFL learners' explicit (overt) attitudes towards the same six varieties of English speech utilised in the verbal-guise task discussed in Chapter 3. First, an outline of the role of World Englishes on the study's participants' attitudes was provided in section 4.2. Second, an outline of their explicit attitudes towards the six varieties of English speech selected for the purposes of the present study (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) was presented in section 4.3. Finally, an account of the extent to which the chapter's results relate to research questions four and five was discussed in section 4.4.

Chapter 5. Results & Discussion: Moroccan EFL Learners' Attitudes towards Native and Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers

5.1. Introduction

The present chapter provides a detailed analysis along with a discussion of the results of the online questionnaire that was used in the present study to investigate Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers. First, an analysis of the quantitative data gathered from the study's participants with regard to their attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs is provided in section 5.2. Second, an analysis of the qualitative data elicited from the study's participants regarding their beliefs about the strengths and weaknesses of each type of EFL teachers is presented in section 5.3. Third, an account of the extent to which the chapter's results relate to research questions six and seven is discussed in section 5.4. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in section 5.5.

As a reminder to the reader, the present chapter seeks to answer the following research questions:

- **Research Question Six:** What are the attitudes of Moroccan EFL learners towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers?
- **Research Question Seven:** From the perspective of Moroccan EFL learners, what are the strengths and weaknesses of native and non-native English-speaking teachers?

5.2. Quantitative Data

In this section, a discussion of the quantitative data elicited from the participants regarding their attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs is provided. The following subsections will specifically look at the following areas: MEFLs' previous experience with NESTs (5.2.1), MEFLs' most important reason for studying English (5.2.2), MEFLs' preference for classes with NESTs (5.2.3), MEFLs' preference for classes with non-NESTs (5.2.4), MEFLs' preference for classes with both NESTs and non-NESTs (5.2.5), MEFLs' attitudes towards

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EFL teachers' origin (5.2.6), the importance of the teacher's L1 (5.2.7), MEFLs' choice of language school (5.2.8), multilingual teachers (5.2.9), NESTs as the best role models (5.2.10), NESTs' inability to answer all students' questions (5.2.11), grammar (5.2.12), accent (5.2.13), satisfaction with non-NESTs (5.2.14), satisfaction with both NESTs and non-NESTs (5.2.15) and non-NESTs' working as local teachers only (5.2.16).

5.2.1. Moroccan EFL Learners' Previous Experience with NESTs

This subsection discusses Moroccan EFL learners' previous experience with native English-speaking teachers. In this respect, the findings in [Table 116](#) below indicate that more than a half of Moroccan EFL learners ($n=46$, 60,5%) has not had any classes with native English-speaking teachers. Similarly, about a half of the participants ($n=30$, 39,5%) indicated that they have been taught by native speaking teachers. These results show that the sample recruited in the study is already familiar with NESTs and non-NESTs alike, and the data collected from the participants will thus form the basis of an accurate investigation of Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs.

Table 116 Previous Experience with NESTs

Previous Experience with NESTs	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	30	39,5
No	46	60,5
Total	76	100,0

5.2.2. MEFLs' Most Important Reason for Studying English

Moroccan EFL learners study English for a variety of reasons. As shown in [Table 117](#) below, 32.9% of the participants indicated that getting a better job in their country is their number one reason for studying English. Similarly, 30.3% of the participants study English because they like the English culture and language very much. Additionally, 23.7% of Moroccan EFL learners study English because they believe it is important in today's society. Finally, 5.3% of

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the participants study English to live in the U.S and another 5.3% of the participants study English for fun and personal pleasure. Interestingly, a closer look at the reasons why Moroccan EFL learners study English indicates that these reasons are extrinsically triggered as their desire to learn it is linked to the benefits and outcomes that come along with studying it (e.g., getting a job) and the social status associated with speaking it (e.g., English is very important in today's society). These findings are in line with those of Belhiah (2020) who found that Moroccan students held "favorable attitudes toward English and its culture and conveyed their love and passion for studying English" and described it as "a beautiful language that is worth studying", "their favorite subject in high school" and being one of "the most important aspects of their lives and they take great pleasure when speaking in English" (p. 41). Moreover, the participants in Belhiah's (2020) study stated that "English would help them secure decent jobs, such as working as English teachers, interpreters, translators, and businessmen" and that "English is an international language that helps build connections not only with people from English-speaking countries, but also with citizens around the world" (pp. 42-43).

Table 117 MEFLs' Most Important Reason for Studying English

<i>Reason</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
to get a better job in your country	25	32,9
because you like the English language and culture very much	23	30,3
because English is very important in today's society	18	23,7
to live in the U.S.	4	5,3
for fun and personal pleasure	4	5,3
other	2	2,6
<i>Total</i>	76	100,0

5.2.3. Preference for Classes with a NES teacher

Table 118 and Figure 42 below look into Moroccan EFL learners' preference for classes with native English-speaking teachers. Expectedly, and in line of previous research studies (e.g., Alvarez, 2024), preference and importance were given to having classes with native

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English-speaking speakers. Put slightly different, a large proportion of the participants ($n=52$, 68.4%) agrees and/or strongly agrees that they prefer to have classes with native English-speaking teachers. 23.7% of the participants, however, took a neutral stance and only a small to insignificant proportion ($n=6$, 7.6%) indicated that they disagree or strongly disagree with having classes with native English-speaking teachers.

Table 118 MEFLs' Preference for Classes with Native English-Speaking Teachers

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I prefer to have classes with a NES teacher.	No	4	2	18	32	20
	[%]	5,3%	2,6%	23,7%	42,1%	26,3%

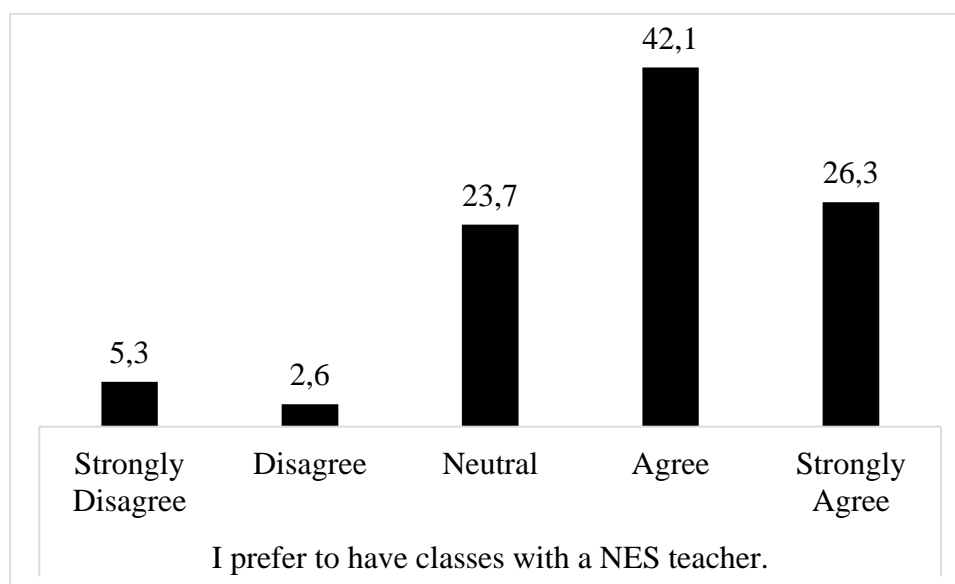


Figure 42 MEFLs' Preference for Classes with Native English-speaking Teachers

5.2.4. Preference for Classes with a NNES

Having looked at Moroccan EFL learners' preference for having classes with native English-speaking teachers in subsection 5.2.3, this subsection turns into discussing the participants' preference for having classes with non-native English-speaking teachers. As [Table 119](#) and

Figure 43 show, 32.8% of the participants indicated that they agree and/or strongly agree to have classes with non-native English-speaking teachers. A large proportion of the participants ($n=32$, 42.1%), however, was neutral. Interestingly, 25% explicitly expressed their disagreement and lack of preference to have classes with non-native English-speaking teachers. It should be noted that these findings further support the findings of the previous subsection (5.2.3) as Moroccan EFL learners prefer having classes with native English-speaking teachers.

Table 119 MEFLs' Preference for Classes with Non-native English-speaking Teachers

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I prefer to have classes with a NNES.	No	5	14	32	22	3
	[%]	6,6%	18,4%	42,1%	28,9%	3,9%

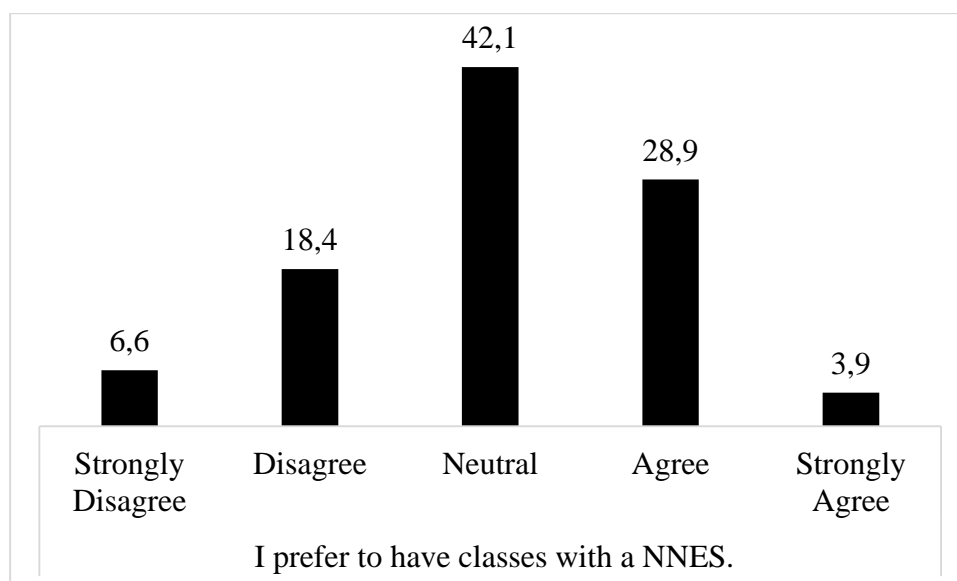


Figure 43 MEFLs' Preference for Classes with Non-native English-speaking Teachers

5.2.5. Preference for Classes both with Native and Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers

Having looked at Moroccan EFL learners' preference for having classes with native English-speaking teachers in subsection 5.2.3 and non-native English-speaking teachers in

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subsection 5.2.4, this subsection looks at the participants' preference for having classes with both native and non-native English-speaking teachers. As Table 120 and Figure 44 below illustrate, the majority of the participants prefers to have classes with both types of EFL teachers, a finding that is in line with findings obtained by similar research studies (e.g., Alvarez, 2024; Kiczowskiak, 2018). One plausible explanatory basis for this finding could be the fact that having classes with both native and non-native English-speaking teachers provides Moroccan EFL learners with a unique learning experience.

Table 120 MEFLs' Preference for Classes both with Native and Non-native English-speaking Teachers

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I prefer to have classes both with NES and NNES teachers.	3	3	12	39	19
	3,9%	3,9%	15,8%	51,3%	25,0%

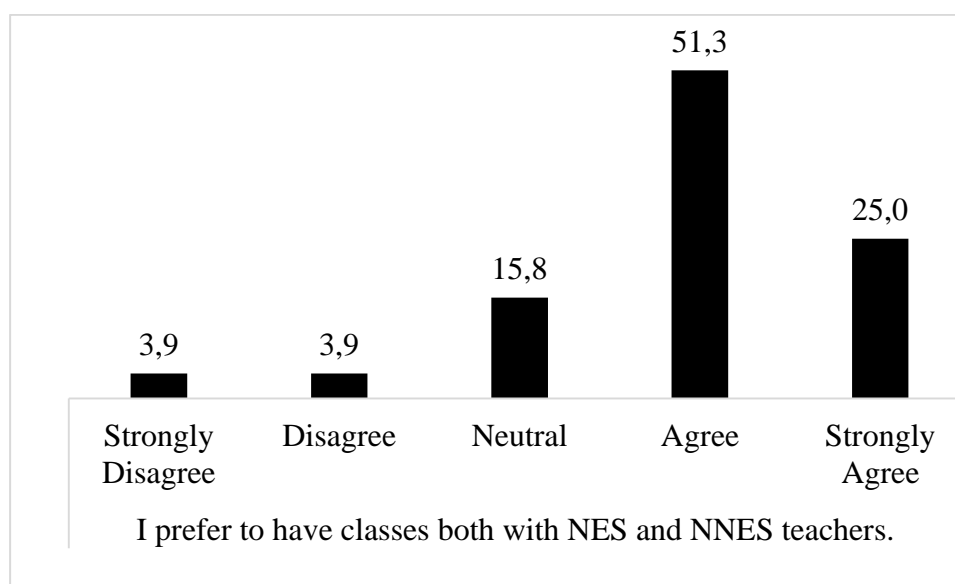


Figure 44 MEFLs' Preference for Classes both with Native and Non-native English-Speaking Teachers

5.2.6. MEFLs' Attitudes towards EFL Teachers' Origin

Table 121 and Figure 45 below reveal Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards the origins of their FLL teachers. More specifically, the majority of the participants indicate their indifference towards their EFL teachers' origin. Relatedly, a large proportion of the participants ($n=60$, 78.9%) agrees and/or strongly agrees that their EFL teacher's origin is not important as long as he/she is a 'good' teacher. Interestingly, what matters for Moroccan EFL learners is the teacher's qualities and contributions in class rather than his/her origin.

Table 121 MEFLs' Attitudes towards EFL Teachers' Origin

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I don't care where my teacher is from as long as he/she is a good teacher.	No	3	3	10	14	46
	[%]	3,9%	3,9%	13,2%	18,4%	60,5%

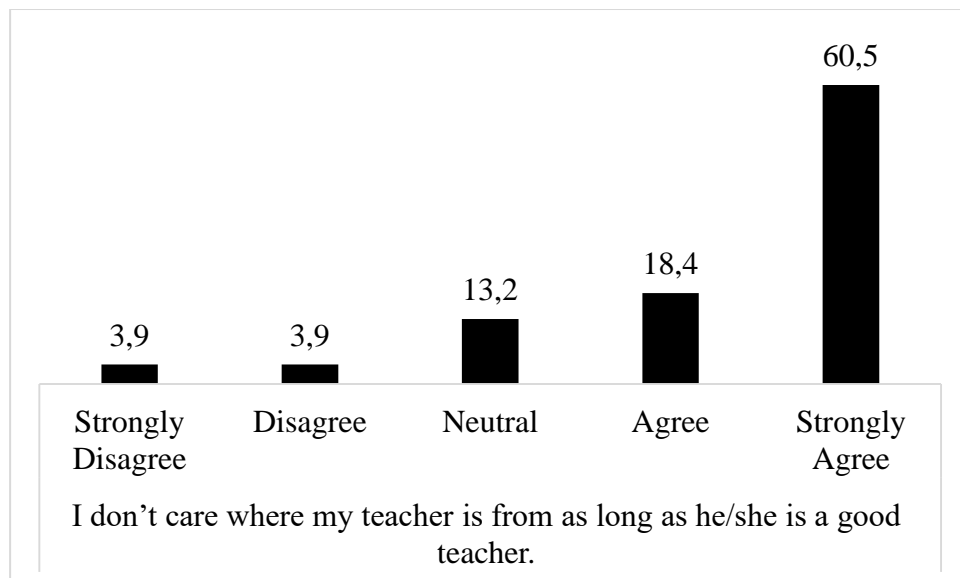


Figure 45 MEFLs' Attitudes towards EFL Teachers' Origin

5.2.7. The Importance of the Teacher's L1

This subsection looks at the importance of the teacher's L1 (mother tongue) in EFL classes. In other words, the subsection specifically looks at whether the teacher's mother tongue plays a direct or indirect role in English classes. As [Table 122](#) and [Figure 46](#) below show, the findings revealed that the teacher's mother tongue is indeed important. For instance, the majority of the participants in the study ($n=48$, 63.2%) agree and/or strongly agree that the teacher's mother tongue is of paramount importance. This finding is in line with Kiczkowiak's (2018) study whose findings show that students in Poland attach more importance to their teacher's mother tongue. The students in Kiczkowiak's (2018) study believe that "an English-only classroom was preferable" (p. 132). One plausible explanatory basis for this could be the fact that having a native English-speaking teacher would provide learners with ample opportunities for exposure to authentic and meaningful input/language that would, ideally, improve their English proficiency.

Table 122 Importance of the Teacher's Mother Tongue

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
My teacher's mother tongue is important.	No	9	12	7	24	24
	[%]	11,8%	15,8%	9,2%	31,6%	31,6%

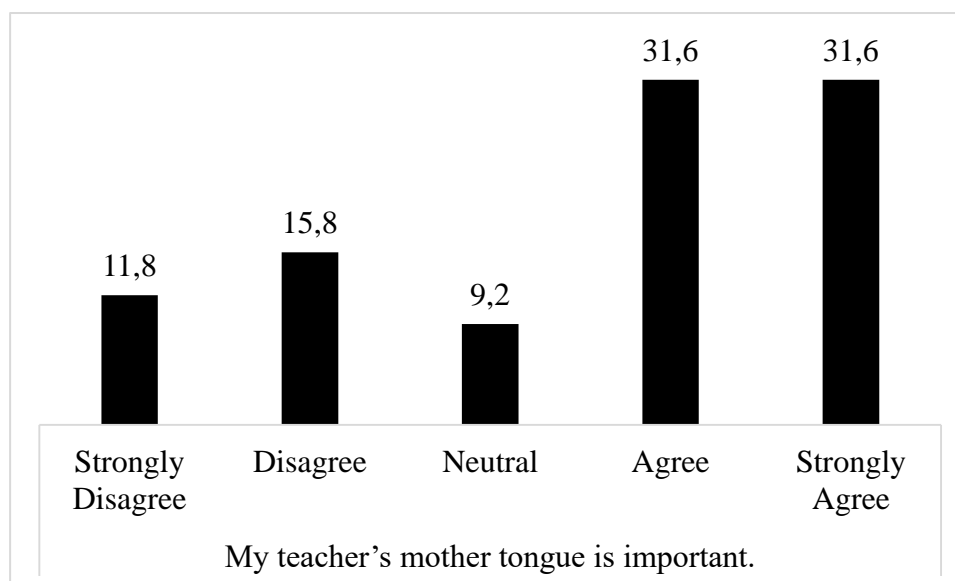


Figure 46 Importance of the Teacher's Mother Tongue

5.2.8. MEFLs' Choice of Language School

This subsection examines whether Moroccan EFL learners choose language schools on the basis of the type of English teachers employed (i.e., native or non-native). In this part of the questionnaire, the participants were asked to answer four statements with regard to how preference for native speakers might affect their choice of language school. In other words, they were asked to describe the extent to which they check (1) if the language school they would study in had native speakers, (2) if they would complain to the school director when taught by a non-native English-speaking teacher, (3) whether it was important that the language school they would study in had both native and non-native English-speaking teachers and (4) whether they preferred to study in a language school that employed only native English-speaking teachers.

The findings shown in [Table 123](#) and [Figure 47](#) reveal that Moroccan EFL learners' choice of the school is not directly and strictly guided by the origins of the teachers. Relatedly, a large proportion of the participants ($n=41$, 53.9%) strongly disagrees and/or disagrees with the idea

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that they choose the language school if it employs native English-speaking teachers. Similarly, more than half of the participants ($n=52$, 68.4%) strongly disagree and/or disagree with the statement that they would complain to the school director if they had classes with a non-native English-speaking teacher, a finding that is in line with Kiczkowiak's (2018) study. Additionally, the majority the participants ($n=48$, 63.2%) strongly disagrees and/or disagrees with choosing a language school if it employs only native English-speaking teachers. Finally, the majority of the participants ($n=53$, 69.8%) disagrees or strongly disagrees with the idea that it is important for them that the school where they study has to necessarily have both native English-speaking teachers and non-native English-speaking teachers. In other words, the participants believe that it is not really necessary that their language schools have native English-speaking teachers and that having a school that employs only non-native English-speaking teachers is also acceptable.

All in all, and in line of previous research studies (e.g., Kiczkowiak, 2018), the findings obtained concerning the extent to which the recruitment of native English-speaking teachers affects Moroccan EFL learners' choice of language school reveal that the participants' choice of language school does not depend on the type of EFL teacher recruited. In other words, the participants seem to be tolerant of the English instructor's origin. This tolerance may be explained by the fact that the participants do not adopt a native-speakerist discourse, and what matters for them is qualification rather the criteria of origin and nativeness.

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Table 123 MEFLs' Choice of Language School

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
When I choose a language school, I check if they employ NES teachers.	No	15	26	18	11	6
	[%]	19,7%	34,2%	23,7%	14,5%	7,9%
I would complain to the school director if I had classes with a NNES teacher.	No	27	25	13	7	4
	[%]	35,5%	32,9%	17,1%	9,2%	5,3%
I prefer to study in a school that only employs NES teachers.	No	24	24	9	15	4
	[%]	31,6%	31,6%	11,8%	19,7%	5,3%
It is important to me that the school where I study English has both NES and NNES teachers.	No	30	23	5	8	10
	[%]	39,5%	30,3%	6,6%	10,5%	13,2%

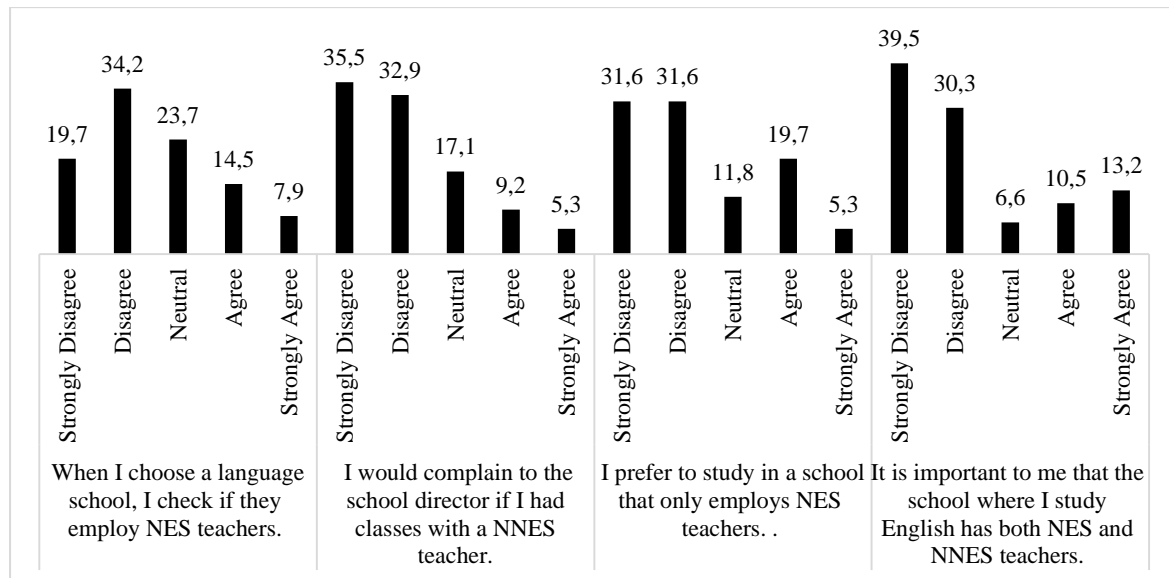


Figure 47 MEFLs' Choice of Language School

5.2.9. Multilingual Teachers

Table 124 and Figure 48 below examine Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards having multilingual teachers. The findings reveal that the participants roughly prefer having multilingual teachers. More specifically, a large proportion of the participants ($n=46$, 60.5%) agrees and/or strongly agrees that they prefer having a multilingual EFL teacher. One plausible explanatory basis for that could be the fact that EFL teachers who speak many languages or who are multilingual speakers can understand learners' learning difficulties more than those who only speak English and have had no previous language learning experience. This finding is line with Bailey et al. (2001) who believe that "one of the best opportunities for a language teacher's professional development is to get into a language learning situation" (p. 96). They also add that "the experience of putting yourself in the learner's shoes can be incredibly illuminating (and sometimes even humbling)" (p. 96). According to these authors, language learning experience may help us in three ways. First, it gives us insights into the challenges faced by learners. Second, it helps us understand language in a better way. Finally, "taking the learners' role and attending to both effective and ineffective teaching can subsequently help us to develop our own actual teaching strategies" (Bailey et al., 2001, p. 96).

Table 124 Multilingual Teachers

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
EFL teachers who speak more many languages can understand my learning difficulties better than teachers who speak only English.	No	8	9	13	28	18
	[%]	10,5%	11,8%	17,1%	36,8%	23,7%

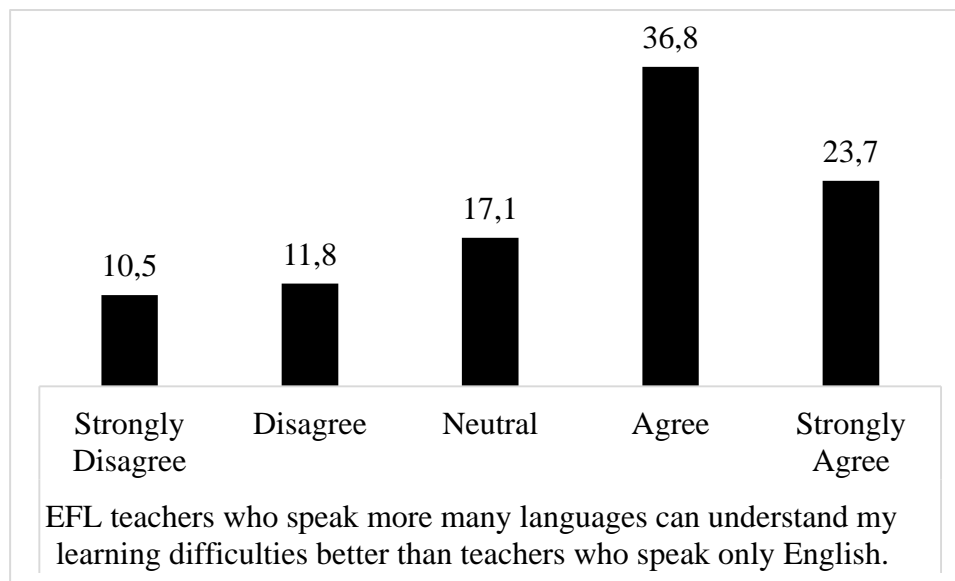


Figure 48 Multilingual Teachers

5.2.10. Native EFL Teachers Acting as Better Role Models than Non-native Teachers

This subsection examines whether native EFL teachers are better role models than non-native EFL teachers. The findings in Table 125 and Figure 49 below reveal the majority of Moroccan EFL learners ($n=46$, 60.6%) disagrees and/strongly disagrees with the idea that native EFL teachers are better role models. Interestingly, these results indicate that being a better role model is not directly linked to being a native speaker of the English language. This finding is in line with previous studies (e.g., Moussu, 2018b). For example, Moussu (2018b) believes that one strength of non-NESTs is that they can be real role models to their EFL learners, as they give a real model for such learners to follow.

Table 125 Native EFL Teachers Acting as Better Role Models than Non-native Teachers

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Native EFL teachers are better role models than non-native teachers.	No	23	23	15	8	7
	[%]	30,3%	30,3%	19,7%	10,5%	9,2%

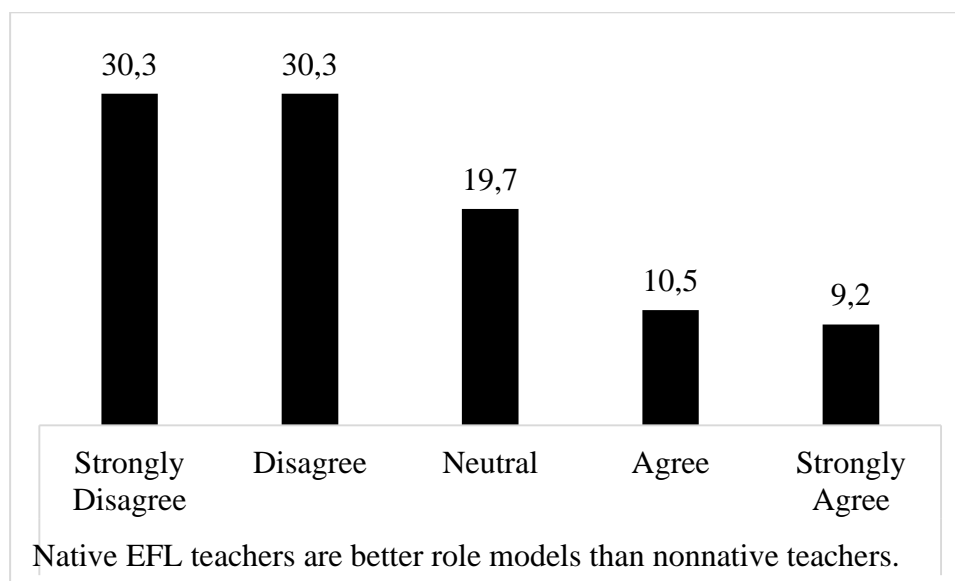


Figure 49 Native EFL Teachers Acting as Better Role Models than Non-native Teachers

5.2.11. Native Teachers' Inability to Answer all Students' Questions

This subsection looks at one of the hotly debated issues in the literature pertinent to whether native English-speaking teachers know answers to all learners' questions. The findings in [Table 126](#) and [Figure 50](#) demonstrate that a large proportion of the participants ($n=48$, 63.2%) agrees and/or strongly agrees with the idea that native English-speaking teachers do not always know how to answer all learners' questions and inquiries. Reasonably, the results further confirm the assumption that no teacher, native or non-native, knows all the answers to all learners' questions.

Table 126 Native Teachers' Inability to Answer all Students' Questions

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Native teachers don't always know how to answer students' questions.	No	4	7	17	25	23
	[%]	5,3%	9,2%	22,4%	32,9%	30,3%

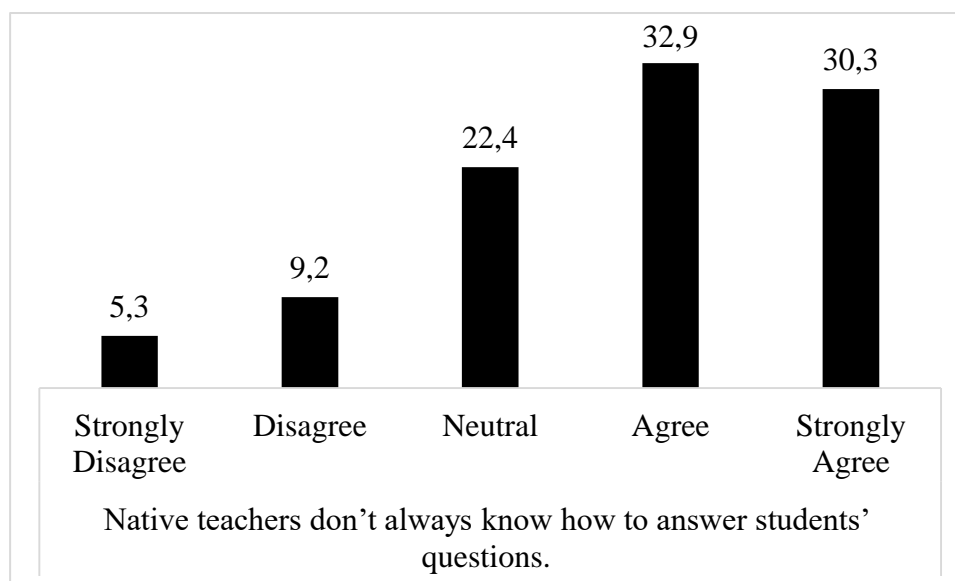


Figure 50 Native Teachers' Inability to Answer all Students' Questions

5.2.12. Grammar

The discussion throughout this subsection looks at EFL teachers', native and non-native, tendency to make grammatical errors. Relatedly, [Table 127](#) and [Figure 51](#) show that the majority of the participants ($n=45$, 59.2%) agrees and/or strongly agrees that native EFL teachers do sometimes make grammatical mistakes. Following the same line of reasoning, a large proportion of Moroccan EFL learners ($n=49$, 64.5%) disagrees and/or strongly disagrees with the idea that native EFL teachers never make grammar mistakes. Additionally, the majority of the participants ($n=46$, 60.5%) disagrees and/or strongly disagrees with the statement that non-native EFL teachers always make grammar mistakes. Importantly, it could be clearly deduced from the findings that all teachers, regardless of being native or non-native, are subject to making grammar mistakes and that being a native English-speaking teacher does not necessarily make one error-free.

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Table 127 MEFLs' Attitudes towards EFL Teachers' Tendency to Make Grammatical Errors

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Native EFL teachers sometimes make grammar mistakes.	No	3	7	21	31	14
	[%]	3,9%	9,2%	27,6%	40,8%	18,4%
Native EFL teachers never make grammar mistakes.	No	16	33	16	7	4
	[%]	21,1%	43,4%	21,1%	9,2%	5,3%
Non-native EFL teachers always make grammar mistakes.	No	15	31	17	10	3
	[%]	19,7%	40,8%	22,4%	13,2%	3,9%

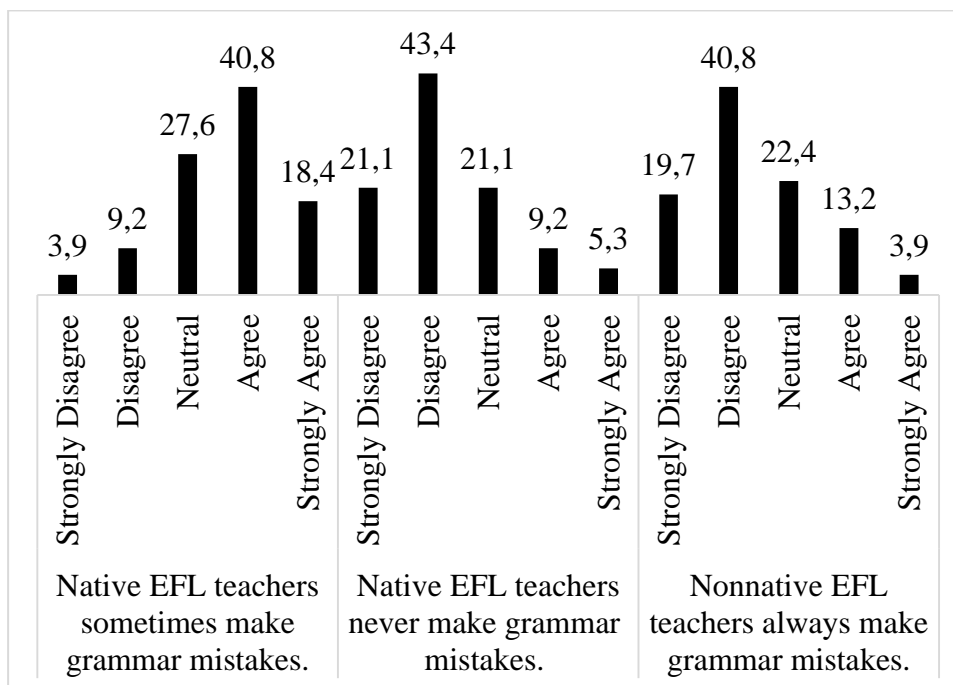


Figure 51 MEFLs' Attitudes towards EFL Teachers' Tendency to Make Grammatical Errors

5.2.13. Accent

This subsection looks at the issue of speaking English with or without a foreign accent. Unpredictably, Moroccan EFL learners are clearly open to having an EFL teacher who speaks English not necessarily with a native-like accent. In line with previous research studies (e.g., Kiczkowiak, 2018), the findings in Table 128 and Figure 52 below reveal that the majority of the participants ($n=53$, 69.7%) agrees and/or strongly agrees that it is alright to speak English

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with a foreign accent, suggesting that having a foreign accent does not impede learning. Additionally, the majority of the participants ($n=50$, 65.8%) expressed their disagreement with the fallacy that all EFL teachers should obligatorily speak English with a perfect American accent. Following the same line of reasoning, over almost half of the participants ($n=32$, 42.1%) disagree and/or strongly disagree with the idea that EFL teachers should all speak English without a foreign accent. Interestingly, this discussion brings us to the long-debated matter pertinent to whether all foreign teachers should, and if they actually can, attain a native-like accent. Apparently, Moroccan EFL learners seem to have a decent amount of linguistic awareness that has, ideally, made them tolerant of having EFL teachers with a foreign accent. This linguistic awareness has also made them aware that accent does not really play any direct impeding or facilitating role in language learning.

Table 128 Speaking English with or without an Accent

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
It's OK to speak English with a foreign accent.	No	3	5	15	34	19
	[%]	3,9%	6,6%	19,7%	44,7%	25,0%
English teachers should all speak with a perfect American accent.	No	16	34	10	10	6
	[%]	21,1%	44,7%	13,2%	13,2%	7,9%
EFL teachers should all speak without a foreign accent.	No	8	24	17	18	9
	[%]	10,5%	31,6%	22,4%	23,7%	11,8%

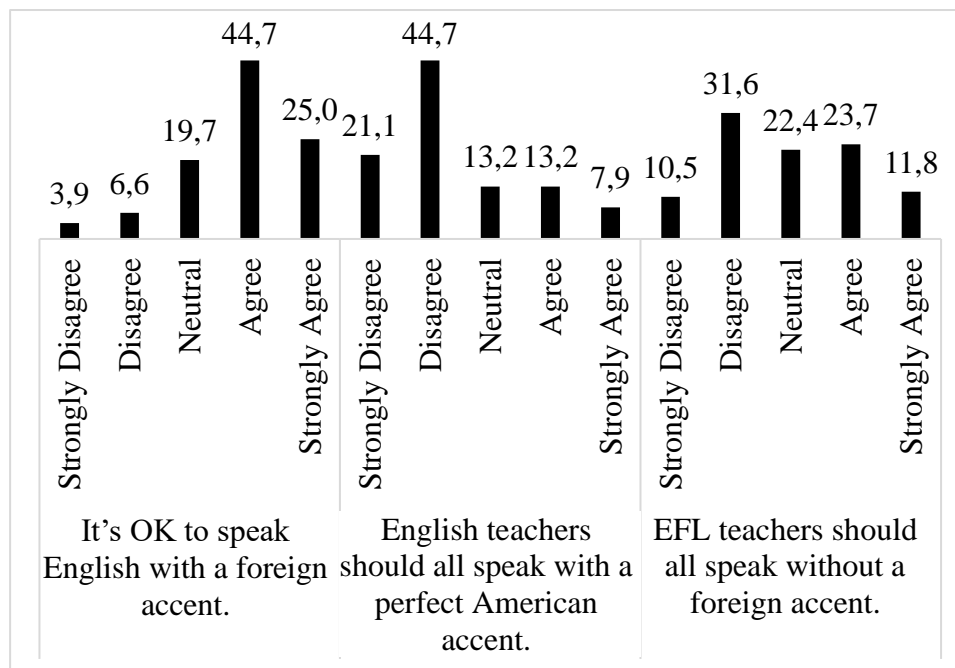


Figure 52 Speaking English with or without an Accent

5.2.14. Satisfaction with Non-NESTs

In line with the discussion above regarding speaking English with or without a foreign accent in subsection 5.2.13, this subsection further expands the discussion by exploring Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards and satisfaction with non-native English-speaking teachers. The findings shown both in Table 129 and Figure 53 below further back up and lend additional support to Moroccan EFL learners' tolerance and openness to having EFL teachers with a foreign accent, a finding that is in line with Kiczkowiak's (2018) study. Relatedly, the majority of the participants ($n=53$, 69.8%) are largely satisfied with non-native English-speaking teachers. They assert that their language learning experiences with non-native English-speaking teachers have been good and satisfying so far. This finding reveals that being a non-native EFL teacher does not necessarily and systematically make one of less efficiency and success as an EFL teacher.

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Table 129 Satisfaction with Non-NESTs

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
My learning experiences with non-native teachers have been good so far.	No	1	5	17	37	16
	[%]	1,3%	6,6%	22,4%	48,7%	21,1%

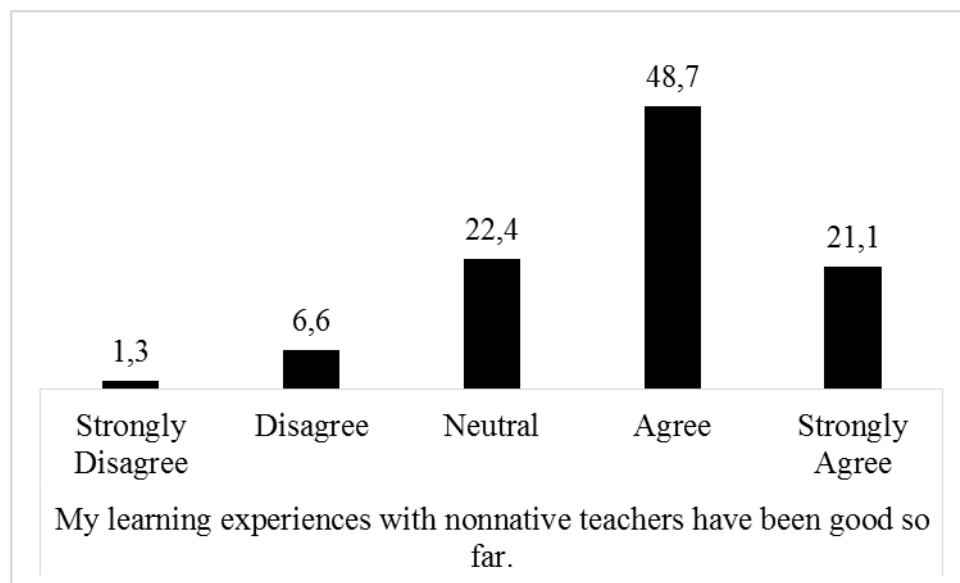


Figure 53 Satisfaction with Non-NESTs

5.2.15. Satisfaction with both NESTs and Non-NESTs

The previous subsection (5.2.14) looked at Moroccan EFL learners' satisfaction with non-native English-speaking teachers. This subsection, however, turns into discussing their satisfaction with both native English-speaking teachers and non-native English-speaking teachers. As shown in Table 130 and Figure 54 below, a large proportion of the participants ($n=53$, 69.7%) agrees and/strongly agrees they can learn English just as well from a non-native English-speaking teacher as from a native English-speaking teacher. Furthermore, only a small and almost a negligent number of the participants ($n=7$, 9.2%) disagrees and/or strongly disagrees that their ability to learn English is directly influenced by whether their EFL teacher is native or non-native. These findings are consistent with those of Kiczowski's (2018) study

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whose findings show that the vast majority of students surveyed in Poland “were either pleased or very pleased with their previous ‘native’ and ‘non-native speaker’ teachers” (p. 121). The findings are also in line with Bailey et al. (2001) who hold “the position that NNS teachers can be just as effective as—in some instances, more effective than—native speakers, and especially when compared to native speakers of the target language who have no professional preparation” (p. 111).

Table 130 Satisfaction with both NESTs and Non-NESTs

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I can learn English just as well from a non-native English teacher as from a native English teacher.	No	3	4	16	33	20
	[%]	3,9%	5,3%	21,1%	43,4%	26,3%

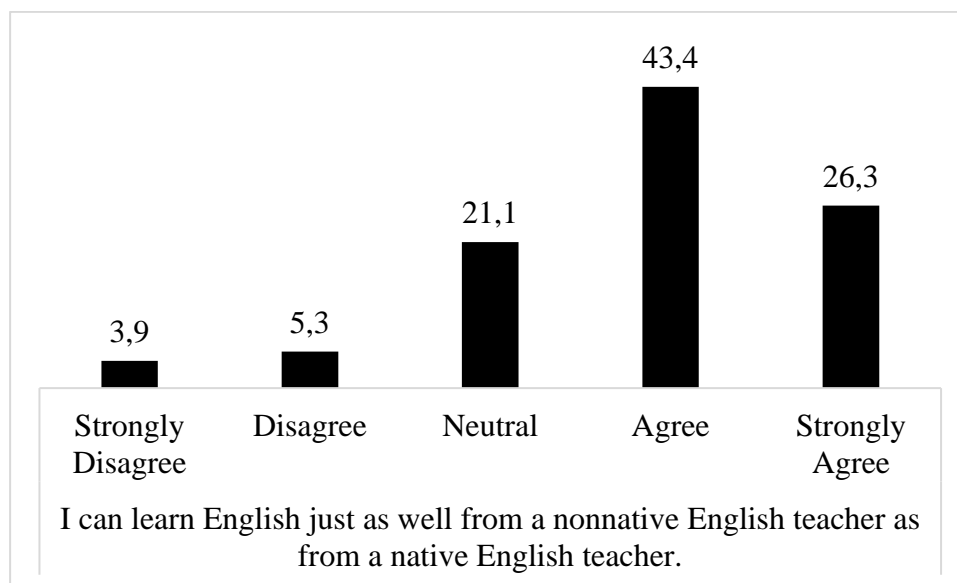


Figure 54 Satisfaction with both NESTs and Non-NESTs

5.2.16. Non-NESTs Working as LETs Only

This subsection investigates whether non-native English-speaking teachers should only be allowed to work as local English teachers (LETs) in their home countries. The findings shown

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in Table 131 and Figure 55 demonstrate that the majority of the participants ($n=53$, 69.7%) disagrees and/or strongly disagrees with the idea that non-native EFL teachers should serve only as local English teachers in their home countries. Similarly, only a small to negligible number of the participants ($n=11$, 14.5%) agrees and/or strongly agrees with having foreign EFL teachers as local teachers only. This finding clearly shows that Moroccan EFL learners believe in scholarly mobility of teachers instead of fixating them in one specific place, which suggests that they possess all the required competencies to function successfully in multi-cultural and international contexts. Arguably, these findings lend further support to the claim that being an EFL teacher is not strictly reserved to native teachers who speak English with a native accent.

Table 131 Non-NESTs Working as LETs (Local English Teachers) Only

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Non-native teachers should only be allowed to teach English in their own countries.	No	26	27	12	7	4
	[%]	34,2%	35,5%	15,8%	9,2%	5,3%

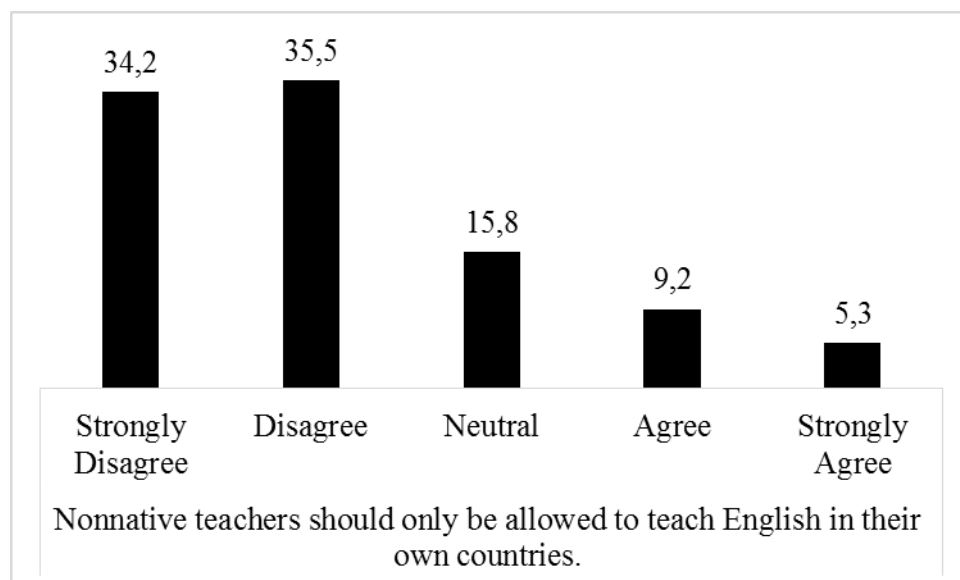


Figure 55 Non-NESTs Working as LETs (Local English Teachers) Only

5.3. Qualitative Data

In this section, a discussion of the qualitative data elicited from the study's participants regarding their beliefs towards NESTs and non-NESTs is provided. The responses collected have been arranged according to characteristics of a 'good' language teacher (5.3.1), non-NESTs' strengths (5.3.2), non-NESTs' weaknesses (5.3.3), NESTs' strengths (5.3.4), NESTs' weaknesses (5.3.5) and the type of EFL teachers preferred the most by Moroccan EFL learners (5.3.6).

5.3.1. Characteristics of a 'Good' English Teacher

The thematic analysis of the participants' responses regarding the characteristics of a 'good' English teacher has resulted in the emergence of four main themes as shown in [Table 132](#) below.

Table 132 MEFLs' Beliefs about the Characteristics of a 'Good' English Teacher

Theme	Frequency
Good command of the English language	<i>17</i>
Understanding learner needs and individual learner differences	<i>16</i>
Motivation, passion and love of the ELT profession	<i>12</i>
Language teaching methodology	<i>10</i>

The first theme that has emerged from the thematic analysis of the participants' responses regarding the characteristics of a 'good' EFL teacher is *having good command or mastery of the language taught*. Reasonably, the participants assert that having a breadth of knowledge of English is a valid predictor of a 'good' teacher. One possible explanation for this could be the fact that EFL teachers should function as a source of knowledge for students. Additionally, having good mastery of the language taught would also significantly increase the learners' trust in their EFL teachers.

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The second theme that has resulted from careful analysis of the participants' input is related to *understanding learners' needs and differences*. The participants assert that 'good' EFL teachers should be able to understand their learners' needs and struggles. This theme largely falls within the humanistic approach in language teaching and learning that puts a lot of emphasis on the learners' psychology. The humanistic/learner-centered approach attaches huge importance to learners' psychology and stresses the importance of diversifying language instructions so that teachers can fairly and equally attend to all the learners' needs and struggles. A focus on human communication "embodies unique potential for students' personal development such as opportunities to develop who they are and who they will be" (Meadows, 2023, p. 70). Furthermore, teachers and students "often utilize the foreign language classroom as a space where [they] can express [themselves], learn about one another, and connect with new places and communities" (Meadows, 2023, p. 70).

The third theme that has emerged from the analysis of participants' responses with regard to 'good' English teachers is related to *having a lot of passion and love for their profession/job*. The participants believe that teachers should have a lot of passion and love for what they are doing. That is, having a lot of passion for the job/profession would undoubtedly make teachers effective and largely creative.

Being a professional teacher and being familiar with different pedagogical approaches and methodologies is also a theme/idea that was frequently mentioned by the participants. Put differently, Moroccan EFL learners believe that having a deep understanding of language teaching methodology is a key aspect in language teaching and learning. It can, therefore, be inferred from the participants' responses that having solely good mastery of the language taught without a good understanding of language teaching methodology is not sufficient. Therefore,

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having good mastery of the language taught should be coupled with a deep understanding of language teaching methodology.

These themes are best explained by the following quotes from different participants:

- I think that good English teachers should have an up-to-date knowledge of their subject and a better understanding of how students learn particular subjects. (P1)
- Being able to speak fluently and loving to share the beauty of the language with people. (P5)
- Mastering the language and being able to teach people from different ages and cultures and even social classes. (P25)
- A good teacher is someone who is knowledgeable about the subject taught, a problem solver and someone who doesn't stop learning. (P30)
- Having good communication skills, patience and a great passion towards teaching English as well as an advanced knowledge and mastery of linguistic skills. (P32)
- What makes a 'good' English teacher is his/her competence not his/her origin. (P34)
- A good English teacher is someone who is aware of linguistic features, pedagogically competent and masters the language. A teacher is a problem solver. (P36)
- What makes a good English teacher is his/her ability to solve all problems and a good teacher should be able to help his/her students learn English as they acquire their mother tongue. Therefore, a teacher should be pedagogically competent to teach and linguistically aware of the language he/she teaches. (P40)
- Being a native or non-native teacher is not important. What really counts is the teachers' competence and knowledge. A good teacher of English is competent (grammatically, pragmatically, and also socially). He/she is passionate about his/her job and always strives to establish good rapport with students. (P42)

Most of the qualities described by Moroccan EFL learners as characteristics of 'good' EFL teachers are in line of those obtained by previous research studies (e.g., Boonsuk, 2016; Kiczkowiak, 2018). For example, in Kiczkowiak's (2018) study, it was found that the most important skill of an effective English teacher was 'knowledge of English' ($M=96.8$), followed by 'the ability to convey knowledge effectively' ($M=89.6$), 'the ability to motivate students' ($M=88.8$) and 'having good rapport with students' ($M=85.3$). In this regard, one of the participants in Kiczkowiak's (2018) study highlighted the importance of knowledge of English, stating that:

Knowledge of grammar, knowledge of the language is for me an absolutely basic element to be a teacher. It cannot be overlooked. Without it, it would be a mistake to be allowed to teach. It's difficult to imagine a maths teacher without any knowledge of maths". (p. 163)

In Boonsuk's (2016) study, it was found that the linguistic characteristics ($M=4.61$) were rated as the most important qualities of teachers, followed by their professional characteristics ($M=4.59$), cultural sensitivity ($M=4.52$), personal motivational characteristics ($M=4.46$), pedagogical characteristics ($M=3.41$) and cultural characteristics ($M=3.41$).

5.3.2. Non-NESTs' Strengths

This subsection turns into discussing Moroccan EFL learners' perceptions of the strengths of non-native English-speaking teachers. In this regard, the thematic analysis of the participants' responses regarding non-NESTs' strengths has resulted in the themes shown in [Table 133](#) below:

Table 133 Non-NESTs' Strengths

Theme	Frequency
Acquaintance with the language difficulties learners face	10
Non-NESTs' dedication to teaching, their effort, their enthusiasm, kindness and patience towards EFL learners	4
Non-NESTs' resilience and hopefulness	6
Serving as a role model for EFL learners	23
Sharing language learning experience	15
Understanding learners' culture and society	10

The first strength of non-NESTs that was frequently mentioned by the participants is related to *acquaintance with the language difficulties learners face*. The participants assert that non-NESTs understand the difficulties that learners face while learning the language. One possible explanation for this could be largely attributable to the fact that non-NESTs, unlike NESTs (especially those who have no previous language learning experience), were once language learners and, therefore, are aware of the challenges that learners face in their language learning

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journey. Conveniently, multilingual English teachers (METs) who have already experienced the ups and downs of language learning will be in a better position to understand and appreciate the efforts made by EFL learners and their struggle towards developing good mastery of the target language, or English in our case.

The second emergent theme that the participants frequently mentioned is *non-NESTs' dedication to teaching, their effort, their enthusiasm, kindness and patience towards EFL learners*. Moroccan EFL learners believe that non-NESTs are highly dedicated to teaching, enthusiastic, patient and kind to learners.

Non-NESTs' resilience and hopefulness is also another theme that was frequently mentioned by the participants when they were asked about non-NESTs' strengths. More specifically, the participants believe that non-NESTs are resilient and hopeful, and these qualities make them effective language teachers.

Since non-NESTs were once language learners, the participants believe that they can *serve as a role model for their EFL learners*. In this regard, Moroccan EFL learners believe that non-NESTs can draw on and refer to their experience as previous language learners while teaching learners. Put differently, having previous experience with language learning allows non-NESTs to serve as a role model for EFL learners.

The last theme that emerged from the thematic analysis of the participants' responses regarding non-NESTs' strengths is the ability to *understand EFL learners' culture and society*. The participants believe that understanding EFL learners' culture and society would definitely enable EFL teachers to connect and easily communicate with their students, which, ideally, will help them in increasing the amount of learning that takes place in English classes.

All the themes mentioned and discussed above are best explained by the quotes below:

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- Simply put, such a teacher is often more capable of understanding the specific needs of their students due to their proximity to the context in which they teach. (Interviewee 1)
- Metalinguistic knowledge; they know more about the language and they can explain its syntax, semantics and pragmatics. This enables them to explain in accordance with students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds. (Interviewee 2)
- Emotional understanding of the learners as they used to be learners of English once. Also they may have well developed skills of teaching English effectively. (Interviewee 4)
- Having a certain training regarding teaching pedagogy and more knowledge since he/she can speak at least two languages. (Interviewee 5)
- Feeling and knowing what students want to learn because they share the same culture. (Interviewee 7)
- Having a good grasp of the language learning process which might make him/her better at teaching. (Interviewee 8)

All in all, most of the qualities highlighted by Moroccan EFL learners as strenghts of native English-speaking teachers are consistent with findings obtained by previous research studies (e.g., Alvarez, 2024). For example, it was found in Alvarez's (2024) study that NESTs were perceived better than non-NESTs in terms of *pronunciation instruction, vocabulary teaching, command of the English language and conversation*.

5.3.3. Non-NESTs' Weaknesses

In the previous subsection (5.3.2), a discussion of non-NESTs' strengths was provided. This subsection, however, moves into discussing non-NESTs' weaknesses. The thematic analysis of the participants' responses has resulted in the following themes as shown in [Table 134](#) below:

Table 134 Non-NESTs' Weaknesses

Theme	Frequency
Accent and pronunciation	26
Insufficient knowledge of idioms, nuances of the language and cultural references	18
Lack of confidence	4
Lack of training and continuous professional development (CPD)	6
Not creative, not updated in terms of materials and not good at integrating ICT in the EFL classroom	7
Poor knowledge of the English language	14
The use of the L1 (learners' mother tongue)	12
	446

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The first theme that has emerged from the participants' responses is pertinent to *accent and pronunciation*. The participants assert that speaking English with a foreign accent is one of the weaknesses of non-NESTs. This theme indicates that Moroccan EFL learners desire to be exposed to the native accent and, ideally, having one, makes them view speaking with a foreign accent as a weakness.

The second theme that emerged from the analysis of the participants' responses is closely tied to *having insufficient knowledge of idioms, nuances of the language and cultural references*. Knowledge of idiomatic expressions, informal English and other frequently used expressions is a quality of 'good' EFL teachers. Therefore, having insufficient or limited knowledge of these expressions is one of the weaknesses of non-NESTs.

Another important theme that emerged from the analysis of the participants' responses is *lack of confidence*. Moroccan EFL learners believe that one of the weaknesses that non-NESTs demonstrate is lack of confidence. This could be possibly attributed to the fact that they only learned, not acquired the language, which makes them feel less self-confident.

Another important theme related to non-NESTs' weaknesses is *lack of training and continuous professional development*. The participants believe that non-NESTs who do not engage in continuous professional development (CPD) activities or training or do not update their teaching practices and pedagogical awareness could significantly negatively affect their effectiveness as EFL teachers.

Another crucial theme that is related to the previous one is *not being creative, not updated in terms of materials and not good at integrating ICT in the EFL classroom*. The participants believe that non-NESTs lack creativity, do not update their teaching materials and rarely use

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information and communication technology (ICT) in their classes. This theme could be closely tied to the theme of lack of active engagement in CPD. Put different, it is very unlikely to be creative and integrate the most modern teaching methodologies in class if EFL teachers do not sufficiently and actively engage in continuous professional development programs.

The last theme that emerged from the thematic analysis of the participants' responses is *non-NESTs' tendency to use the LI* (learners' mother tongue). More specifically, the participants believe that using learners' mother tongue in class, especially in fluency-based activities, could significantly reduce the amount of learning that takes place in class, and therefore, participants view it as an alarming weakness.

These quotes by interviewees 1 and 3 summarise some of non-NESTs' weaknesses mentioned above:

- A non-native English-speaking teacher may encounter certain challenges in offering complete insights of the host culture and achieving native language level fluency compared to native speakers. Nevertheless, this can be improved with more training and experience.
- Some non-native English-speaking teachers do not have a proper accent.

5.3.4. NESTs' Strengths

Having discussed non-NESTs' strengths and weaknesses in subsection 5.3.2 and subsection 5.3.3, respectively, this subsection moves into discussing NESTs' strengths. In this regard, the thematic analysis of the participants' responses regarding NESTs' strengths has resulted in the emergence of five main themes as shown in [Table 135](#) below:

Table 135 NESTs' Strengths

Theme	Frequency
Good command of the language	15
Knowledge of cultural aspects of the language	14
Authentic exposure to the target language	121
Accent and pronunciation	10
Professionalism	8
	448

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The first theme that has emerged regarding NESTs' strengths is pertinent to having *good command of the language*. More specifically, Moroccan EFL learners believe that NESTs demonstrate depth of knowledge of the target language especially in terms of knowledge of idiomatic expressions and cultural aspects/dimensions of the language.

Since the teaching of language is inextricably linked to its culture, the participants believe that *knowledge of cultural aspects of the language* is another strength of NESTs. Put slightly different, the participants assert that one of the common strengths of NESTs is their understanding of the culture and their ability to bring cultural aspects to the classroom.

Creating opportunities for authentic exposure to the target language is another theme that was frequently mentioned by the participants. That is, Moroccan EFL learners assert that native English-speaking teachers constitute one of the main sources of authentic language as they are native speakers of the target language.

Accent and pronunciation is also another theme that Moroccan EFL learners considered as one of the strengths of native English-speaking teachers. Unlike non-native English-speaking teachers, native English-speaking teachers, who speak the target language with a native accent and with clear articulation, expose learners to authentic language that ideally improves their pronunciation and communication skills.

The last theme that emerged from the participants' responses pertinent to native English-speaking teachers' strengths is *professionalism*. In this regard, Moroccan EFL learners believe that NESTs demonstrate a high level of professionalism. Put slightly different, the participants believe that native English-speaking teachers are punctual, devoted and fair to their students.

These themes are explained by the following quotes from different participants:

- Good command of the language (P2)
- A native English-speaking teacher can bring an extra dimension to the classroom, culturally speaking, and in this case, effective language immersion can occur more naturally. I would like to emphasize that diversity can be an asset in a foreign language class. (P4)
- A native English-speaking teacher might have a great mastery of the language including its vocabulary, grammar and accent, plus its history and cultural background. (P8)
- A native English-speaking teacher can provide authentic exposure to the language. (P10)
- Native teachers guarantee the authenticity of the learning experience. (P12)
- The easiness of transmitting knowledge in terms of culture and accent. (P16)
- A native English-speaking teacher has an excellent pronunciation, shows and demonstrates seriousness and punctuality, adopts fair treatment, is supportive and productive. (P18)
- Can easily communicate ideas (P22)
- Good accent, fluent enough and good articulator of utterances. (P26)
- Good pronunciation (P32)
- Knowledge about the English culture and idioms as well as accent. (P36)
- Proper English and accent (P38)

5.3.5. NESTs' Weaknesses

In the previous subsection (5.3.4), a discussion of NESTs' strengths was provided. This subsection, however, is devoted to discussing NESTs' weaknesses. In this regard, the analysis of the participants' responses has resulted in the emergence of four main themes as shown in [Table 136](#) below:

Table 136 NESTs' Weaknesses

Theme	Frequency
Cultural differences	15
Lack of knowledge regarding language pedagogy	13
Level-mismatch between teachers and learners	12
Difficult accent and pronunciation	10

The first theme that has emerged from the participants with regard to NESTs' weaknesses is *cultural differences between native English-speaking teachers and their EFL learners*. More specifically, the participants believe that native English-speaking teachers usually do not have

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deep understanding of the cultural aspects of the learners, which could constitute a barrier that prevents the EFL teacher from attending to all his/her learners' needs and aspirations.

Lack of knowledge of language teaching pedagogy and approaches is another theme that was frequently mentioned by the participants. In other words, Moroccan EFL learners assert that native English-speaking teachers do not usually receive sufficient training about different pedagogies and approaches, which has a negative influence on their ability to smoothly transmit knowledge.

The third theme that has emerged from the participants' responses regarding native English-speaking teachers' weaknesses is *level-mismatch between EFL teachers and learners*. To put it differently, the participants believe that, unlike learners who usually struggle with sentence structures and word meaning, native English-speaking teachers have excellent command of the language. The mismatch and differences in the level of mastery usually makes it difficult for learners, especially low-achievers, to cope with EFL teachers' style and eventually fail to attain a satisfactory level of language acquisition.

The last theme that emerged for the thematic analysis of the participants' responses is that NESTs usually have *difficult accent and pronunciation*. Speaking English with a native accent without adjusting it to the level of EFL learners makes it difficult for them to understand what teachers say, which can significantly impede their language learning.

These themes are best explained by the following quotes from different participants:

- A native English-speaking English teacher could have shortcomings just like any other teacher. Essentially, these shortcomings could be related to their inability to address the specific needs of the students, which is often referred to as "needs analysis." Given the cultural differences that can act as a barrier to language learning for some students, this consideration becomes crucial. (P3)
- Lack the knowledge of didactics and classroom management. (P6)
- They don't master the culture of non-native speakers. (P9)

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- It can sometimes be difficult for them to teach without using their mother tongue to explain. (P12)
- Lack of understanding of the target culture and how to apply the teaching methods in a culturally different context. (P16)
- Sometimes when students have a low proficiency level, the native speaker's language and pronunciation become a barrier. (P18)
- Lack of knowledge concerning pedagogy of teaching the English language. (P22)
- A native English-speaking teacher might not be completely aware of the cultural norms of the society in which he/she teaches. (P24)

5.3.6. NESTs vs. Non-NESTs

This subsection provides a discussion of Moroccan EFL learners' beliefs about the type of EFL teachers that make 'better' English teachers. In this regard, qualitative data elicited from the participants' responses reveals that the study's participants have ambivalent attitudes towards native English-speaking teachers and non- native English-speaking teachers. For example, some of the participants believe that none is better the other, whereas others prefer one type of EFL teachers over the other.

The quotes below from some of the interviewees provide further details about the participants' beliefs.

- I don't think that a native English-speaking teacher is better than a non-native teacher. What makes a teacher better are their skills in sharing information with their students and their ability to create a stimulating and enriching learning environment. Yes, language is a tool and while mastering it is important, focusing solely on this detail is secondary. (Interviewee 1)
- This depends on their education and training. If a native teacher has the right credentials, then he or she might be better than a non-native teacher. However, being a native speaker should not be the only requirement when hiring or comparing them to non-native teachers. (Interviewee 2)
- Not always. A Moroccan teacher may give students the feeling of mutual intelligibility and create a comfortable learning atmosphere. (Interviewee 3)
- Not really. Teaching is more than just a good pronunciation or an accent. (Interviewee 6)
- Absolutely not. Language teachers should have a teaching training, which has nothing to do with being a native speaker. (Interviewee 8)

5.4. Relating the Findings to Research Questions Six and Seven

This section provides a discussion of the results obtained from data elicited from the study's participants regarding their attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs. As a reminder to the reader, one of the study's objectives is to unveil the way NESTs and non-NESTs are perceived by Moroccan EFL learners. In what follows, an account of the extent to which the findings relate to research questions six and seven is discussed in subsection 5.4.1 and subsection 5.4.2, respectively.

5.4.1. Research Question Six: What Are the Attitudes of Moroccan EFL Learners towards Native and Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers?

The sixth research question in this study sought to explore Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers. In this respect, the results attained show that MEFLs generally hold positive attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs alike. More specifically, the study's findings show that (1) the majority of MEFLs express their preference for having classes both with NESTs and non-NESTs, (2) teachers' origin is irrelevant to them as long as they are 'good' teachers, (3) MEFLs believe that having a foreign accent is OK, (4) MEFLs express their satisfaction with the learning experiences they have had with non-NESTs so far and (5) MEFLs believe that EFL teachers who speak more many languages can understand their learning difficulties better than teachers who speak only English. However, the study's findings show that the majority of MEFLs do believe that the teacher's mother tongue is important for them.

As for the participants' beliefs about the characteristics of a 'good' English teacher, the participants believe that a 'good' English teacher (1) should have a good command of the English language, (2) should have cultural awareness, (3) should be good at language teaching

methodology, pedagogy and classroom practice, (4) should have prior knowledge of students' L1 and should be able to understand their needs along with individual learner differences, (5) should use authentic materials and (6) should be a motivated and passionate teacher who loves his/her job.

5.4.2. Research Question Seven: From the Perspective of Moroccan EFL Learners, What Are the Strengths and Weaknesses of Native and Non-Native English-speaking teachers?

The seventh research question in this study sought to explore Moroccan EFL learners' beliefs about the strengths and weaknesses of native and non-native English-speaking teachers as far as the field of English language teaching is concerned.

As far Moroccan EFL learners' beliefs about the strenghts and weaknesses of non-native English-speaking teachers are concerned, findings show that, on the one hand, MEFLTs' beliefs about non-NESTs' strengths are (1) acquaintance with the difficulties learners face, (2) non-NESTs' dedication to teaching, their effort, their enthusiasm, kindness and patience towards EFL learners, (3) non-NESTs' resilience and hopefulness, (4) serving as a role model for EFL learners, (5) sharing language learning experience and (6) understanding learners' culture and society. Non-NESTs' weaknesses, on the hand other, include (1) accent and pronunciation, (2) insufficient knowledge of idioms, nuances of the language and cultural references, (3) lack of confidence, (4) lack of training and continuous professional development, (5) not creative, not updated in terms of materials and not good at integrating ICT in the EFL classroom, (6) poor knowledge of the English language, (7) and the use of the L1.

As for Moroccan EFL learners' beliefs about the strenghts and weaknesses of native English-speaking teachers, findings show that, on the one hand, MEFLTs' beliefs about non-NESTs'

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strengths are (1) good command of the language, (2) knowledge of cultural aspects of the language, (3) authentic exposure to the target language, (4) accent and pronunciation and (5) professionalism. NESTs' weaknesses, on the hand other, include (1) cultural differences, (2) lack of knowledge regarding language pedagogy, (3) level-mismatch between teachers and learners and (4) difficult accent and pronunciation.

5.5. Chapter Summary

The present chapter provided a detailed analysis along with a discussion of the results of the online questionnaire that was used in the study to investigate Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers. First, an analysis of the quantitative data gathered from the study's participants regarding their attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs was provided in section 5.2. Second, an analysis of the qualitative data elicited from the study's participants regarding their beliefs about the strengths and weaknesses of each type of EFL teachers was presented in section 5.3. Finally, an account of the extent to which the chapter's results relate to research questions six and seven was discussed in section 5.4.

Chapter 6. Pedagogical Implications: Towards a Global Englishes-Informed Pedagogy

6.1. Introduction

The final chapter of the present study provides a discussion of the pedagogical implications of the study's findings obtained from Moroccan EFL learners with regard to their attitudes towards different varieties of English speech (i.e., AmE, BrE, InE, FiE, JpE & ThE) and native and non-native English-speaking teachers from the perspective of Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT). To this end, section 6.2 starts with a discussion of Global Englishes (GE) as an inclusive paradigm, followed by an outline of GELT and its thirteen dimensions in section 6.3. Next, an account of the study's limitations as well as a number of suggestions for further research on language attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers in the Moroccan context and other expanding circle countries is provided in sections 6.4 and 6.5, respectively. Finally, a chapter summary is provided in section 6.6.

As a reminder to the reader, the present chapter seeks to answer the following research question:

- **Research Question Eight:** What are the pedagogical implications (if any) of the study's findings for the choice of linguistic model(s) employed in EFL classrooms both inside and outside Morocco?

The data collected regarding the participants' attitudes towards varieties of English speech, native English-speaking teachers and non-native English-speaking teachers has yielded a number of suggestions that can be taken into account in choosing the linguistic model(s) to be employed in EFL classrooms both inside and outside Morocco as well as in recruiting EFL teachers. As [Table 137](#) illustrates, the coding procedures and the thematic analysis of the

qualitative data elicited from Moroccan EFL learners' suggestions regarding their attitudes towards and perceptions of varieties of English speech and native and non- native English-speaking teachers have resulted in the emergence of nine important themes.

Table 137 Themes that Emerged from MEFLs' Attitudes towards Varieties of English Speech, NESTs and non-NESTs

Theme	Frequency
1. Exposing students to various Englishes in the classroom by bringing in speakers of multiple varieties of English speech	30
2. Integrating native and non-native varieties of English in classes	80
3. Using modern technology in educational activities	120
4. Using literary works that are written by native and non-native speakers of English	23
5. Watching films, TV shows, etc., and listening to radio programs and songs	280
6. Encouraging learners to create digital projects on World Englishes	12
7. Fighting against the native speaker ideology/fallacy	6
8. Learning more about phonetics and phonology	4
9. Travelling abroad or benefitting from international exchange programs	69

Some of these themes are best explained by the following excerpts:

- Exposure is the key. The more students are exposed to authentic language at an early stage of their developmental learning, the better. I feel that language teachers should find ways to integrate and incorporate native and non-native varieties of English in their classes so that students can develop an awareness of the existence of other varieties. This brings me to an important idea I constantly come across. Students are big fans of having a native-like accent. It is, therefore, the job of teachers and stakeholders to make them understand that what is needed is communication and getting the message through not having a native-like accent, and this can only be attained if students' language awareness is increased. (P1)
- I highly recommend using teaching novels since novels represent different varieties of the English language and this can enhance the level of students linguistically and culturally. (P15)
- Well, if we want our students to be aware of the various varieties of English, we are supposed to expose our students to different varieties through implementing them in our Moroccan textbooks and provide audio books so that students become familiar with these varieties. (P23)
- Raise awareness about the importance of knowing and being able to understand different varieties of English in a globalized world and how it can help learners achieve better communication skills. (P29)

- It is possible to educate students about the diversity of the English language by integrating materials presented in different English accents and using modern technology in educational activities inside and outside the English Department as well. This can also be done by integrating virtual exchange programs between Moroccan students and other students who speak English from other countries. (P65)
- It is good to help students recognize the different varieties of English, as there are many. Educators can involve their EFL students in projects on World Englishes, where each student works on a particular country and discovers the variety of English spoken by its inhabitants, and shares findings with the rest of the class. Educators can also raise their EFL students' awareness about the different varieties of English through the use of educational technologies, like video-conferencing, social media and online group chats, in which, they can contact speakers from different parts of the world, and learn about the varieties they speak. (P88)

The analysis of the participants' responses as well as the recommendations of previous research have resulted in the pedagogical implications that are discussed from the perspective of Global Englishes Language Teaching in section 6.3.

6.2. Global Englishes

According to Rose and Galloway (2019), *Global Englishes* (GE) is “an inclusive paradigm [that looks] at the linguistic, sociolinguistic and sociocultural diversity and fluidity of English use and English users in a globalised world” (p. 4). Additionally, Hall et al. (2017) state that the term *Global Englishes* “refers to the phenomenon of English as an international language, used in different ways, as part of a bilingual or multilingual repertoire, by perhaps one-third of the world's population, spread across every continent” (p. 25). The authors also add that the term “indicates a new view of English that embraces diversity and questions the assumption that contemporary native speakers have inherent stewardship of, or competence in, the language” (p. 25). Furthermore, Lu and Fang (2025) note that “[t]he development of GE challenges the traditional native speaker (NS) norms in ELT” (p. 77).

Equally important, Rose and Galloway (2019) define the term *Global Englishes* as:

[A]n umbrella term to unite the shared endeavours of these interrelated fields of study in sociolinguistics and applied linguistics. We use it to consolidate research in World Englishes, English as a lingua franca and English as an international language, while drawing on scholarship from translanguaging and multilingualism in second language acquisition. Thus, we define Global Englishes as an inclusive paradigm that embraces a broad spectrum of interrelated research that has come before it and emerged alongside it. Thus, to fully understand Global Englishes, one needs to examine more closely the interrelated fields of World Englishes, English as a lingua franca, English as an international language and translanguaging. (p. 6)

In light of the inclusive nature of the paradigm of Global Englishes, the next subsections cover each of the interrelated fields of World Englishes (6.2.1), English as an international language (6.2.2), English as a lingua franca (6.2.3), the multilingual turn (6.2.4) and translanguaging (6.2.5), followed by a discussion of (1) the extent to which the shared endeavours of these five fields can be united under the umbrella term of *Global Englishes* (6.2.6) and (2) paradigmatic shifts to innovate English language teaching (6.2.7).

6.2.1. World Englishes

World Englishes as a discipline emerged in the 1970s, especially with work initiated by Braj Kachru and Larry Smith (Rose & Galloway, 2019). It refers to the study of varieties of English spoken around the world. According to Mullany and Stockwell (2010), “[t]he expansion of different varieties of Englishes around the world has been intensified by English as the global language of the internet and therefore the dominant form of all different types of computermediated communication” (pp. 39-40). As Bhatt (2001) points out, the field of World Englishes “represents a paradigm shift in research, teaching, and application of sociolinguistic realities to the forms and functions of English” (p. 527). Moreover, the term *Englishes* is used to reflect the sociolinguistic diversity found in present-day English and “stress that English no longer has one single base of authority, prestige and normativity” (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 3). Likewise, Kachru (1990) maintains that “English has acquired unprecedented sociological

and ideological dimensions [for it] has touched the lives of so many people, in so many cultures and continents, in so many functional roles, and with so much prestige” (p. 180). As was noted in subsection 1.9.2.2, one of the oft-cited models of World Englishes is Kachru’s (1985) Three Circle model, which divides varieties of English speech into the *inner circle* (i.e., countries that speak English as a first language), *outer circle* (i.e., countries that speak English as a second language) and the *expanding circle* (i.e., countries that speak English as a foreign language).

6.2.2. English as an International Language¹

As Rose and Galloway (2019) point out, English as an international language (EIL) is “often viewed as the North American counterpart to English as a lingua franca (see subsection 6.2.3 below), which emerged out of a need to examine linguistic practices in Europe” (p. 8). Additionally, Seargeant (2012) states that:

EIL is another response to the perceived inadequacies of the traditional ESL/EFL dichotomy. It is promoted as a replacement for EFL, and is intended to acknowledge that in countries where English is not used for intranational purposes, the language is increasingly being used specifically for international communication, often by speakers from different countries neither of whom have English as a mother tongue. Due to changes in international communication patterns, English is not limited to the tourist scenarios traditionally associated with EFL, nor does it need to be modelled on native standards or have the cultural associations with ENL countries that are typical of EFL. Exactly how narrow the functional remit of EIL is taken to be depends on the scholar using the term. (p. 167)

6.2.3. English as a Lingua Franca

English as a lingua franca (ELF) refers to communication in English between speakers who use different first languages (House, 1999; Seidlhofer, 2005; Jenkins, 2006). In this respect, Galloway (2011) notes that despite the fact that native English speakers are the dominant ones

¹ For select examples of Teaching English as an International Language (TEIL) scholarship, see [Appendix U](#).

in the field of ELT, “it is becoming increasingly clear that such norms are now irrelevant to learners, who are likely to use English as a lingua franca (ELF) with speakers from many parts of the globe” (p. 3). Equally important, Jenkins (2015) states that over the years, scholars have started to notice the mismatch between the types of English that “are taught to NNESs at all educational levels, and the kinds of English they need and use in their lives outside the classroom, i.e. primarily as a lingua franca to communicate with NNESs from other L1s” (p. 155). Jenkins (2006) also states that ELF is not a monolithic concept, and the goal of ELF research is not “to describe and codify a single ELF variety” (p. 161). More specifically, ELF researchers assume that in order to be able to participate in international communication, one “needs to be familiar with, and have in their linguistic repertoire for use, as and when appropriate, certain forms (phonological, lexicogrammatical, etc.) that are widely used and widely intelligible across groups of English speakers from different first language backgrounds” (p. 161).

6.2.4. The Multilingual Turn

According to Rose and Galloway (2019), *the multilingual turn* describes “the increasing importance placed on multilingualism within second language acquisition theory” (p. 10). In the same vein, Selvi et al. (2024) suggest that the multilingual turn has challenged “the monolingual orthodoxy and ideology dominating the fields of SLA, applied linguistics, and language education” (p. 23).

6.2.5. Translanguaging

In recent years, translanguaging research has gained worldwide acclaim. According to Cenoz and Gorter (2021), the term *translanguaging* “comes from Welsh bilingual education and was first used in the Welsh language as ‘trawsieithu’” (p. 3). García and Lin (2017) also

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add that “Williams first used the Welsh term *trawsieithu* in 1994 to refer to a pedagogical practice where students in bilingual Welsh/English classrooms are asked to alternate languages for the purposes of receptive or productive use” (p. 2). Nowadays, the term refers to “both the complex language practices of plurilingual individuals and communities, as well as the pedagogical approaches that use those complex practices” (García & Wei, 2014, p. 20). Furthermore, Rose and Galloway (2019) point out that translanguaging “examines the processes of speakers drawing upon their entire linguistic repertoire when communicating, thus breaking down conceptual linguistic boundaries when describing communication, and challenging concepts built upon these notions, such as code switching” (p. 9).

Equally important, Dovchin and Wang (2024) maintain that translanguaging “has been theoretically argued and empirically proven to have transformative and constructive potential because it provides language users with potential access to and opportunities for rich and equal educational and linguistic resources” (p. 429). Selvi et al. (2024) add that translanguaging “advocates for a shift from a discrete-point approach to languages (involving languages as separate entities) to an integrative approach (involving linguistic features, multimodalities, and other semiotic resources)” (p. 23). Furthermore, Anderson (2024) states that “*Translanguaging theory and pedagogy have emerged as central to the recent multilingual turn in educational linguistics and language teaching, including ELT*” (p. 1). For the purposes of the present study, the term *translanguaging* is defined as:

an approach to the use of language, bilingualism and the education of bilinguals that considers the language practices of bilinguals not as two autonomous language systems as has been traditionally the case, but as one linguistic repertoire with features that have been societally constructed as belonging to two separate languages. (García & Wei, 2014, p. 2)

6.2.6. Using the Paradigms

As Rose and Galloway (2019) note, the field of applied linguistics “has witnessed three main pillars of research into variation in the English language around the world since the 1980s – all of which focus on the plurality of English and legitimacy of such variation” (p. 11). These three main pillars are summarised by Rose and Galloway (2019, p. 11) as follows:

- **World Englishes**, which focuses on the linguistic features of English varieties and their sociolinguistic implications.
- **English as an international language**, which examines the implications of the spread of English as a global language, with its predominant focus on pedagogical implications.
- **English as a lingua franca**, which explores both the linguistic use of language across speakers of different first languages and the sociolinguistic implications of the use of English as a contact language.

Equally important, Rose and Galloway (2019, p. 11) add that “[t]here are two further related concepts, which are not confined to implications for the English language but the use of language in global, mobile communities”, which they summarise as follows:

- **Translanguaging**, which challenges the monolingual orientation and looks at languages not as separate entities, but as part of an interwoven system.
- **The multilingual turn**, which also challenges the monolingual orientation and emphasises the importance of other languages in addition to dominant lingua francae.

The authors also add that the shared endeavours of the five fields (i.e., World Englishes, English as an international language, English as a lingua franca, translanguaging & the multilingual turn) can be united under the umbrella term *Global Englishes* as shown in [Figure 56](#).

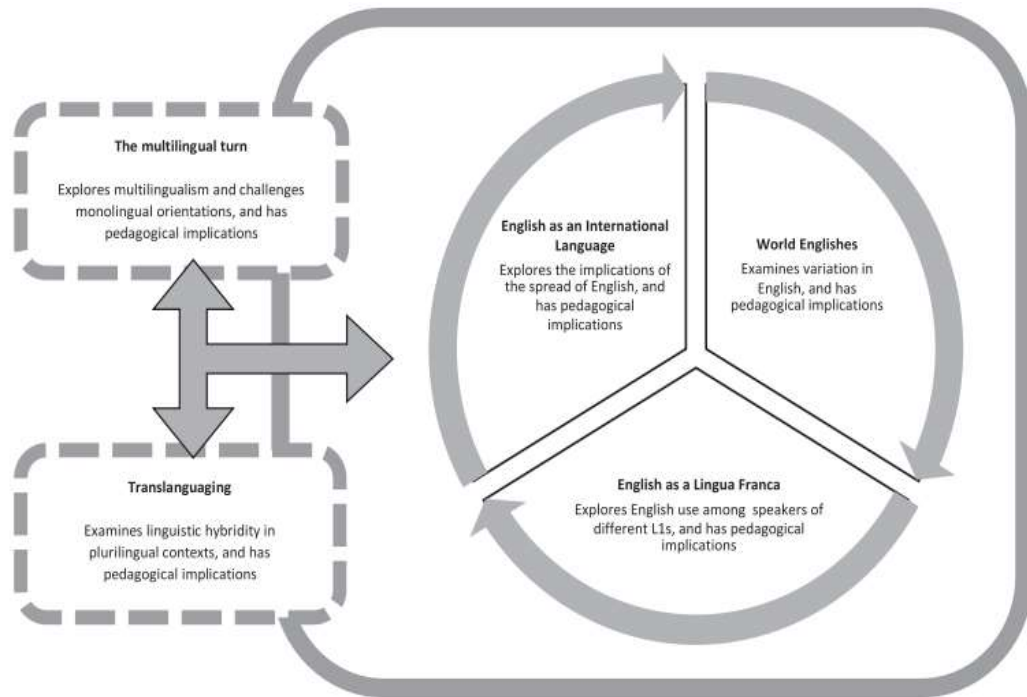


Figure 56 Global Englishes: An Inclusive Paradigm (source: Rose & Galloway, 2019, p. 12)

6.2.7. Paradigmatic Shifts to Innovate English Language Teaching

According to Selvi et al. (2024), the current multilingual development of English serves as “an impetus for a paradigm shift at epistemological, ideological, and pedagogical levels, redefining the fundamental pillars forming ELT, as an activity, a profession, and a field of scholarly inquiry” (p. 25). Moreover, Selvi et al. (2024, p. 25) suggest that the field of ELT should be reconceptualised as follows:

- ‘E’ – pluricentricity of English (uses, users, functions, and contexts) characterised by cultural diversity, linguistic multiplicity, and functional complexity in a superdiverse world
- ‘L’ – an ontological shift from seeing language as a discrete, monolingual, and separate set of structures disconnected from the people who use them to an understanding that views language as a multilingual and situated social practice within a broader multilingual context
- ‘T’ – innovative pedagogical practices that equip English users with critical awareness and multilingual/multimodal repertoires necessary to participate in glocal lingua franca encounters.

6.3. Global Englishes Language Teaching

Having introduced the paradigm of Global Englishes in the previous section (6.2), this section moves to the discussion of the pedagogical framework of Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT). First, the GELT framework is introduced in subsection 6.3.1. Second, the six proposals for change are discussed in subsection 6.3.2. Third, the thirteen dimensions from the GELT framework are detailed in subsection 6.3.3. Finally, practical applications for language educators based on the thirteen dimensions from the GELT framework are covered in subsection 6.3.4.

6.3.1. Introducing Global Englishes Language Teaching

Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT) is a pedagogical framework for curriculum innovation that was developed by Galloway in 2011 and was later revised by Galloway and Rose in 2015 and Rose and Galloway in 2018. As [Table 138](#) and [Table 139](#) illustrate below, the GELT framework was developed as a response to calls for change in the field of English language teaching (Rose & Galloway, 2019). In this regard, Galloway and Rose (2015) group the different proposals that have been put forward for a change in ELT into the following six key themes:

1. increasing World Englishes and ELF exposure in language curricula;
2. emphasising respect for multilingualism in ELT;
3. raising awareness of Global Englishes in ELT;
4. raising awareness of ELF strategies in language curricula;
5. emphasising respect for diverse cultures and identities in ELT; and
6. changing English teacher hiring practices in the ELT industry.

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Table 138 Galloway's (2011) original GELT Framework (source: Galloway, 2011, p. 276)

ELT	GELT
Target interlocutor – the NES	Target interlocutor – the NES & the NNEs/ The ELF Speaker
Owners – NESs	Owners – ELF Users
Cultural content - NE culture	Cultural content - students' C1 & ELF cultures
Teachers - NNEs (same L1) and NESs	Teachers - NNEs (same L1), NNEs (diff L1) and NESs/ Multilingual ELF users
Norm - NE and concept of SE	Norm - diversity, flexibility, ELF strategies & multiple forms of competence
Model – the NES	Model – the successful ELF User
Materials - NE and NESs	Materials – NE, NNE, ELF and ELF communities & contexts
L1 & C1 – a hindrance and an interference	L1 & C1 – a resource
Belongs to the foreign language paradigm	Belongs to the Global Englishes paradigm

Table 139 The 2018 Global Englishes Language Teaching Framework (source: Rose & Galloway, 2019, p. 21)

	Traditional ELT	GELT
Target interlocutors	Native English speakers	All English users
Ownership	Inner Circle	Global
Target culture	Static NE cultures	Fluid cultures
Norms	Standard English	Diverse, flexible and multiple forms
Teachers	Non-NE-speaking teachers (same L1) and NE-speaking teachers	Qualified, competent teachers (same and different L1s)
Role model	NE speakers	Expert users
Source of materials	NE and NE speakers	Salient English-speaking communities and contexts
Other languages and cultures	Seen as a hindrance and source of interference	Seen as a resource as with other languages in their linguistic repertoire
Needs	Inner Circle defined	Globally defined
Assessment criterion	Accuracy according to prescriptive standards	Communicative competence
Goals of learning	Native-like proficiency	Multicompetent user
Ideology	Underpinned by an exclusive and ethnocentric view of English	Underpinned by an inclusive Global Englishes perspective
Orientation	Monolingual	Multilingual/translingual

As Selvi et al (2024) note, proposals for curriculum innovation present a number of implications for major stakeholders in the field of English language teaching (e.g., students, teachers, teacher educators, test designers, curriculum developers & policymakers) “who are charged with the task of preparing English users for the changing conditions and

communicative needs in globalised linguascapes” (p. 44). The authors also add that “[g]rouping these into six main proposals was an attempt to consolidate interconnected themes in the literature to get a sense of what change was being called for and ultimately address the theory–practice divide and help instigate the much-needed paradigm shift” (p. 29). Furthermore, Rose and Galloway (2019) suggest that these six proposals “point to a need to innovate English language teaching in the twenty-first century to meet the changing needs of students learning a global lingua franca” (p. 18). To this end, these six proposals are addressed in subsection 6.3.2, the theory-practice divide in subsection 6.3.3 and practical applications for language educators in subsection 6.3.4.

6.3.2. Proposals for Change

This subsection provides a detailed account of the six proposals for change discussed in subsection 6.3.1. above. To this end, the first proposal (i.e., increasing World Englishes & ELF exposure in language curricula) is discussed in subsubsection 6.3.2.1, the second proposal (i.e., emphasising respect for multilingualism in ELT) is discussed in subsubsection 6.3.2.2, the third proposal (i.e., raising awareness of Global Englishes in ELT) is discussed in subsubsection 6.3.2.3, the fourth proposal (i.e., raising awareness of ELF strategies in language curricula) is discussed in subsubsection 6.3.2.4, the fifth proposal (i.e., emphasising respect for diverse cultures and identities in ELT) is discussed in subsubsection 6.3.2.5 and the sixth proposal (i.e., changing English teacher hiring practices in the ELT industry) is discussed in subsubsection 6.3.2.6, respectively.

6.3.2.1. Increasing World Englishes and ELF Exposure in Language Curricula¹

Nowadays, English as a global language is spoken in a wide range of varieties, indicating that the language is owned by millions of speakers from different backgrounds. The increase in the global diversity of English offers clear pedagogical implications for ESL/EFL learners. For example, today's English learners are more likely to use English in non-native/non-native interactions (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Some of these pedagogical implications are provided below.

First, English learners may be exposed to different varieties of English speech in the classroom by bringing in speakers of multiple varieties of English speech. In this regard, Matsuda (2003) notes that “[o]ne way to expose students to various Englishes in the classroom is to bring in speakers of multiple varieties” (p. 723), indicating that instead of recruiting English speakers from inner circle countries only, policy makers may decide to recruit speakers of English from Outer and Expanding circle countries. However, “[i]f face-to-face interactions are not possible, teachers can introduce different varieties of English through e-mail exchanges, projects that require students to visit Web sites in various Englishes, or by showing movies and video clips of World Englishes speakers” (Matsuda, 2003, p. 723).

Second, English learners may be exposed to English varieties by being asked to create digital projects on World Englishes². Put slightly different, learners could be asked to conduct research on the English(es) spoken in different countries and share their thoughts with their classmates.

¹ For digital resources and activities that can be used in teaching World Englishes, see [Appendix K](#), [Appendix L](#), [Appendix M](#), [Appendix N](#) and [Appendix O](#).

² For more information about the World Englishes digital project we worked on at the MA level with Prof. John Battenburg, see [Appendix 11](#), [Appendix 12](#), [Appendix 13](#) and [Appendix 14](#). These materials may inform you about how to design your own instructional materials to get your students involved in creating a World Englishes digital project.

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By doing so, they will be encouraged to recognise and appreciate the sociolinguistic variation exhibited in the English language. They may also be asked to work on module papers to be submitted to their professors and prepare for mini-vivas.

Third, given the fact that the Inner Circle does not always provide the most appropriate norm for assessment (Lowenberg, 2002 as cited in Matsuda, 2003, p. 723), Moroccan EFL learners should be evaluated “on their communicative effectiveness rather than solely on grammatical correctness based on the American or British norm” (Matsuda, 2003, p. 723).

Fourth, Matsuda (2003) suggests that “textbooks can include more main characters from the outer and expanding circles and assign these characters larger roles in chapter dialogues than what they currently have” (p. 724). In the same vein, Esseili et al. (2009) add that these textbooks should “include specific chapters detailing the history of the English language, how it has spread and changed over time, and the growing role speakers of English as an international language play and will continue to play in the future” (p. 8).

Fifth, Matsuda (2003) notes that “teachers themselves must be aware of the current landscape of the English language”, and that “every course should be informed by the current landscape of the English language” (p. 725). This means that teachers should be exposed to Non-Inner Circle Englishes (NICE) as the Inner Circle does not reflect the sociolinguistic reality of English today. Additionally, Matsuda (2003) believes that “preservice teachers who are not NSs should have the opportunity to reflect on their own strengths as NNS teachers, and these issues should be discussed among all students” (p. 725). In light of the changing sociolinguistic reality of English use today, Boonsuk et al. (2021) argue that “it is imperative to raise the awareness of such sociolinguistic transformations among teachers and students” and

that Global Englishes-informed pedagogies “should be implemented or integrated into English language teaching and learning practices” (p. 2).

Finally, Matsuda (2003) believes that educating the general public about different varieties of English speech can be achieved by school stakeholders and mass media as the two extracts show below:

Many schools have conference days, open-campus days for prospective students, or Parent-Teacher Association meetings, where administrators and teachers can discuss curriculum strengths and innovations. These opportunities can be used to explain that incorporating World Englishes does not mean removing native varieties from English classes or replacing them with less-perfect ones; rather, they add to the current repertoire and thus enrich the curriculum. Parents are more likely to be supportive if they are better informed about the spread of English and convinced that changes are good for their children. (p. 726)

Mass media is another way to reach the general public... In countries where the print and visual media can be used to reach out to the general public, applied linguists can use these media to raise people’s awareness about the role of English in the global society. (p. 726)

6.3.2.2. Emphasising Respect for Multilingualism in ELT

In traditional ELT, learners’ first language (L1) has often been viewed “as a hindrance and the cause of error transfer and interference” (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 204). However, as Rose and Galloway (2019) point out, “[m]ovements in translanguaging research and the multilingual turn in SLA have further highlighted the importance of multilingualism, and have challenged the monolingual orientations that underpin much research and practice” (p. 17). In other words, learners’ first language is now viewed in Global Englishes research as a resource rather than a hindrance (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Similarly, Selvi et al. (2024) note that “[w]hile traditional ELT curricula often see students’ additional languages as a hindrance to language learning, this perspective embraces the valuable use of students’ multilingual repertoires for successful communication using English as a global lingua franca” (p. 29).

6.3.2.3. Raising Awareness of Global Englishes in ELT

This proposal calls for adopting a critical approach in ELT in order to raise learners' awareness about the spread and the use of English as a global language (Selvi et al., 2024). For example, this may be achieved through discussing Global Englishes-related issues, including the spread of English around the world, attitudes towards English, 'standard English' ideology and the emergence of new varieties of English worldwide (Galloway, 2011). Similarly, Sifakis and Sougari (2003) maintain "[a] useful strategy is using learners' metacognitive knowledge and raising their awareness on EIL-related matters" (p. 67). These include the "'need' for an international language today", the reasons for the spread of English, "the relationship between English and their mother tongue" and "the possible detrimental effects of English on their mother tongue or local dialect" (Sifakis & Sougari, 2003, p. 67).

Equally important, Sifakis and Sougari (2003, p. 68) argue that learners' awareness of the function of English as an international language and their competence in using English to converse with other non-native speakers of English can be enhanced and improved by means of:

- establishing school links with countries other than native English-speaking ones; participating in student-exchange programmes with such countries;
- encouraging learners to engage in correspondence with students from different countries;
- encouraging learners to become members of international non-profit organisations (such as Action Aid) that offer financial help to third world countries; the whole enterprise can be constructively used in the EFL/EIL classroom as a means of sensitising learners with regard to cultural and political issues related to the 'real' world (and all this can be achieved using the English language);
- encouraging learners to search the Internet critically, by setting certain research projects; in this way, they can be sensitised to EIL-oriented issues they may have been previously unaware of (for example, the fact that most search and meta-search engines on the worldwide web have an American-oriented 'angle' in their approach to the news).

6.3.2.4. Raising Awareness of ELF Strategies in Language Curricula

As Selvi et al. (2024) point out, this proposal “stems from ELF research and translanguaging, focusing on the need for students to develop communicative strategies to help them adapt to different communities of language users in a more fluid context” (p. 29). Similarly, Rose and Galloway (2019) note that the proposal “centres on the need to respect cultural differences in ELT classrooms and to widen the lens of what an English-using culture is” (p. 17). Rose and Galloway (2019) also add that “[l]anguage curricula often posit English-using cultures as Inner Circle, and the goal for learners is also proposed as taking part in this culture” (pp. 17-18). The authors maintain that the proposal calls for breaking away from “practices of presenting static regional cultures as the contexts for language use and to, instead, emphasise the dynamic and fluid cultures that English is used in today – many of which are emerging in contexts traditionally labelled as ‘EFL’” (p. 18).

6.3.2.5. Emphasising Respect for Diverse Cultures and Identities in ELT

This proposal concerns rethinking what an English-using culture is (see Baker, 2009, 2012, 2015). In this regard, Baker (2009) notes that “[t]he increased use of languages such as English for intercultural communication in lingua franca contexts brings up complex issues concerning any proposed relationships between language and culture” (p. 567).

6.3.2.6. Changing English Teacher Hiring Practices in the ELT Industry

As Selvi et al. (2024) note, this proposal calls for “a shift in focus on the problematic causal relationship between speakerhood (traditionally captured by terms ‘native’ and ‘non-native’) and teacherhood (traditionally captured by terms ‘native English-speaking teachers’ and ‘non-native English-speaking teachers’) in teacher recruitment, training, and workplace settings” (p. 30). Moreover, Galloway (2011) points out that “in order to prepare students for the global uses

of English today, teachers must be recruited from the Inner Circle, Outer Circle and Expanding Circle, with multilingual, successful ‘expert’ ELF users preferred” (p. 270).

6.3.3. Theory to Practice

This subsection provides a discussion of the thirteen dimensions from the GELT framework (see Figure 57). As Selvi et al. (2024) note, the dimensions covered in the GELT framework are inclusive of work discussed in the five paradigms introduced in section 6.2 and they do not promote “a one-size-fits-all curriculum or a single variety of English” (p. 33). The authors also add that “these frameworks, or orientations to teaching English, were designed to increase student choice and ensure that the curriculum is reflective of the needs of our learners, which may, of course, vary according to context” (p. 33). This being said, the first dimension (i.e., target interlocutors) is discussed in subsubsection 6.3.3.1, the second dimension (i.e., the ownership of English) in subsubsection 6.3.3.2, the third dimension (i.e., target culture) in subsubsection 6.3.3.3, the fourth dimension (i.e., linguistic norms) in subsubsection 6.3.3.4, the fifth dimension (i.e., teachers) in subsubsection 6.3.3.5, the sixth dimension (i.e., role models) in subsubsection 6.3.3.6, the seventh dimension (i.e., the sources of instructional materials) in subsubsection 6.3.3.7, the eighth dimension (i.e., positioning of other languages & cultures) in subsubsection 6.3.3.8, the ninth dimensions (i.e., needs) in subsubsection 6.3.3.9, the tenth dimension (i.e., the goals of learning) in subsubsection 6.3.3.10, the eleventh dimension (i.e., assessment criterion) in subsubsection 6.3.3.11 and the twelfth and the thirteenth dimensions (i.e., ideology & theoretical orientation) in subsubsection 6.3.3.12.



Figure 57 Major Practical Dimensions for Language Educators (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 33)

6.3.3.1. Dimension 1: Target Interlocutors

It should be acknowledged that contrary to other languages, native speakers of English represent only a small proportion compared to its non-native speakers. Non-native speakers of English outnumber its native speakers as people from diverse cultural, linguistic backgrounds and walks of life predominantly use English for various communication purposes. Departing from the fact that non-native speakers of English outnumber its native speakers and that English serves as a preferred medium of communication among L2 speakers, the materials used in EFL classrooms, curricula and assessment should represent and/or focus not only ‘native English speakers’ who belong solely to Inner Circle countries, but also represent the sociolinguistic realities of English worldwide. Scholarly research has shown that since those people who learn English will eventually use it for communication purposes with people from diverse backgrounds, our teaching practices in EFL classrooms should prepare learners for this ultimate objective. Additionally, EFL teachers should equip learners with strategies that will allow them

to navigate translinguistic and transcultural encounters successfully. It is also crucial to combat the native-speaker fallacy and idealised native speakers by raising our learners' awareness to the fact that the notion of *native speaker* has been openly and continuously criticised. (see [Table 140](#))

Table 140 Dimension 1: Target Interlocutors (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 33)

Dimension #1: Target Interlocutors	
For English users	Communication means using different forms of ELF (alongside other languages) with users from diverse ethnic, linguistic, cultural, and racial backgrounds in various modalities for a wide range of purposes.
For English teachers	Instructional principles and practices need to acknowledge and draw upon other L2 English users as target interlocutors and raise users' awareness and skills in ELF communication as a norm for their future interactions.

6.3.3.2. Dimension 2: The Ownership of English¹

The issue of the ownership of English has long been debated. In other words, the question of who owns English today has been widely discussed among educationalists and sociolinguists. Traditionally, English has been perceived as purely Anglo-American. Nevertheless, the fact that English is taught, learned and eventually used as a lingua-franca among people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds questions, and oftentimes criticises this claim. That is, this change has brought about changes regarding norms ('standard' English), appropriacy, policies ('English-only') and target users/interlocutors ('native English speakers'). To enhance a sense of ownership among English users, our instructional practices and strategies in EFL classrooms should represent not only the idealised English spoken by native speakers but should also account for English, and ideally Englishes, spoken in different

¹ For further information with regard to the issue of *ownership of English* and how students can be introduced to it, see [Appendix Q](#).

intercultural contexts by different multilingual users of English. The ownership of English has been constantly linked to and influenced by socio-historical factors. That is to say, only those who have had direct access to English at an early age and have consequently developed a native linguistic identity are said to own the language. The omni-presence of ‘native-speakerism’ in ELT curricula comes from the ideology that only those who come from the Inner Circle own the language. It is, therefore, highly advisable that students are encouraged to continuously engage with the politics of English. It is also recommendable that EFL teachers create and sustain a welcoming environment that views English as a global commodity that belongs to everyone. It is also highly advisable to (1) combat the fallacy that English belongs only to those who belong to Inner Circle countries (e.g., Americans & British) and (2) support the assumption that English belongs to a global community. (see [Table 141](#))

Table 141 Dimension 2: The Ownership of English (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 34)

Dimension #2: The Ownership of English	
For English users	Communication involves an identity-oriented attachment to the language by a global community of speakers as well as a sense of right and the ability to adjust and use the language to suit individual communicative needs.
For English teachers	Instructional principles and practices need to position and draw upon English as a global language with global ownership.

6.3.3.3. Dimension 3: Target Culture

It is widely argued that language and culture are inextricably linked to one another, as they function homogeneously and contribute to the construction of one’s identity. For this reason, when teaching English, EFL teachers should also integrate the culture of the target language in their EFL classrooms. EFL learners will be inevitably invited to advanced and culturally complex encounters that involve a lot of cultural variations. Successful speakers should navigate these complex situations that involve people coming from different cultural

backgrounds and who have different expectations. EFL teachers can equip learners with useful communication skills and strategies through the following levels: (1) eliminating the fallacy that English culture is exclusively limited to Anglo-American cultures, (2) challenging the assumption that cultural representations are superficial and static and (3) openly discussing the fact that culture has global, national and local aspects and equip learners with communicative skills/strategies that can help them navigate complex encounters. EFL teachers should opt for transculturality while planning and selecting materials and create and sustain an environment that encourages diversity. EFL teachers should also support and encourage criticality in their EFL classrooms by encouraging learners to question and deconstruct traditional categories of culture. To promote learners' cross-cultural awareness and understanding and to improve their cross-cultural communication skills, EFL teachers are called upon to sufficiently diversify cultural content and emphasise the importance of hybridity, dynamism, flow and fluidity. Put differently, EFL teachers, educators and policy-makers should constantly make necessary adjustments so that they can (1) successfully attend to the transcultural needs of learners and (2) exhaustively account for the socio-cultural realities of the world. (see [Table 142](#))

Table 142 Dimension 3: Target Culture (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 35)

Dimension #3: Culture	
For English users	Communication means the ability to use the English language with individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds to promote transcultural communication and mutual understanding across national/cultural borders and boundaries.
For English teachers	Instructional principles and practices in English classrooms need to create spaces for transcultural pedagogical orientation to prepare individuals for translinguacultural diversity in communicative encounters in English.

6.3.3.4. Dimension 4: Linguistic Norms

Traditionally, the notion of the idealised native speaker, manifested in various movements and ideologies such as English-only movement and standard language ideology, was widespread. However, the global spread of English has resulted in a paradigm shift and drastic changes regarding what is traditionally known as idealised native speakers. These changes are enacted in our ELT practices. Postmodern orientation has influenced our understanding regarding the language and redefined authenticity. In this regard, authenticity does not solely depict the idealised native speaker's norms, practices and cultures but is an inclusive means that closely reflects and mirrors the diversity, dynamism and variability that happen in translingual/transcultural encounters. It is, therefore, advisable that educators adopt the post-modern orientation and expose learners to various Englishes that take place in everyday life instead of fully abiding by and imitating the educational norms and practices that belong to an idealised group of 'native' English users. Adopting a post-normative approach will surely allow language users develop cross-cultural and metalinguistic awareness, along with sociopragmatic and discourse strategies. These strategies will help learners navigate complex encounters in multicultural contexts. All in all, language users will surely benefit and accumulate valuable communication strategies from exposure to multiple and diverse forms and functions of the language in their EFL classrooms. (see [Table 143](#))

Table 143 Dimension 4: Linguistic Norms (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 36)

Dimension #4: Linguistic Norms	
For English users	Communication means moving beyond the adherence to the idealised 'native speaker' norms and the ability to use the English language alongside other languages and resources in a wide range of communicative encounters.
For English teachers	Instructional principles and practices in English classrooms need to expose students to a diverse range of Englishes and emphasise the fluidity, multiplicity, and variability of norms determined by communicative aims and demands in ELF encounters/discourses.

6.3.3.5. Dimension 5: Teachers

The question of whether native speakers are better language teachers has long been discussed. Traditionally, the ‘native speaker’ ideology has long been permeated in different domains including teachers’ professional identities. Interestingly, this ideology has largely influenced the hiring practices of EFL teachers. For example, EFL teachers’ professional identities have been defined on the basis of ‘native English-speaking teachers’ versus ‘non-native English-speaking teachers’. Relatedly, these practices have resulted in institutionalising new superficial ways of defining teachers’ sense of efficacy, skills and competencies. Additionally, this has influenced power relations among EFL teachers and professionals, and has created a sense of inequity among EFL teachers, privilege and marginalisation. Put differently, some EFL teachers are stigmatised because of the fact that they are non-native speakers while others enjoy a high level of privilege as they are native speakers. Fortunately, EIL practices have established a new inclusive professional atmosphere that emphasises quality teacher education, professionalism, professional and pedagogical experience and equity among EFL teachers. This new inclusive atmosphere goes beyond the over-simplified and essentialised ways of defining teachers’ identity (‘native’ speakers versus ‘native-native’ speakers and concomitantly ‘native English-speaking teachers’ versus ‘non-native English-speaking teachers’). There are various practical implications that can be drawn from this. For instance, ‘NNEST movement’ (KamhiStein, 2016) has constantly (1) argued for the legitimacy of non-native speakers as successful language teachers and (2) questioned the notion of the ownership of English and the professional qualities that EFL teachers should have. All in all, this movement will have significant impacts on our hiring practices and will help combat the long-held fallacy that native speakers are better language teachers. (see [Table 144](#))

Table 144 Dimension 5: Teachers (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 37)

Dimension #5: Teachers	
For English users	Developing EIL competencies can be realised by diverse and qualified educators who have a heightened sense of epistemological, ideological, and professional commitment to and engagement with EIL principles and practices.
For English teachers	Principles and practices in ELT need to validate the notion of professional legitimacy in terms of qualifications, teaching experience, and professionalism over dichotomously juxtaposed and contested categories of professional identity.

6.3.3.6. Dimension 6: Role Models

Exposing EFL learners to role models such as multicompetent users and qualified experts is another important implication that the paradigms value. The inclusion of different speakers of English has tremendous impacts. First, it will help students recognise the fact that their quest to learn and use English is legitimate and attainable. Second, this inclusive and diverse environment provides a comprehensive image of the communities in which English is spoken as a lingua franca for different purposes and by different speakers. Finally, this inclusive and varied environment will expose them to different languages and resources. Being exposed to role models that mirror the linguistic realities of English in EFL classrooms will surely result in the attainment of authentic and meaningful learning objectives. (see [Table 145](#))

Table 145 Dimension 6: Role Models (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 38)

Dimension #6: Role Models	
For English users	Communication means striving to use the language like other fellow experts and successful multicompetent English users in the immediate or imagined global community of English speakers.
For English teachers	Instructional principles and practices in English classrooms need to expose students to a diversity of successful English users who serve as realistic and authentic role models, as opposed to ‘native’ speakers.

6.3.3.7. Dimension 7: The Sources of Instructional Materials

Designing ELT materials is acknowledged to be a profit-driven industry and business. Put differently, publishing houses from the West and East produce materials that largely reflect the ‘native’ speaker episteme. Overcoming this issue requires that publishing houses should adopt a variationist viewpoint and design materials that fully represent English as a pluralistic and dynamic language. Additionally, ELT materials should depict English as it is spoken in linguaculturally diverse contexts, and offer language learners opportunities to be exposed to different voices, perspectives, lived experiences and speakers. Equally important, it is highly recommended that our students are sufficiently exposed to various enriching sources (e.g., sufficiently varied voices, perspectives & attitudes, lived experiences & speakers). It should be noted that these sources should not be solely relevant to their immediate contexts but should also reflect diversity of English as it is spoken and used in our everyday life. Selecting, adapting and implementing EFT materials is not an easy and straightforward process as it should abide by different institutional parameters and is affected by the target context. However, the fact that teachers are part in the selection, adaptation and supplementation of instructional materials might help overcome this problem. Relatedly, it is highly advisable that professional development activities, both in- and pre-service activities, should be purposefully designed to equip EFL teachers with the necessary knowledge, skills, and abilities that will allow them not only to critically evaluate their materials and curricula, but also to make necessary adaptations and modifications in such a way that they introduce diversity that perfectly matches their immediate contexts. (see [Table 146](#))

Table 146 Dimension 7: The Source of Instructional Materials (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 38)

Dimension #7: The Source of Instructional Materials	
For English users	Developing EIL competencies can be realised by instructional materials that represent and prepare for diversity in English usage, speakers, accents, cultures, contexts, norms, and functions in which English is used alongside other languages from local and global origins.
For English teachers	Instructional principles and practices in English classrooms need to be supported with contextually relevant and contextually sensitive materials representing a diversity of uses, users, functions and contexts of English, and competent teachers who can evaluate, diversify, complement, and ‘talk around’ these materials.

6.3.3.8. Dimension 8: Positioning of Other Languages and Cultures

The fact that English is viewed as a lingua franca that has global dimensions results in highly diverse and hybrid encounters among people from different lingua-cultural backgrounds. People in these complex encounters often use and view English in a pluricentric manner. As a result, these complex encounters result in fundamental shifts from viewing English as strictly monolingual to pluricentric orientations of language. The monolingual orientation limits the type of activities and practices that teachers can implement in EFL classrooms. In other words, the activities (e.g., translation), practices (e.g., code-switching) and metalinguistic knowledge that reflect other languages are clearly prohibited and/or marginalised. One plausible explanatory basis for this prohibition is that these activities are often seen as ‘deviations’, ‘imperfections’, ‘interference’, or ‘gaps in the knowledge’ that would inevitably result the contamination of English. The plurilingual orientation, however, views activities and practices related to other languages as an inevitable and valuable resource in English classrooms. This pluricentric approach to pedagogical practices welcomes and supports learners to freely draw

upon their multilingual backgrounds (i.e., tools, resources and practices) to communicate effectively and successfully in complex intercultural encounters. (see [Table 147](#))

Table 147 Dimension 8: Positioning of Other Languages and Cultures (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 39)

Dimension #8: Positioning of Other Language and Cultures	
For English users	Communication is the ability to transcend and transform the traditionally defined linguistic and cultural boundaries to achieve successful communication.
For English teachers	Instructional principles and practices in English classrooms need to instil multilingualism as the norm and develop students' translingual/transcultural repertoires to support learning and multilingual lingua franca interactions.

6.3.3.9. Dimension 9: Needs

It should be acknowledged that designing effective curriculum development is attributable in part to needs analysis. Conducting a needs analysis allows us to pinpoint areas that need improvement and also to precisely understand learners' needs regarding English language learning. Similarly, the amount of scholarly research conducted in different fields and paradigms has significantly enriched our understanding with regard to the areas in which learners may essentially need to use the language. This scholarly research has highlighted the importance of changing the way we view students' needs regarding English learning (Rose & Galloway, 2019, p. 24). For example, some students opt for the 'native' model of English and advocate for its relevance, whereas some others, especially those who learn English for global uses, go beyond the notion of the native model, and learn to use the language as a global lingua franca. Since there is a high level of diversity regarding the use of the language today, it is highly advisable that EFL teachers conduct a needs analysis regarding English usage and base their decisions on a careful analysis of their EFL learners' needs. (see [Table 148](#))

Table 148 Dimension 9: Needs (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 40)

Dimension #9: Needs	
For English users	Developing EIL competencies involves reflecting upon and developing one's new and evolving communicative needs.
For English teachers	Instructional principles and practices in English classrooms need to be based on learners' diverse communicative needs.

6.3.3.10. Dimension 10: The Goals of Learning

It should be noted that the process of learning English as global language, which demonstrates a high level of diversity, complexity, fluidity and hybridity in a world that is constantly changing, is a complex task. Therefore, English classrooms should be contexts wherein the global realities, local specificities and individual needs and aspirations are fully incorporated. In other words, all these requirements should be fully manifested in EFL educational contexts by incorporating them into the curriculum, textbooks, syllabi, methodology, practices and assessment. Relatedly, the ultimate goal of the curriculum should be preparing individual students to successfully navigate complex encounters in different domains and become interculturally competent users of the language instead of solely mimicking the idealised 'native' speaker of English(see [Table 149](#))

Table 149 Dimension 10: The Goals of Learning (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 40)

Dimension #10: The Goals of Learning	
For English users	Communication means having awareness, attitude, and skills to use the language as an expert and successful multicompetent English user in the immediate or imagined global community of English speakers.
For English teachers	Instructional principles and practices in English classrooms need to equip students with awareness, attitude, and skills to become successful multicompetent English users rather than impractical, inappropriate, and unfair approximations of idealised 'native' speakers.

6.3.3.11. Dimension 11: Assessment Criterion

The concept of the washback effect has long been discussed in EFL classrooms. Tests should directly influence not only the learners' objectives but also teachers' everyday teaching practices. Additionally, shifts in ELT paradigms indicate fundamental shifts in attitudes towards assessment and how learners' language outcomes criteria are measured. If the way assessment is measured is not changed, it will be difficult to find a washback effect upon which curriculum innovation can be attained. Therefore, assessment procedures and other elements of the ELT curriculum need more innovation. Results obtained through internationally recognised proficiency tests (e.g., TOEFL, IELTS, PTE & Duolingo English Test) and other standardised tests used in local contexts (e.g., English language sections as an entry requirement & proficiency exams in higher education institutions) are used to measure students' academic and educational success, and are used as evidence of linguistic proficiency. Relatedly, these tests directly influence (1) the teaching–learning process (practices, content, syllabus, materials and activities), (2) individual learners (goals & attitudes) and (3) teachers (teaching practices & instructional choices). Paradigmatic shifts that have emerged because of the way we perceive English language, along with its use in different encounters, have made people move away from well-established idealised 'native' speaker rules and norms. This shift in paradigm has, ideally, invited all the parties involved (e.g., teachers & test designers) to rethink and revisit assessment practices. Norms that are applied and how proficiency is defined in the English language should be also revisited (Canagarajah, 2013). Given the fact that most speakers of English are 'non-native' speakers, the accuracy of elements, items and constructs included in standard tests to measure students' language proficiency should be questioned. In other words, the objectives and the target setting in which English will be used has apparently changed and so should be the criterion. Thus, it is highly recommendable that assessment-based decisions and inferences

about learners' future performance should take into account how these students will use English in socio-culturally diverse contexts with socio-culturally diverse speakers. These insights require that we (1) revisit how successful communication is reconceptualised in English and (2) rethink assessment procedures to make them go beyond static native norms. (see [Table 150](#))

Table 150 Dimension 11: Assessment Criterion (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 41)

Dimension #11: Assessment Criterion	
For English users	Communication means the ability to co-construct meaning underpinned by the parameters of the interlocutors (e.g., diverse ethnocultural backgrounds, different language varieties, and accents) and the communicative aims of the discourse.
For English teachers	Instructional principles and practices in English classrooms need to realign assessment focus and practices with the redefined, plural, and dynamic constructs of proficiency and goals of learning.

6.3.3.12. Dimensions 12 and 13: Ideology and Theoretical Orientation

Globalisation has resulted in the creation of different and diverse communities and/or opportunities in which English is used to create and negotiate the construction of a linguistic identity. To construct and negotiate their linguistic identity, speakers of English engage in genuinely enriching interactions. Their relationships with the community interlocutors, social interactions, educational, economic, political and moral dimensions work together to form their language ideologies. These constant interactions and encounters may have the power to (1) form and impact their thoughts, beliefs and attitudes about the language, and (2) position themselves and others as being either a legitimate language speaker or a competent language teacher. Traditionally, the wide spread of language ideologies has resulted in the creation of idealised native speakers' norms (i.e., 'standard' language) and ownership (i.e., English exclusively belongs to Inner Circle countries), and has labeled communicative practices as being dichotomous ('native' versus 'non-native' speakers). Due to globalisation and the global

spread of English, however, language users have started to develop multiple linguistic identities in translingual/transcultural encounters. In other words, becoming an English speaker in today's globalised world indicates a continuous construction of identity. (see [Table 151](#))

Table 151 Dimensions 12 and 13: Ideology and Theoretical Orientation (source: Selvi et al., 2024, p. 42)

Dimensions #11 and 12: Ideology and Theoretical Orientation	
For English users	Communication means a constant negotiation of one's stance towards the English language and being/becoming a glocal user of English across time and space.
For English teachers	Instructional principles and practices in English classrooms need to externalise one's ideological stance, attitudes, and biases towards the English language and promote a glocal identity and confidence as multilingual users of a global language.

6.3.4. Practical Applications for Language Educators

This subsection provides a discussion of practical applications for language educators based on the thirteen dimensions from the GELT framework discussed in subsection 6.3.3 above. As Selvi et al. (2024) note, these thirteen dimensions “are aimed primarily towards teachers and teacher educators who wish to rethink and refresh their practices aligned with the present-day sociolinguistic realities surrounding EIL” (p. 44). This being said, the first dimension (i.e., target interlocutors) is discussed in subsubsection 6.3.4.1, the second dimension (i.e., the ownership of English) in subsubsection 6.3.4.2, the third dimension (i.e., target culture) in subsubsection 6.3.4.3, the fourth dimension (i.e., linguistic norms) in subsubsection 6.3.4.4, the fifth dimension (i.e., teachers) in subsubsection 6.3.4.5, the sixth dimension (i.e., role models) in subsubsection 6.3.4.6, the seventh dimension (i.e., the sources of instructional materials) in subsubsection 6.3.4.7, the eighth dimension (i.e., positioning of other languages & cultures) in subsubsection 6.3.4.8, the ninth dimensions (i.e., needs) in subsubsection 6.3.4.9, the tenth dimension (i.e., the goals of learning) in subsubsection 6.3.4.10, the eleventh dimension (i.e.,

assessment criterion) in subsection 6.3.4.11 and the twelfth and the thirteenth dimensions (i.e., ideology & theoretical orientation) in subsection 6.3.4.12.

6.3.4.1. Dimension 1: Target Interlocutors

Practical applications within and/or outside the classroom need to revisit and expand the definition of ‘target interlocutor’ (predominantly associated with ‘native speakers’ from the inner circle). This can be done by drawing upon users from ethnolinguistically diverse backgrounds with different levels of competence across cultures, time, contexts and space. Departing from this understanding, teachers and learners need to adopt a closer and more critical look to instructional materials (e.g., coursebooks, handouts, flashcards, audiovisuals, websites, etc.) as they are primarily the sources of input, elicitation, exposure and exploration in ELT through the lens of target interlocutors functioning at two significant levels: *representation* and *interaction*. As far as representation is concerned, instructional materials should represent both successful global and local users. As for interaction, EFL teachers are called upon to provide learners with real opportunities and environments that represent linguacultural exchanges with diverse English speakers and/or users.

6.3.4.2. Dimension 2: The Ownership of English

The ownership of English has been inherently connected to users’ process of the linguistic identity sociohistorical negotiation, construction and reassertion. Furthermore, the ownership of English has been intrinsically linked to nativisation which views users of the Inner Circle as the sole legitimate owners of the English language. This has resulted in the emergence of the ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ speakers’ dichotomy around the world. Conveniently, practical applications focusing on the ownership of English target four different levels: *recognition*, *awareness-raising*, *identity* and *participation*. First, language users should recognise

themselves as legitimate language users, and instructional strategies, norms and assessment practices should align with the changing dynamics and realities. Second, English teachers are called to sensitise their learners about the current status of English as a global lingua franca. For instance, this can be done through readings, discussions inside the classroom, debates, facts and statistics. Third, English teachers should enhance students' self-image as legitimate language users. To construct learners' linguistic identity and positionality on the ownership of English continuum (see [Appendix Q](#)), English teachers may implement in-depth interviews, learners' narratives, poems, diaries and critical autoethnographic narratives. Finally, to claim ownership and promote students' agentive participation, English teachers may promote students' understanding and negotiating as legitimate users in different contexts. This can be done through online learning opportunities and using different technological tools. It is believed that these activities will enhance students' symbolic identities and contribute to their ownership of the English language.

6.3.4.3. Dimension 3: Target Culture

Departing from the assumption that there is an inherent relationship between language and culture, linguistic plurality brings about the need to revisit culture. Therefore, practical applications in ELT must encompass linguistic as well as cultural pluralism, flexibility, fluidity and hybridity in complex intercultural encounters. Since students often draw comparisons between their own cultures and the target culture, teachers' intentions and instructions in classroom should primarily aim at establishing connections between the American culture (target culture) and students' own cultures (local cultures).

6.3.4.4. Dimension 4: Linguistic Norms

The spread of English as a global language has resulted in the destabilisation of various language standards and norms that were traditionally linked to and/or associated with what is known as idealised ‘native speakers’. Relatedly, practical applications that emphasise the pluralisation of linguistic norms are manifested in different forms and may impact norms that English teachers (a) provide, (b) implement, (c) prepare for and (d) anticipate from the students/users in ELT classrooms (see [Table 152](#)).

Table 152 Principles and Practices in Pluralising Linguistic Norms (source: Selvi et al., 2024, pp. 51-52)

Foci	Principles for Educators	Practical Applications
Norms provided	Increasing exposure to (a) diverse forms of English, (b) situation- and usage-based uses of English that demonstrate flexible use of norms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mainstreaming of textual and audiovisual materials that reflect diversity in English usage and transcultural uses of ELF - Comparing and contrasting communication using idealised ‘native speaker’ norms versus EIL constructs of intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability, and flexible and creative use of the language where speakers draw on their entire multilingual repertoire to engage in successful communication - Using examples from different aspects of the language (e.g., pronunciation, grammar, and lexis) to demonstrate variation
Norms used	Modelling pluralisation of linguistic norms through instructional choices, practices as well as interactions with students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sharing personal negotiations of language norms as a language user and teacher - Videotaping classes to focus on enactments of linguistic norms through teacher talk
Norms prepared for	Equipping language users with communication and accommodation strategies necessary in/for ELF interactions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Promoting communicative skills such as ‘extralinguistic cues, identifying and building on shared knowledge, gauging and adjusting to interlocutors’ linguistic repertoires, supportive listening, signalling (non)comprehension in a face-saving way, asking for repetition, paraphrasing, and the like’ (Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 227))

Foci	Principles for Educators	Practical Applications
Norms expected	Redefining norms and aligning instruction in the light of broader constructs of intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability from EIL Strategic designing that promotes the utilisation of all resources in one's multilingual repertoire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recognising and building upon students' multilingual repertoire (e.g., using home languages, making dual/multi-language resources, multimodality as a literacy practice) - Critically evaluating tools used to provide feedback and assess student learning - Redefining existing idealised 'native speaker' norms with intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability and communicating them to students - Videotaping classes to focus on enactments of linguistic norms embedded in classroom discourse - Allowing translanguaging practices (e.g., home languages, dual/multi-language resources, and multimodality as a literacy practice) as an integral part of instruction

6.3.4.5. Dimension 5: Teachers

Innovative and instructional practices in ELT require language teachers with high levels of 'professionalism', 'engagement', 'commitment' and 'involvement'. These qualities will allow teachers to move beyond the idealised binaries of being a teacher, becoming a teacher, and doing teaching. Therefore, practical applications focusing on these dichotomous constructs of teacher identity can include these strategies:

- Introducing models that go beyond categorical binaries in pre-service teacher training,
- Involving all the parties and stakeholders in ELT in conversations that are change and innovation-oriented, and
- Revisiting teachers' language proficiency from being a 'general English proficiency' to a very specialised and focused subset of language skills that are necessary for language teaching.

6.3.4.6. Dimension 6: Role Models

Role models that students are exposed to should reflect the socio-linguistic diversity of these role models. Relatedly, English educators might make use of and resort to successful multilingual figures which can be themselves or successful and famous expert users of the language. Additionally, the lived experiences of language users afford learners a high level of understanding the intersectionality between race, class, gender and language as these elements significantly impact their linguistic identities. Furthermore, material designers and stakeholders can resort to these figures, experts, insights and guests to enhance their students' aspirations and the possibility of attaining a high level of proficiency. These role models can also be used to allow students to communicate and engage in authentic and realistic language tasks in the classroom. That is, gaining a deep understanding of the students' needs, aspirations and motivations will ideally allow the teachers to design authentic tasks that simulate students to learn the language and be prepared for possible social encounters.

6.3.4.7. Dimension 7: The Sources of Instructional Materials

Instructional materials inform the teaching–learning process as they embody, normalise, and enhance discourses, ideologies, attitudes and worldviews about the uses, users, functions and contexts of English. Departing from the fact that current instructional materials continuously embody the ideology of 'native speakerism' that comes from the West, practical applications regarding instructional materials should provide teachers with creative and innovative approaches, a critical mindset and transformative skills. Having these skills will allow teachers to:

- Critically consume existing materials,
- Use diverse instructional materials,
- Design contextually relevant and sensitive materials, and

- Talk around the text

6.3.4.8. Dimension 8: Positioning of Other Languages and Cultures

A multilingual approach to the teaching of English calls for an ideological repositioning of deficit-oriented ideologies pertinent to languages and practices that are related to them such as translanguaging and translingual practices. Practical applications regarding the notion of multilingualism should focus on students' linguistic repertoires so as to support learning in classroom and engaging in lingua franca encounters in multilingual interactions. Therefore, the use of languages and cultures can be at least at three main domains: *interactions*, *instruction* and *assessment*.

6.3.4.9. Dimension 9: Needs

English learners' needs in today's classrooms and presumably other lingua franca contexts demonstrate a very high level of complexity, diversity and variation in terms of space, time and space. To fully account for this complexity and diversity, practical applications regarding learners' needs are required to follow three important stages, namely; *understanding*, *assessment* and *reconciliation*. The first stage (i.e., understanding) requires gaining a deep understanding of the students' needs and goals by voicing them out and analysing them. Needs analyses can be done using surveys, learner interviews and personal reflections. Second, the insights gained in the understanding stage can be used in the assessment stage to assess and evaluate curricular goals and objectives. Finally, reconciliation as the last stage revolves around taking intentional measures and steps to address the deficits identified in the analysis stage and allowing the chance and opportunities for language learners to negotiate and talk about their needs in their local context.

6.3.4.10. Dimension 10: The Goals of Learning

English as global language demonstrates a significant amount of diversity, complexity, fluidity and hybridity in a world that is constantly changing. Relatedly, practical applications require that classrooms wherein English is taught should incorporate the global realities, local specificities of English as well as the individual needs and aspirations. Put differently, it is recommended that all the requirements are fully manifested in EFL educational contexts by incorporating them into the curriculum, textbooks, syllabi, methodology, practices and assessment. Therefore, the curriculum should aim at preparing individual students to not only navigate complex encounters in different domains but also to become interculturally competent users of the language, rather than seeking the idealised ‘native’ speaker of English proficiency.

6.3.4.11. Dimension 11: Assessment Criterion

The washback effect has much relevance in the context of English teaching and learning. Assessment procedure should be used to inform everyday teaching practices. Equally important, the change in ELT paradigms also requires changes in the ways students are measured. Unless assessment procedures are changed, it is very unlikely to find a washback effect upon which decisions regarding curriculum innovation can be made. Practical applications necessitate shifts in paradigms and that all the parties involved, teachers and test designers, rethink and revisit their assessment practices. Additionally, bearing in mind that a large proportion of speakers of English are ‘non-native’ speakers, elements, items and constructs included in standard tests to measure students’ language proficiency should be comprehensive enough to account for non-native speakers. Equally important, practical implications require (1) revisiting how successful communication is reconceptualised in

English and (2) rethinking assessment procedures to make them go beyond the static native norms.

6.3.4.12. Dimensions 12 and 13: Ideology and Theoretical Orientation

Our world, with its global dimensions, that is constantly changing has created different and diverse communities and/or opportunities wherein English is used to create and negotiate the construction of a linguistic identity. The process of creating this identity requires that speakers of English engage in complex and enriching interactions. The relationships that emerge from these interactions operate together to form their language ideologies. Additionally, these interactions significantly influence their thoughts, beliefs and attitudes about the language, and create their positionality as being legitimate a language speaker or a competent language teacher. Practical applications, therefore, require that textbooks and curricula reflect language users from multiple linguistic identities and getting students engaged in translingual/transcultural encounters so that they engage in continuous construction of identity.

6.4. Limitations of the Study

Although the findings of the present study have cast a great deal of light upon and provided a useful initial framework for understanding the complex nature of the attitudes of Moroccan EFL learners towards varieties of English speech, native English-speaking teachers and non-native English-speaking teachers, several limitations exist and, as a result, there is undoubtedly much more work that remains to be done.

Firstly, the study adopts a cross-sectional design as the participants were surveyed once. In other words, the concern here was on Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards English language variation and English language teachers. Although attitudes are not static constructs, and they do change over time, this study could not go beyond surveying the participants'

attitudes at one single point in time. An experimental research design or a longitudinal study would have been much better in capturing attitudinal changes towards the phenomena studied over time.

Secondly, the responses collected were from different student samples. In other words, instead of administering one research instrument to collect the data, the researcher designed different research instruments that were administered on different occasions. The researcher resorted to this solution as new issues emerged and new objectives were decided upon over the years in his doctoral journey. As one reads and understands more, he/she starts to craft new research questions, think of new research aims and objectives, look for different samples, etc. It would have been much better if the researcher had distributed one main research instrument (i.e., one online questionnaire) to gather the data from the same student sample regarding their attitudes towards and perceptions of World Englishes and native and non-native English-speaking teachers.

Thirdly, the study used six recordings of female speakers only. This is, however, justified by fact that it was thought that the use of more varieties of English speech will only cause listener-fatigue (Chien, 2018; McKenzie, 2006), and the use of both male and female recordings will cause gender bias.

Finally, the study used a single speech sample for each variety of English speech, and it was implied that each recording represents the English variety in question. However, a single speech sample does not represent an English accent in its totality (Chien, 2018; Oyebola, 2020). The researcher relied on single speech samples because of the fact that the use of more samples was thought to cause listener-fatigue on the part of Moroccan EFL learners who took part in the verbal-guise task.

6.5. Suggestions for Further Research

In light of the limitations outlined in the previous section (6.4), there are a number of suggestions that may be taken into account in future attitudinal studies that seek to explore ESL/EFL learners' attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers within Morocco or other expanding (or even outer) circle countries. Some of these suggestions are provided below.

First, researchers may choose an experimental research design, so as to explore change in people's (e.g., ESL/EFL learners, in-service/pre-service teachers, etc.) attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers. One way of doing this can be achieved by means of recruiting ESL/EFL learners from two groups: one that serves as a control group and one that serves as an experimental group. On the one hand, the control group may be taught in a traditional way, following a pedagogy that promotes a World English ideology (or 'standard' English), and whose concern is the extent to which learners are successful in achieving native-like proficiency. The experimental group, on the other hand, may be introduced to a new way of teaching English as multicultural lingua franca (or one that adopts a Global Englishes-aware pedagogy), and which promotes diversity in English and glorifies both types of ESL/EFL teachers (i.e., NESTs & non-NESTs). This type of pre-test post-test design will help in capturing attitude change over time. Additionally, researchers may also choose to recruit pre-service teachers who take a World/Global Englishes class. These researchers may introduce these novice teachers to World Englishes and related issues and investigate their awareness of Global Englishes and their willingness to incorporate World Englishes-related materials in their future ESL/EFL classes. In a study that was conducted on attitudes toward World Englishes and World Englishes-informed pedagogies among prospective ELT teachers in Türkiye, I (along with Prof. Cigdem Fidan & Prof. Mohamed

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Bouaissane) investigated the extent to which taking a *World Englishes and Culture* course has increased the awareness of a group of Turkish prospective EFL teachers of English language variation and their willingness to integrate WE-informed pedagogies in their future classes. Our study used an *orientation to English* scale that was adopted from Hall and Wicaksono (2024), which is available in [Appendix J2](#). A newer version of the same scale has been recently developed by the same authors and is available in [Appendix J3](#)¹.

Second, researchers are also invited to recruit more research participants for generalisability purposes. These participants may be from the same country or from different countries. For an example of a comparative investigation of people's attitudes towards English accents, researchers may refer to Chien's (2018) doctoral dissertation, which investigated Taiwanese and British nationals' attitudes towards different varieties of English speech. The verbal-guise test that was used in his study is available in [Appendix H](#).

Third, researchers are also invited to use more speech samples that are representative of the English varieties in question. This means that instead of recruiting (or using recordings of) one native speaker of each English variety, it is recommended to have two or more speech samples of each variety. This will increase the representativeness of the English varieties selected in the study.

Fourth, researchers are also called upon to use male speech samples in future projects. This is especially needed in the Moroccan context to see the extent to which this study's results may be compared to other ones using male speech samples. In other words, an understanding of how

¹ It should also be taken that the same authors have designed a course called *Changing Englishes: An Online Course for Teachers*, which I have taken twice. More information about the course can be found in [Appendix J1](#), along with the certificates I received upon completion of the course in [Appendix J4](#).

male and female speakers of English varieties are evaluated by Moroccan EFL learners is needed.

Fifth, instead of using recordings that are available in online archives such as the *speech accent archive*¹ used in this study, researchers may recruit speakers and record their own speech samples. One way of doing this is to refer to McKenzie (2006, 2008, 2010) who designed a map task that was adapted from previous research to examine Japanese university students' perceptions of six varieties of English speech (see [Appendix P](#)).

Sixth, researchers may also choose to work on hiring practices and recruitment discourses in the ELT community, and investigate the extent to which non-native English-speaking teachers are discriminated against and considered as inferior practitioners who enjoy less prestige in the ELT industry.

Seventh, Moroccan researchers may choose to work on Moroccan English (although it seems premature to do so) and investigate Moroccan English as a new variety of English by means of analysing Moroccan phonological patterns or morphosyntactic structures that are typically used by Moroccan English speakers.

Eighth, researchers may also investigate NESTs and non-NESTs' self-perceptions and recruiters'/administrators' preferences. Researchers may consult Moussu's (2006) doctoral thesis and conduct a similar study in their own context.

Ninth, researchers may also choose to work on a netnographic account of how NESTs and non-NESTs are being perceived in social media and on the Internet. Equally important, they may conduct a critical discourse analysis of the representation of NESTs and non-NESTs as

¹ <https://accent.gmu.edu/>

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social actors in selected textbooks, news outlets, books, TV shows, etc. I suggest adopting a multimodal critical discourse analysis approach (based on social semiotics) in such future research projects, and researchers are invited to refer to the work of leading scholars such as Theo van Leeuwen, Gunther Kress and James Paul Gee.

Tenth, researchers may also choose to investigate the extent to language policy in Morocco is still NS model-oriented. In other words, they may investigate how policy makers conceive of English and how it is being talked about in official documents and guidelines. This document-based analysis may also be followed by interviews with the main stakeholders (i.e., policy makers, curriculum designers, ELT inspectors, EFL teachers, etc.), along with the use of questionnaires that contain both open-ended and closed-ended questions for researchers willing to adopt a mixed-method research approach, so that the data collected can be analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. For similar studies, researchers are invited to consult Correia's (2024) study, which investigated "the intricate interplay between (Portuguese) language policy and the sociolinguistic challenges encountered in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to learners who are future English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) users" (p. 50).

Finally, and in light of the criticisms levelled against the models that represent the global spread of English (see subsection 1.9.2 above), there is an emergent need for further research in the area of modeling World Englishes. For example, future World Englishes researchers may choose to investigate the limitations and the shortcomings of the existing models and design new models to better account for the current sociolinguistic reality of English as it used in diverse multilingual contexts.

6.6. Chapter Summary

This final chapter has provided a detailed discussion of the pedagogical implications of the study's findings obtained from Moroccan EFL learners with regard to their attitudes towards World Englishes and native and non-native English-speaking teachers from the perspective of Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT). First, the field of Global Englishes was introduced in section 6.2. Second, the GELT framework and its thirteen dimensions were outlined in section 6.3. Finally, an account of the study's limitations as well as a number of suggestions for further research on language attitudes towards varieties of English speech and native and non-native English-speaking teachers in the Moroccan context and other expanding circle countries was provided in sections 6.4 and 6.5, respectively.

Thesis Conclusion

This study has made a significant contribution as it has embarked on the complex study of attitudes towards World Englishes and native and non-native English-speaking teachers. The study of language attitudes is of paramount importance, as it allows us to understand human attitudes and how they are formed. This being said, the present study has looked into how World Englishes, NESTs and non-NESTs are perceived among Moroccan EFL learners. The study aimed at eliciting the participants' implicit (covert) and explicit (overt) towards the phenomena studied. Firstly, in terms of varieties of English speech, although it was found that the participants generally favour inner circle Englishes over non-inner circle Englishes (NICE), the findings obtained showed that the participants held positive attitudes towards native and non-native varieties of English speech as they expressed their appreciation of the variation exhibited in the English language, along with their willingness to learn more about English accents. Second, in terms of native and non-native English-speaking teachers, the results obtained show that the participants are generally aware of the weaknesses and strengths of both types of EFL teachers. Put slightly different, the participants' views can be taken as an indication that NESTs and non-NESTs are perceived to be language professionals who have merits and demerits rather than two different types of human beings. Finally, the study has provided a number of pedagogical implications for the main stakeholders who would like to adopt a Global-Englishes informed pedagogy in teaching English as a global language.

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¹ Although the APA style (7th edition) requires double-spacing between ALL text lines, including References, this requirement has not been applied in the formatting of the references listed here to save space. Additionally, DOI numbers and links have also been omitted to save space. Readers of the soft copy are invited to click *DOI* or *link* to go directly to a URL.

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Appendix A1: First Pilot Study (the Speech Evaluation Task)

Background Information of the Research

As part of my study for the Doctorate Degree, I am investigating people's thoughts on English language. In this pilot study, you are asked to listen to one of the recordings and judge the extent to which the speaker's accent represents the variety of English you speak. The material will be treated as confidential and kept in secure storage at all times. Thank you for your collaboration!

Mustapha Mouchid: mustapha.mouchid@uit.ac.ma

Please complete the questionnaire only if you are a speaker of one of the following varieties of English:

- American English
- British English
- Indian English
- Filipino English
- Japanese English
- Thai English
- Chinese English
- Taiwanese English
- Korean English
- German English
- Spanish English
- Sri Lankan English

Gender: Female/Male

Country:

- The USA
- The UK
- India
- The Philippines
- Japan
- Thailand
- China
- Taiwan
- South Korea
- Germany
- Spain
- Sri Lanka

Which variety of English do you speak?

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- American English
- British English
- Indian English
- Filipino English
- Japanese English
- Thai English
- Chinese English
- Taiwanese English
- Korean English
- German English
- Spanish English
- Sri Lankan English

Speaker 1: American English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents American English?

not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

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Speaker 2: British English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents British English?

not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

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Speaker 3: Indian English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents Indian English?

not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

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Speaker 4: Filipino English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents Filipino English?

not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

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Speaker 5: Japanese English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents Japanese English?

not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

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Speaker 6: Thai English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents Thai English?

not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

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Speaker 7: Chinese English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents Chinese English?

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not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

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Speaker 8: Taiwanese English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents Taiwanese English?

not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

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Speaker 9: Korean English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents Korean English?

not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

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Speaker 10: German English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents German English?

not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

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Speaker 11: Spanish English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents Spanish English?

not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

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Speaker 12: Sri Lankan English

On a scale from 1 to 7, 1 being not representative and 7 being representative, how would you judge the extent to which this speaker represents Sri Lankan English?

not representative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	representative
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Can you tell me briefly why?

Do you have any comments or remarks?

Your response:

Thank You!

Appendix A2: Second Pilot Study (the Verbal-Guise Task)

Step 1: Listen carefully to the recordings. You will hear six people read the same paragraph in English. As you listen, circle a number 1-7 for each of the traits that are listed below to record your attitude to each speaker. You may listen to each speaker more than once. Complete the lists of traits for each speaker before proceeding to the next one.

friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unfriendly
trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	untrustworthy
unsociable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sociable
sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	insincere
unreliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	reliable
discomforting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	comforting
selfish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	selfless
kind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unkind
dishonest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	honest
likeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlikeable
intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unintelligent
uneducated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	educated
unsuccessful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	successful
wealthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	poor
powerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	powerless

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.

1. China	2. Germany	3. India
4. Japan	5. South Korea	6. Spain
7. Sri Lanka	8. Taiwan	9. Thailand
10. The Philippines	11. UK	12. US

Step 3: How did you make this decision?

Appendix A3: Final Pilot Study (the Verbal-Guise Task)¹

Step 1: Listen carefully to the recordings. You will hear six people read the same paragraph in English. As you listen, circle a number 1-7 for each of the traits that are listed below to record your attitude to each speaker. You may listen to each speaker more than once. Complete the lists of traits for each speaker before proceeding to the next one.

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not pleasant
confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not confident
unclear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	clear
modest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not modest
not funny	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	funny
intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not intelligent
not gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	gentle
not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fluent

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.

1. China	2. Germany	3. India
4. Japan	5. South Korea	6. Spain
7. Sri Lanka	8. Taiwan	9. Thailand
10. The Philippines	11. UK	12. US

Step 3: How did you make this decision?

Appendix B: The main Verbal-Guise Task (MEFLs' Implicit Attitudes towards VoES)²

Background Information of the Research

As part of my study for the Doctorate Degree, I'm investigating Moroccan EFL learners' thoughts on English language. In this task, you will hear 6 people read the same paragraph in English.

Listen to the recordings and circle where you would put each speaker on the following scale.

Example, 1= intelligent, 7= not intelligent.

The information given will be used for a University research project. It will be treated in the strictest confidence and will be used for no other purpose. This is not a test.

Thank you for your collaboration!

¹ This questionnaire was distributed online. The format provided here was thus slightly different but the questions were the same.

² This questionnaire was distributed online. The format provided here was thus slightly different but the questions were the same.

- I consent to take part in this questionnaire: **YES**

Section 1: Personal Details

Gender: Male/Female
Age: _____
Education: BA Student/MA Student/Doctoral Student
University: _____
How do you perceive your own English level? Beginner/Intermediate/Higher Intermediate/Advanced
How long have you been learning English? Less than 5 years/5-10 years/More than 10 years
Have you ever lived in or visited English-speaking countries? Yes/No

Section 2:

Listen to the recordings and circle where you would put each speaker on the following scale.

Example, 1= intelligent, 7= not intelligent.

- **Speaker A:**

intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not intelligent
confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not confident
not pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	pleasant
clear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not clear
not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fluent
gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not gentle
not friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	friendly

- **Speaker B:**

intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not intelligent
confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not confident
not pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	pleasant
clear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not clear
not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fluent
gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not gentle
not friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	friendly

- **Speaker C:**

intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not intelligent
confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not confident
not pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	pleasant
clear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not clear
not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fluent

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gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not gentle
not friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	friendly

■ Speaker D:

intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not intelligent
confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not confident
not pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	pleasant
clear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not clear
not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fluent
gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not gentle
not friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	friendly

■ Speaker E:

intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not intelligent
confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not confident
not pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	pleasant
clear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not clear
not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fluent
gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not gentle
not friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	friendly

■ Speaker F:

intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not intelligent
confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not confident
not pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	pleasant
clear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not clear
not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fluent
gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not gentle
not friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	friendly

Section 3:

Listen to the recordings again and answer the following questions:

■ Speaker A:

Please listen to the recording again and try to identify which country the speaker comes from. Please circle only one choice per recording.

1. China	2. Germany	3. India
4. Japan	5. South Korea	6. Spain
7. Sri Lanka	8. Taiwan	9. Thailand
10. The Philippines	11. UK	12. US

How did you make this decision?

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■ Speaker B:

Please listen to the recording again and try to identify which country the speaker comes from. Please circle only one choice per recording.

1. China	2. Germany	3. India
4. Japan	5. South Korea	6. Spain
7. Sri Lanka	8. Taiwan	9. Thailand
10. The Philippines	11. UK	12. US

How did you make this decision?

■ Speaker C:

Please listen to the recording again and try to identify which country the speaker comes from. Please circle only one choice per recording.

1. China	2. Germany	3. India
4. Japan	5. South Korea	6. Spain
7. Sri Lanka	8. Taiwan	9. Thailand
10. The Philippines	11. UK	12. US

How did you make this decision?

■ Speaker D:

Please listen to the recording again and try to identify which country the speaker comes from. Please circle only one choice per recording.

1. China	2. Germany	3. India
4. Japan	5. South Korea	6. Spain
7. Sri Lanka	8. Taiwan	9. Thailand

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10. The Philippines	11. UK	12. US
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How did you make this decision?

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▪ Speaker E:

Please listen to the recording again and try to identify which country the speaker comes from. Please circle only one choice per recording.

1. China	2. Germany	3. India
4. Japan	5. South Korea	6. Spain
7. Sri Lanka	8. Taiwan	9. Thailand
10. The Philippines	11. UK	12. US

How did you make this decision?

<hr/> <hr/>

▪ Speaker F:

Please listen to the recording again and try to identify which country the speaker comes from. Please circle only one choice per recording.

1. China	2. Germany	3. India
4. Japan	5. South Korea	6. Spain
7. Sri Lanka	8. Taiwan	9. Thailand
10. The Philippines	11. UK	12. US

How did you make this decision?

<hr/> <hr/>

Thank you for your co-operation!

Appendix C: MEFLs' Explicit Attitudes towards VoES¹

The following questionnaire is part of a study I am conducting to explore Moroccan EFL learners' explicit attitudes towards different varieties of English speech (World Englishes). The information given will be used for a University research project. It will be treated in the strictest confidence and will be used for no other purpose. The survey will take you less than 10 minutes to complete.

Thank you for your collaboration!

Mustapha Mourchid: mustapha.mourchid@uit.ac.ma

- I consent to take part in this questionnaire: **YES**

Part 1: Background Information

Gender: Male/Female

Age: _____

Education: BA Student/MA Student/Doctoral Student

University:

Cadi Ayyad University

Chouaib Doukkali University

Hassan I University

Hassan II University

Ibn Tofail University

Ibn Zohr University

Mohamed I University

Mohammed V University

Moulay Ismail University

Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University

Moulay Slimane University

Abdelmalek Essaâdi University

How do you perceive your own English level? Beginner/Intermediate/Higher Intermediate/Advanced

How long have you been learning English? Less than 5 years/5-10 years/More than 10 years

Have you ever lived in or visited English-speaking countries? Yes/No

Part 2: Multiple Choice Questions

Please read each question and select only one choice per question.

1. Of the following selection of English varieties, which one is your favourite?

- ❖ American English
- ❖ British English
- ❖ Indian English
- ❖ Filipino English
- ❖ Japanese English

¹ This questionnaire was distributed online. The format provided here was thus slightly different but the questions were the same.

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❖ Thai English

Please explain why:

2. Of the following selection of English varieties, which one you are most familiar with?

- ❖ American English
- ❖ British English
- ❖ Indian English
- ❖ Filipino English
- ❖ Japanese English
- ❖ Thai English

Please explain why:

3. Of the following selection of English varieties, which one do you think is the most appropriate for your daily life usage?

- ❖ American English
- ❖ British English
- ❖ Indian English
- ❖ Filipino English
- ❖ Japanese English
- ❖ Thai English

Please explain why:

4. Of the following selection of English varieties, which one do you think is the most appropriate for teaching and learning purposes?

- ❖ American English
- ❖ British English
- ❖ Indian English
- ❖ Filipino English
- ❖ Japanese English
- ❖ Thai English

Please explain why:

Part 3: Your Opinion

Statements ¹	CD	D	SD	SA	A	CA
I can recognise the difference between native and non-native speakers of English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
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
I am interested in learning/knowing the differences that exist in different varieties of English such as Indian English, American English, Thai English, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6

¹ CD, Completely Disagree; D, Disagree; SD, Somewhat Disagree; SA, Somewhat Agree; A, Agree; CA, Completely Agree

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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
To make friends from across the world, I need to understand both native and non-native speakers of English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel I would be more successful if I speak English without an accent (Moroccan English, in our case).	1	2	3	4	5	6
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

In your opinion, how can students be encouraged to learn more about different varieties of English? Please, use the space below to provide any suggestions that you think are useful in raising Moroccan EFL learners' linguistic awareness about the sociolinguistic reality of English:

--

Thank You!

Appendix D: MEFLs' Attitudes towards NESTs and Non-NESTs

The following questionnaire is part of a study I am conducting to explore Moroccan EFL learners' attitudes towards native English-speaking teachers and non-native English-speaking teachers. The questionnaire questions will not take you more than 10 minutes to complete and your responses will be used for research purposes only.

Thank you for your collaboration!

Mustapha Mouchid: mustapha.mouchid@uit.ac.ma

Native English Teachers are teachers whose **first (native)** language is English.

Non-native English teachers are teachers who learned English in addition to their first language.

NS are native speakers of English

NNS are non-native speakers of English

I. Background information. Please answer the following information about yourself.

- **What is your gender?** 1 Male 2 Female
- **How old are you?** _____
- **Name of university where you are studying now:**
 - Cadi Ayyad University
 - Chouaib Doukkali University
 - Hassan I University
 - Hassan II University
 - Ibn Tofail University
 - Ibn Zohr University
 - Mohamed I University
 - Mohammed V University
 - Moulay Ismail University
 - Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University
 - Moulay Slimane University
 - Abdelmalek Essaâdi University
- **Educational Level:** 1 BA student 2 MA student 3 Doctoral student
- **Have you ever been taught by a native English teacher?** 1 Yes 2 No
- **Your most important reason for learning English is** (choose **ONLY ONE** answer):
 - to get a better job in your country
 - to live in the U.S.
 - because English is very important in today's society
 - because you like the English language and culture very much
 - for fun and personal pleasure
 - for other reasons (explain please): _____

II. EFL teachers: Please answer the following questions **by filling out the circled numbers** that correspond to your feelings, according to the following scale:

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
---------------------	------------	-----------	---------	------------------

Statements	SD	D	N	A	SA
1- I prefer to have classes with a NES teacher.	①	②	③	④	⑤

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2- My teacher's mother tongue is important.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3- I prefer to have classes both with NES and NNES teachers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4- I prefer to have classes with a NNES.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5- When I choose a language school, I check if they employ NES teachers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6- I would complain to the school director if I had classes with a NNES teacher.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7- It is important to me that the school where I study English has both NES and NNES teachers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8- I prefer to study in a school that only employs NES teachers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9- EFL teachers should all speak without a foreign accent.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10- Native EFL teachers never make grammar mistakes.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11- It's OK to speak English with a foreign accent.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12- Native teachers don't always know how to answer students' questions.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13- Native EFL teachers sometimes make grammar mistakes.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14- Non-native teachers should only be allowed to teach English in their own countries.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15- I don't care where my teacher is from as long as he/she is a good teacher.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16- Non-native EFL teachers always make grammar mistakes.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17- Native EFL teachers are better role models than non-native teachers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18- English teachers should all speak with a perfect American accent.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19- My learning experiences with non-native teachers have been good so far.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20- I can learn English just as well from a non-native English teacher as from a native English teacher.	①	②	③	④	⑤
21- EFL teachers who speak more many languages can understand my learning difficulties better than teachers who speak only English.	①	②	③	④	⑤

What do you think makes a 'good' English teacher? Please explain in the space provided below:

In your opinion, what are the strengths of a native English-Speaking teacher?

In your opinion, what are the weaknesses of a native English-Speaking teacher?

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In your opinion, what are the strengths of a non-native English-speaking teacher?

--

In your opinion, what are the weaknesses of a non-native English-speaking teacher?

--

Thank you very much for your help!

Appendix E: Interview Questions

- Gender:
- Age:
- Education:
- University:
- How do you perceive your own English level? How long have you been learning English?
- Have you ever lived in or visited English-speaking countries?
- Have you been taught by a native English speaker?
- What kind(s) of English do you usually listen to?
- Where do you usually listen to these kinds of English?
- Which of the accents of English you have listened to do you least like?
- If you did not speak English with the accent you speak it with now, which of the accents of English you have listened to would you prefer to speak?
- Why would you prefer to speak that variety?
- What do you think should be the preferred variety of English when teaching English in Morocco?
- Do you think native speakers of English would make better English teachers than non-native English speakers?

Appendix F: Biographical Details of the Recorded Speakers

Native/Non-native	Native Speakers		Non-native Speakers			
English Variety	American English	British English	Indian English	Filipino English	Japanese English	Thai English
Series Number in Speech Accent Archive	english54	english2	hindi6	filipino2	japanese2	thai4
Birth Place	New Albany, Indiana, USA	Birmingham, UK	New Delhi, India	Pasay, Philippines	Tokyo, Japan	Songkhla, Thailand
Native Language	English	English	Hindi	Filipino	Japanese	Thai
Other Language(s)	None	German, Mandarin	Punjabi	German, Spanish	None	None
Age, sex	40, Female	30, Female	27, Female	21, Female	27, Female	23, Female
Age of English Onset	0	0	4	3	12	7
English Learning Method	Naturalistic	Naturalistic	Academic	Naturalistic	Academic	Academic
English Residence	USA	UK	USA	USA	USA	USA
Length of English Residence	40 Years	30 years	1 Year	0.5 Years	1.3 Years	0.2 Years

Speaker 1: The US

http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=115

Speaker 2: The UK

http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=77

Speaker 3: India

http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=866

Speaker 4: The Philippines

http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=1500

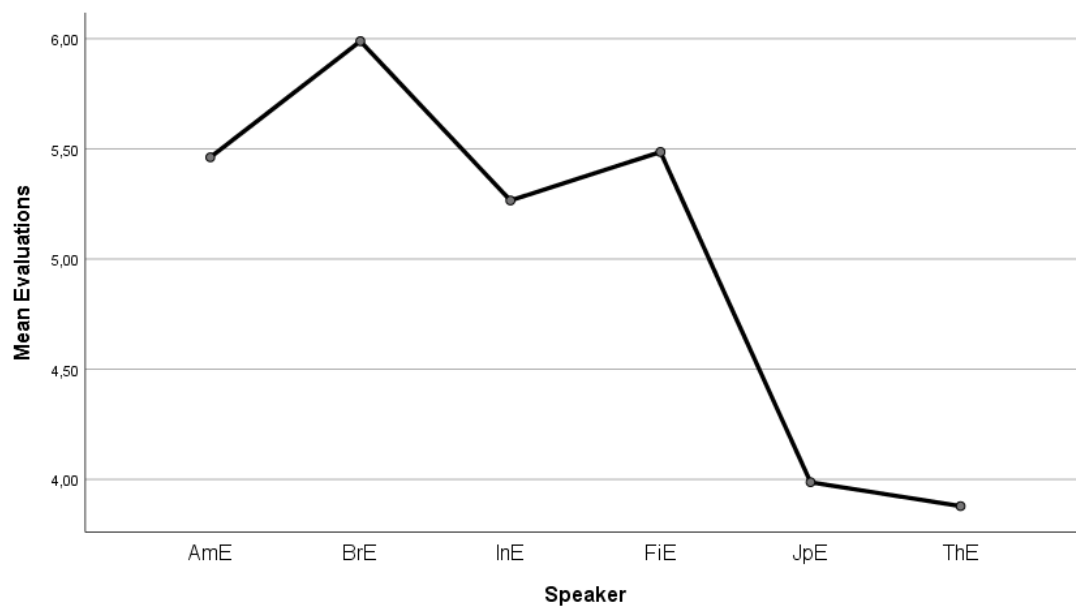
Speaker 5: Japan

http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=222

Speaker 6: Thailand

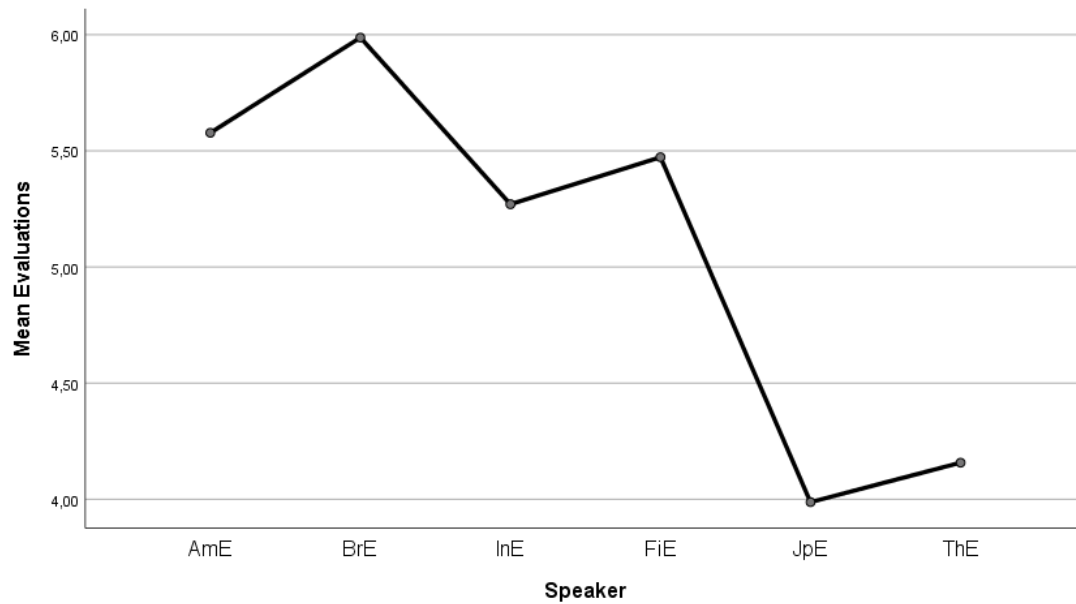
http://accent.gmu.edu/browse_language.php?function=detail&speakerid=448

Appendix G1: Scree Plot of Mean Evaluation Rankings for Speaker: All Traits¹



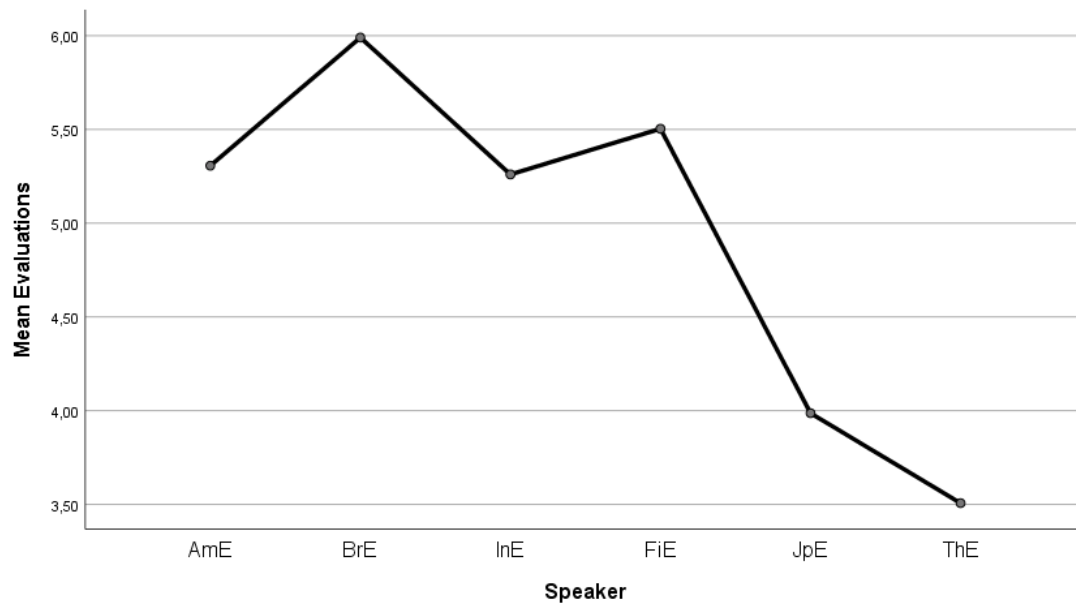
¹ **Reminder:** **AmE**, American English; **BrE**, British English; **InE**, Indian English; **FiE**, Filipino English; **JpE**, Japanese English; **ThE**, Thai English

Appendix G2: Scree Plot of Mean Evaluation Rankings for Speaker Status¹



¹ **Reminder:** **AmE**, American English; **BrE**, British English; **InE**, Indian English; **FiE**, Filipino English; **JpE**, Japanese English; **ThE**, Thai English

Appendix G3: Scree Plot of Mean Evaluation Rankings for Speaker Solidarity¹



¹ **Reminder:** **AmE**, American English; **BrE**, British English; **InE**, Indian English; **FiE**, Filipino English; **JpE**, Japanese English; **ThE**, Thai English

Appendix H: Samples of Bipolar Semantic-Differential Scales Used in Previous Language Attitudes Research

1. Bouzidi (1989)

Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unintelligent
Pious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not pious
Leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Non-leader
Self-confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not confident
Kind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Cruel
Ambitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Non-ambitious
Sociable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unsociable
Sympathetic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Hostile
Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dishonest
Generous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mean
Rich	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Non-prestigious
Prestigious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dirty
Clean	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not likeable
Likeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not humorous
Humorous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Bad-tempered
Good-tempered								

2. McKenzie (2006, 2008, 2010)

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not pleasant
confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not confident
unclear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	clear
modest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not modest
not funny	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	funny
intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not intelligent
not gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	gentle
not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fluent

3. Sykes (2010)

friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unfriendly
trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	untrustworthy
unsociable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sociable
sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	insincere
unreliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	reliable
discomforting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	comforting
selfish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	selfless
kind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unkind
dishonest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	honest
likeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlikeable
intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unintelligent
uneducated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	educated
unsuccessful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	successful
wealthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	poor
powerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	powerless

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4. Chiba et al. (1995)

clear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unclear
with accent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	without accent
not confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	confident
friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unfriendly
elegant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not elegant
not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fluent
skilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unskilled
unintelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	intelligent
not sophisticated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sophisticated
careful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not careful

5. Jindapitak & Teo (2012)

not generous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very generous
not smart	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very smart
incompetent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very competent
uneducated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very educated
unimpressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very impressive
not gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very gentle
unconfident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very confident
not friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very friendly

6. Bernaisch & Koch (2016)

educated	1	2	3	4	5	6	uneducated
flawless	1	2	3	4	5	6	erroneous
good English	1	2	3	4	5	6	Bad English
smart	1	2	3	4	5	6	dumb
formal	1	2	3	4	5	6	casual
serious	1	2	3	4	5	6	frivolous
friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	unfriendly
humble	1	2	3	4	5	6	snobbish
polite	1	2	3	4	5	6	rude
beautiful	1	2	3	4	5	6	ugly
modern	1	2	3	4	5	6	outdated
prestigious	1	2	3	4	5	6	stigmatised
sophisticated	1	2	3	4	5	6	naive

7. Chien (2018)

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

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8. Zhang (2010)

unfriendly	1	2	3	4	5	friendly
unsociable	1	2	3	4	5	sociable
stupid	1	2	3	4	5	intelligent
arrogant	1	2	3	4	5	humble
poorly educated	1	2	3	4	5	highly educated
cold	1	2	3	4	5	warm
unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	pleasant
unsuccessful	1	2	3	4	5	successful
unhelpful	1	2	3	4	5	helpful
insincere	1	2	3	4	5	sincere
crude	1	2	3	4	5	elegant
unkind	1	2	3	4	5	kind
incompetent	1	2	3	4	5	competent
dishonest	1	2	3	4	5	honest
boring	1	2	3	4	5	creative
lazy	1	2	3	4	5	hard-working
inconsiderate	1	2	3	4	5	considerate
unreliable	1	2	3	4	5	reliable
old fashioned	1	2	3	4	5	modern
stingy	1	2	3	4	5	generous

9. Hakami (2020)

unfriendly	1	2	3	4	5	friendly
impolite	1	2	3	4	5	polite
dishonest	1	2	3	4	5	honest
selfish	1	2	3	4	5	selfless
unhumorous	1	2	3	4	5	humorous
unintelligent	1	2	3	4	5	intelligent
poor	1	2	3	4	5	wealthy
uneducated	1	2	3	4	5	educated
unconfident	1	2	3	4	5	confident
lazy	1	2	3	4	5	hard-working

10. Alzahrani (2023)

Unkind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kind
Poor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Rich
Arrogant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Modest
Not confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Confident
Unlikeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likeable
Not honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Honest
Not fluent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fluent
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
Uneducated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Educated
Unsuccessful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Successful

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11. Oyebola (2020)

		Strongly disagree (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	Strongly agree (6)
1	The person sounds refined						
2	The person sounds competent						
3	The person sounds sincere						
4	The person sounds foreign						
5	The person sounds convincing						
6	The person sounds modest						
7	The person sounds educated						
8	The person's speech is intelligible for me						
9	The person sounds friendly						
10	The person sounds trustworthy						
11	The person sounds polite						
12	The person sounds confident						
13	The person would make a good English teacher in Nigeria						
14	The person would make a good newscaster in Nigeria						
15	The person would make a good linguistic role model for Nigerians						

Appendix I1: World Englishes Course

*1

Table 153 World Englishes Course

A Course Number & Title	Social Issues in Language Study: World Englishes					
B Faculty Name	Professor John Battenburg					
C Term/Year	Spring 2017					
D Class Day and Time	<table><tr><th>Day</th><th>Time</th></tr><tr><td>M</td><td>10:00-12:00</td></tr></table>		Day	Time	M	10:00-12:00
Day	Time					
M	10:00-12:00					
E Instructor Information	Please see me before or after class if you need to meet with me. I can also be reached at for brief questions.					
F Course Description	World Englishes focuses on analyzing varieties of English language around the world. Particular attention will be paid to three issues within various communities: <i>Which</i> English is taught (or learned)? By <i>whom</i> ? And for <i>what</i> purposes? Students will be asked to consider English-related language policy and planning challenges in Morocco, in other Arab countries, and world-wide. Emphasis will be placed on understanding related political, economic, and educational issues.					
G Course Learning Outcomes	Upon completion of the course, students will be able to: 1) Explain the complex roles of language, culture, and identity in the context of World Englishes 2) Analyze the impact of World Englishes on competing local, national, or international languages 3) Assess the interrelationship between globalization and World Englishes 4) Develop strategies for describing varieties of World Englishes 5) Conduct original research on the introduction and current development of English in a specific country as well as create a digital project to be included in the World Englishes Website.					

¹ Note that the World Englishes Course materials are shared in *Appendices II-I4* with the permission of Prof. John Battenburg (Fulbright Senior Scholar in Morocco, 2016-2017).

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H Texts	Jenkins, Jennifer. 2015. <i>Global Englishes: A Resource Book for Students</i> . London and New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis.
I Teaching Methodologies and Evaluation	Lecture, presentations, and final in-class exam Assessment: Class participation and presentations (30%) Digital Project (70%)
J Presentations	Each of you will be responsible for leading a class discussion about the assigned reading and some of the related activities. You are being asked to prepare in-depth for a 20-25 minute period in order to guide and facilitate. Basically, I expect you to have a thorough grasp of both the assigned reading, related activities, and relevant research. When you are leading out in the class discussion, come prepared with comments and questions. Use of PowerPoint and video are also beneficial.
K	Students are advised that violations of the academic integrity will be treated seriously. Academic violations include but are not limited to plagiarism, inappropriate collaboration or proxy, and dishonesty in exams and submitted work. Prompt attendance is required. Students arriving late will not be allowed to enter the classroom. Any and all use of laptops, tablets, and smart phones is prohibited during class unless permitted by the professor. Mutual respect is essential. Disrupting the class will not be tolerated.

SCHEDULE

Note: Tests and other graded assignments due dates are set. No addendum, make-up exams, or extra assignments to improve grades will be given.

	Week STUDENT PRESENTER	READING ASSIGNMENTS Activities Pages in Bold
1	March 20	Introduction to World Englishes “English in the Maghreb” “English versus French: Language Rivalry in Tunisia”
2	March 27	A1--“The historical, social and political context” (2-10) B1--“The legacy of colonialism” (58-63) (60 and 63) C1--“Postcolonial Africa and North America” (112-120) (118-120) D1--“The discourses of postcolonialism” (Pennycook) (182-

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		190) (189-190)
3	April 10	A2-- " <i>Who speaks English today?</i> " (10-21) B2-- " <i>The English Today debate</i> " (64-68) (67-68) C2-- " <i>Teaching and testing Global Englishes</i> " (120-127) (123-124) D2-- " <i>Who owns English today?</i> " Widdowson (190-197) (196-197)
4	April 17	A3-- "Standard language ideology in the Anglophone world" (21-27) B3-- "Standards across Anglophone space" (69-79) (74-75) C3-- "Standards across channels" (128-139) (136, 137, & 139) D3-- "Is language (still) power in the Inner Circle?" (Milroy et al) (197-206) (204-206)
5	April 24	A4-- "Variation across postcolonial Englishes" (27-35) B4-- "'Legitimate' and 'illegitimate' offspring of English" (80-85) (81-85) C4-- "'Sub'-varieties of English: the example of Singlish" (140-145) (140-141 & 145) D4-- "From language to literature" (Achebe and Thiong'o) (206-214) (214)
6	May 8	A5-- "Pidgin and creole languages" (35-41) B5-- "Characteristics of pidgin and creole languages" (85-90) (85) C5-- "Creole developments in the UK and US" (146-154) (153-154) D5-- "The status of pidgin languages in education" (Atechi) (215-222) 221-222
7	May 15	A6-- " <i>English as an international lingua franca</i> " (41-45) B6-- " <i>The nature of ELF communication</i> " (90-99) (95, 96-97, & 99) C6-- "ELF and education" (155-160) (160 & 161) D6-- "The challenge of testing ELF" (Jenkins and Leung) (223-229) (229) Digital Projects Due
8	May 22	A7-- " <i>English in Asia and Europe</i> " (45-51) B7-- " <i>En route to new standard Englishes</i> " (99-105) (96-97 & 99)

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		C7--“Asian Englishes: focus on India, Hong Kong, and China” (161-171) (163-165) D7--“Attitudes to non-native Englishes in China and mainland Europe” (Wang and Ammon) (230-239) (239)
9	May 29	Conferences on Digital Projects
10	June 5	A8--“The future of global Englishes” (52-56) B8--“Possible future scenarios” (105-109) (109) C8--“ <i>Language killer or language promoter?</i> ” (172-179) (178-179) D8--“ <i>Looking ahead</i> ” (Pennycook) (240-247)
11	June 12	Digital Project Presentations (Countries)
12	June 19	Digital Project Presentations
13	June 26	Final Digital Project Due Digital Project Presentations

Appendix I2: World Englishes Digital Project Requirements

Conduct research on the introduction and current development of English in a specific country within what Kachru refers to as the Outer Circle or the Expanding Circle. Cite and analyze research appearing in major journals in World Englishes (including *English Today*, *World Englishes*, and *English World-Wide*). **Research from some of these journals and *Global Englishes: A Resource Book for Students* must be cited and appear in your digital project.**

All students are required to take the online [“How to Recognize Plagiarism: Tutorials and Tests”](#) and then submit a certificate indicating successful completion.

Introduction

The introduction to each country should include information on geography, history, population, politics, religions, education, and languages (with a focus on the English language). Current data from *The World FactBook* should be cited although only cite this resource when including direct quotations. (A note about use of *The World Fact Book* for statistics appears on the website.) Include the following at the end of your introduction: your name, quarter and year (as in Smith, Fall 2015).

Other Material for Digital Project

Develop a detailed historical timeline of important events concerning the introduction and spread of English.

Also comment on the following concerning the English language in your chosen country:

Introduction and spread of English

Government decisions and implementation of English

Media including publications, newspapers and magazines, and film in or about English

Fun facts related to English (optional).

Questions

Make sure to address the following questions as well as other relevant issues:

- When was the English language introduced in your country? How? By whom? In what domains?
- What is the status of the English language in relation to other foreign and local languages? What is the status of English in terms of the functions or domains for which it is used?
- What are the motivations or interests behind the introduction, status shifts, and/or current uses of English in various contexts?
- What would be the implications if English becomes an official language in these contexts? (e.g., benefits, risks, transformative effects)
- What are the major linguistic features of the English variety or varieties used in your country?
- What are the similarities and differences between the English variety or varieties in your country and neighboring countries in the region?
- What is the role of politics, trade, education, tourism, foreign aid, and mass media in English language policy and planning in your country?
- How can you illustrate the specific English variety or varieties in your country in videos,

Appendices

audio recording, or other types of media?

Written Expression, Content, and Presentation

The digital project should reflect research on the English language in your country. Make sure to identify the research conducted by others as well as the original research you have conducted.

Written expression, content, and presentation are all important.

Written Expression

*Edit work prior to submitting it. Problems with word choice, sentence structure, spelling, capitalization, and even "it's versus its" should be corrected before submission.

*Avoid non-linguistic terms such as "accent," and use the IPA when necessary.

*Use "percent" rather than "%" and avoid contractions. Pay attention to the use of commas and periods with quotation marks. A "References" section should appear for works cited.

Content

*Only photos from your own personal collection or from [Pixabay](https://pixabay.com/) (with copyright free photos) are to be used in the digital project. All other charts, diagrams, and images must be cited with the body of your project and in References.

*Wikipedia or other general encyclopedic works are not to be used or cited. Make sure to consult original sources.

*Make sure to demonstrate your creativity in creating videos, interviewing authorities, or analyzing material. Go beyond simply summarizing.

*Also briefly cite relevant research in journals focusing on World Englishes and related publications.

*Include material that is relevant to the country you have selected, and focus on the introduction and spread of English. When necessary, explain the rationale for the inclusion of certain materials.

Presentation

*Use of Weebly is required for the website and use of either Prezi or TimeGlider is required for the timeline.

***The URL must include "English" and digital project country.**

*Inclusion of videos and audio recordings, photos, diagrams, and presentation programs are required.

*Avoid making the digital project overly "text heavy," and consider innovative ways to illustrate your findings.

*Make sure to include a "button" or link back to the homepage at <https://worldenglishesprojects.weebly.com/>.

Technical Guidelines

Each digital project must fully function when presented and submitted.

Avoid flash or wave files or Java script. Be careful about size and time required to access the website. Do not include 4k videos.

The maximum window size is 640 x 480.

Make sure the content can be accessed and read on smart phones.

Videos must be less than two minutes, and audio must be less than 30 seconds.

Each digital project must be ADA compliant with a link to a transcription or summary of visual images, videos, and audio recordings.

Appendix I3: The World Englishes Website

Website Description

“These digital projects focus on the introduction and spread of the English language. Description and analysis of linguistic features of Englishes are included. Attention is also paid to the sectors in which Englishes are used. Unless otherwise noted, statistics cited are from The World Factbook, and photos included are public domain. The projects were created by university students in California and Morocco”.

John Battenburg, Professor of English

California Polytechnic State University

Website link: <https://worldenglishesprojects.weebly.com/>

AFRICA <https://worldenglishesprojects.weebly.com/africa.html>

ASIA <https://worldenglishesprojects.weebly.com/asia.html>

EUROPE <https://worldenglishesprojects.weebly.com/europe.html>

MIDDLE EAST <https://worldenglishesprojects.weebly.com/middle-east.html>

OCEANIA <https://worldenglishesprojects.weebly.com/oceania.html>

THE AMERICAS <https://worldenglishesprojects.weebly.com/the-americas.html>

Appendix I4: Exploring World Englishes in Digital Spaces

Exploring World Englishes in Digital Spaces

John Battenburg, San Luis Obispo, CA, United Kingdom

“World Englishes is a recent yet important field within linguistics. Basically, the study of World Englishes deals with recording and analyzing varieties of English emerging in various countries. Rather than simply present material on the introduction and spread of World Englishes within his classes, the presenter asked his students to create knowledge about these varieties of Englishes. In the past three years, students have conducted original research on the current status of English in approximately 100 countries. Using the Weebly platform, they have analyzed issues such as the role of English in education, the implementation of English in various sectors, and the use of English in media. These graduate and undergraduate student researchers have interviewed family members and government officials while also illustrating their findings in videos, photos, and charts. While Pannapacker (2009) has described the digital humanities as “the next big thing,” and Kirschenbaum (2010) has emphasized the social component within such collaborative research, much remains to be discovered about how successful classroom-based projects are created. Cordell (2015) suggests four principles: “Start Small, Integrate When Possible, Scaffold Everything, and Think Locally.” The presenter will explain and illustrate these principles with the creation of the World Englishes Digital Projects”.

<p>E-LEARNING & INNOVATIVE PEDAGOGIES CONFERENCE</p> <p>EXPLORING WORLD ENGLISHES IN DIGITAL SPACES</p> <p>John Battenburg California Polytechnic State University</p>	<p>Cal Poly: “Learn by Doing”</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Challenges with “Learn by Doing” in the humanities and social sciences ■ Pannapacker (2009) describes the digital humanities as “the next big thing.” ■ Kirschenbaum (2010) emphasizes the social component with collaborative digital projects. ■ Cordell (2015) suggests four principles: “Start Small, Integrate When Possible, Scaffold Everything, and Think Locally.”
<p>Earlier Collaborative Online Digital Projects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Previous projects include California Central Coast Online Dictionary and Cal Poly IPA Website. ■ The California Central Coast Online Dictionary was created from 1999 to 2004 and featured in “Studentspeak Taken Seriously at Language Site,” <i>New York Times</i>, June 24, 1999. Over 600 dictionary entries compiled by students on the lexicon of the California Central Coast. ■ The Cal Poly IPA Website was created from 1999 to 2000, a digital tutorial about articulatory phonetics for English, French, German, and Spanish. 	<p>World Englishes Website</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The World Englishes Website, created in 2015, focuses on the introduction and spread of World Englishes in various countries. ■ Basically, the study of World Englishes deals with recording and analyzing varieties of English emerging in various countries. Rather than simply present material on the introduction and spread of World Englishes within his classes, the presenter asked students to create knowledge about these varieties of Englishes. ■ In the past three years, students have conducted original research on the current status of English in approximately 100 countries. Using the Weebly platform, they have analyzed issues such as the role of English in education, the implementation of English in various sectors, and the use of English in media.

Earlier Collaborative Online Digital Projects

- Previous projects include [California Central Coast Online Dictionary](#) and [Cal Poly IPA Website](#).
- The California Central Coast Online Dictionary was created from 1999 to 2004 and featured in "Studentspeak Taken Seriously at Language Site," *New York Times*, June 24, 1999. Over 600 dictionary entries compiled by students on the lexicon of the California Central Coast.
- The Cal Poly IPA Website was created from 1999 to 2000, a digital tutorial about articulatory phonetics for English, French, German, and Spanish.

World Englishes Website

- The [World Englishes Website](#), created in 2015, focuses on the introduction and spread of World Englishes in various countries.
- Basically, the study of World Englishes deals with recording and analyzing varieties of English emerging in various countries. Rather than simply present material on the introduction and spread of World Englishes within his classes, the presenter asked students to create knowledge about these varieties of Englishes.
- In the past three years, students have conducted original research on the current status of English in approximately 100 countries. Using the Weebly platform, they have analyzed issues such as the role of English in education, the implementation of English in various sectors, and the use of English in media.

World Englishes Website

- Graduate and undergraduate student researchers in California and Morocco have interviewed family members and government officials while also illustrating their findings in videos, photos, and charts.
- Although Moroccan students were unfamiliar with using this technology, student reflections about creating such digital projects were quite similar.
- Many comments dealt with audience, creativity, use of technology, and conducting first-hand research.

Features with World Englishes Digital Projects

- Projects reflecting family connections to [El Salvador](#), [Iran](#), and [Mauritania](#)
- Interviews about English in [North Korea](#) and [Ukraine](#)
- Description and analysis of current events in [Zimbabwe](#)
- Personal photos of [Rwanda](#) and [Uganda](#)
- Timeline of introduction and spread of English in [Argentina](#) and [the Netherlands](#)
- Translation challenges with [Armenian](#) and [Chinese](#) to English
- Linguistic characteristics of English in [India](#) and [Pakistan](#)
- Use of charts and diagrams to present date in [Denmark](#) and [Papua New Guinea](#)
- Examples of English in education, media, tourism, and other sections in [Malaysia](#) and [Myanmar](#)

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Student Reflections on Creating Digital Projects on World Englishes

■ Audience

"The digital project can reach a very large audience because it is in a digital medium."

"There advantages to developing a digital project it easier to connect with people from the around the world."

"An obvious benefit of a digital project is that it can find a much more widespread audience. A physical paper would likely only be read by the professor."

"I got to learn a lot about life abroad and I think I've gained a friend, as a result."

Student Reflections on Creating Digital Projects on World Englishes

■ Creativity

"It felt more creative than a typical research paper or PowerPoint. It gave me more freedom to express my ideas in ways other than a typical writing assignment."

"The digital project engaged me more than a research project. It required me to use more parts of my brain. I usually do not have to think too much about formatting, art, and aesthetics when I write papers for my English classes. I really like that I can take pride in both the content and the appearance."

"It is visually and mentally stimulating, as users can interact with the website."

"I found the openness of the format exciting and tried my best to format an informational project site in the most effective way I thought I could."

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Student Reflections on Creating Digital Projects on World Englishes

■ Collaboration

"It really sparked a reason for the students in the class to talk to each other, bounce ideas off one other, and ask each other for help. In my experience, writing a research paper definitely does not spark the same dynamic."

"We all kept messaging classmates for assistance."

"While looking at past projects for inspiration, I found myself reading the websites and learning a lot about Englishes in those respective countries."

Student Reflections on Creating Digital Projects on World Englishes

■ Use of technology

"I also enjoyed being learning how to create a website. This experience has inspired me to want to incorporate a similar project in my future classroom. "

"If I desire, I can conduct additional research on the topic of English in Namibia and update the site down the line."

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Student Reflections on Creating Digital Projects on World Englishes

■ Conducting research

"The digital project helped me develop skills in analyses and critical investigation."

"Technology was an essential asset to this project. It provided a medium for the information as well as a means of acquiring it. Without technology I would not have been able to access nearly as much information as I did nor would I have been able to contact the person I interviewed. The digital project can reach a very large audience because it is in a digital medium."

"I really enjoyed creating a website as it is more tangible and accessible than a paper."

Appendix J1: Changing Englishes: An Online Course for Teachers (source: Hall & Wicaksono, 2020)

English, like all languages, is constantly changing. But in these globalising times, it is changing at a faster pace and in a greater number of contexts of use than ever before. [Non-native](#) users, including learners and teachers, are the agents of much of this dynamism, bringing to English the rich influences of their local languages and cultural contexts. They are also recrafting English to serve as a [lingua franca](#) between users of different first languages. The idea of English as a foreign language, belonging to native speakers only, is rapidly passing. And referring to English in the singular-which has always misrepresented its diversity-is no longer adequate.

Changing Englishes is an urgent issue for teachers. This online course is designed to help you meet the challenges it poses and to make the most of the opportunities it offers.

ABOUT CHANGING ENGLISHES

This course was originally written by Christopher J Hall with Rachel Wicaksono in 2013, and fully updated and revised in 2019 and 2023. The original version was supported by a British Council ELT Research Partnership award and a grant from the York St John Business School. The course is an output from the ELT Research Partnership award scheme funded by the British Council to promote innovation in English language teaching research. The views expressed are not necessarily those of the British Council.

This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. You are free to download all material in MS Word format here (<https://changingenglishes.online/adapting/>).

HOW TO REFERENCE THE COURSE

Hall, C. J. and Wicaksono, R. (2024). *Changing Englishes: An online course for teachers* (v.03). Online. Available at www.changingenglishes.online.

WHO THE COURSE IS FOR

This course is for teachers of English as an additional language, whether in training or with different amounts of experience, who are open to new ways of thinking about their profession and are interested in English as it is used around the world, as a *lingua franca* or for interacting in predominantly non-native speaker contexts.

OVERVIEW OF THE COURSE

Here's an overview of the material we'll cover on the course and the issues we'll be asking you to think about.

Introduction

Who the course is for, what it's about, how it works, and how to get credit.

Unit 1 Defining English

This unit introduces the idea of alternative monolithic and 'plurilithic' conceptions of English. We discuss the status of 'Standard English', and you are invited to weigh the advantages and disadvantages of using it as the only target for learning/teaching. We then move on to consider what exactly is meant by the 'rules' of English. The unit ends with a description of what we call the 'four dimensions of monolithism'.

Unit 2 Using English

In this unit we look at how English is actually used in its diverse contexts, starting out with its most frequent current use, as a lingua franca between non-native speakers. We discuss variety within and between native speakers of English and introduce Braj Kachru's model of World Englishes, inviting you to reflect on the idea of who 'owns' English. The unit continues with a discussion of scenarios in which English is used a lingua franca, and issues of how English users from different contexts of learning and use understand each other, including the involvement of the other languages they know.

Unit 3 Learning English

We start the unit by thinking about the traditional 'language as subject' perspective on classroom-based learning and contrast this with evidence about the ways in which learners actually construct their own 'object language', in their individual brains/minds, through usage. We spend considerable time on how children acquire their first language, because we believe that many of the same cognitive processes underpin second language acquisition (SLA). We revisit the concept of 'rules' from this cognitive perspective and suggest that some influential views of SLA reflect a deficit perspective in which learning is governed by external models and targets rather than the needs of diverse local learning contexts.

Unit 4 Teaching English

This unit invites you to focus on the teaching and testing implications of the plurilithic view of English presented in earlier units. We aim to challenge, to sensitise, to raise awareness and to provoke discussion, rather than to tell you what the implications for teaching and testing are in your classroom!

Unit 5 Changing English

In Unit 5, we make some practical suggestions about how the ideas presented in the course might be shared with your learners and teaching colleagues, and with policy-makers and the general public. We acknowledge the challenge of changing other people's ideas about English, but stress the importance of attempting to do so!

WHAT THE COURSE IS ABOUT

The course invites visitors to ask the following questions:

- What *is* English?
- How is it *used* beyond the classroom
- How is it *learned* in the classroom
- How is it *learned* beyond the classroom
- What does this mean for my *teaching*
- How can I influence *policy* about English learning, teaching, and use?

Unlike many resources and discussions in English Language Teaching, it concentrates on *what* English teachers (should) teach and learners (should) learn, rather than on *how* teachers (should) teach it.

WHAT THE COURSE IS FOR

This course has two principal objectives:

- to help raise teachers' awareness of the variable and dynamic nature of global and local Englishes and to reflect on implications for professional practice and policy formation.

Appendices

- to engage teachers in the process of developing learning and teaching strategies which respond to the reality of global Englishes but which are relevant for their local needs and contexts.

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Changing Englishes comes with a range of additional resources to support your learning. For each unit, there's an annotated list of additional readings, together with a selection of interesting websites. A glossary provides accessible definitions for all technical terms.

View resources: <https://changingenglishes.online/resources/>

Glossary: <https://changingenglishes.online/glossary/>

HOW TO ADAPT

If you are a teacher trainer, you could consider using Changing Englishes as part of a teacher development programme, or one-off workshop, for teachers in your school, city or region. The course is published under a Creative Commons licence, which means that you are free to use, and adapt, its contents to suit the needs of your trainees.

Find out more: <https://changingenglishes.online/adapting/>

Appendix J2: Changing Englishes: An Online Course for Teachers (Self-Assessment Tool, source: Hall & Wicaksono, 2020)

This tool is designed to check your levels of awareness and belief regarding monolithic and plurilithic concepts of English.

On the next few pages are 24 statements about ELT and English around the world.

Indicate the strength of your agreement or disagreement using one of the following four options:

Strongly agree

Agree

Disagree

Strongly disagree

Note: The online version of this tool will automatically calculate your score and provide feedback. For this pdf version, you will need to score it yourself using the information on this page.

Appendices

1. No two people know identical versions of English.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
2. The use of English as a Lingua Franca between non-native speakers will diminish the expressive capacity of the language.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
3. It is better if learners of English avoid the 'non-standard' use of English found on the Internet.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
4. The distinction between learners and users of English will become increasingly blurred.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
5. The acquisition of native-speaker proficiency in English is a goal that all students should aim for.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
6. Asian varieties of English are just as legitimate as British or American varieties.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
7. Exposure to different varieties of English will only confuse learners.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
8. The increasing diversification of English through contact with other languages is a positive development.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
9. The continued spread of English around the world will increase the political, cultural and economic power of the USA.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
10. A focus on task achievement is more motivating than a focus on accuracy.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
11. It is right for native speakers of English to correct non-native speakers when they make mistakes.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
12. English belongs to its native speakers and never to its non-native users.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
13. Indian English words should be excluded from the Oxford English Dictionary.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
14. The teaching and testing of a single standard English makes it difficult to meet the needs of different kinds and levels of students.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
15. In an international setting, non-native-like uses of English might be more effective for communicative success.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
16. The English I teach is the same as the English used in native-speaking countries.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
17. "Perfect English" is an illusory concept.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐

Appendices

18. The commercial dominance of the USA and UK in the ELT sector will be increasingly challenged by new international varieties of English.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
19. English teachers should have native-like accents.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
20. When a native speaker and a non-native speaker experience misunderstanding, the problem is as likely to lie with either of them.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
21. In some contexts, non-native patterns of English can be seen as part of a user's identity rather than simply as errors.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
22. Teaching and testing a single standard English restricts the development of learners' communicative competence.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
23. When I speak English outside the classroom, I follow the rules that I teach to my students.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐
24. Native speaker teachers of English from the USA, UK, Canada and New Zealand will be increasingly in demand over the coming decades.
Strongly agree ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Strongly disagree** ☐

Scoring

Half the statements in the questionnaire reflect a more monolithic concept of English, and half a more plurilithic concept. So “strongly agree” for monolithically-oriented statements are scored the same as “strongly disagree” for plurilithically-oriented statements. The statements were ordered randomly, so the following table should be used for scoring.

Appendices

Ring your responses and sum the numbers to find your score					
	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
1.	1	2	3	4	
2.	4	3	2	1	
3.	4	3	2	1	
4.	1	2	3	4	
5.	4	3	2	1	
6.	1	2	3	4	
7.	4	3	2	1	
8.	1	2	3	4	
9.	4	3	2	1	
10.	1	2	3	4	
11.	4	3	2	1	
12.	4	3	2	1	
13.	4	3	2	1	
14.	1	2	3	4	
15.	1	2	3	4	
16.	4	3	2	1	
17.	1	2	3	4	
18.	1	2	3	4	
19.	4	3	2	1	
20.	1	2	3	4	
21.	1	2	3	4	
22.	1	2	3	4	
23.	4	3	2	1	
24.	4	3	2	1	
TOTAL	— +	— +	— +	— =	Your score

Feedback

Scores between 24-42:

Your results indicate that **you orient strongly towards a plurilithic view of English**. Although you might already be very aware of some of the problems arising from an inflexibly monolithic position, taking the *Changing Englishes* course should help you gain relevant additional knowledge with which you can make more informed decisions regarding your future practice and more effectively engage others with the plurilithic perspective.

Scores between 43-60:

Your results indicate **that you orient towards a plurilithic view of English, although not strongly**. Although you might already be aware of some of the problems arising from an inflexibly monolithic position, taking the *Changing Englishes* course should help you gain relevant additional knowledge with which you can reflect further on your opinions and make more informed decisions regarding your future practice.

Scores between 61-78:

Your results indicate that **you orient towards a monolithic view of English, although not strongly**. We cannot predict whether your opinions will change as a result of taking the *Changing Englishes* course, although you are not completely inflexible, so it should help you gain relevant knowledge with which you can reflect on your opinions and make informed decisions regarding your future practice.

Scores between 79-96:

Your results indicate that **you orient strongly towards a monolithic view of English**. We cannot predict whether your opinions will change as a result of taking the *Changing Englishes* course, but whether they do or not, it should help you gain relevant knowledge with which you can reflect on your opinions and make informed decisions regarding your future practice.

Appendix J3: Changing Englishes: An Online Course for Teachers (Orientations to English Questionnaire, source: Hall & Wicaksono, 2024)

This tool is designed to check your levels of awareness and belief regarding monolithic and plurilithic orientations to English.

On the next few pages are 24 statements about ELT and English around the world.

Indicate the strength of your agreement or disagreement using one of the following four options:

- *Strongly disagree*
- *Disagree*
- *Not sure/neutral*
- *Agree*
- *Strongly agree*

Information on how to calculate and interpret your score is given on this page.

1. There is no single 'correct' version of English grammar.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

2. Native speakers are often the cause of misunderstandings in interactions with nonnative speakers.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

3. The versions of English that two native speakers of the language know can be as different from each other as those of two non-native speakers.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

4. Accuracy in English is a relative idea, determined by the variety being learned.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

5. 'Correct English' is more about social convention than communicative effectiveness.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

6. There are many Englishes in the world, including both native and non-native versions.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

7. European or Asian versions of English can be just as valuable as British or American versions.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

8. When non-native speakers interact with each other in English, the non-native forms they use to express themselves can sometimes be more effective than native-speaker forms.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

9. Trying to eliminate students' foreign accent in English is like trying to make native speakers lose their own regional accent, which is part of their identity.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

10. When different groups of non-native speakers use English in their own ways, their situation is similar to native speakers using a regional or social dialect.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

11. Some non-native uses of English (e.g. adding plural -s on 'non-count' nouns like *advice*) are actually more logical than native English forms.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

12. Automatically treating non-native forms of English as mistakes unfairly judges nonnative users as deficient.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

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13. Teachers should help learners develop the vocabulary and communicative strategies they need for interaction with other non-native users, rather than just with native speakers.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

14. As a learning outcome, what learners can do with their English is much more important than how close it is to native-speaker versions.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

15. Standardised international tests like IELTS and TOEFL don't effectively assess English for global communication.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

16. Teaching materials are closer reflections of the global use of English if they include both native and non-native accents.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

17. An ability to speak English effortlessly but 'inaccurately' will often be more useful to learners than 'accurate' but slow and effortful English.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

18. Official tests and curriculums which uniquely focus on Standard English can be obstacles to effective learning.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

19. English is enriched by its non-native speakers and the native languages they speak.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

20. Non-native speakers of English should be considered as owners and users of English in their own right, rather than as merely learners.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

21. ELT textbooks created and published in countries where English is not the main language can be just as authoritative as those published in the UK and USA.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

22. Teaching only British or American English limits learners' ability to interact effectively with people from different global cultures.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

23. It is no longer necessary for schools to look for native speakers only when hiring English teachers.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

24. When non-native speakers depend on British or American usage as a guide to 'correct English', this shows their unjustified insecurity.

Strongly disagree ☐ **Disagree** ☐ **Not sure/neutral** ☐ **Agree** ☐ **Strongly agree** ☐

Scoring

Score each of your responses as follows:

- *Strongly disagree: 1 point*
- *Disagree: 2 points*
- *Not sure/neutral: 3 points*
- *Agree 4 points*
- *Strongly agree 5 points*

The sum of these scores will give you a total out of 120. Interpret your score as follows:

Scores from 1 to 24:

Your results indicate that **you orient strongly towards a monolithic view of English**. We cannot predict whether your opinions will change as a result of taking the *Changing Englishes*

Appendices

course, but whether they do or not, it should help you gain relevant knowledge with which you can reflect on your opinions and make informed decisions regarding your future practice.

Scores from 25 to 48:

Your results indicate that **you orient towards a monolithic view of English, although not strongly**. We cannot predict whether your opinions will change as a result of taking the *Changing Englishes* course, although you are not completely inflexible, so it should help you gain relevant knowledge with which you can reflect on your opinions and make informed decisions regarding your future practice.

Scores from 49 to 72:

Your results indicate that **you do not orient consistently towards either a monolithic or a plurilithic view of English, or are neutral/unsure of your orientation**. We cannot predict whether you will form more definite opinions as a result of taking the *Changing Englishes* course, but it should help you gain relevant knowledge with which you can reflect on your position and make informed decisions regarding your future practice.

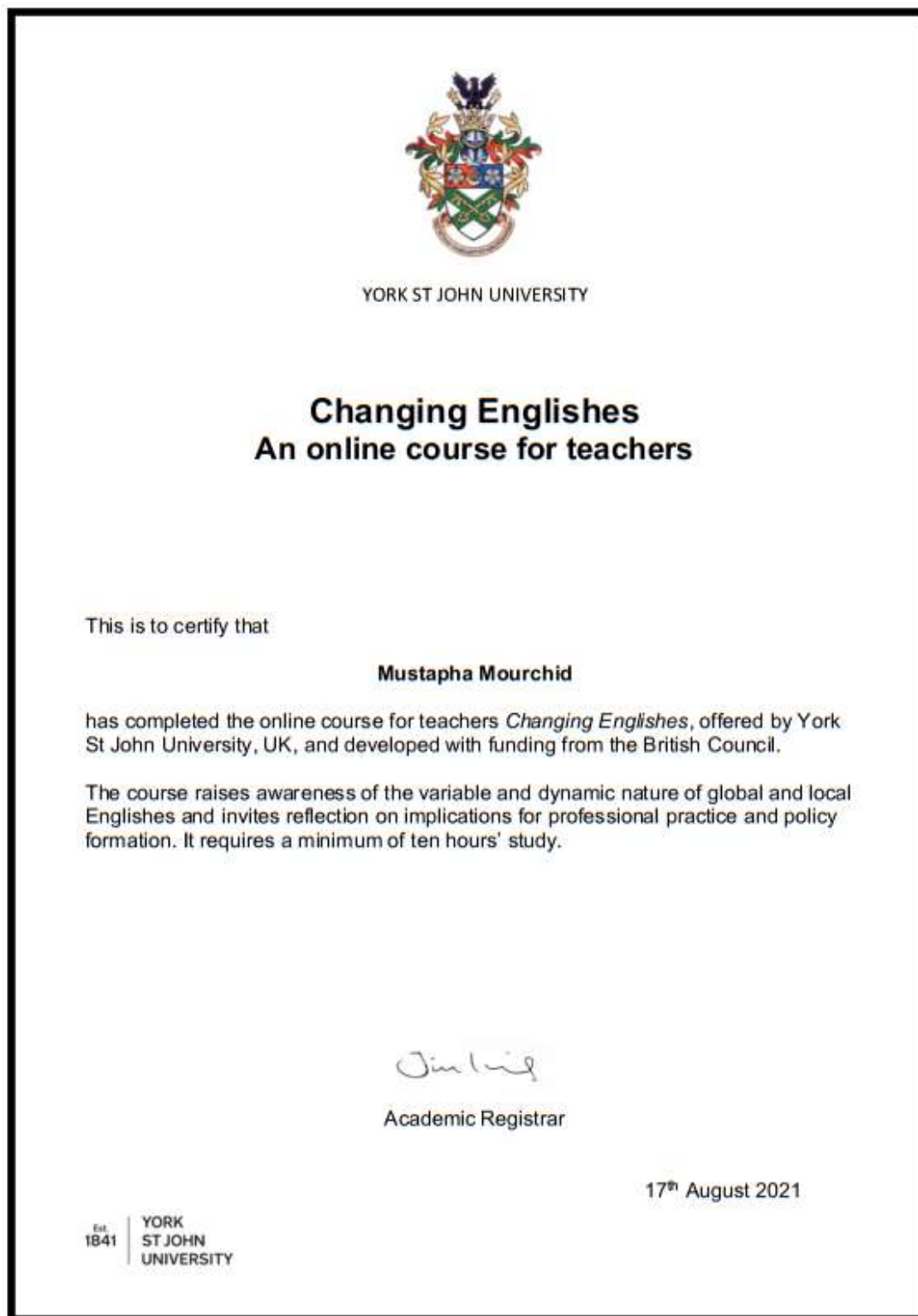
Scores from 73 to 96:

Your results indicate that **you orient towards a plurilithic view of English, although not strongly**. Although you might already be aware of some of the problems arising from an inflexibly monolithic position, taking the *Changing Englishes* course should help you gain relevant additional knowledge with which you can reflect further on your opinions and make more informed decisions regarding your future practice.

Scores from 97 to 120:

Your results indicate that **you orient strongly towards a plurilithic view of English**. Although you might already be very aware of some of the problems arising from an inflexibly monolithic position, taking the *Changing Englishes* course should help you gain relevant additional knowledge with which you can make more informed decisions regarding your future practice and more effectively engage others with the plurilithic perspective.

Appendix J4: My Certificates (Changing Englishes: An Online Course for Teachers, 2021, 2024)





YORK ST JOHN UNIVERSITY

Changing Englishes

An online course for teachers

Mustapha Mourchid

has completed the online course for teachers *Changing Englishes*, offered by York St John University, UK, and developed with funding from the British Council.

The course raises awareness of the variable and dynamic nature of global and local Englishes and invites reflection on implications for professional practice and policy formation. It requires a minimum of ten hours' study.

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read 'Pauli Robinson'.

Academic Registrar

2nd May 2024

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UNIVERSITY

Appendix K: Incorporating Global Englishes into the ELT Classroom (source: Galloway & Rose, 2018, pp. 11-12)

“Choose one of the countries from Kachru’s circles and investigate the history and use of English (grammar/pronunciation/loan words/attitudes, etc.) or examine the use of ELF in a specific domain (for example business). You have two weeks to research the topic. Use the library and self-access centre, and search on the internet for information. The following websites may help you start” (Galloway & Rose, 2018, p. 11)

<http://www.world-english.org/accent.htm>
<http://www.ic.arizona.edu/~lsp/main.html>
<http://www.une.edu.au/langnet/>
<http://www.pbs.org/speak/seatosea/americanvarieties/smokies/>
<http://dialectsarchive.com/>
<http://sounds.bl.uk/>
<http://www.bl.uk/learning/langlit/sounds/>
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/voices/>
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=StHBkhpTKsE>
<http://goodenglish.org.sg/>
http://www.ling.upenn.edu/phono_atlas/home.html
<http://aschmann.net/AmEng/#LargeMap>
<http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/>
<http://www.univie.ac.at/voice/>
<http://corpus.ied.edu.hk/ace/>

Appendix L: Phonology as a Tool for Global Englishes Language Teacher Education (source: Jeong, 2021, pp. 252-255)

Curriculum of phonology for Global Englishes (GE) teachers

- The curriculum is meant for 60 to 80 hours of student learning of phonology, as an independent course, or as part of a course, such as “Linguistics for Teachers,” “Language Awareness for Teachers” or “Teaching Speaking and Listening.”
- The curriculum is supplemented with five interactive PowerPoint presentations, which include full content for both teaching (lecturing), student activities/ engagement, and instructions for assignments. Get the presentations at <https://tinyurl.com/yy5n8hq8>. The interactive features and audios of the presentations require the installation of Microsoft PowerPoint in the computer.
- The readings included in the curriculum are freely accessible through the links provided in the presentations.
- The portfolio assignment can be done as a voiceover PowerPoint presentation.
- For continuous assessment/feedback, students can bring their own portfolios to class (campus mode), or they can share the link to their portfolio files with the lecturer (campus/distance mode).
- The completed portfolio is to be submitted for grading, and student learning outcomes for each session can be used as criteria.

Table 154 Curriculum of Phonology for Global Englishes (GE) Teachers (source: Jeong, 2021, pp. 253-255)

Sessions	Rationale	Student Learning Outcomes (i.e. Objectives)	Readings	Student Learning Activities & Engagement	Instructional Materials	Portfolio Assignment for Assessment
1	Motivating the need for learning phonology from is GE perspective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe diversity of English accents in global contexts. • Describe what it means by learning phonology from a GE perspective • Critically discuss native speakerism in teaching and learning English. 	1 Is teaching English as an International Language all about being politically correct? (Matsuda, 2018).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Listen to the lecture (campus mode) or study PowerPoint 1 (distance mode) • Share about own English pronunciation development • Discuss diversity in English accents and native speakerism 	Interactive PowerPoint 1	Begin to work on the portfolio: discuss own view on English pronunciation.
2	Exploring and legitimating the pronunciation features of diverse English accents, including students' own pronunciations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Define concepts for describing English consonants. • Describe their own consonants by applying the concepts • Discuss the diversity of consonants in diverse GE accents. 	World Englishes and global communication (Lewis & Deterding, 2019).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Class routines for Sessions 2 (consonants), 3 (vowels) and 4 (supra-segmental features) can be: • Begin with group discussion of the reading assigned at the last session. 	Interactive PowerPoint 2	Continue to work on the portfolio: describe own consonants.

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Sessions	Rationale	Student Learning Outcomes (i.e. Objectives)	Readings	Student Learning Activities & Engagement	Instructional Materials	Portfolio Assignment for Assessment
3		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Define concepts for English vowels. Describe their own vowels by applying the concepts. Discuss the diversity of consonants in diverse GE accents. 	Variation or error? Perception of pronunciation variation and implication for assessment (Lindemann, 2017).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to the lecture (campus mode) or study the PowerPoint presentation (distance mode). Discover/ explore their own pronunciation Discuss/share experiences with the pronunciations of international interlocutors 	Interactive PowerPoint 3	Continue to work on the portfolio: describe own vowels.

Sessions	Rationale	Student Learning Outcomes (i.e. Objectives)	Readings	Student Learning Activities & Engagement	Instructional Materials	Portfolio Assignment for Assessment
4		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Define concepts for describing supra-segmental features of English sound. Describe their own and speech samples' prosodic features by applying the concepts. Discuss the diversity of consonants in diverse GE accents 	Intonation systems across varieties of English (Grice, German & Warren, 2020)		Interactive PowerPoint 4	Continue to work the portfolio: describe own supra-segmental features.
5	Informing guidelines for achieving speaker intelligibility and listener intelligibility in international contexts.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe guidelines for speaker intelligibility in GE contexts. Evaluate their own speaker intelligibility in view of the guidelines. Discuss the diversity of consonants in diverse GE accents. 	Pedagogic priorities 2: Negotiating intelligibility in the ELT classroom (Jenkins, 2000).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Group discussion of the reading assigned at the last session. Listen to the lecture (campus mode) or study the PowerPoint presentation (distance mode). Peer-evaluation of speaker intelligibility in pairs. Discuss strategies for listener intelligibility. 	Interactive PowerPoint 5	Finalize the portfolio: add evaluation of own speaker intelligibility; analyze a GE speaker for improving listener intelligibility; discuss how to apply phonology (learned from the course) to own teaching.

Appendix M: Supporting the Teaching of Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT) Through Voki (source: Karakaş, 2023, pp. 2-4)

“Voki, accessible via web and mobile platforms such as iOS, Android and Chrome, offers a free account with limited resources and a 15-day trial. Once registered at <https://l-www.voki.com/>, users can create a free account with limited access to resources. The premium version, which users can upgrade to, provides expanded character options, advanced audio features and more storage. This allows the creation of speaking avatars in over 30 languages for diverse teaching purposes. Voki supports multiple English dialects with personalized and student-made recordings, although the free version limits some of these features (Voki, 2023)” (Karakaş, 2023, p. 2).

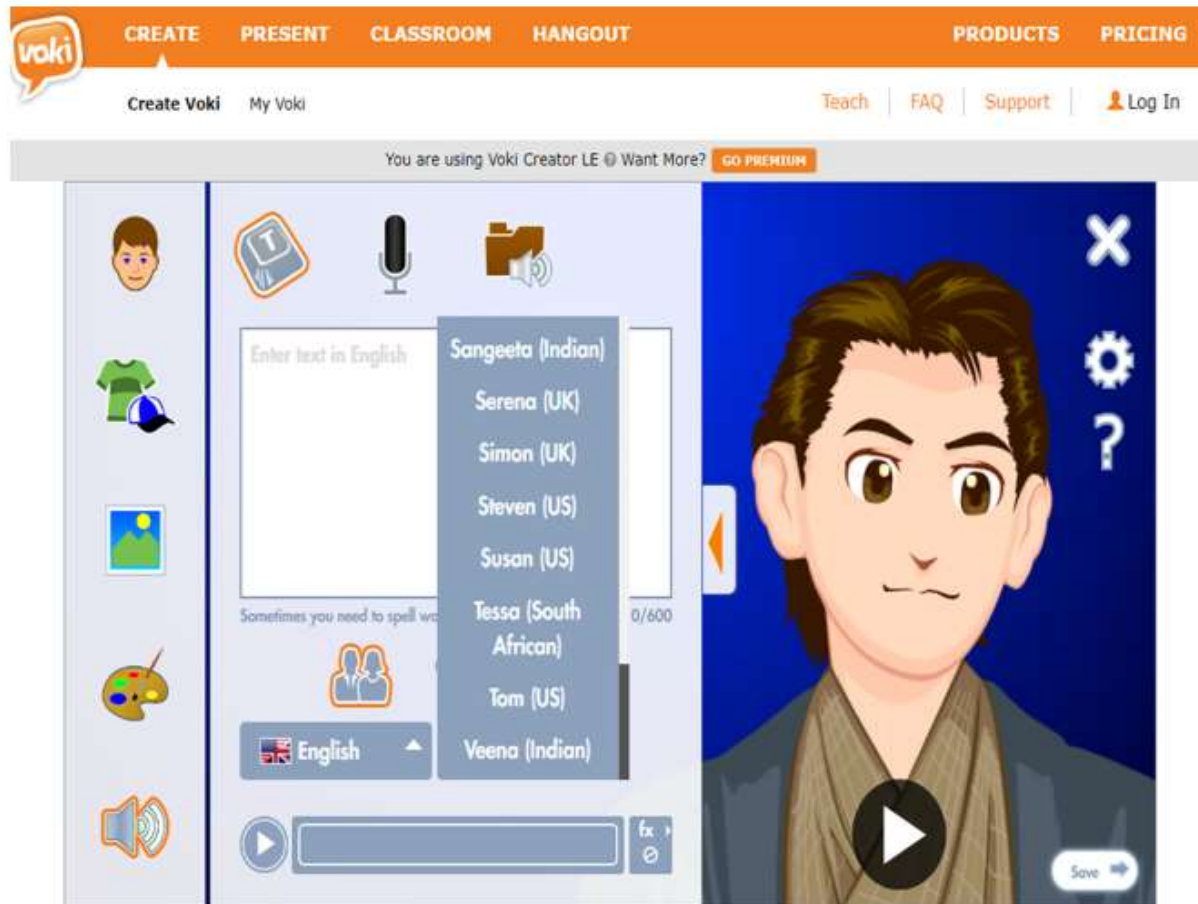
“As for English, Voki offers speakers of different Englishes, for example, United States, Irish, British, African and Indian Englishes, with male or female voiceovers. Teachers can type in the textbox whatever they want avatars to utter and also create their own audio recordings, add student-made recordings and recordings of multiculturally diverse speakers, rendering the avatars more personalized and relevant to students’ needs and the current profile of English speakers (see the screenshots below). However, the free version gives limited utilization of these features (e.g., limited characters, advertising, limited recording time and limited storage)” (Karakaş, 2023, p. 2).



“As shown in the characters above, teachers can type dialogue or add personal and student recordings to the avatars, though the free version restricts these features. Usage of the tool requires no advanced technical skills. Teachers can leverage Voki for Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT), promoting communication skills and awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity over native-speakerism (Boonsuk et al., 2022: 3). Technical glitches and compatibility issues are minor drawbacks, as are potential inaccuracies in text-to-speech nuance capture (Karakaş, 2017). These issues can be mitigated with the premium version and use on compatible platforms, and further enhanced by using authentic accent recordings. Pedagogically, synthesized voices may limit interaction, but integrating artificial intelligence-powered activities can elevate engagement. Hybrid usage of Voki with other tools such as Storynory (<https://www.storynory.com/>) can also overcome these limitations” (Karakaş, 2023, p. 2).

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Here is a screenshot that demonstrates how the tool can be integrated into speaking/listening classes by following certain steps:



- 1) Choose an avatar.
- 2) Choose from other options (clothing, colour or background).
- 3) Type in the box what the avatar is desired to say and select the target Voki voice, or record voice, or upload a previously recorded audio file.
- 4) After customization, save and share it.

“In sum, Voki is a valuable tool for language teaching and learning. Its user-friendly interface and customization options make it a beneficial tool for teachers to create engaging and personalized learning experiences for their students and for students to engage and collaborate in language classes with confidence. Additionally, its ability to support GELT pedagogy by exposing students to a range of English accents and dialects makes it an important resource for language educators in today’s globalized world. For those who are looking for a creative and interactive way to enhance their language teaching, Voki is definitely worth exploring. In closing, whether teachers are teaching English as a second language or another language entirely, Voki can help them to create dynamic and engaging learning experiences that will inspire and motivate students by raising their awareness about linguistic diversity. For those interested in learning more about the tool, the following links to additional information and resources may be rather useful” (Karakaş, 2023, p. 4).

- Official website link to explore the tool – <https://www.voki.com/site/create>
- Voki tutorial – <https://mooreti.edublogs.org/files/2012/12/Voki-Tutorial-1pcw73a.pdf>
- Online communities/forums where users discuss and share their experiences with using Voki) – <https://community.voki.com/>

Appendix N: More Digital Resources for Teaching World Englishes

The Speech Accent Archive

(<https://accent.gmu.edu/>)

“Everyone who speaks a language, speaks it with an accent. A particular accent essentially reflects a person's linguistic background. When people listen to someone speak with a different accent from their own, they notice the difference, and they may even make certain biased social judgments about the speaker. The speech accent archive is established to uniformly exhibit a large set of speech accents from a variety of language backgrounds. Native and non-native speakers of English all read the same English paragraph and are carefully recorded. The archive is constructed as a teaching tool and as a research tool. It is meant to be used by linguists as well as other people who simply wish to listen to and compare the accents of different English speakers. This website allows users to compare the demographic and linguistic backgrounds of the speakers in order to determine which variables are key predictors of each accent. The speech accent archive demonstrates that accents are systematic rather than merely mistaken speech” (Weinberger, 2015).

“The Archive is a growing annotated corpus of English speech varieties. All samples include a complete digital audio version and a narrow phonetic transcription. Each speaker is located geographically and crucial demographic parameters are supplied” (Weinberger and Kunath, 2011, p. 265).

“The Speech Accent Archive was started at George Mason University in 1999. It originally began as a teaching project for a graduate phonetics class. Students were to gather, record, and analyze the speech of non-native speakers of English. It started as a relatively small collection of speech samples that illustrated the various phonological difficulties that second language learners had when producing English speech sounds. The archive quickly surpassed the local pedagogical needs of our phonetics class and has acquired a life of its own on the internet. The project has evolved through many web-based iterations, and is now a relatively large and comprehensive source of English speech accents and affiliated resources. An audio sample, a phonetic transcription, and demographic information about each speaker are included. The Archive is stored as a MySQL database and accessed via a PHP web interface. It now includes both native and non-native varieties of spoken English from over 165 countries. The Archive continues to grow with new samples added weekly. As of March 2011, there were 1422 speech samples represented” (Weinberger and Kunath, 2011, p. 266).

HEL (History of the English Language) on the Web

(<https://sites.google.com/view/helontheweb/>)

“This website puts together abundant Web resources useful for studying, teaching and researching the history of the English language (commonly abbreviated as HEL). They are classified into appropriate categories”.

Studying Varieties of English

(http://www.raymondhickey.com/index_%28SVE%29.html)

“The present website offers information about varieties of English around the world. It contains factual information about these varieties but also summaries and discussions of the methods used in variety studies and the various theoretical proposals for analysing varieties of English. To consult any of the modules click on a link in one of the following lists. The present module shows what is contained in the website thematically. If you don't find something via the theme list, try the options in the tree on the left (make sure you open the branches by clicking on the plus sign). If you click on an option below you can return to the theme list by clicking on the

button *back* at the top of the window you have moved to (hitting the LeftArrow-key while holding the Alt-key down has the same effect) or just click on the option *Themes* in the tree on the left. You can also search the website for text content. A wide range of definitions with extensive information are contained in the glossary. There is also a module offering technical help”.

The Bochum Gateway to World Englishes

(<https://www.ruhr-uni-bochum.de/wegate/>)

“World Englishes is a framework which studies the forms and functions as well as the sociolinguistic and political contexts of English in the diverse forms it assumes throughout the world. Since the conceptualisation of World Englishes in the 1960s, a vast number of publications and websites have become available for the study of the world-wide varieties of English. Many of these provide excellent information and high quality sound files. WE Gate provides a portal that aims at preventing students from getting lost in cyberspace, and that offers suggestions and exercises for suitable sites”.

“WE Gate is intended to provide additional input in this area of study, particularly at the BA level. To foster students' autonomous study, in particular of real language data, WE Gate presents reviews of existing websites, but also of books, scientific papers, cassettes, videos and CD-ROMs. In addition, material developed in a research project on Englishes on the African continent will be made available. And for those students whose interest is in cultural studies, there are literature and film tips”.

“WE Gate is a largely student driven project in that the majority of reviews and exercises is provided by advanced students of applied English linguistics, who compile these reviews as part of their course requirements. Thus, WE Gate will grow gradually into a long term project from students for students”.

“Please use the links in the top and left frame to navigate the site. The Introduction provides you with tips for general readings and websites which cover the World Englishes broadly. The other links in the top frame take you to those countries where English plays an important role on the five continents”.

Language Varieties

(<https://www.hawaii.edu/satocenter/langnet/index.html>)

“This site is about varieties of language that differ from the standard variety that is normally used in the media and taught in the schools. These include pidgins, creoles, regional dialects, minority dialects and indigenized varieties. Many people think that these varieties are just incorrect ways of speaking, but they're not; they're just different! These varieties have their own ways of pronouncing words, their own special vocabulary and even their own grammatical rules. For example, in American English, you can say, "She's gotten better." But in British English you'd say, "She's got better." People don't think one way is right and one way is wrong - just that they're different. It's the same with the language varieties described in this site”.

The International Dialects of English Archive (IDEA)

(<https://www.dialectsarchive.com/>)

“The International Dialects of English Archive was created in 1998 as the internet's first archive or primary-source recordings of English-language dialects and accents as heard around the world. With roughly 1,700 samples from 135 countries and territories, and more than 170 hours or recordings, IDEA is now the largest archive of its kind. IDEA's recordings are principally in English, are of native speakers, and include both English language dialects and English spoken in the accents of other languages. (Many include brief demonstrations of the speaker's native language, too.) The archive also includes extensive **Special Collections**.

Paul Meier is IDEA's founder, director, and principal contributor, personally collecting nearly 20 percent of the archive. He established IDEA to provide actors the real-life models they need for their characters' accents and dialects; many actors use his *Accents and Dialects for Stage and Screen* in conjunction with IDEA. But IDEA has proved invaluable in many other fields too; for example, it's a favorite tool of international business, helping personnel become familiar with their customers' accents and dialects".

Nicole Takeda, Academic Pathways – World Englishes

(<https://www.nicoletakeda.com/world-englishes.html>)

"This section would be most useful to university lecturers who teach applied linguistics, as well as those studying English as a second language who would like to go beyond Inner Circle Englishes. These 20 lectures are best suited for junior and senior students in linguistics or literature departments. The first 4 lectures, however, do review key sociolinguistic and linguistic terminology learned in freshman and sophomore linguistics courses. Each topic consists of 2 lectures, with 1 lecture being a 90-minute lesson. These are interactive slide presentations that allow students time to complete worksheets and to discuss themes. The lectures look at how English became a global language and how it evolved into different varieties. Lectures 1 to 4 investigate the relationship between the functions of language: communication, identity and culture. They cover issues, such as the spread of English throughout the world, the ownership of English, and linguistic prejudices. Lectures 5 to 20 analyze the differences and similarities among World Englishes, which includes inner, outer and expanding circle varieties. The textbook used in this course is Andy Kirkpatrick's *World Englishes: Implications for International Communication and English Language Teaching*".

Appendix O: Global Englishes: A Resource Book for Students (the Companion Website)

<https://routledgetextbooks.com/textbooks/9780415638449/>

Welcome to the companion website for *Global Englishes: A resource book for students*.

This website was designed to provide readers with supplementary resources to expand their understanding of English in the world.

The panel presents an overview of *additional exploratory activities*, which are organised according to the eight strands identified in the book, with at least two activities provided per strand. We recommend that you read the content of the strands before approaching the web activities, although this may not always be a requirement. All activities aim to encourage readers to develop their own critical thinking by questioning and evaluating a variety of key aspects in the field of Global Englishes, rather than seeking predefined 'correct' responses.

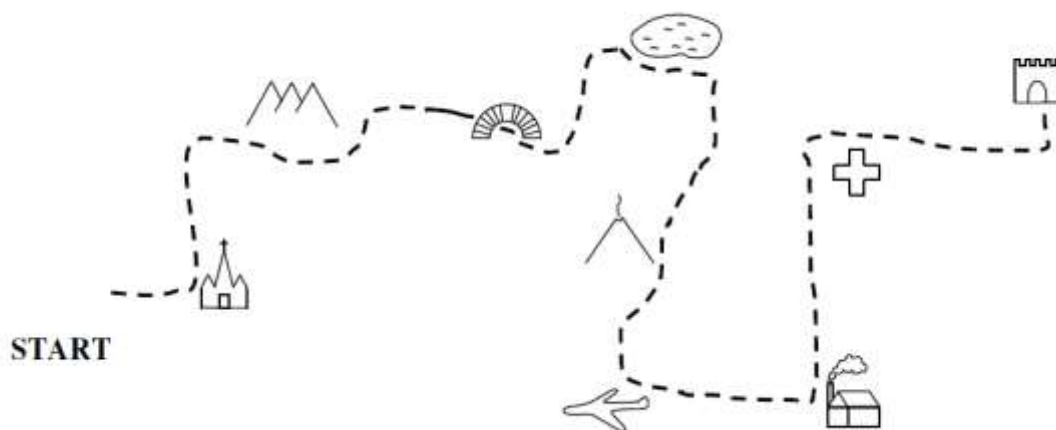
In addition, the website offers *flashcards* to help you revise main concepts, definitions, and acronyms that appear in the book. You will also find two *historical timelines* of the introduction and development of English in the contexts of Spain and Taiwan, and four *audio files* containing a series of recordings undertaken during the 'lunch breaks' of a group of postgraduate students at an international university. The provided timelines and audio files are simply examples of development of English in specific contexts and intercultural exchanges among speakers from various lingua-cultural backgrounds. They are not inclusive samples of potential English use due to the immense possibilities for variation that may occur depending on speakers, contexts, and purposes for which it may be taught, learned, and used.

Finally, we would like to point out that there is no prescribed way to use these materials. You may wish to integrate or adapt them in order to suit your needs as teachers, students, or language and linguistics enthusiasts.

Note: unless otherwise indicated, all page references on this website are to: Jenkins, J. (2015). *Global Englishes: A Resource Book for Students* (3rd Edn), London: Routledge.

Appendix P: Speech Collection: Map Task (source: McKenzie, 2006, 2008, 2010)

Please give directions from the START position to the Castle



Key

airport



mountains



lake



church



castle



hospital



bridge



factory



volcano



Appendix Q: The Ownership of English (source: Selvi et al., 2024, pp. 46-47)

“The ownership of English is inherently connected to one’s sociohistorical negotiation, construction, and reassertion of linguistic identity and legitimacy in relation to an immediate or imagined global linguistic community due to nativisation (e.g., Outer Circle contexts), transnational communication (e.g., Expanding Circle contexts), and quantitative asymmetry between ‘native’ and ‘non-native speakers’ around the world. Therefore, practical applications focusing on the ownership of English manifest themselves on at least four different levels: recognition, awareness-raising, identity, and participation. An essential prerequisite for individuals to claim an ownership with English as legitimate users is when they recognise manifestations of global ownership reflected, valued, and built upon in ELT practices. For this reason, different aspects of ELT, such as instructional materials (coming from various sources, representing diverse speakers in various roles), norms (a diverse range of Englishes), assessment practices (prioritising communicative competence), target interlocutors, and cultures (positive attitudes towards the diversity of user and cultural bases), should be aligned with changing dynamics and realities the new global linguistic order. Furthermore, English teachers may take deliberate and explicit steps towards sensitising their learners about the current status of English as a global lingua franca through readings, facts and statistics, in-class discussions, debates, case scenarios, and vignettes (see the lesson plans in the appendix of Galloway (2017) and activities on the companion website to Galloway and Rose (2015)). Learning both about (through instructional materials and activities) and for (through recognising, valuing, and building uses of English for communicative needs) EIL will recognise students as ‘speakers in their own right’ (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 185) and strategically position English ownership beyond the confines of idealised ‘native speaker’ realm. All stakeholders in ELT must afford complex, dynamic, and sophisticated spaces promoting legitimacy, intentionality, and critical self-reflexivity. To externalise learners’ positionality on the ownership of English continuum [see Figure 58 below], teachers, for example, may utilise in-depth personal interviews, narratives, poems, diaries, and critical autoethnographic narratives. These artefacts may offer glimpses of reflection for individuals to construct different positions, a range of identity options, and thereby degrees of ownership of the English language. This will enable teachers and users to adopt an intersectional approach to understanding different dimensions (e.g., history, race, ethnicity, and politics) influencing the ownership construct. Ultimately, these spaces of discussion and reflection showcasing one’s negotiation of expertise and legitimacy in the language will offer unique insights for teachers to learn more about the individuals they work with and their struggles, complexities, and worldviews as language users. Alternatively, teachers may use the continuum figure as a springboard for more discussion and critical reflection, and promotion of multilingual identities” (Selvi et al., 2024, pp. 46-47).

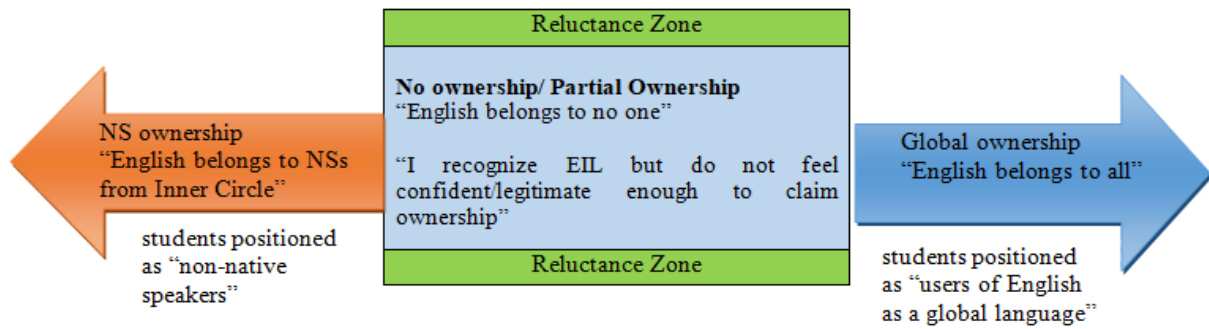


Figure 58 The Ownership of English Continuum (adapted from Selvi et al., 2024, p. 70)

Possible Discussion Questions:

1. Where would you position yourself on the continuum? Why?
2. What factors contribute to your decision?
3. Think about your language learning/using trajectory. Where would you position yourself at different points in time? Has your perception of the ownership changed in any way? What contributed to your perception?
4. To what extent do others (e.g., interlocutors and materials) recognise and value your position?

Appendix R: Titles of Some of the Webinars I Attended as Part of My Doctoral Training

The First Online Doctoral Seminar Series delivered by national and international experts in the field (May-July, 2020) Organised by Language, Culture and Society Doctoral Program (Faculty of Letters & Human Sciences, Mohammed V University, Rabat)

1. How to Write a Research Proposal by Prof. Yamina El Kirat
2. How to Write the Literature Review by Prof. Yamina El Kirat
3. The Qualitative Research Process: A Narrative Researcher's Perspective by Prof. McAlpine
4. Elements of Social Science Research Design by Prof. Mark Tessler
5. Research Instruments and Cross-cultural Validity by Prof. Ait Ourass
6. Writing the Methodology Chapter by Prof. Ahmed Chouari
7. Descriptive Statistics in Social Science: A Conceptual Introduction by Prof. Ikbâl Zeddari
8. Writing the Results Chapter by Prof. Abdeslam Badre
9. The Role of Theory in Research: Grand vs Grounded Theory by Prof. Abdelaziz Zohri
10. Doing Action Research: Your Guide to Improving Pedagogical Practices by Prof. Ayari
11. DARE to ACT: New Skills to Feel Well by Coach Meryem Hajji Laamouri
12. Gender Analyses in Qualitative Research by Prof. Touhtou
13. Writing and Publishing Good Scientific Papers by Prof. Youssef Tamer
14. Sampling Techniques in Social Research by Prof. Sanae Fahmi
15. Questionnaire Design, administration and Coding by Prof. Ikbâl Zeddari
16. The Qualitative Interview: Collecting, Coding, Analyzing by Prof. Andrew Smith
17. Structuring and Writing the PhD Thesis by Prof. Gifford
18. Online Language Learning and Teaching by Expert Vance Stevens
19. Quantitative Data Analysis Using SPSS: Descriptive Analysis by Prof. Adil Azhar
20. Ethics of Research in Human Sciences by Prof. Andrew Smith
21. Citation Styles: APA, MLA, Chicago..., Bibliography and citation tools by Prof. Gratien G. Atindogbe
22. Writing and Publishing Book Reviews by Prof. Jonas Elbousty
23. Interdisciplinary Research: Definition, Originality and Limits by Prof. Yaacoubi Youssef
24. Quantitative Data Analysis Using SPSS: Inferential Statistics by Prof. Adil Azhar
25. How to Prepare for the Defense by Prof. Yamina El Kirat
26. Introducing the Electronic Dissertation Template by Prof. Ikbâl Zeddari
27. Ask the Experts: Doctoral students' Challenges moderated by Prof. Abdeslam Badre
28. Closing Ceremony: Students Experiences & Takeaways (different speakers)

Webinars Organized by Literature, Arts and Pedagogical Engineering Research Laboratory (Faculty of Languages, Letters & Arts, Ibn Tofail University, Kenitra) (2021)

1. Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: Applications and Challenges (different speakers)
2. Research Methodology in Humanities and Arts: Needs and Uses by Dr. Gina Wisker

Different Live Sessions on Linguistics, Research Methodology, Academic Writing and Statistics Organised by Prof. Nourddine Amrous (FLHS, Mohamed V University, Rabat) on his YouTube channel ([link](#)) and Facebook page ([link](#)) (2024)

Appendix S: Obituary: Professor Braj B. Kachru (1932-2016): A Cultural Warrior Rests His Case (source: Sridhar, 2016, pp. 489-491)

“Linguistics, English, and India Studies have lost one of their most charismatic leaders. Professor Braj B. Kachru successfully challenged the orthodoxies of the English Studies establishment on both sides of the Atlantic (the British Council, TESOL) which looked upon Indian English and other non-native varieties as erroneous approximations of standard or native speaker English. Through half a century of meticulous scholarship and energetic advocacy, he demonstrated their systematic structure, natural evolution, and functional vigor, earning them respect as vibrant expressions of distinct cultural identities. In the process, he emerged as the world’s leading authority on all aspects of the use of English around the world. Today, world Englishes, the field of study he pioneered and dominated, is a burgeoning discipline with a world-wide following. Kachru was also a most respected and influential scholar on the languages of India, especially, sociolinguistics and multilingualism. He also wrote a grammar of Kashmiri, and a history Kashmiri literature. He worked closely with many Indian writers and intellectuals, such as Raja Rao” (Sridhar, 2016, p. 489).

“Braj Behari Kachru was born in Srinagar, Kashmir, India, on May 15, 1932. He was educated at the University of Allahabad, Deccan College, Pune, and the University of Edinburgh. He was Professor of Linguistics, Jubilee Professor of Liberal Arts and Sciences, and Center for Advanced Study Professor at the University of Illinois at UrbanaChampaign. He died on 29 July, 2016 at Urbana. He was married to Yamuna Kachru, herself an authority on Hindi grammar and English discourse, honored by the President of India, who passed away in 2013. They have a daughter, Amita, a physician in Santa Rosa, California, and son, Shomit, Professor of Physics at Stanford University, and two granddaughters, Sasha and Ila” (Sridhar, 2016, p. 490).

“Professor Kachru authored and edited over 25 books and numerous research papers. He was author of *The Indianization of English*, *The alchemy of English*, *Asian Englishes: Beyond the canon*, *A reference grammar of spoken Kashmiri*, *A history of Kashmiri literature*, and co-author of other important works. He edited or co-edited *The other tongue*, *The handbook of world Englishes*, *World Englishes: Critical concepts*, *Asian Englishes*, *Language in South Asia*, *Dimensions of sociolinguistics in South Asia*, *Issues in linguistics, cultures, ideologies, and the dictionary*, among other titles, which have become standard reference works. He was associate editor of the *Oxford companion to the English language* and contributor to the *Cambridge history of the English language*, and other volumes. The collected works of Braj B. Kachru have been published by Bloomsbury, London, in three volumes so far. With Larry E. Smith of the East-West Center, Honolulu he co-founded and edited the journal *World Englishes* (now in its 36th year) and co-founded the professional organization, International Association of World Englishes (IAWE), serving as its President from 1997–99. In all his vast and influential research, publication, advocacy, and institution-building enterprises, he worked closely with his brilliant wife and colleague, Professor Yamuna Kachru. His other major collaborators were Professor Kingsley Bolton of Singapore, as well as many students, who have made their names as distinguished scholars around the world” (Sridhar, 2016, p. 490).

“Kachru was a gifted administrator. In a distinguished career spanning nearly half a century at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, one of the leading public universities in the U.S., he served as head of three academic units. Under his leadership (1968–79), the Department of Linguistics blossomed into a vibrant, multi-faceted research center, and came to be ranked as the third leading department in the nation. His pluralistic vision ensured that its faculty comprised cutting edge Chomskyan theorists as well as Classical scholars, experts on

non-Western languages, Asian and African, and applied linguists. He insisted that linguists should address not only the structural and theoretical aspects of language but also their social and cultural dimensions. He encouraged the study of linguistic theory with its applications to areas, such as, second language teaching, discourse structure, and analysis of literature. He championed the teaching and scientific study of non-Western (Asian and African) languages, and the dynamics of multilingualism. Subsequently, he transformed the Division of English as an International Language from a service unit into an innovative research entity during his time as Director (1985–91). Finally, as Director of the university's prestigious Center for Advanced Study comprising many Nobel laureates, he redefined the center's mission and gave it expanded visibility and influence (1996–2000)" (Sridhar, 2016, p. 490).

"Kachru held many influential offices and received many prestigious honors. He directed the Linguistic Institute of the Linguistic Society of America in 1978; he was Sir Edward Youde Memorial Fund Visiting Professor at Hong Kong University (1998) and a Visiting Professor at National University of Singapore; an Honorary Fellow of English and Foreign Languages University, Hyderabad, and President of the American Association of Applied Linguistics (1984) and the International Association for World Englishes (1997–99). His book, *The alchemy of English: The spread, functions and models of non-native Englishes*, was conferred the English Speaking Union of the Commonwealth prize for the best book on English. He was a sought after keynote speaker at universities and professional conferences all over the U.S, India, and Asia. Professor Kachru was a larger than life figure who left an indelible impression on everyone he met, from students to luminaries of the field. He was an encyclopedic and meticulous scholar, passionate and inspiring teacher and public speaker, a charismatic and witty raconteur with an outrageous sense of humor, a kind and caring mentor, a warm and supporting colleague, a critical but respectful admirer of tradition, an open-minded integrator of scholarship from every culture, Asian, African, European, and American, an imaginative institution builder, and a confident, fearless, visionary intellectual. At Urbana, he and Yamunaji were an institution. They trained generations of well-rounded linguists. They will be missed by his world-wide extended family of scholars and students" (Sridhar, 2016, pp. 490-491).

Appendix T: Photos of Braj Kachru (1932-2016)



Figure 59 Photo of Braj Kachru (source: Sridhar, 2016, p. 489)

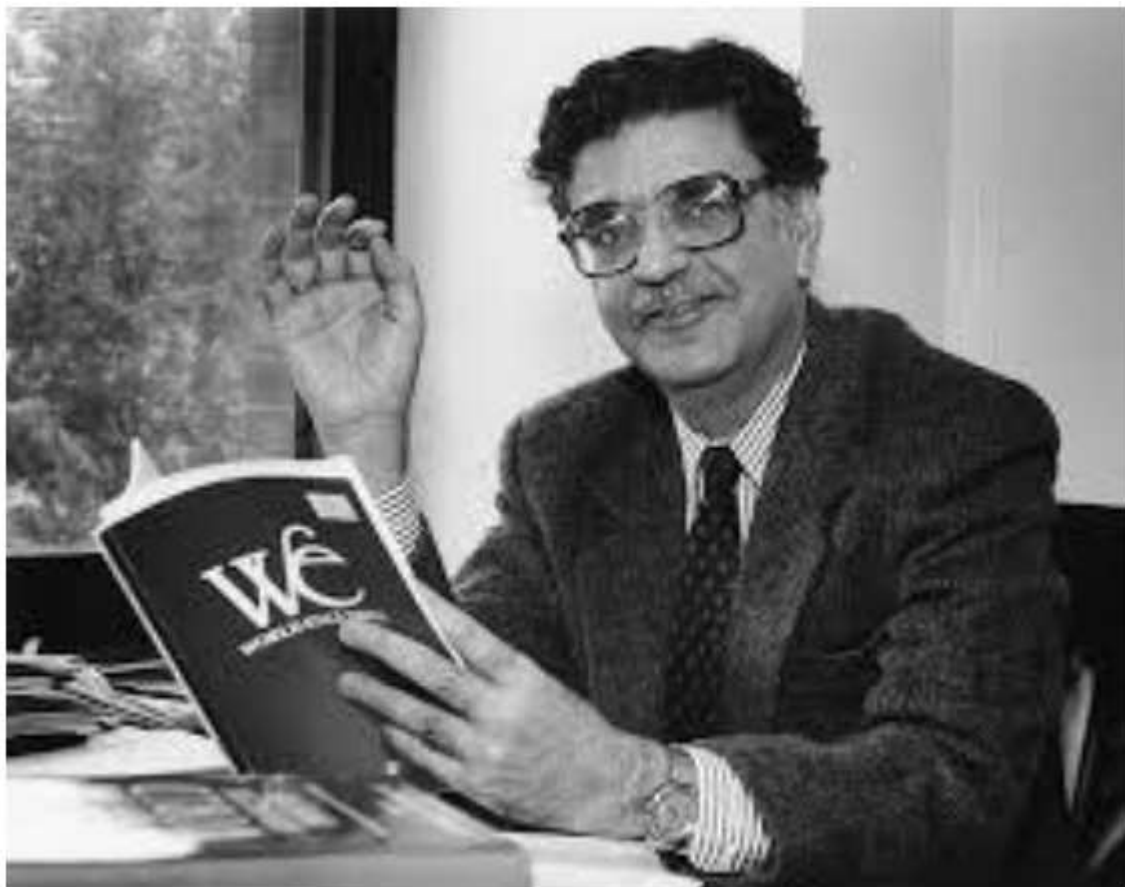


Figure 60 Photo of Braj Kachru (source: Li, 2019, p. 131)

Appendix U: Select examples of Teaching English as an International Language (TEIL) scholarship (adapted from: Selvi & Galloway, 2025, pp. 3-6)

Table 155 Select Examples of TEIL Scholarship (adapted from: Selvi & Galloway, 2025, pp. 3-6)

Form of scholarship	Examples
Monographs and Textbooks Dedicated to Paradigms	<p>English as an International Language (EIL)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Teaching English as an International Language</i> (McKay, 2002) • <i>Teaching English as an International Language</i> (Selvi and Yazan, 2013) • <i>Teaching English as an International Language: Implementing, Reviewing, and Re-envisioning World Englishes in Language Education</i> (Marlina, 2018) <p>World Englishes (WE)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>World Englishes</i> (Melchers, Shaw and Sundkvist, 2019) • <i>Cultures, Contexts, and World Englishes</i> (Kachru and Smith, 2008) • <i>Exploring World Englishes: Language in a Global Context</i> (Seargeant, 2012) <p>English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Understanding English as a Lingua Franca</i> (Seidlhofer, 2013) • <i>English as a Lingua Franca in the International University</i> (Jenkins, 2014) • <i>English as a Lingua Franca in Higher Education</i> (Smit, 2010) <p>Global Englishes (GE)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Introducing Global Englishes</i> (Galloway and Rose, 2015) • <i>Global Englishes for Language Teaching</i> (Rose and Galloway, 2019) • <i>Global Englishes: A Resource Book for Students</i> (Jenkins and Panero, 2024) • <i>Global TESOL for the 21st Century: Teaching English in a Changing World</i> (Rose, Syrbe, Montakantiwong, and Funada, 2020)
Monographs and Textbooks Dedicated to Critical Trends and the Global Spread of English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>The Cultural Politics of English as an International Language</i> (Pennycook, 1994) • <i>The Struggle to Teach English as an International Language</i> (Holliday, 2005) • <i>Linguistic Imperialism</i> (Phillipson, 1992) • <i>Linguistic Imperialism Continued</i> (Phillipson, 2010) • <i>English as a Global Language</i> (Crystal, 1997) • <i>Translanguaging: Language, Bilingualism and Education</i> (García and Wei, 2014) • <i>Multilingual Perspectives on Translanguaging</i> (MacSwan, 2022)

Form of scholarship	Examples
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Language Teacher Education for a Global Society: A Modular Model for Knowing, Analyzing, Recognizing, Doing, and Seeing</i> (Kumaravadivelu, 2012) • <i>Markets of English: Linguistic Capital and Language Policy in a Globalizing World</i> (Park and Wee, 2012) • <i>Translingual Practice: Global Englishes and Cosmopolitan Relations</i> (Canagarajah, 2013) • <i>Intercultural and Transcultural Awareness in Language Teaching</i> (Baker, 2022) • <i>Exploring Intercultural Communication: Language in Action</i> (Zhu, 2019)
Edited Volumes Dedicated to Paradigms	<p>English as an International Language (EIL)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Principles and Practices of Teaching English as an International Language</i> (Matsuda, 2012) • <i>Preparing Teachers to Teach English as an International Language</i> (Matsuda, 2017) • <i>English as an International Language: Perspectives and Pedagogical Issues</i> (Sharifian, 2009) <p>World Englishes (WE)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>World Englishes: Rethinking Paradigms</i> (Low and Pakir, 2019) • <i>Investigating World Englishes: Research Methodology and Practical Applications</i> (De Costa, Crowther and Maloney, 2019) • <i>Modeling World Englishes: A Joint Approach to Postcolonial and Non-Postcolonial Varieties</i> (Buschfeld and Kautzsch, 2022) <p>English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>English as a Lingua Franca for EFL Contexts</i> (Sifakis and Tsantila, 2018) • <i>Current Perspectives on Pedagogy for English as a Lingua Franca</i> (Bayyurt and Akcan, 2015) • <i>Teacher Education for English as a Lingua Franca: Perspectives from Indonesia</i> (Zein, 2018) <p>Global Englishes (GE)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Language Teacher Education for Global Englishes</i> (Selvi and Yazan, 2021) • <i>Critical Perspectives on Global Englishes in Asia: Language Policy, Curriculum, Pedagogy and Assessment</i> (Fang and Widodo, 2019) • <i>Global Englishes in Asian Contexts: Current and Future Debates</i> (Murata and Jenkins, 2009)
Edited Volumes Dedicated to Critical Trends and the Global Spread of English and Other Language Use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>The Multilingual Turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and Bilingual Education</i> (May, 2014) • <i>The Multilingual Turn in Languages Education: Opportunities and Challenges</i> (Conteh and Meier, 2014) • <i>Pluricentric Languages and Language Education: Pedagogical Implications and Innovative</i>

Form of scholarship	Examples
	<p><i>Approaches to Language Teaching</i> (Callies and Hehner, 2022)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Envisioning TESOL Through a Translanguaging Lens: Global Perspectives</i> (Tian, Aghai, Sayer and Schissel, 2020)
Dedicated Handbooks	<p>Routledge</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Routledge Handbook of World Englishes (1st edition) (Kirkpatrick, 2010) • The Routledge Handbook of World Englishes (2nd edition) (Kirkpatrick, 2020) • The Routledge Handbook of English as a Lingua Franca (Jenkins, Baker, Dewey, 2018) <p>Wiley</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Handbook of World Englishes (1st edition) (Kachru, Kachru and Nelson, 2006) • The Handbook of World Englishes (2nd edition) (Nelson, Proshina and Davis, 2020) • The Handbook of Asian Englishes (Bolton, Botha and Kirkpatrick, 2020) <p>Cambridge University Press</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Cambridge Handbook of World Englishes (Schreier, Hundt and Schneider, 2019) <p>Oxford University Press</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Oxford Handbook of World Englishes (Filppula, Klemola and Sharma, 2017) • The Oxford Handbook of Southeast Asian Englishes (Moody, 2024)
Chapters in Other Handbooks and Encyclopedias	<p>Chapters/Sections focusing on the Paradigms related to the Global Spread of English</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching English as an International Language Section in the TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching (Abrar-ul-Hassan, 2018) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ 36 entries organized under four categories: (1) language, (2) curriculum, (3) pedagogy, and (4) assessment • The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics (Chapelle, 2013) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ English as Lingua Franca (Meierkord) ◦ World Englishes and Assessment (Lowenberg) ◦ World Englishes and Language Pedagogy (Matsuda) ◦ World Englishes and Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (Matsuda) ◦ World Englishes and the Role of Media (Pandey) • The Routledge Handbook of Language and Intercultural Communication (Jackson, 2012) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ World Englishes and intercultural communication (Sharifian and Sadeghpour) • The Routledge Handbook of Language and Culture (Sharifian, 2014) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ World Englishes and Local Cultures (Kirkpatrick) • The Routledge Handbook of Applied Linguistics (Simpson, 2011)

Appendices

Form of scholarship	Examples
	○ World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca (Kirkpatrick and Deterding)

Résumé (250 mots Max) :

La réalité sociolinguistique changeante de l'anglais appelle aujourd'hui un changement de paradigme dans le domaine de l'enseignement de l'anglais. Par conséquent, cette étude vise à examiner les attitudes des apprenants marocains d'anglais comme langue étrangère (AMALE) envers les variétés mondiales de l'anglais (VMA) et les enseignants anglophones natifs et non natifs (EAN & EANN). Premièrement, en partant de l'hypothèse que les trois cercles concentriques de Kachru ont été traités de manière inégale et que moins de recherches scientifiques ont été publiées sur les pays du cercle en expansion, cette étude cherche à examiner les attitudes des AMALE à l'égard des VAM. Dans l'ensemble, bien que les résultats de l'étude montrent que les AMALE ont tendance à préférer les anglais du cercle restreint, les participants interrogés sont conscients des variations de la langue anglaise et sont disposés à en apprendre davantage sur les variétés de langue anglaise. Deuxièmement, partant de l'hypothèse selon laquelle les AMALE ont tendance à montrer une préférence pour les EAN par rapport aux EANN et qu'il existe un déficit de recherches sur ce phénomène au Maroc, cette étude vient explorer l'applicabilité de cette hypothèse aux AMALE. Les résultats de l'étude montrent que l'attitude des participants à l'égard des EAN et EANN est positive. Les résultats révèlent également que le contexte marocain semble être un cadre fertile pour discuter des questions relatives aux VAM et aux EAN et EANN. D'une part, les participants reconnaissent et apprécient la variation sociolinguistique présentée dans la langue anglaise. Tout aussi important, les participants jugent positivement les EAN et EANN. Enfin, l'étude se termine par plusieurs implications pédagogiques pour le choix du ou des modèles linguistiques à utiliser dans les classes d'anglais langue étrangère au Maroc et à l'étranger.

Mots Clés: Cercles concentriques de Kachru, pédagogie éclairée par les anglais mondiaux, attitudes linguistiques, enseignants anglophones natifs, locuteurs natifs, enseignants anglophones non natifs, variétés mondiales de l'anglais

Absract (250 words Max):

Today's changing sociolinguistic reality of English calls for a shift in paradigm in the field of English language teaching. Therefore, this study aims to examine Moroccan EFL learners' (MEFLs) attitudes towards World Englishes (WE) and native and non-native English-speaking teachers (NESTs & non-NESTs). Firstly, building on the assumption that Kachru's three Concentric Circles have been treated unequally and that less scholarly research has been published on *expanding circle* countries, this study seeks to examine the attitudes of MEFLs towards WE. Overall, although the study's findings show that MEFLs tend to prefer inner circle Englishes, the participants surveyed are aware of English language variation and are willing to learn more about varieties of English speech. Secondly, departing from the assumption that EFL learners tend to show a preference for NESTs over non-NESTs and that there is a short supply of research into this phenomenon in Morocco, this study intervenes to explore the applicability of this assumption to MEFLs. In this regard, the study's findings show that the participants' attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs are positive. The results also reveal that the Moroccan context seems to be a fertile setting for discussing WE- and NEST/non-NEST-related issues. On the one hand, the participants recognise and appreciate the sociolinguistic variation exhibited in the English language. On the other hand, the participants judge NESTs and non-NESTs in positive ways. Finally, the study concludes with several pedagogical implications for the choice of linguistic model(s) to be employed in EFL classrooms inside and outside Morocco.

Keywords: Kachru's Concentric Circles, Global Englishes-Informed Pedagogy, Language Attitudes, Native English-Speaking Teachers, Native-Speakerism, Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers, World Englishes