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The changeability of L2 language attitudes: Changing Hungarian EFL users' attitudes towards non-native-accented English and their own accent through teaching

PhD dissertation

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Abstract

Language attitudes towards one's non-native language have been measured in several studies (e.g., Jenkins, 2007; Sung, 2016; Carrie, 2017; Lee and Lee, 2019), but the in-practice pedagogical application of the insights gained by these studies rarely follows the investigations. The present dissertation, which employs the theoretical insights of language attitude studies for pedagogical purposes in a Hungarian EFL context, reports on a three-step research project aimed at identifying ways of pedagogical applications regarding information gained about language attitudes: a preliminary exploratory phase with 25 university student respondents; a classroom investigation with the participation of 12 high school students in the experimental group and 10 in the control group, as well as an interview with the EFL teacher of the experimental group; and a larger scale online survey with 92 EFL teachers and 250 EFL learners (high school students) as the respondents.

With the help of the open-ended questions in the preliminary exploratory phase, a classroom questionnaire with rating scales and open-ended questions was devised, which was then administered three times: as a pre-test, a post-test, and a delayed post-test accompanying the teaching experiment, which was aimed at developing more positive language attitudes in the participants towards non-native-accented English in general, and their own non-native accent in particular, by familiarizing them with a large variety of native and non-native accents of English. A class evaluation questionnaire filled out by the students of the experimental group, and a semi-structured interview with the experimental group's EFL teacher gave further pedagogical insight into the matter. The online survey, which was a modified version of the classroom questionnaire, the creation of which was aided by the statistical analysis (with SPSS version 26) of the classroom questionnaires, focused on the differences between the responses of the participating teachers and students. This dissertation answers the following research questions:

1. What impact does familiarizing Hungarian EFL learners/users with multiple native and non-native accents of English through an indirect teaching method have on their 'language attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' (and potentially 'perfectionism')?
2. How open are Hungarian EFL learners/users to such teaching?
3. What kind of relationship is observable between 'language attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate' in English as a foreign language among Hungarian learners/users?

4. What similarities and differences can be found between Hungarian EFL learners' and teachers' 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate', as well as their responses to indirect teaching targeting attitude change?

The results show that the classroom teaching experiment had a positive impact on participants' 'attitudes and motivation' scores, namely, the post-test scores showed a significant increase compared to the pre-test scores, and, although significantly lower than the post-test scores, the delayed post-test scores were still significantly higher than those of the pre-test. (The 'perfectionism' and 'willingness to communicate' scores were not impacted.)

The majority of the participants are shown to be open to familiarizing themselves with materials targeting attitude change (72% in the preliminary exploratory phase, 11 out of 12 students in the classroom investigation, and teachers more than students in the online survey).

Correlations between 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism' (more specifically 'negative' vs. 'positive perfectionism') and 'willingness to communicate' among EFL learners/users were established, namely, there is a positive relationship between 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' and between 'positive' and 'negative perfectionism', and a negative relationship between 'attitudes and motivation' and 'perfectionism', especially 'negative perfectionism', according to the classroom study. Additionally, it was revealed by the online survey that 'negative perfectionism' has a negative relationship with 'willingness to communicate' among teacher respondents.

The online survey highlighted that Hungarian EFL teachers have higher 'attitudes and motivations' and 'willingness to communicate' scores than high school students, their 'positive perfectionism' is higher and 'negative perfectionism' is lower, and they seem to react even more positively to the teaching material targeting attitude change than students.

For the findings to benefit future studies and the practice of EFL teaching, it is argued in this dissertation that the positive impact of teaching targeting attitude change could be made more long-lasting if sustained intervention were possible as part of the EFL curriculum.

Dissertation declaration

I hereby declare that all the work presented in this dissertation is the result of my own original research under the supervision of Associate Professors Dr. Anna Fenyvesi and Dr. Márta Lesznyák. I declare that no part of this dissertation has previously been submitted for an award of any other degree or any other qualification in my name at this university or any other institution. All the materials previously published or written by other authors have been clearly attributed and quoted in my dissertation. Apart from these due references, the dissertation is entirely my own work. Some parts of this text have appeared in my recent, related publications in English or Hungarian, which were written concurrently with my dissertation (i.e., Püski, 2023a; 2023b; 2024a; 2024b). I hereby grant permission for my thesis to become available via the university's research repository, the university, and search engines.

Gyöngyi Püski

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1. Introduction

Language attitudes towards one's non-native language have been measured in several studies (e.g., Jenkins, 2007; Sung, 2016; Carrie, 2017; Lee and Lee, 2019), but the in-practice pedagogical application of the insights gained by these studies rarely follows the investigations.

With regard to making non-native accents acceptable for classroom use, teachers' willingness to use non-native audio samples in class has been tested, for example, by Litzenberg (2016 [2014]), but the materials in question remained part of a hypothetical curriculum, and were not implemented in practice. This dissertation aims to bridge the gap between theoretically motivated language attitude studies and language teaching pedagogy in the classroom by testing the changeability of Hungarian EFL learners' language attitudes towards their own and others' non-native accents through a teaching experiment, which was later augmented with an online survey with the participation of both EFL learners and teachers. Changing non-native speakers' attitudes towards non-native English is imperative, as very negative attitudes have been documented by previous studies mainly conducted in European and Asian countries, which are likely to be detrimental for the language learning process.

The likes of Jenkins's 2007 findings are not uncommon across language attitude studies investigating non-native speakers' attitudes towards native- vs. non-native-accented English. In her discussion, she lists the adjectives that were most commonly used by her respondents to refer to native speaker (NS) vs. non-native speaker (NNS) accents of English. This alarming comparison is presented by her as follows (my emphasis):

> "A wide range of adjectives was used to describe NS English accents favourably, for example, '**good', 'proper', 'perfect', 'competent', 'proficient', 'fluent', 'standard', 'accurate', 'correct'** and the like, while no such words were used in respect of NNS English accents. By contrast, when the latter were described, it was with pejorative adjectives such as **'not good', 'wrong', 'incorrect', 'deficient'**, and in two cases even **'horrible'**" (Jenkins, 2007: 209).

Sung's 2016 study mirrors Jenkins's 2007 results, and goes a step further in its explanation of the possible reasons for non-native speakers' marked preference for native accents. Sung asserts that having a native-like accent seems to be connected to the idea of having a competent L2 speaker identity, and even a positive self-image. Therefore, a native-like accent can signal status, prestige and proficiency, and thus its value for L2 speakers is

symbolic. It is also associated with a sense of being appreciated and recognized by others for one's linguistic abilities.

This shows that non-native speakers tend to think very highly of native accents and look down on non-native accents, which recalls Labov's 1966 notion of linguistic insecurity, which he used for non-standard speakers who idealized the standard and denigrated their own variety. Due to the similarities in status between non-standard and non-native speakers, the notion of linguistic insecurity might also describe the experiences of non-native speakers, as I argued previously in a paper based on my master's thesis (Püski, 2021). A similar notion by Muhr (2003) is linguistic schizophrenia, which is experienced by speakers of non-dominant varieties and describes the experience when a speaker idealizes the dominant variety which they rarely or never speak, while they consider their own non-dominant variety, which they use on a daily basis, less valuable. Muhr (2003) defines non-dominant varieties as varieties of languages which might have a shorter history and/or are spoken in a country or region which is not as powerful as the country or region where the dominant variety is spoken.

The idea that some accents and varieties are inferior to others is termed linguicism, that is, language-based discrimination, according to Skutnabb-Kangas's 1989 definition. It is rather distressing to see that even non-native speakers themselves tend to discriminate against their own variety of English. What is even more alarming is Milroy's 2001 and 2006 assertion that the idea of the standard being superior to other varieties is not an individualistic opinion but a social construct. Therefore, he calls it the standard language ideology. The basis of this ideology is that a uniform and canonized variety is elevated to the position of the only acceptable norm, and attempts are made to preserve this status quo. For it to fit the purposes of this dissertation, we might reformulate the term as the ideology of native-centered language education. This also entails that, while dispelling an individual's negative attitudes towards a less prestigious variety might be less of a challenge, addressing a social construct is a considerably greater endeavor. If Lanstyák's 2009 implication, namely, that language ideologies can influence language policy making, is taken into account, it is easy to see that eventually the standard language ideology might lead to prescriptivism in the school curriculum.

If the school system itself plays a part in conditioning language learners to be insecure about their non-native accents in their L2, it undermines the main purpose of EFL teaching and learning, i.e., enabling students to actually use the language for meaningful communication. That is why it seems to be important to pay more attention to ensuring that language learners encounter a wider range of accents in their L2, which might help reduce their insecurity about not speaking in a native-like way. This is the issue which the present dissertation investigates.

However, this is not to discourage students and teachers from dealing with L2 pronunciation learning in a focused way, as intelligibility needs to be maintained to ensure the effectiveness of oral communication in an L2. Instead, the investigations reported on in this dissertation are practical adaptations of Levis's 2005 emphasis on highlighting the 'intelligibility principle' more than the 'nativeness principle', this time applied to a Hungarian EFL setting.

As Liou's 2010 investigation carried out in the Greater Taipei area shows, non-native English teachers have a tendency to connect being a "good teacher" to using native-like English. For the majority of the participating teachers, native-likeness was associated with the 'correct' or 'standard' command of the language, which they have an obligation to transmit to their students. The teacher respondents of the study tended to believe that local or international varieties of English should only be used outside the classroom. Similarly, the majority of Liou's student respondents were in favor of sounding native-like rather than prefer the idea of speaking English as an international language (EIL). Based on these findings, one might argue that teachers might (perhaps unknowingly) transmit the ideology of native-centered language education to their students, possibly planting the seeds of insecurity in them regarding their own accent, which, in reality, is unlikely to become entirely native-like in an EFL setting.

In spite of teachers' preferences for native accents, Young and Walsh's 2010 investigation suggests that non-native teachers of English are not always conscious of the variety of English they were taught at school. All of their respondents' answers reflect that they did not know 'which English' they used to learn as students in their respective countries. However, 81% of the participants felt that they were teaching a variety close to American English in their own classes. All of the responding teachers "expressed an overwhelming need for a 'standard'" (Young and Walsh, 2010: 132), but the majority did not dismiss the notion of 'English as an international language (EIL)' or 'English as a lingua franca (ELF)' varieties. Even with this theoretical understanding of international Englishes in mind, the responding teachers (with the exception of one participant) did not want to teach EIL or ELF to their students, showing that they were not in favor of the practical application of the concept (Young and Walsh, 2010).

It is also noteworthy that, while non-native students and teachers might wish to approximate an undefined 'native accent', even native varieties of English are not equally prestigious in the eyes of non-native speakers. Carrie's 2017 (Castilian) Spanish student respondents rated the British 'standard' accent, Received Pronunciation, higher on status traits and regarded it as the 'pure' form of English. General American, the US 'standard' accent, was

considered to be less professional and less 'correct' than its British counterpart. Carrie's 2017 results mirror the findings of Mompeán-González's 2004 study carried out with the participation of Spanish students.

On the positive side, Litzenberg's 2016 [2014] survey highlights that pre-service teachers seem to be open to incorporating non-native Englishes as pedagogical models into their future teaching practice, although the participants' answers indicated that they had reservations about the idea. This dissertation seeks to go beyond the traditional attitude surveys which test the theoretical possibility of using non-native or non-standard English samples in the classroom, and sets out to test the actual reactions of the participating students to the use of such speech samples in a classroom setting.

Language attitudes might also influence one's level of foreign language anxiety. "Language anxiety can be defined as the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning" (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994: 284). Foreign language anxiety is often a contributor to English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' lack of confidence in their L2 skills, and one of the reasons why they might not be willing to use their L2 orally. A part of their anxiety might stem from the fact that their accent is not native-like. The fear of receiving negative criticism for having a non-native accent, and being worried that their accent might cause disruptions in the transmission of meaning are the two main causes why accent anxiety might lead to a decrease in language learners' willingness to communicate orally in English (Coppinger and Sheridan, 2022).

In 2006, investigating English as a second language (ESL) learners' language anxiety, Woodrow discovered that "[a]nxiety is clearly an issue in language learning and has a debilitating effect on speaking English for some students" (Woodrow, 2006: 323). This anxiety is not exclusive to 'real-life language use', but is experienced also in the foreign language classroom. Baran-Łucarz (2014) found that Polish EFL students who experienced a higher level of pronunciation anxiety were less willing to communicate orally in the EFL classroom. The findings of Gregersen and Horowitz's 2002 study show a relationship between language anxiety and perfectionism; therefore, they propose that similar coping methods might help anxious language learners that are effective for helping perfectionists. They also propose that some English language teachers themselves might have a predisposition for perfectionism, which might result in these tendencies' being passed down to their students. In this dissertation, the correlations between 'language attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism' and 'willingness to

communicate' are tested to shed more light on the relationship between these aspects of language learning.

In the case of college student learners of Japanese, Kitano (2001: 560) found that "[f]ear of negative evaluation influenced anxiety more strongly for advanced-level students than for intermediate and elementary-level students and more for students who had spent at least some time in Japan than for students who had never been to Japan", which shows that the pressure of perceived high expectations has a negative impact on the level of foreign language anxiety.

Baran-Łucarz (2011: 509) adds that "the perceived pronunciation level was found to be more strongly related to LA [language anxiety] than the actual pronunciation skills" among her Polish secondary school student subjects. This could potentially suggest that the speaker's expectations towards oneself might be higher than the outside pressure to perform well, and L2 users might evaluate their own accent in more negative terms than objective tests do.

Vincze and MacIntyre (2017) state that accent stigmatization, too, can play a large role in both L2 proficiency and language anxiety, as their young Slovakia Hungarian respondents who experienced more numerous and amicable interactions with Slovak speakers showed more advanced Slovak language skills and less L2 anxiety, which also led to more willingness to communicate in the language. They also claim that accent stigmatization can have a stronger adverse effect specifically on those speakers who consider their L2 proficiency high (cf. Kitano, 2001 above).

Therefore, I consider avoiding all forms of accent stigmatization important in the foreign language classroom, be it about a non-native accent or a non-standard native accent, which is what my classroom intervention was directed at. It used various non-native, non-standard and non-dominant accents of English (as well as a comparison of 'standard' British vs. 'standard' American English, which are more familiar to the students), and various related exercises during the course of a teaching experiment to test whether an indirect teaching method that helps EFL learners realize the diversity of the accents of English can have a positive impact on their 'attitudes and language learning motivation', and their 'willingness to communicate' orally in English. A 'perfectionism' section was included in the questionnaire mainly to test its relationship with the other two sections, as changes in perfectionism were not expected.

While data is yet scarce on the effects of using non-native speech samples in the EFL classroom, the perceived benefits and disadvantages of having native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) vs. non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) are the topic of an ongoing debate, which can serve as an analogy to the discussion of using native vs. non-native speech samples in class. The origins of the issue go back to Grosjean's 1989 holistic view of bi- and

multilingualism, stating that a bilingual is not two monolinguals in one body, as they often have complementary repertoires in the two (or more) languages at their disposal; therefore, measuring them against monolingual standards is misguided.

Still, NESTs are often praised for using 'real' English, being able to provide more culture-specific information and fluency-focused instruction. They are considered to be better at teaching oral skills (e.g., Medgyes, 2001; Mahboob, 2004; Ayudhya, 2021). NNESTs are perceived as less skilled in these areas; their strengths lie elsewhere. NNESTs have more metalinguistic awareness and can provide more information about language use. As life-long L2 learners themselves, they can pinpoint certain difficulties in advance and show more empathy towards their students, and they can also become role models for them. As opposed to fluency-focused instruction expected from NESTs, NNESTs are considered to be better at teaching grammatical accuracy (e.g., Medgyes, 1994 and 2001; Ayudhya, 2021).

As it can be inferred from the above descriptions, both NESTs and NNESTs have different strengths and weaknesses, which is the reason why having both native and non-native English-speaking teachers is proposed as the best option (e.g., Matsuda and Matsuda, 2001; Mahboob, 2004). Although a deeper discussion of the differences between NNESTs and NESTs is beyond the scope of this dissertation, it is a meaningful analogy to Murphy's 2014 proposal, namely, using non-native speech samples in the EFL classroom in addition to native samples, and suggests that it is a theoretically well-founded practice.

The above discussion points in two main directions that are important for the purposes of this paper. One is the notion that often only native English is considered "real" English, for which reason negative attitudes towards non-native accents can cause learners to avoid using English orally, and the other is the possible role model status of successful non-native speakers. The research questions of the present dissertation arise from the ideas outlined in the Introduction, and are as follows:

1. What impact does familiarizing Hungarian EFL learners/users with multiple native and non-native accents of English through an indirect teaching method have on their 'language attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' (and potentially 'perfectionism')?
2. How open are Hungarian EFL learners/users to such teaching?
3. What kind of relationship is observable between 'language attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate' in English as a foreign language among Hungarian learners/users?

4. What similarities and differences can be found between Hungarian EFL learners' and teachers' 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate', as well as their responses to indirect teaching targeting attitude change?

Research Question 1 is answered with the help of the classroom investigation and the online survey, Research Question 2 pertains to the preliminary exploratory phase, the classroom investigation, and somewhat to the online survey, Research Question 3 is related to the classroom investigation and the online survey, and Research Question 4 is answered by the online survey. As some research questions are answered based on the classroom and the online data in conjunction, the term *EFL learner/user* was selected when formulating the questions to include adult respondents (i.e., EFL teachers), too.

Following this Introduction, the Literature review is presented in Section 2, summarizing and comparing relevant research which influenced the present investigation. Section 3 describes the Methodology (participants, instruments, and procedures) of the preliminary exploratory phase, the classroom investigation, and the online questionnaire separately. The description of the Results can be found in Section 4, and the interpretation of the key findings in light of previous studies is presented in the Discussion in Section 5. The dissertation ends with a Conclusion in Section 6, where the main findings are summarized, the pedagogical implications of the dissertation are highlighted, the limitations and trajectories for further research are outlined, and the significance of the investigations is discussed. After the Bibliography, the Appendices can be found, where the research tools and the transcript of an interview are included together with the detailed description of the experimental class sessions in the classroom investigation.

2. Literature review

2.1. Language attitudes and related concepts

The establishment of language attitude studies as an important field of linguistic investigations is connected to the name of Wallace E. Lambert and his colleagues. In one of their most well-known experiments (Lambert et al., 1960), they tested Francophone and Anglophone Canadians' responses to French and English voice samples using the matched guise technique, which entails that, without the participants' knowledge, they were reacting to 'matched' English and French voice samples provided by bilingual people. Due to the higher status of the English language and Anglophone Canadians, both English- and French-speakers tended to evaluate the English-speaking guises more positively, and there were also cases when English-speakers evaluated French guises more favorably than the Francophone respondents themselves.

In 1966, Lambert et al. further investigated the responses of Francophone Canadians, this time French-speaking girls, to English and French voice samples using the matched guise technique. The results showed that, due to the higher status of the English language, the Francophone Canadian girls tended to favor the English guises and expressed a feeling of inferiority with regard to the French-speaking guises (which were, in fact, similar to their own language use). By using the same bilingual person's voice samples for both guises, influencing factors other than the languages spoken were excluded from the investigation. The respondents evaluated perceived personality characteristics purely based on how someone's speech sounded.

Lambert (1967) highlights that the stereotypes based on which varieties or languages are evaluated are impressions that one group believes to be true about the other group of speakers. As the relationship between Francophone and Anglophone Canadians has always been strained, this population was a good candidate for exploring deeply held beliefs about speakers of an out-group. The results also shed light on the fact that the same bilingual person can be perceived considerably differently by their interlocutors depending on which language they use, and what the social connotations of using that language are. The evaluations also seem to be dependent on the age and gender of the evaluators, and the results have implications for bilinguals' code switching practices, as well.

In the following subsections, language attitudes and related concepts are further explored, namely, language attitudes, language ideologies, and linguistic discrimination in Section 2.1.1, language attitudes towards various native and non-native varieties of English in

Section 2.1.2., native speakerism in Section 2.1.3., and the factors influencing attitude formation and potential attitude change in Section 2.1.4.

2.1.1. Language attitudes, language ideologies, and linguistic discrimination

When defining attitudes, Agheyisi and Fishman (1970) highlight the differences between the mentalist and the extreme behaviorist approaches. According to the mentalist view, attitudes "are not directly observable but have to be inferred from the subject's introspection" (Agheyisi and Fishman, 1970: 138). The positive side of this approach is the conceptualization of attitudes as an independent variable, while the disadvantages lie in the difficulties of measuring something that cannot be directly observed. On the other hand, the extreme behaviorist view of attitudes was often criticized for conceptualizing attitudes as a dependent variable, which can be inferred form observable behavior; however, this approach would make observation and measurement more straightforward.

Another debate arose concerning the constituents of attitudes, that is, how attitudes are structured. Agheyisi and Fishman (1970) categorize the conceptualizations of attitudes into ones focusing on purely affective features (e.g., Osgood et al., 1957; Fishbein, 1965) vs. ones focusing on an interplay between affective, cognitive and behavioral components (e.g., Lambert and Lambert, 1964; Rokeach, 1968). Agheyisi and Fishman (1970) highlight that there seems to be some agreement across all the theories of attitudes about the idea that attitudes are rather long-lasting (not only temporary) and "learned from previous experience" (Agheyisi and Fishman, 1970: 139).

With regard to language attitudes specifically, Edwards (1999) stresses that language attitudes are, in fact, socially constructed and learnt, and are not based on any self-evident and naturally occurring differences between languages or varieties. Instead, the formation of language attitudes is closely linked to people's perceptions of the members of another speech community. His concise definition, which is as follows, sheds light on the highly social aspect of attitudes:

> "The variation found in speech-evaluation studies reflects social perceptions of the speakers of given varieties and has nothing to say about any intrinsic qualities—logical or aesthetic—of the language or dialect itself. Thus, listening to a given variety is generally considered to act as a trigger or stimulus that evokes attitudes (or prejudices, or

stereotypes) about the relevant speech community" (Edwards, 1999: 102).

Hudson (2001 [1980]) points out the considerable impact of language-based prejudice in society. Prejudice is based on the assumption that there is a 'prototype' and every other member of that category has the characteristics of that 'prototype'. Therefore, language prejudice means that some linguistic characteristics are associated with certain groups of people and the 'typical' characteristics of the 'prototype' (e.g., intelligence, likeability, etc., or the lack of these) are mistakenly extended to every member of the same group (e.g., women, certain nationalities, or socio-economic groups, etc.). This mistaken categorization, which we probably engage in to render it easier to make sense of the world when not enough information is available, can lead not only to linguistic but also social inequality, that is, disparate opportunities for education and employment (Hudson, 2001 [1980]).

When preconceptions about a group of people are held on a societal level, they can be considered social stereotypes, according to Tajfel (1982). He discusses two types of categorization into social groups: an external one, which relies on labels used by in-group and out-group members alike (e.g., job titles), showing that non-members, too, acknowledge the existence of said group, and an internal one (termed 'group identification') characterized by the members' awareness of belonging and a sense of having shared values. Another characteristic of group identification, according to Tajfel (1982), is having some emotional interest in belonging to the group and sharing its values. Intergroup behavior is characterized by an understanding of what constitutes in-group membership and what constitutes out-group membership, while favoring the in-group. Tajfel (1982) agrees with Stallybrass's 1977 definition of stereotypes, which highlights their over-simplified nature, the fact that they are not individualistic but considered to be valid by a great number of people, and often go hand in hand with prejudice against certain groups.

Prejudice, in a stronger and more institutionalized form, can lead to discrimination. Linguistic discrimination was discussed in depth by Purnell et al. (1999), who carried out experiments using one of the authors' (John Baugh's) ability to speak three varieties of English: Standard American English, African American Vernacular English (AAVE), and Chicano English. They claim that housing discrimination can happen in the USA in the absence of visual cues, for people seem to discriminate against speakers based on their dialect alone, as well. When John Baugh, himself an African American linguist, telephoned landlords to ask about the availability of advertised apartments, it was found that the standard variety was the most consistently successful in arranging housing appointments in every geographical area. Non-

standard varieties were received negatively in predominantly white neighborhoods, and Baugh's Chicano English guise was the least successful in arranging appointments. In order to ensure that the dialects used for the experiment by the tridialectal linguist were representative, the authors tested whether a dialect recognition test can be carried out with success using Baugh's three dialects as the guises. As the participants were consistent in identifying his Standard American English guise as a White male, his AAVE guise as an African American male, and his Chicano guise as a Latino male, the three guises were proven to be recognizable and sufficiently different. A third, related experiment showed that participants were able to distinguish the dialects already based on a *hello*, without the presence of any additional syntactic, lexical or other cues specific to the dialects in question. Purnell et al. (1999: 28) conclude that their investigations "link housing opportunities with dialect use", and highlight that "[v]ery little speech is required for dialect identification—a single word suffices". Based on their study, one can define linguistic discrimination as negative, disadvantageous treatment occasioned by non-standard linguistic cues.

Linguistic discrimination is linked to linguistic profiling, which is derived from the term 'racial profiling' (Baugh, 2016). While racial profiling and the ensuing racial discrimination happen based on identifying someone visually as a member of a racial group, linguistic profiling and the ensuing linguistic discrimination are linked to auditory cues. Linguistic profiling and discrimination are going to be increasingly relevant issues to consider in the future, and not only in the United States, with large scale immigration happening around the world. Immigrants are often not proficient in the dominant language of the country where they arrive, which might serve as auditory cues for linguistic profiling (Baugh, 2016).

To counter linguistic discrimination, Matsuda (1991) provides and immensely powerful explanation of the relevance of linguistic human rights, and the core personal importance of one's accent. The explanation is the following:

> "The way we talk, whether it is a life choice or an immutable characteristic, is akin to other attributes of the self that the law protects. In privacy law, due process law, protection against cruel and unusual punishment, and freedom from inquisition, we say the state cannot intrude upon the core of you, cannot take away your sacred places of the self. A citizen's accent, I would argue, resides in one of those places" (Matsuda, 1991: 1391-1392).

Skutnabb-Kangas (1989) adds that causing language-based disadvantage to someone is no different from racism, and it is not only a form of discrimination, but an overarching ideology, termed 'linguicism'. She defines it the following way:

> "Linguicism is akin to the other negative -isms: racism, classism, sexism, ageism. Linguicism can be defined as ideologies and structures which are used to legitimate, effectuate and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and non-material) between groups which are defined on the basis of language (on the basis of their mother tongues)" (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1989: 41).

The ideas discussed by Skutnabb-Kangas (1989) about minority languages vs. dominant languages appear similarly in Laihonen's 2008 work, but this time in relation to non-standard-speaking minority groups. Laihonen (2008) argues for the existence of a 'standard' language ideology, which treats the standard variety of the language "as universal, the way the language is" (Laihonen, 2008: 687). The workings of this ideology were shown by the findings of his study, namely, the participants tended to link non-standard forms of Hungarian (from the Banat) with an inferior minority status which stands in contrast with the idealized Hungary Hungarian standard.

The notion of the standard language ideology was already conceptualized in 2001 by Milroy. Milroy (2001) highlights that standard-language cultures are cultures characterized by a strong sense of the superiority of 'correctness', a 'correctness' which should be accepted and maintained by everyone. The standard language ideology postulates that native speakers are not yet competent 'owners' of their L1 until they are taught how to use it 'correctly' through education. The legitimacy of the standard language is further strengthened by its prescription in the national curriculum, which, consequently gives no formal legitimacy to non-standard varieties (Milroy, 2001).

Milroy (2001: 531, emphasis in the original) highlights that standardization occurs when "promoting invariance and uniformity in language structure" is of utmost importance, and this uniformity is formally imposed. He further argues that the standard is typically considered to have the highest prestige, when, in fact, it could be better termed as the variety which is characterized by the highest level of invariance. While it is most often true that the standard is the most prestigious variety of the language, that is not what marks it out as the standard, but its highly normative and codified invariance. The standard variety being considered to have high prestige is an indexical phenomenon, that is, it is not the variety itself that 'possesses' prestige, but rather its speakers. Besides prestige, 'formality' and 'carefulness' have been

considered as characteristics of the standard, which are also evaluative comments and value judgements disfavoring non-standard forms. The perceived status and 'prestige' of the standard is institutionally preserved, the consequence of which is that divergent varieties are considered less valuable. The distinction between standard and non-standard varieties is not based on the innate value differences these varieties possess, but are brought about by the ideology of the standard language. Standardization is not considered to be a static and finished product but a process which is constantly ongoing and which ensures the continued invariance of the artificially elevated variety (Milroy, 2001).

In connection with standardization, Agha (2003) describes the process of enregisterment through the example of Received Pronunciation (RP). Enregisterment is defined as "the process whereby one register formation comes to be distinguished from other modes of activity, including other registers, and endowed with specific performable values" (Agha, 2007: 4). By the late 19th century, RP became widely acknowledged "as a form of semiotic capital in British society" and "a prerequisite for social advancement" (Agha, 2003: 232). Agha (2003) emphasizes that the number of RP speakers is considerably lower than that of those who are routinely exposed to the variety. These "asymmetries of competence also serve as a principle of value maintenance" (Agha, 2003: 265), which means that even though the majority are 'consumers' but not producers of RP, the distinct prestige of the variety is upheld due to the desirability of sounding like the small group of 'elite' speakers. The proliferation of the knowledge of what constitutes RP is aided by the fact that the set of phonological features differentiating RP from less prestigious varieties of British English are symbolically connected to exemplary speakers (e.g. the Queen's English or Public School Pronunciation).

Agha (2003) also states that a considerable part of the public's awareness of RP comes not only from hearing it spoken in the media, but also from comments on public figures' accents, and characters in novels being described through their 'accented' speech. While non-RP speaking newsreaders on BBC might face backlash for their accents being seen as improper for formal purposes, folk stereotypes exist about conservative U-RP speakers, as well, whose 'pompous' speech is imitated by using misspellings in writing. "[C]ertain regularities of evaluative behavior can be observed" with regard to the use of registers in Britain, which leads to the formation of shared beliefs about varieties of British English (Agha, 2003: 242). Scholarly prescriptivist works, popular handbooks, and even literary works and periodicals have addressed the idea of a 'proper' accent and 'stigmatized' forms. The above described influences have all contributed to the standardization of RP (Agha, 2003).

As teachers are expected to speak the way 'exemplary speakers' of the prestige variety speak, their variety, in return, becomes "a model to be replicated in the student" (Agha, 2003: 263). When there is a change in who is considered to be the exemplary speaker of the prestige variety, changes in the standard might occur. For example, Estuary English or 'Mainstream RP' might take the place of 'conservative' RP due to the dwindling number of its speakers even among the elite layer of the society. (Agha, 2003). This, in my understanding, is a useful analogy for changing what the prestige variety of English is for non-native speakers. If the exemplary speaker is not (only) the native speaker, there might be a change in expectations towards the 'good learner' of English with regard to accent attainment.

The role of teachers and schooling is also emphasized by Vogl and De Wilde's 2022 assertion that teachers are agents of foreign language making. They argue that "the criteria for what is regarded as authoritative in language and, more specifically, in language teaching, is informed by ideologies" (Vogl and De Wilde, 2022: 108). They further highlight that "if a teacher expresses the opinion that being born into the language gives someone authority, this stance is informed by an ideology of authenticity – an ideological stance which feeds into the concept of the native speaker" (Vogl and De Wilde, 2022: 108–109). The authors' focus when discussing foreign language making is "on how social actors describe and justify their roles by highlighting their authority in (a specific) language" (Vogl and De Wilde, 2022: 110), which is relevant for the present dissertation, one of the main aims of which is to give authority to the non-native speaker as a legitimate language user and, in certain cases, as a potential role model for other language learners.

The choice of varieties (by language teachers) to be taught to learners of a foreign language contributes to the language making process by giving authority only to a select set of varieties. By establishing the 'authentic speaker' as the role model, the ideology of the standard language is upheld in the classroom, as well. Language making is a process that has the power to determine what is constituted as 'the language' (i.e., the 'authentic' or 'standard' form), and what is seen as 'provincial' or 'non-standard' or 'non-authentic/non-native' (Vogl and De Wilde, 2022).

Language-based hierarchies and discrimination are not new phenomena. Isaacs (2018) highlights that the Biblical 'shibboleth tests' were the first attempts at using linguistic cues to identify people as 'insiders' vs. 'outsiders' from the listener's perspective, based on the pronunciation of the first sound in the word *shibboleth*. In Biblical times, the 'outsiders' were considered enemies and, when identified as such through pronunciation tests, they risked being slaughtered. Isaacs (2018) claims that these tests did not solely exist in Biblical times. Even

nowadays, people tend to have a hypersensitivity to accent, based on which they assign others into categories, which often has negative consequences for those who are considered 'different'. There is an official test, she argues, which can be viewed as the present-day version of the 'shibboleth tests', namely, the Language Analysis for the Determination of the regional or social Origin of asylum seekers (LADO), with the help of which refugees are identified as members of different social or regional groups, and this information contributes to the acceptance or denial of their applications for a refugee status.

Stereotypes, according to Isaacs (2018), often completely blur one's judgment when assessing someone's accent. She bases her claims on Hu and Lindemann's 2009 study on a specific form of linguistic stereotyping, also called accent hallucination: the respondents believed to have heard stereotypical features of Cantonese-accented English (which, in fact, were not present in the speech sample) when they were informed that the person providing the sample was a Cantonese speaker.

2.1.2. Language attitudes towards various native varieties and non-native accents of English

There seems to be an interesting distribution of attitudes among EFL learners towards British vs. American English, similar to what can be observed in the case of comparisons between native speakers' attitudes towards standard vs. non-standard varieties of the same language. Carrie (2017) discovered among (Castilian) Spanish EFL learners (with the help of the verbal guise technique) that, although they would like to approximate Received Pronunciation (RP), they consider General American (GenAm) to be more socially attractive. That is, RP seems to enjoy higher status, whereas participants feel greater solidarity towards GenAm. (The verbal guise technique is a variant of the matched guise technique, which has been used effectively in several studies since the 1960s to elicit personality evaluations of speakers solely based on their speech. One of the most well-known matched guise experiments is Lambert et al.'s 1960 French Canadian study.)

A similar pattern is observable when native speakers' attitudes towards Northern (closer to GenAm) and Southern (non-standard) accents of American English are compared. Kinzler and DeJesus (2013) highlight that 9–10-year-old American children already show adult-like patterns in their attitudes towards Northern vs. Southern varieties of American English. While Northerners are perceived as 'smarter' and people who seem to be 'in charge', Southerners are evaluated as 'nicer', which is an illustrative example of the distribution of status vs. solidarity evaluations. Attitude studies in other languages also show similar patterns, such as in the case

of standard French and Belgian French, which Yzerbyt et al. (2005) refer to as complementary stereotypes.

Non-native speakers also tend to give higher ratings to standard speakers than to speakers of non-standard or non-dominant varieties of English in terms of status evaluations (Tévar, 2014). Advanced Spanish students of English were asked to evaluate four varieties of British English: Received Pronunciation, Estuary, Cockney, and Scottish English. RP received the highest scores for, e.g., being well-educated and working in a higher position, etc., while Scottish English received very low ratings. "The disdain Spanish EFL students felt towards Scottish English could be explained [… by] their ignorance about the variety, and their belief that it is out of the norm, and even non-native" (Tévar, 2014: 71).

Ladegaard and Sachdev (2006) arrived at similar results to Carrie's above described 2017 findings, when they investigated the attitudes of Danish EFL learners. One of their male participants explained his opinions about American vs. British English as follows "I like the Americans and American history and culture seem more appealing and exciting but I certainly don't aim for an American accent" (Ladegaard and Sachdev, 2006: 102). This finding might be explained in similar terms as Carrie's 2017 results, namely, that American English speakers are perceived as more likeable, but British English is considered more prestigious by EFL learners; therefore, the more prestigious accent is the one they would like to emulate. Ladegaard and Sachdev (2006: 106) interpret their findings in a way that adds further insight to the usual 'status vs. solidarity distinction'-based explanations. They point out the following:

> "this study has provided evidence for what may be referred to as the *language–culture discrepancy hypothesis*. Underlying this hypothesis is the notion that it is perfectly feasible to have positive attitudes towards members of another ethnolinguistic group, and to state a preference for certain elements of that community, without wanting to adopt all the elements, including the language, of that culture" (Ladegaard and Sachdev, 2006: 106, italics in the original).

What Trudgill (1972) terms covert prestige might also be useful to interpret the above results. While Trudgill mainly uses the notion of covert prestige to refer to male speakers' appreciation for working class speech as a signal of masculinity and toughness, which does not apply to the differences between participants' attitudes towards British vs. American English, there is a more general understanding that can be drawn from Trudgill's description of a type of prestige that is not in line with the mainstream views about the status of a variety. Based on Trudgill's assumptions, there seem to be cases when a variety is not considered highly

prestigious but there is still some appeal to it on a more personal level. In view of this approach, Received Pronunciation might enjoy overt prestige among EFL learners, while American English can be considered to have covert prestige.

When it comes to vocabulary preference only, Koceva and Kostadinova (2023) found that EFL learners at a Macedonian and a Bulgarian university show no clear preference for either British or American vocabulary items when tested on a translation exercise from their mother tongue into English, with a special focus on words that are used differently in the two varieties, i.e., the words are not the same (e.g., *garden* vs. *yard*) or at least the spelling is different (e.g., *favourite* vs. *favorite*). The results show that there is a constant mixing of British and American vocabulary items in the participants' (written) English.

Lei (2016) defines three sub-processes of internalization that are important for language learners when improving their L2 English writing skills: noticing, imitating and goal setting. Lei argues that those participants who were skilled L2 writers were considerably better at noticing proficient language use in literary works, for instance. Coming across interesting and highly expressive language use was a source of joy and fascination for them, unlike for unskilled L2 writers. Skilled L2 writers were able to go further than simply noticing exemplary language use: they were also more likely to imitate the language use of proficient native writers. One of the participants noted: "If I borrow them from those exemplary works, my essays will look like professional native writers', which is exactly what I am pursuing" (Lei, 2016: 110). Goal setting for the skilled participants included practicing and reviewing the writing strategies that they had seen proficient L1 writers use.

Kung and Wang (2019) suggest that Lei's 2016 notions of noticing, imitating and goal setting can be used for the context of L2 accent preferences and accent learning, as well. Participants in their study seemed to notice different accents from the media or during their language learning at school, or through communication with other native or non-native speakers, and they imitated the ones they liked the most (typically British and American English) through repetition. American English is typically encountered in the media, and 'Cambridge English' is preferred by Chinese EFL course books. However, when participants needed to communicate with international students after high school, their goals changed, as effective communication came to the fore. The authors note that their findings support the idea that "teaching materials and learning access play a significant role in learners' accent preferences" (Kung and Wang, 2019: 403).

A similar idea regarding the role of learning materials in accent preferences was formulated by Liao and Hu (2016), as well, who investigated Taiwanese EFL learners' attitudes

towards British vs. American English. As American English is preferred in Taiwanese EFL education, students rarely encounter other varieties of English, including British English, in the classroom. Interestingly, this does not seem to cause comprehension difficulties when listening to British English, but participants have more favorable attitudes towards American English.

In addition to status and solidarity, dynamism (e.g., confidence and talkativeness) was used as a category of traits in Mısır and Gürbüz's 2022 investigation, and the seven accents included in the study were British, American, Australian, Hong Kong, Indian, Jamaican and Turkish English. The participants (Turkish in-service teachers of English) were able to correctly identify American and Turkish English the most frequently, and Hong Kong and Australian English were the varieties that were the least known to them. American English received the highest ratings for all the three categories of traits (with the ratings for status being equal with Australian English). The qualitative analysis echoed the results of the quantitative part of the study, as "I definitely have the Turkish accent, but if I have to choose one native accent that my accent is closer, it would be American accent" and "I like my accent but I would prefer to speak American English" were among the responses to the open-ended questions of the study (Mısır and Gürbüz, 2022: 462–463).

Nguyen (2022) categorized their Vietnamese ESL/EFL learner participants' attitudes towards British vs. American English as cognitive, affective and conative responses. In terms of cognitive evaluations, which comprised items related to perceived personality and socio-economic traits, such as 'trustworthy' and 'wealthy', British English received higher status ratings, while American English received higher solidarity ratings. Regarding the affective (e.g., liking, preferring, being irritated by the accent) and conative (e.g., target accent) dimensions, American English was preferred.

Carrie (2015) arrived at similar results. Her Spanish university student respondents expressed more favorable ratings for RP overall, but particularly in terms of status (i.e., prestige, competence, etc.), while GenAm was evaluated positively in terms of solidarity (i.e., social attractiveness). Social attractiveness, Carrie notes, seems to be an affective measure, and the conative component of the participants' attitudes showed that they believed to have an accent similar to the one they considered to be more socially attractive (which was often GenAm). Even so, they expressed their wish to have an accent similar to RP. Carrie (2015: on poster) concludes that "RP speech has formal and functional associations and GenAm has informal and interpersonal associations." The results reveal that the students' attitudes influenced their accent production in English. The production of four target variables was investigated, revealing that the majority of the respondents preferred to use the RP variant of the intervocalic /t/, i.e. [t]

(71.5%), the post-consonantal /u/, i.e. [juː] (83.5%), and the low back vowel, i.e. [ɒ] (91.5%). The only preference for GenAm in the participants' accent production was in the case of the post-vocalic /r/, which might be caused by the fact that it is easier for Spanish EFL learners to produce rhotic speech, and the spelling also influences their pronunciation. Most of the participants were observed to produce a "hybrid 'learner' accent" (Carrie, 2015: on poster), in which a mixture of RP and GenAm features was present.

In a 2013 conference paper reporting on the same investigation, Carrie argues that the participants' attitudes proved to be a good indicator of their realization of the intervocalic /t/ as [t] or [ɾ], as it was found that "[w]here respondents viewed a speech variety as being useful to them or expressed a specific preference for that variety, they inevitably imitated the phonological variant associated with that variety" (Carrie, 2013: 4). Spanish participants seemed to identify RP correctly more often than GenAm, and when they misidentified GenAm as RP, they assigned high status to it (Carrie and McKenzie, 2018).

Similarly, British English seems to be associated with prestige and American English with informality according to Norwegian learners of English, as Rindal (2010) reports. They mix British and American features in their own speech (which might be occasioned by the formality or informality of the context), and their linguistic choices contribute to their (L2) identity construction. Rindal (2010) suggests that the participants are able to strategically select and use features from different varieties of English, with the help of which they construct local meanings. These findings underline the dynamic nature of linguistic choices and identity construction, and suggest that the negotiation of identity extends to L2 use (Rindal, 2010).

The formal connotations of sounding native-like (in general) were highlighted in Özçelik's 2022 study. The Turkish university students participating in the investigation showed a preference for British English as an 'ideal' accent for daily and professional communication, and American English was their second most preferred accent. "They believed that if they had a British or American English accent, they would sound better to the other speakers" (Özçelik, 2022: 430). Specifically, the respondents accentuated the importance of sounding native-like in professional contexts, as it was believed to make them sound more 'sophisticated' and give them more 'prestige', while daily language use can be more casual and relaxed. However, another large group of respondents prioritized intelligibility over approximating a particular native accent.

Sung (2016: 59) suggests that "[w]hat seems to motivate the participant to sound native-like is the symbolic value of native-speaker pronunciation, particularly the prestige associated with it and the recognition that one may gain from other interlocutors in ELF [English as a

lingua franca] communication." This argument is based on participants' considering native accents as 'superior', 'ideal', 'highly proficient' and 'the best', while expressing their concerns that sounding 'non-native' can evoke negative evaluations. For the respondents, native-like accent attainment was linked to a positive self-image.

Jenkins (2007) argues that sounding native-like is really important for her non-native participants, as well. That is what they consider the 'real thing', the 'perfect' way of speaking English, while non-native accents are considered less valuable, and even 'horrible or 'deficient' varieties. The respondents seem to construe the native–non-native dichotomy as an 'accent hierarchy', where non-native accents are down at the bottom, while Received Pronunciation and General American are high up. (It is notable that other native varieties, such as New Zealand English, Scottish English, or the Texan accent, were not highly valued by the respondents.)

When comparing the attitudes of Korean English major and non-English major students towards English as an international language (EIL) with the help of rating scales, Lee and Lee (2019) found that English majors had more positive attitudes towards different Outer and Expanding Circle varieties of English (as defined by Kachru, e.g., 1990, 1992, 1997) in general and also when specifically used as in-class listening materials, and towards using strategies for multilingual/multicultural communication than non-English majors, although both groups expressed rather positive attitudes. The difference between the two groups of respondents was more pronounced in the case of two rating scales, namely, being able to explain Korean culture to people from different backgrounds and accepting various Outer Circle Englishes as legitimate varieties.

In another study, Lee and Chen Hsieh (2018) concluded that Korean and Taiwanese non-English major university students reacted positively to the idea of EIL (English as an international language), but using non-native speech samples in English classes was less accepted by Korean students than by their Taiwanese counterparts. The participants also showed a strong sense of ownership towards their own varieties of English, with Korean students scoring even higher than Taiwanese students. Both respondent groups showed agreement with the statements "English teachers should not push me to speak like a 'native' English speaker" and "It is unnecessary to speak like American or British English speakers as long as my English is intelligible (or understandable) to others" (Lee and Chen Hsieh, 2018: 796); however, it was more difficult for them to agree with a hypothetical situation in which people laugh at their accent but it does not matter to them because it is their 'own' English (which they cherish).

These findings are in considerable contrast with Liou's 2010 findings, which show that Taiwanese EFL teachers and learners are not in favor of the idea that varieties of EIL could become accent models for learners. While teachers are willing to accept different varieties of English outside school, in class they require students to use 'Standard English' grammar and pronunciation, and they also expect the same from a 'good' English teacher. ELF learners in the study had similar attitudes towards EIL, namely, they wished to sound native-like rather than accept an EIL accent showing their non-native origins. As Liou (2010: 154) points out, "[i]n their view, English still belongs to its native speakers". The title of the study itself ("Who wants EIL?") can be seen as a warning to English language educators, drawing attention to a rather negative view of non-native Englishes among L2 users. Llurda (2009) suggests that non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) can feel 'downgraded' as they teach a language of which they are not considered 'owners', which is a paradoxical situation that can be resolved if the teachers themselves experience multiple varieties of English and start focusing more on multilingualism and international communication.

Labov (1966) calls instances when non-standard native speakers of English from New York City had negative attitudes towards their own variety (which they used on a daily basis) and idealized 'correct' speech as cases of linguistic insecurity, which is detrimental to one's self-perception and confidence, and which seems similar to what non-native speakers experience, as I argued in a previous paper based on my master's thesis (Püski, 2021). Labov (1966) even argues that linguistic self-hatred might be a fitting term to describe these speakers' attitudes towards their own speech. However, Macaulay (1975) is critical of the Labovian view that linguistic insecurity and linguistic self-hatred are strongly present in the New York City speech community. He argues that it was a result of the research design that participants were highly aware of the differences between their own speech and the 'standard', and, in fact, it "show[s] remarkable linguistic confidence on the part of two thirds of the informants" (Macaulay, 1975: 149) that they claimed to speak either 'correctly' or with minimal differences from what is considered 'correct'.

These two strikingly different interpretations of the same results might shed light on the above-described differences between the findings of seemingly similar studies (e.g., Lee and Chen Hsieh, 2018 and Liou, 2010). The questions asked can influence the participants' responses and the interpretations made might focus on different aspects of the answers, thus arriving at greatly different conclusions. Therefore, more studies are necessary to understand non-native learners' accent preferences, opinions about non-native English language use, and

whether their seeming acceptance or rejection of EIL varieties can accurately describe their linguistic insecurity or confidence.

2.1.3. Problematizing native speakerism

Regarding the first direction pointed out in the Introduction, the question arises whether non-native English is not considered 'real' or legitimate English. Standing in contrast with Cook's 2000 assertion that it was only the people in charge of English-learning programs who believed that native teachers would be more well-received, while students themselves did not have such a strong bias in favor of native teachers, Mahboob's 2004 ESL student respondents indicated that it was native teachers who could provide the right target language models for them to follow. Part of this preference might be connected to a desire to sound native-like.

One of the most illustrative and shocking examples for negative attitudes towards and prejudice against non-native accents comes from Shuck's 2004 study, in which two middle-class, white, L1 English-speaking women rated – in the form of dramatic narratives – the non-native speaker providing the speech sample for the recording as 'incomprehensible' and even 'frightening', and the idea that he might be 'a murderer' also emerged. The women expressed exaggerated difficulty with understanding his speech, claiming that they could not understand anything he said. Shuck's conclusion of these findings is that the ideology of nativeness leads to a sharp division between the raters' in-group, that is, 'us', and the out-group, 'them', who appear as incomprehensible and threatening 'others'.

Interestingly, as Lindemann et al. (2014) note, attitudes towards L2 English seem to be more negative than attitudes towards L2 varieties of other languages. Their argument is based on the findings of Drewelow and Theobald's 2007 study, namely, that French native speakers in France did not expect American L2 speakers of French to have a native-like accent in their L2. Therefore, the author of this paper believes that changing English language learners' (and native speakers') attitudes towards non-native English is imperative, and the EFL classroom might be able to become one vehicle for that change.

Cook (1999: 185) argues that "the prominence of the native speaker in language teaching has obscured the distinctive nature of the successful L2 user and created an unattainable goal for L2 learners", and highlights that non-native speakers should be considered as "multicompetent language users rather than as deficient native speakers". He calls for a perspective shift in language teaching, namely, that requiring L2 learners to become native-like through language learning is neither desirable nor feasible. "If students and teachers see L2 learning as a battle that they are fated never to win, little wonder they become dispirited and

give up. L2 learners' battle to become native speakers is lost before it has begun" (Cook, 1999: 204).

Hall (2012: 127) conceptualizes battling native speakerism (i.e., the idealization of the native speaker as the 'proper' speaker of a language) as "[m]odeling a role other than being perceived as a superior source of knowledge" for L1 speakers, which needs to be done locally, keeping the specificities of the language learners' culture in mind. The influence of native-speakerism can be felt strongly among teachers of English, as well, who might face employment difficulties if categorized as a non-native speaker, according to Leonard (2019), who emphasizes "the power of 'native-speakerism', and endorses the need for scholars and teacher educators to continue to challenge its influences in order to establish equality and respect for teachers' contributions to the profession irrespective of their origin" (Leonard, 2019: 697).

Similarly, Anchimbe (2006: 12) argues that "[c]ompetence or proficiency and not origin must be judged as a prerequisite for especially ELT [English language teaching] positions. Not all native speakers are proficient in their native languages. ELT is not a natural element of native speakers but a profession that requires due training and efficiency".

Relying on Rampton's 1990 critical description of who is typically considered as a native speaker (in which it was suggested that the term native speaker itself is flawed, with the three criteria for being considered a native speaker being language expertise, language affiliation and language inheritance), Mahboob (2005) argues that an L2 user might have more expertise with a language than an L1 user in some cases, and might even consider themselves affiliated with their L2, which leaves only language inheritance as a defining criterion for a 'native speaker'.

Following a poststructuralist approach, Aneja (2016) also problematizes the abstract categorization of native vs. non-native speakers. Instead of these commonly used terms, she prefers to use the expression '(non)native speakered subjectivities', and she calls the process by which people come to be identified socially as one or the other '(non)native speakering'. The aim of Aneja's 2016 approach is to highlight the non-objective and socially constructed nature of such a categorization, which is perpetuated in society by institutions and individuals alike. The reason for using only one term [(non)native speakering] instead of two (non-native speakering vs. native speakering) is to emphasize that those who are non-native speakered are defined by others' contrasting them with native speakered subjectivities. As speakers are constructed and positioned socially as (non)native speakered subjectivities, being (non)native speakered can be considered a performative, which is carried out either explicitly, e. g., by pointing out that someone is a non-native speaker, or implicitly, e.g., by inquiring about how a

non-Caucasian person is able to speak English so 'beautifully'. This suggests that being (non)native speakered is based on the categorizer's perception of the speaker's (linguistic) behavior rather than the 'natural' characteristics of the categorized (Aneja, 2016).

While I am not arguing against the use of the terms 'native speaker' and 'non-native speaker' (and for ease of reference and clarity, I use them in this dissertation), I find the understanding that the dividing line between the two is not absolute and clearly definable, or even meaningful (cf. Rampton, 1990; Mahboob, 2005; and Aneja, 2016 above) essential for promoting the acceptance of non-native accented English.

Lee (2005) supports the use of alternative terminology, e.g., competent language user, instead of native vs. non-native speaker (while not completely replacing the two) to emphasize what the speaker knows instead of who they are (following Rampton, 1990), and to highlight that the main aim of language teaching is to enable learners to become competent communicators.

The most neutral, and potentially the least complicated and most usable, term for non-native speakers seems to be 'L2 user', which is defined as "any person who uses another language than his or her first language (L1), that is to say, the one learnt first as a child" (Cook 2002: 1). This term and definition are based on the understanding that using a language other than one's first language is "a commonplace activity" (Cook 2002: 2), that is, it is a normal and everyday experience, which, I believe, gives L2 use more legitimacy, while taking away the peculiarity which might be seen as a connotation of being a non-native speaker. While the term *non-native* emphasizes the 'lack' of something, *L2 user* does not seem to carry such a value judgement.

Beyond traditional approaches to L2 learning and use, Blommaert (2010) discusses the notion of super-diversity, which is the result of globalization and people's increased mobility around the world, involving the layering of new immigrant neighborhoods around older immigrant neighborhoods. 'Truncated' repertoires can often be observed in new immigrants, which suggests that a new view of multilingualism might be necessary: one which can accommodate the idea of "repertoires composed of specialized but partially and unevenly developed resources" (Blommaert, 2010: 23). For this reason, what it means to be a native speaker, a bi- or multilingual, or an L2 user is expected to keep changing together with the constant social changes in a globalized world.

2.1.4. Factors influencing attitude formation: The role of motivation, willingness to communicate and perfectionism

Attitude formation can be influenced by various factors, such as people's behavior, that is, their actions; intentions, i.e., their willingness to do something or behave in a certain way; goals, that is, what motivates them to do certain actions; and beliefs, which are their preconceptions that might influence the formation of new beliefs (Albarracín et al., 2019).

In MacIntyre et al.'s widely accepted 1998 model of willingness to communicate (WTC) in an L2, WTC is defined "as a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 547). Supporting Albarracín et al.'s 2019 notion of the importance of intentions in attitude formation, in this six-layer model, Layer V links the concept of WTC to language attitudes, as this layer consists of 'intergroup attitudes', the 'social situation', and 'communicative competence'. The component 'intergroup attitudes' can influence 'integrativeness', the 'fear of assimilation' and the 'motivation to learn the L2'. As MacIntyre et al. (1998: 552) claim, "[t]he desire to be a part of the L2 community is indicative of increased involvement with that community." However, becoming a member of another group can have disadvantages, such as a sense of losing one's original (L1) self, which can lead to fearing intensive contact with the L2 and its speakers. Attitudes can have an impact on the general enjoyment of learning a language, as well. "Enjoyment and satisfaction in learning and using the L2 may encourage the individual to apply a more intense and thorough effort to the learning process" (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 552). This latter idea is closely connected to the present dissertation, one of whose aims was to investigate the relationship between negative attitudes towards non-native accents of English and willingness to communicate in English as a foreign langue.

As MacIntyre et al.'s above described 1998 model suggests, motivation is also considered to be interconnected with language attitudes and willingness to communicate (cf. Albarracín et al., 2019 above). In his 'L2 Motivational Self-System' approach to motivation, Dörnyei (2005: 98, italics in the original) argues that "*possible selves* offer the most powerful, and at the same time the most versatile, motivational self-mechanism, representing the individuals' ideas of what they *might* become, what they *would like* to become, and what they are *afraid of* becoming". Using Higgins's 1987 self-discrepancy theory as a base, the L2 Motivational Self-System approach (e.g., Dörnyei 2005, 2009) postulates that the quest to decrease the differences between one's current self and the ideal self they would like to reach, as well as to avoid the negative outcomes (as outlined by the ought-to self) contributes to language learning motivation. This can have important implications for L2 learning, especially

if one's ideal L2 self is unreachable. This idea is explained in more detail in the Motivation subsection (Section 2.3.) of the Literature review.

It has been found that perfectionism can have strong implications for the success of language learning (cf. 'beliefs' in Albarracín et al., 2019 above). According to Flett et al. (2016), perfectionism plays a role in the occurrence of language learning anxiety and performance deficits, hence reducing the level of perfectionism in learners is important. Stoeber et al. (2018: 19) recognize that perfectionism can have a twofold impact: it "may energize or paralyze people". Originally, this idea was voiced by Hamachek (1978), and the two types of perfectionism were termed 'normal' vs. 'neurotic'. Normal perfectionism involves having sensible and feasible expectations towards oneself, which can help one succeed, whereas neurotic perfectionism involves having unrealistic and extreme expectations towards oneself that cannot be reached most of the time; and therefore, might cause anxiety and fear. These were later renamed as 'positive' vs. 'negative' perfectionism, where the distinction between the two is recognizable from their impact on people's functioning: the type of perfectionism which is associated with the fear of failure, shame or ridicule is termed negative perfectionism, while positive perfectionism describes people's desire for great achievement (e.g., Terry-Short et al., 1995; Chan, 2007). As perfectionism centers around the idea of 'correctness', language learners' predisposition to perfectionism might play a role in whether they accept non-native-accented varieties of English as legitimate. (See more on perfectionism in section 2.4.)

For the above-discussed reasons, the attitude questionnaire used in the classroom and online investigations reported on in this dissertation was complemented with questions related to motivation, positive and negative perfectionism, and willingness to communicate. The areas of motivation, perfectionism, and willingness to communicate have separate designated subsections in the Literature review of this dissertation, where these concepts are reinstated and discussed in more detail.

When one attempts to change someone's attitudes, the efficacy of attitude change depends on multiple factors: the message, the recipient, and the source (Albarracín et al., 2019). In my classroom investigation, the teaching materials specifically designed for the purposes of the study sent a particular indirect message through the source of information, i.e., the teacher (myself). The recipients, that is, the participants were chosen with two characteristics in mind: their English proficiency had to be advanced enough to understand different varieties of English with relative ease, and yet they needed to be young enough to respond to attempts at attitude formation, i.e., not having already fixed and unchangeable preconceptions about EFL use. (This is the reason why 10th-grade high school students were selected. Due to the Matura

Examinations, which are the compulsory school leaving exams in Hungarian high schools, 11th- and 12th-grade students were deliberately not selected in order not to interfere with their preparations for the exams.)

Since people's need for social acceptability and approval might hinder their attitude change (Albarracín et al., 2019), organizing the experimental class sessions in the official school environment, as a part of the students' compulsory English classes, was an important factor to help foster the legitimacy of non-native accents in an academic setting.

As a teaching experiment was at the center of the investigations reported on in the present dissertation, Section 2.2. explores some concepts related to and aspects of foreign language teaching and learning which were essential for my investigations. The subsections within Section 2.2. discuss the following: foreign vs. second language (2.2.1.), the critical period hypothesis (2.2.2.), the idea of 'native-likeness' vs. 'intelligibility' and the role of pronunciation teaching (2.2.3.), models which go beyond the idealization of the native speaker (2.2.4.), and some insights from Communication Accommodation Theory and related frameworks which can be useful in a classroom where the goal is to avoid the 'native bias' (2.2.5.).

2.2. Foreign language learning and teaching

2.2.1. Foreign language vs. second language

When discussing English as an L2, it is important to differentiate between English as a foreign language and English as a second language. Originally, Marckwardt (1963) defined English as a foreign language (EFL) as follows:

> "English taught as a school subject or on an adult level solely for the purpose of giving the student a foreign language competence which he may use in one of several ways – to read literature, to read technical works, to listen to the radio, to understand dialogue in the movies, to use the language for communication possibly with transient English or Americans" (Marckwardt, 1963: 25).

Since Marckwardt's 1963 definition, linguists have increasingly started to highlight that, for language learners, communication with other non-native speakers is more likely than with native speakers (e.g., Jenkins, 2002), but the general idea that a foreign language is a language typically learnt through formal education while not being immersed in the target language environment has been maintained (e.g., Nayar, 1997; Iwai, 2011).

English as a second language (ESL) is understood by Marckwardt (1963: 25) as English being used as "a language of instruction in the schools […] or a lingua franca between speakers of widely diverse languages" in a country. Nayar (1997) gives a more detailed categorization of different meanings to the notion of ESL. He distinguishes three types of ESL based on geographical location: ESL1 (east of the Atlantic), ESL2 (North America and Australia) and ESL3 (Scandinavia). ESL1 is understood to be English used as a very important language of a country where people's L1 is typically not English, but the language of "education, administration, and commerce" (Nayar, 1997: 15) is English. The term ESL2 is used for immigrant contexts or for the language use of international students in a traditionally English-speaking country. In these contexts, English is not learnt through formal education but acquired while being immersed in the target language. In Scandinavia, where English is not used for communication between different lingua-cultural groups within the same country, nor is it given an official language status, it still has a very important function in people's lives, especially among educated people. This third category is denoted as ESL3 (Nayar, 1997). The idea of the English language being used in different contexts for different purposes was further explored by Kachru (e.g., 1990, 1992, 1997), which is discussed in Section 2.2.4.

2.2.2. The critical period hypothesis and related theories of the effects of age on language acquisition

Lenneberg (1967) hypothesized a critical period for language acquisition, namely, between age 2 and age 12, within which 'complete' language development is possible, which he called the "period of maximum ability to acquire a language" (Lenneberg, 1967: 62). While Lenneberg's 1967 critical period hypothesis mainly focused on L1 acquisition (with a brief mention of similarities with L2 acquisition), Johnson and Newport (1989) concentrated on the question whether learning English after another language has been learnt is "still maturationally constrained" (Johnson and Newport, 1989: 61). They found a significant correlation between the participant's syntactic and morphological performance and their age of arrival in the US. (The participants' L1 was Chinese or Korean.) The data also shows that, before puberty, age matters in L2 acquisition, but after puberty, the effect of age disappears. "Thus it appears as if language learning ability slowly declines as the human matures and plateaus at a low level after puberty" (Johnson and Newport, 1989: 90).

However, with the help of a revisited figure from Johnson and Newport's 1989 study, which was originally understood to show that puberty marks the end of the critical period, Bialystok and Hakuta (1994: 69) claim that "judging by the elbow of the line, the critical

difference seems to occur just before twenty years of age, not at puberty", which seems to be supported by the linear correlation coefficients they calculated for the 'not older than twenty' and 'above twenty' groups.

Birdsong's 1992 findings are similar to those of Johnson and Newport (1989) in that the participants' (native speakers of English) age of arrival in France was a predictor of the participants' 'deviance' from native norms. However, while Johnson and Newport (1989) argued that the effect of age disappears after puberty, as language development plateaus at that point, Birdsong (1992) claims that the effect of age is maintained after puberty, as well. He further argues that it seems to be possible for some non-native speakers who started to learn their L2 after puberty to reach an ultimate attainment which can be considered native-like (at least on some tasks); however, due to the limitations of his study, he does not regard this as a proven fact.

Paradis (2004) discusses the effect of age on language acquisition in neurolinguistic terms. He explains that with age, there is a decline of procedural memory, which results in different cognitive systems being used for language learning in late L2 learners. Late learners need to rely more on explicit learning, which is different from how an L1 is acquired in early childhood. Procedural memory is "[i]mplicit memory [,which] is much more fundamental and more pervasive than explicit memory", as "it relates to internalized procedures, genuine behavior programs, which eventually contribute to the automatic performance of the task" (Paradis, 2004: 9), while declarative memory is related to what is consciously learnt or experienced (Paradis, 2004). In this sense, Paradis (2004) highlights, the critical period is understood to have an impact on language 'acquisition', that is, the implicit internalization of a language (and not language 'learning', i.e., conscious training in a language.) If formal teaching is employed to transmit L2 skills to students, it will mainly involve the learners' declarative memory, but if the teaching process involves communicative elements, procedural memory might also be activated to a certain extent (Paradis, 2004).

The Speech Learning Model (e.g., Flege, 1995) takes a different approach and stresses that most (but not all) of the pronunciation 'errors' in L2 speakers' speech (which can be seen as features of a foreign accent) stem from perception issues, that is, the inaccurate perception of target sounds. The ability to recognize the difference between target sounds and their L1 counterparts becomes weaker with the increase of the age of learning, one of Flege's 1995 hypotheses states. As the production of a sound is likely to follow from the phonetic category it is assigned to, phonetic categorization eventually impacts production, too (Flege, 1995).

Other causes for 'errors' include, for example, "motoric output constraints based on permissible syllable types in the L1" (Flege, 1995: 238).

Even though the notion that age of learning or age of arrival affects the success of language acquisition (i.e., 'native-likeness') has been accepted by several scholars supporting various approaches, as the above discussion shows, Singleton and Leśniewska (2021: 1) claim that "the critical period notion remains unproven but also unfalsified". They support their claim by highlighting that no definitive answer has been given to the question of the endpoint of the critical period, and whether there is one critical period for language acquisition in general or multiple, separate critical periods for different aspects of language acquisition. They consider the notion of 'the earlier the better' only a likelihood and not a definitive rule, as not all early arrivals grow up sounding native-like and not all late arrivals fall behind the young ones in L2 proficiency; there are always exceptions to the recurrent tendencies.

If the critical period hypothesis cannot be completely proven or completely discarded, what might be the right trajectory for future studies? Chiswick and Miller's 2008 study might be a part of the answer. They arrived at a conclusion which does not support the idea that there is a sharp dividing line before which native-like acquisition is possible and beyond which it is not, rather, their findings give strong reinforcement to the understanding that age affects language acquisition. Focusing on data on immigrants from various non-English speaking countries taken from the 2000 US Census, they determined that "[p]roficiency in self-reported spoken English is shown to decline more or less monotonically with age at migration" (Chiswick and Miller, 2008: 26), and there does not seem to appear a sharp and salient cut-off point after which a pronounced decline happens. For immigrants whose L1 is more 'distant' from English, the decline with age is steep, while for those whose L1 is closer to English, the initial decline is less abrupt, but both groups are characterized by a continuous decline without a marked period-end, regardless of gender.

I suggest that the view emphasizing that with the increase of the age when learners are first exposed to their L2 reaching native-like proficiency is increasingly less likely might serve more important purposes than a continued search for the cut-off point of a hypothesized critical period, as it might help conquer the ideology that native-likeness is the (only) desirable outcome of language learning or acquisition. (Also, learning English in an EFL context most often entails learning the target language from other non-native users, which has an impact on the learners' pronunciation.) Birdsong's assertion (2018: 13) that "departures from monolingual-likeness are found not just in post-childhood learning but among from-birth simultaneous bilinguals as well"

is in line with Grosjean's holistic view of bilingualism (e.g., 1989), and questions the usefulness of comparing bilinguals against monolingual standards.

Additionally, factors not connected to a person's age which might influence ultimate attainment (and be more important than age) are highlighted by Piller (2002: 201), such as "motivation, choice and agency". Her participants tended to differentiate between the time of their first encounter with their L2 and the time they really started focusing on learning the language. The time when the 'real' language learning started was typically linked to an important event in their lives, such as starting a relationship or a new job, which made language learning important for them (Piller, 2002).

The effect of age in general on acquiring native-likeness (potentially without a strong focus on a specific critical period) is an important factor to consider when teaching English as a foreign language. As native-like acquisition for EFL learners who are past puberty and have never been to an English-speaking country before (or visited one only briefly in the past) does not seem highly likely based on the different conceptualizations of the critical period discussed above, helping EFL learners accept their non-native accent as a legitimate and valuable way of using English is vital. This is what the present dissertation focuses on.

2.2.3. Native-likeness vs. intelligibility/comprehensibility and the role of pronunciation teaching

The second trajectory which arose from the issues mentioned in the Introduction of this dissertation is the possibility of setting successful non-native speakers as role models to emulate for language learners. Due to the effect of age on language learning discussed in the previous subsection, it seems to be a good idea to set more achievable goals for language learners. Instead of aiming for a native accent and being disappointed when that goal cannot be reached, non-native accent models can be used in language classes in addition to the native speech samples that accompany most course books. There are more studies on the strengths and weaknesses of native vs. non-native teachers of English, but less on teachers' reactions to using non-native audio samples in the EFL classroom. In the existing studies, reactions to non-native audio samples for teaching purposes are not entirely positive.

Although pre-service English teachers seemed willing to use non-native English recordings in their classes according to Litzenberg (2016 [2014]), their comments often indicated that error correction-focused analysis was the first thought that came to mind with regard to using high-intermediate non-native speech samples in class. Even when it came to using advanced samples in class, these were praised for containing 'few mistakes', which

highlights the respondents' native-centered approach to teaching English (Litzenberg, 2016 [2014]).

Still, scholars are trying to challenge the hegemony of the native speaker model in English language teaching. Murphy (2014) encourages the incorporation of intelligible and comprehensible non-native speaker models into ESL/EFL classes. He argues that the two main advantages of such non-native models are that they are more realistic targets for ESL/EFL learners to approximate, and they are also more relevant for learners' pronunciation needs than native models. His study was carried out among 34 specialists in pronunciation teaching, using questionnaires to elicit their responses. Respondents were asked to rate award winning Spanish actor Javier Bardem's speech from a 2010 interview, and the results showed that they considered Bardem's pronunciation both intelligible and comprehensible. (The distinction between these two terms will be addressed later.) As the actor is also a high achiever, and, therefore, an appropriate model in every respect for non-native speakers, Murphy believes that similar speech samples could be incorporated as supplementary models in English language classrooms. He does not claim that non-native models should completely replace native models – intelligible and comprehensible non-native samples are recommended for classroom use as additional models that are easier to approximate for learners. Murphy (2014) rejects the deficit model of non-native pronunciation, and foregrounds comprehensibility, that is, the meaningful exchange of ideas and the effective expression of one's thoughts. He does not regard having a non-native accent as a flaw but a natural characteristic of ESL/EFL speech, which does not render the speaker an ineffective user of the language.

Similarly, Lindemann et al. (2014) find accent reduction courses ineffective, and argue that making learners change their accent specifically in order to avoid prejudice is counterproductive. They emphasize that the problem itself, i.e., prejudice, should be targeted and not necessarily non-native accents. Language attitudes tend to be formative in the making of decisions about the present and future of pronunciation teaching, which Lindemann et al. (2014) consider unfortunate, as, this way, native-speaker privilege is further strengthened. They add that non-native speakers of English are increasingly using English among each other rather than in conversations with native speakers; therefore, English language teaching has to accommodate these needs.

Nevertheless, activities which focus on the imitation of native accent models are still often used in the classroom. Baker (2014) argues that although imitation-based activities have not been favored by scholars since the rise of communicative language teaching, they still tend to be valued by some language teachers, and, in fact, they can contribute to learners'

improvement to a certain degree. However, she points out that, as Saito and Lyster (2012) have shown, communicative activities that involve focus on meaning and didactic interaction are able to impact learner uptake to a greater degree than form-focused activities, such as drills.

Baranyi-Dupák (2024) found among her Hungarian teacher trainee respondents that there was a lack of diversity in the reported pronunciation learning techniques, and 'listen and repeat'-type methods were frequently used. Additionally, her teacher trainee respondents found it more important to have a native-like accent when it came to their own pronunciation than that of their (future) students.

Meaning-focused interaction might even enhance the comprehensibility of L2 learners' accent. Kennedy and Trofimovich (2010) discuss the relationship between L2 learners' language awareness and L2 pronunciation using Benson and Lor's 1999 analytical framework for describing the quality of learners' awareness. Benson and Lor (1999) differentiate between qualitative and quantitative awareness. Their analytical framework defines qualitative awareness as the type of language awareness that those learners have who view language as a meaning carrying entity, as opposed to learners with quantitative awareness, who consider language as a set of concepts, features, and items that have to be memorized. Kennedy and Trofimovich (2010) elicited the 10 participating learners' language awareness through dialogue journal entries, and their pronunciation was assessed with the help of listener-based ratings, mainly focusing on accentedness, comprehensibility, and fluency. The main finding of the study is that those students who exhibited qualitative awareness rather than quantitative awareness (as discernible from their journal entries) received higher ratings for their pronunciation. This implies that learners' focus on meaning rather than on form was beneficial for their acquisition of L2 pronunciation. Those students who included more qualitative awareness-related comments in their journal entries were also found to be engaged in more L2 listening outside the classroom, which might also have contributed to their more comprehensible accent production. Their engagement in L2 listening activities outside the classroom underlines their meaning-focused approach to language learning.

The above descriptions show that the debate between native-likeness vs. intelligibility being the most important goals for language learners is still not completely over. Levis (2005) calls these competing ideas the 'nativeness principle' and the 'intelligibility principle'. Proponents of the intelligibility principle argue that native-likeness is an unnecessary and unreachable expectation, and conversational intelligibility should be the new target for L2 learners.

Even so, Isaacs (2018) highlights that, since Krashen's 1981 formative work, new meta-analyses (e.g., Saito, 2012) have shown that explicit pronunciation instruction is beneficial for learners, contrary to previous beliefs. Since the mid-1990s, pronunciation has received an increasing amount of research interest, and intelligibility and comprehensibility have become the new central concepts. Although these two terms are often used interchangeably, there is a slight difference between their meanings. According to Derwing and Munro's 2015 definitions, 'intelligibility' is a more objective phenomenon, and is usually measured by asking listeners to write down what the non-native speaker said in the speech sample. 'Comprehensibility', on the other hand, is less objectively measurable, as it refers to the perceived ease or difficulty of understanding the L2 speaker's utterances.

Not forcing native-likeness upon learners is not only a linguistic matter, but also an identity-related one, as accent and identity are deeply connected notions (Thir, 2016). Thir claims the following:

> "Speaking with a native-like accent in an L2 is thus not merely a matter of 'correctness' and hence desirable *a priori*, but indicates that a learner wishes to express identification or solidarity with the NS community rather than with their own L1 community. Obviously, this is a highly personal decision which should not be subject to external pressures on the part of the teacher" (Thir, 2016: 5, italics in the original).

2.2.3.1. The Lingua Franca Core

To avoid forcing the nativeness principle on learners of English, Jenkins (2002) devised a new syllabus for teaching pronunciation to learners of English as an international language (EIL) or lingua franca (ELF). Jenkins relies on Crystal's (1997) and Graddol's (1997) understanding, namely, that now there are more non-native users of English than native speakers; therefore, ELF teaching has to take into account the fact that many non-native speakers are more likely to use English among each other than with native speakers. Jenkins (2002) argues that intelligibility for other non-native speakers (and not for native speakers) should be foregrounded. Her revised syllabus is called Lingua Franca Core, which was designed with the purpose of creating a more teachable (in comparison with Received Pronunciation and General American), intelligibility-oriented model for ELF pronunciation.

The core items are identified by Jenkins (2002) as the minimally necessary features that must be acquired in order to preserve intelligibility, while the non-core areas are those sounds and features of English pronunciation that do not tend to cause misunderstandings and

disruptions in intelligibility when not produced in a native-like way. Some of the core items are as follows: aspiration of word-initial prevocalic voiceless stops, maintenance of contrast between long and short vowels, appropriate use of contrastive stress, etc. In the description of the core items, acceptable non-native-like forms and other recommendations can also be found, such as the following: some substitutions of /θ/ and /ð/ are acceptable, mixed British and American features are not only acceptable but recommended (e.g., British intervocalic stop [t] instead of the American flap, and rhotic /r/ rather than standard British non-rhoticity). For instance, stress-timed rhythm, weak forms (schwa), and assimilation are listed as non-core items, that is, features that do not interfere with communicative intelligibility, especially among non-native interlocutors.

Jenkins's 2002 Lingua Franca Core is a very appealing and groundbreaking proposal, but it is not without its critics. Isaacs (2018) argues that one cannot adopt the model uncritically, as it was not devised based on a representative study. Furthermore, as the data collection and analysis are not systematically presented, the research is not replicable. Isaacs (2018) further argues (based on, e.g., Dauer, 2005) that if the Lingua Franca Core implies teaching non-native-like sounds and features deliberately and explicitly to L2 students, then the model might not be a meaningful alternative to previous pronunciation models. Isaacs (2018) also agrees with Hahn's (2004) argument that word stress and timing, for example, do not appear to be completely negligible features.

The problematic nature of using Jenkins's 2002 Lingua Franca Core in the classroom suggests that using non-native recordings for teaching purposes might provide a more meaningful and implementable way of foregrounding intelligibility (and/or comprehensibility) and facilitating the formation of more positive language attitudes towards L2 accents of English, and encouraging students to use spoken English without being afraid of being judged for their accent. In the teaching experiment reported on in this dissertation, non-native and non-standard or non-dominant native accents were used with the specific purpose of attempting to enhance the formation of positive attitudes in EFL learners towards their own accent.

As the above-discussed literature shows, the accent reduction approach to L2 pronunciation teaching is nowadays challenged by those linguists who believe that intelligibility, and not the acquisition of a native-like accent, is of utmost importance. Still, second language pedagogy over the course of the 20th and early 21st century has contributed to the idealization of the native speaker through both its insistent focus on approximating native standards and its periodic reluctance to teach pronunciation to language learners (Isaacs, 2018).

Jones's (1997) main concern is that, although pronunciation teaching is no longer considered to be futile, we seem to be unable to get past the 'listen and repeat' method of pronunciation teaching, which consists mainly of imitation drills and reading aloud, based on the behaviorist views of learning by imitation. He points out that the so-called 'communicative method' often only masks 'listen and repeat'-type pronunciation learning exercises as communicative by naming them differently: 'dialogue/pair practice' is just a renamed version of reading aloud, and 'communicative' minimal pair reading exercises are just another form of drills. He analyzed Gilbert's (1993) 'communicative' pronunciation course book, *Clear Speech*, in which only 2% of the exercises were targeted at meaningful, authentic-like interaction. Jones (1997) also laments that language rules (of either grammar or pronunciation) are taught based on single standard models, such as Received Pronunciation, and local varieties are excluded from the classroom, which results in a prescriptivist approach to language teaching. Similarly, Huber (2023) highlights that pluricentricity is not prevalent in teaching English and German as a foreign language in Hungary.

2.2.4. Beyond the native speaker model

Multiple expressions are used as umbrella terms for the varieties of English spoken around the world by various speakers: Global Englishes, Word Englishes, English as a lingua franca (ELF), and English as an international language (EIL*)*. These concepts are explored in this section.

In the glossary to Galloway and Rose's 2015 *Introducing Global Englishes,* the term is defined as the most overarching one among the four concepts mentioned above. They conceptualize Global Englishes the following way:

> "[a] paradigm that includes concepts of World Englishes, ELF, and EIL. It examines the global consequences of English's use as a world language. In many ways, the scope of Global Englishes extends the lens of World Englishes and ELF to incorporate many peripheral issues associated with the global use of English, such as globalization, linguistic imperialism, education, language policy, and planning" (Galloway and Rose, 2015: 254).

Fang and Ren (2018) found that familiarizing learners of English with the concept of Global Englishes can make learners think more critically and re-evaluate the acceptability of native-centered ideologies about the use of English. The participating Chinese university students taking an optional course about Global Englishes were found to be more accepting of

'non-standard' language use after the course, with some of them commenting that learning English as a foreign language often meant following a prescriptive, restrictive, native-centered approach, and, after learning about Global Englishes, they can recognize and respect the diversity of Englishes around the world.

Based on previous Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT) proposals (e.g., Galloway, 2011; Galloway and Rose, 2015; Rose and Galloway, 2019) urging a change in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), Rose et al. (2021) call for the incorporation of Global Englishes into language teaching "[t]o bridge the gap between theory and practice" (Rose et al., 2021: 159). According to the proponents of this paradigm shift, English language curricula need to incorporate students' familiarization with Global Englishes and a larger emphasis on lingua-cultural diversity and multilingualism. This way, language teaching would keep up with the advances of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research, e.g., their increasing focus on multilingualism and translanguaging (Rose et al., 2021).

Translanguaging is a phenomenon of "communicative malleability" (Nikula and Moore, 2016: 238), the conceptualization of which is based on the 'one repertoire' view of bi- or multilingualism, and, therefore, the key feature of this approach is the proposal that there are no clear dividing lines between the languages at one's disposal (Nikula and Moore, 2016). According to Nikula and Moore (2016), the model of translanguaging can be likened, for example, to the model of metrolingualism (Otsuji and Pennycook, 2010), polylanguaging (Jørgensen et al., 2011) and supervernaculars (Blommaert, 2012), which all have in common the view that language is not a 'rigid' entity, and multilinguals can engage in language use without observing the 'limits' of a language system.

The term World Englishes, which is included within Global Englishes, as it was discussed above based on Galloway and Rose (2015), is typically associated with Braj Bihari Kachru's name. In his by now classic works, Kachru (e.g., 1990, 1992, 1997) divides World Englishes into three concentrical circles: the Inner, Outer and Expanding Circle. Countries categorized as members of the Inner Circle are places where the English language is traditionally spoken as an L1, e.g., the USA, UK and Canada. The Outer Circle comprises countries where English is spoken as a second language (as opposed to a foreign language), as the language has a very important role as the language of education, business and/or trade, often due to the countries' colonial past. Outer Circle countries include e.g., India, Kenya, and Nigeria. The Expanding Circle is made up of countries where English is taught as a foreign language, mostly through formal education, but is not used on a societal level as a crucial

language of everyday life. China, South Korea, and Hungary are among the countries belonging to the Expanding Circle.

Kachru's Three Circles Model (e.g., 1990, 1992, 1997) has great potential to be used for language attitude research, as Monfared and Khatib (2018) have shown. They compared the attitudes of Indian (Outer Circle) and Iranian (Expanding Circle) teachers of English towards their own local variety of English, and found considerable differences between the two groups of respondents. While Indian respondents showed positive attitudes and appreciation towards their own variety (thus exhibiting an endonormative orientation) and evaluated British English higher than American English, Iranian teachers were characterized by an exonormative orientation, i.e., the idealization of the native speaker, especially a speaker of American English. They conclude that "[i]n the EFL situation, teacher participants were more prejudiced against their own variety of English" (Monfared and Khatib, 2018: 69). As Hungary is also in the Expanding Circle, a similar rejection of the local variety of English seems plausible.

The notion of World Englishes has not always been well received by English language teaching professionals, as Kachru (1997) explains, because it has sometimes been interpreted as having an "'anything goes' attitude with each variety of world Englishes" (Kachru, 1997: 71). In order to debunk this misunderstanding, Kachru (1997) refers to the distinctions between innovations, deviations, and mistakes in local or regional varieties of English. Innovations are novel forms of language use (not only in vocabulary) that are specific to certain varieties. A deviation can be considered to have "a comparative and a contrastive implication" (Kachru, 1997: 71) when examined in the light of other Englishes, typically Inner Circle varieties. Mistakes (or errors), as Kachru (1997) calls them, come about as a result of deficient acquisition in non-native speakers' language use. That is, Kachru (1997) differentiates mistakes from variety-specific characteristics of language use.

Kachru and Nelson (2006) further emphasize the importance of innovations in Outer Circle varieties, and claim that it would be erroneous to classify them as problematic due to their being different from Inner Circle norms. "To label them deviations, errors, mistakes, fossilizations, pragmatic failure, etc. is to deny the linguistic and cultural experiences that motivate such innovations" (Kachru and Nelson, 2006: 89). Based on Shaw (1981) and Sridhar and Sridhar (1992), Kachru and Nelson (2006) argue that instrumental motivation, that is, using English effectively for practical communicative purposes, seems to be more important for speakers of Outer Circle Englishes than integrative motivation.

McArthur (1987) argues for a different circular model of world Englishes than what was proposed by Kachru (e.g., 1985, 1992). According to McArthur (1987: 11), there is a "common

core" termed as "World Standard English", which is then divided into multiple regional standards, namely, "British and Irish Standard English", "American Standard English", "Canadian standard English", "Caribbian Standard English", "West, East and South(ern) African Standard(izing) English", "South Asian Standard(izing) English", "East Asian Standardizing English", and "Australian, New Zealand and South Pacific Standard English". These are even further divided into "'innumerable' popular Englishes" (McArthur (1987:11), such as Scottish English, Gullah, Quebec English, Guyanese, Nigerian English, Indian English, Singapore English, New Zealand English, etc. While some varieties, such as British English and American English varieties, are typically mutually intelligible, Tok Pisin (i.e., Melanesian Pidgin English) is so different from the common core that it might be considered a separate language at the margins of the circular model. McArthur (1987: 11) argues that the "demarcation lines [between the different standards and national varieties] are discontinuous" due to the "fluidity and fuzziness" of the borders of the varieties, and even "at the outer limits of the 'circle' the circumference is open to intermingling with other languages".

This is in line with Graddol's 2006 claim that Kachru's Three Circles Model was already outdated when he published his 1997 rendition of the model, as it fails to properly emphasize the importance of the Outer and the Expanding Circle. According to Graddol (2006), many – chiefly European – foreign language users are now increasingly similar to second language speakers. Instead of a distinction between native speakers, second and foreign language users, he proposes a proficiency-based distinction, that is, a focus on what the speaker is able to 'do' with the language instead of on their linguistic background.

Clyne and Sharifian (2008) add that, in a globalized world, speakers of Inner, Outer or Expanding Circle varieties do not always stay in their respective circles. This way, second or foreign language users are now residing in Inner Circle countries, changing the linguistic make-up of the region and making a clear-cut three circles categorization impossible.

As Expanding Circle varieties are not in the focus in the Kachruvian Three Circles Model of World Englishes (e.g., 1985, 1992), it is at odds with the English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) paradigm, whose main focus is on speakers from the Expanding Circle (Seidlhofer, 2009). Seidlhofer (2009) emphasizes that when the term *international Englishes,* was expanded to include non-native speakers, as well, the endeavor stopped at including Outer Circle Englishes. This way, the original meaning of *international Englishes*, that is, native and standard varieties around the world, was restrictively reconceptualized without actually including the full diversity of global Englishes. Even the International Corpus of English "does not include the most widespread contemporary use of English – that which from a global

perspective actually constitutes the prevailing reality of English, with the largest number of speakers, in interactions in which more often than not no native speakers participate – namely English as a lingua franca" (Seidlhofer, 2009: 237). Although considerable progress has been made, there is still lacking focus on Expanding Circle varieties. The solution proposed by Seidlhofer (2009: 239) is the acceptance of ELF "as a legitimate alternative" to native speaker English. This acceptance is facilitated by ELF varieties being studied and documented the same way as native varieties. The work of elevating ELF to a common ground with native varieties is aided by the already existing achievements of studying Outer Circle Englishes. Although the postcolonial realities of Outer Circle Englishes are considerably different from the context of lingua franca English, the two paradigms can aid each other in redefining the possible linguistic identities and proficiencies of English speakers in a globalized world (Seidlhofer, 2009).

Similarly to Seidlhofer (2009), Mestrie and Bhatt (2008) do not argue for doing away with the Kachruvian paradigm of World Englishes (e.g. 1985, 1992), but highlight its shortcomings stemming from its non-dynamic definition of the boundaries between the three circles and between different varieties. They state that "social and ethnic varieties" are not taken into account when conceptualizing the Inner Circle (Mestrie and Bhatt, 2008: 30). The example of the position of Chicano English in the USA; and that of the native English-speakers, the Afrikaans speakers, and the second language English speakers in South Africa are given by the authors as an illustration for the oversimplified nature of the model. [Kachru (1996) himself highlights that paradigm myopia can occur when erroneous proposals and hypotheses are drawn due to considering monolingualism as the societal norm.] Mestrie and Bhatt (2008) criticize the Kachruvian model for being too politically and historically driven to be able to capture the realities of World Englishes. Additionally, the Kachruvian model avoids explicitly categorizing European Englishes into the Expanding Circle, when, in fact, they fulfill the criteria for belonging there (Mestrie and Bhatt, 2008).

Additionally, Muhr (2015) problematizes the continuous favoring of dominant varieties of pluricentric languages, which results in the restriction and stigmatization of non-dominant varieties. The dominant variety is used by prestigious international organizations and on television; language organizations oversee that the centralized norm is widely spread; norm-setting institutions rarely exist in non-dominant varieties, which further favors the position of dominant varieties; and expressions from non-dominant varieties are often considered "'colloquial', 'vernacular' and such, which restrict[s] their usage" (Muhr: 2015: 49) and further diminishes the prestige of non-dominant varieties. The proposed solutions to these issues include the recognition that there is not only one standard, but there are national, regional, pan-

regional or even media presentation standard forms serving various functions in society, and "[a]ccepting inner-linguistic multilingualism and considering it as a *linguistic capital* and not as a *social burden"* (Muhr, 2015: 50, italics in the original).

After the introduction of the concepts of Global Englishes and World Englishes, the differences between ELF and EIL are explored in the following paragraphs. As discussed above, similarly to World Englishes, both ELF and EIL fall under the umbrella term Global Englishes (Galloway and Rose, 2015). Regarding English as a lingua franca, Mauranen (2018: 10) states that "speakers who use ELF as their means of communication speak English that is a product of language contact between their other languages and English". Seidlhofer (2011: 7) defines ELF as follows:

> "*any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option.* Due to the numbers of speakers involved worldwide, this means that ENL [English as a native language] speakers will generally be in a minority, and their English will therefore be less and less likely to constitute the linguistic reference norm" (Seidlhofer, 2011: 7, italics in the original).

As Seidlhofer's 2011 definition shows, communication between non-native speakers is highlighted in the conceptualization of ELF, for which reason, L1 standards might not always apply to ELF speakers. She also argues that 'native' competence might be a reasonable expectation in some ESL contexts, but in EFL and ELF contexts native-like proficiency is not likely to be a relevant and achievable goal. ELF is for the transmission of meaning and effective communication between speakers of different (typically non-English) L1s, for which reason, there seems to be a large discrepancy between what is considered to be relevant in English language teaching and what is relevant for lingua franca communication (Seidlhofer 2011), which is in line with Jenkins and Leung's 2014 claims.

Jenkins (2002) uses a modified version of Bourdieu's 1977 explanation of the required features of taking part in 'legitimate discourse'. While Bourdieu (1977) considered having 'legitimate' pronunciation, that is, an accent that native speakers (the target audience) can understand, Jenkins (2002) argues that having an accent in English that is intelligible for international (mostly non-native) users of English is more important in an EIL context. Therefore, using English as an international language "will involve the making of adjustments by NSs [native speakers] as well as NNSs [non-native speakers] of English, towards an agreed international (rather than NS) norm" (Jenkins, 2002: 85). She sees it as ironic that native speaker

teachers are no longer expected to change their local accent and emulate Received Pronunciation or General American; it is only the non-native speakers who have to face these requirements, perpetuating the deficit model of language learning (Jenkins, 2002). Instead of following native norms as the ultimate source of knowledge, native varieties can be set as "a point of reference to prevent local non-native varieties from moving too far apart from each other, as well as to promote receptive competence in interaction with native speakers" (Jenkins, 1998: 124).

Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) argue for the importance of teaching and improving communicative strategies in users of EIL to help them overcome difficulties in communication which might arise as a result of not yet fully developed linguistic skills. Such strategies include "the ability to derive meaning from context; to paraphrase, engage in circumlocution, and summarize; to inquire and ask for clarification of meaning; to aid verbal communication through non-verbal communication; and to display cultural sensitivity" (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011: 339). Matsuda and Friedrich (2012) find the idea of using McArthur's 1987 proposal of teaching World Standard English to international users problematic to implement in practice. Choosing an existing variety for this purpose might strengthen the position of a variety and its speakers at the expense of others, whereas creating a supra-national variety for the purposes of international communication does not seem to be a viable option, as asking all international users of English to conform to the norms of a single variety is not a realistic expectation. Instead, Matsuda and Friedrich (2012: 25) call for "a complete revision of the entire [English teaching] program, using one's understanding of the use of English in international contexts as a foundation that influences every single aspect of the curriculum", and a complete turn away from (not only some small additions to) the existing British- and American English-centered curriculum.

The above discussed ideas lead to the question of a definition for EIL, which is somewhat more difficult to formulate than definitions for World Englishes or ELF. McKay (2018: 11) argues that "EIL differs from both World Englishes and English as a lingua franca in […] that the use of English for international communication must be based on a set of specific principles". These principles include concentrating on local needs in language teaching, using learners' L1 to aid their L2 learning, improving learners' "strategic intercultural competence" (McKay, 2018: 11), and fostering a culturally neutral environment for EIL, that is, the teaching and use of EIL should not be based on any set of vested interests or any hierarchies among varieties (McKay, 2018).

The above-discussed approaches under the umbrella of Global Englishes have increasingly influenced the theories (and, to a somewhat lesser extent, the practice) of English language teaching. However, there might be something beyond Global Englishes, a theory of Teaching English as a Dynamic Language (TEDL), according to Mahboob (2018). While this approach has not yet been widely studied, Mahboob (2018) argues that there are several advantages to viewing English as a dynamic entity (as opposed to a static one), that is, as a language which shows variability "between and within individual, communities, and contexts" (Mahboob, 2018: 53). He claims that "ideas such as interlanguage, fossilization, target language, ultimate attainment etc., are grounded in ideas that learners should achieve 'native'-speaker proficiency in language" (Mahboob, 2018: 52), which does not foster the acceptance and celebration of linguistic diversity and local ways of language use. He claims the following:

> "[o]ne consequence of [following the TEDL approach] would be to create space for recognizing, teaching, and celebrating local languages and local ways of meaning making alongside the teaching of more globally oriented languages (and, thus expand people's repertoire of meaning-making resources). Recognizing diversity in language and using it to develop ELT [English language teaching] approaches can help sustain and promote diversity of languages, cultures, and belief systems" (Mahboob, 2018: 53).

What all of these approaches to the global uses of English have in common is a set of convincing arguments against the traditional, standard British- and American English-centered language teaching approaches, and measuring language learners against often unreachable native standards. In order to increase the efficiency of non-native English communication without expecting native-like proficiency from learners, pursuing mutual intelligibility among the speakers, fostering the development of communication-aiding strategies, and embracing the diversity of Englishes seem to be the most compelling arguments for a change in focus in language education. The use of communication-aiding strategies by non-native speakers of English is further explored in the following section, in light of Communication Accommodation Theory.

2.2.5. Insights from Communication Accommodation Theory and related frameworks

As discussed previously, according to Derwing and Munro's 2015 definitions, intelligibility is a more objective phenomenon, and is usually measured by asking listeners to

write down what the non-native speaker said in the speech sample. Comprehensibility, on the other hand, is less objectively measurable, as it refers to the perceived ease or difficulty of understanding the L2 speaker's utterances. However, I view both intelligibility and comprehensibility as context- and interlocutor-dependent, as what might be both intelligible and comprehensible among international students in a casual setting might cause problems with understanding at a conference where the setting is considerably more formal and the audience might consist of people who have never heard that specific variety of international English. Similarly, pronunciation patterns that are acceptable and comprehensible in the EFL classroom might cause problems in native–non-native communication. Therefore, in the following paragraphs, I discuss two additional approaches to mutual understanding between interlocutors, communication accommodation theory and interactive alignment, which can complement the notions of intelligibility and comprehensibility in an L2 context.

Giles proposed in 1973 that one might change their accent in two directions depending on the desired effect they want to have on the interlocutor. If they want to emphasize similarity with their interlocutor or elicit the interlocutor's social approval, they might change their accent to be more similar to that of the interlocutor: try to adapt their way of speaking and avoid patterns that would emphasize the differences. This process is called 'accent convergence'. The opposite process, termed 'accent divergence', can take place when the speaker does not agree with their interlocutor's values or attitudes, or finds the interlocutor's characteristics undesirable; and therefore, wants to distance themselves from their interlocutor by emphasizing the differences in their accent and not trying to adopt similar patterns of pronunciation.

Giles states that accent convergence has two types: upward accent convergence and downward accent convergence. Upward convergence typically happens when the speaker evaluates the addressee's accent as more favorable (i.e., more prestigious, 'standard'), which typically results in the speaker's attempt at adopting a more standard accent to approximate the addressee's accent and avoid being negatively judged by them. That is, avoiding social disapproval is the main reason for upward convergence. On the other hand, downward convergence means that the speaker makes their accent sound less prestigious or less 'standard' in an attempt to avoid making the addressee feel ashamed of their own accent, or in order to stress that they are social equals. However, accent convergence is not always one-sided: it can be a mutual process, involving upward convergence from one of the interlocutors and downward convergence from the other, resulting in their accents' 'meeting in the middle' (Giles, 1973).

What Giles (1973) called ‘accent mobility’, was related to a more extended project introduced by Giles et al. (1973), which described what was then termed Speech Accommodation Theory, that is, the proposed explanation for “the interpersonal aspects of speech diversity” (Giles et al., 1973: 178). As Giles et al. (2023) explain in their special issue written to celebrate the 50th anniversary of the theory, speech accommodation theory (SAT), which was later renamed as Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT), now focuses on intergroup, as well as interpersonal, processes of accommodation. As Giles et al.’s 2023 article demonstrates, at present, CAT research is immensely diverse, involving areas such as perceptions of other speakers’ accommodation or convergence to humor or slang use. Numerous additions and modifications have been made since its origins in the 1970s, but the core of the theory still centers around Giles’s 1973 proposal about convergence and divergence, the possible causes behind it, and the mutual vs. one-sided (symmetrical/asymmetrical) nature of the process.

An important addition to the original Gilesian theory (which mainly focused on convergence, divergence and maintenance) was Coupland et al.’s 1988 incorporation of the concepts of over- and underaccommodation. As they explain, underaccommodation might stem from, for example, the speaker’s desire to ‘protect themselves’ and ‘be themselves’ instead of assuming another identity by fully accommodating to their interlocutor. On the other hand, overaccommodation means an exaggerated attempt at meeting the interlocutor’s perceived communication needs, e.g., in young-to-elderly interactions, often stemming from the assumption that the interlocutor has a physical or sensory problem that has the potential to prevent them from understanding the speaker. Coupland et al. (1988) categorize both under- and overaccommodation as ‘miscommunication’, as the speaker either does not converge as much as the interlocutor would deem adequate, or goes beyond the accommodation that would be necessary for meaningful communication. Therefore, underaccommodation might be viewed as “unhelpful” or “inconsiderate”, while overaccommodation can be evaluated as “patronizing” or “talking down” (Coupland et al., 1988: 32).

Similarly, Margić (2017) argues that native-to-non-native accommodation can also be viewed in two different ways. While most of her native English-speaking respondents believed that accommodation to the needs of non-native EFL users, such as slowing down their speech, incorporating fewer idiomatic expressions in their speech or articulating more clearly, is a polite and helpful way of helping non-native speakers understand them better, around 20% of the participants expressed their worry that accommodation might be seen as patronizing or condescending by non-native speakers, and hinder their development in their target language.

Nevertheless, non-native speakers from different lingua-cultural backgrounds also use accommodation strategies among themselves, as Fang's 2017 study shows. The motivating factor for accommodation between speakers of different linguistic backgrounds is mutual intelligibility, which was shown by the differences between an Indian teacher's English language use when talking to an Indian colleague vs. a Chinese colleague. When having a conversation with the Chinese colleague, accommodation was necessary for the clear transmission of meaning, but this did not mean completely matching the Chinese interlocutor's variety of English. Accommodation was employed to the extent that preserving intelligibility required it (which included converging to the Chinese colleague's "pronunciation, vocabulary, knowledge of the conversation topics, and speech rate" (Fang, 2017: 110), using the expression *you know* more often in order to check common understanding, and giving explanations when deemed necessary), but the Indian speaker still preserved some distinctive features of his speech to signify his identity (Fang, 2017).

Weizheng (2019) tested the use of accommodation strategies in the EFL classroom in China, and concluded that classes were more successful in terms of communication if the teacher used more accommodation strategies. Weizheng (2019: 108) argues that "[t]eaching is accommodation", and the use of accommodation strategies can not only create a sense of equality and a more harmonious atmosphere in the classroom, but also motivates the students to take an active part in the communication, thus making the speaking activities more efficient.

The second model which might contribute to our understanding of achieving mutual intelligibility between non-native speakers is Pickering and Garrod's 2004 Interactive Alignment Model, originally not devised with non-native speakers in mind. Trofimovich (2016) argues that the model could be used effectively as a framework for possible ways of teaching and learning L2 pronunciation, namely, through non-native speakers' adopting more advanced or more intelligible patterns of pronunciation from each other and re-using what they hear from their interlocutors in order to facilitate understanding. He argues that "intelligibility problems can be viewed as failure to align at the level of phonetic/prosodic perception and production" (Trofimovich, 2016: 417); therefore, communicative breakdowns could be evaded or solved by successful alignment. Zhou and Wang (2024) found that having the opportunity to interact with a partner who is a highly proficient learner of English positively affected the participating learners' lexical knowledge. What helped less proficient learners to learn from their more proficient peers seemed to be the fact that in less proficient–more proficient learner pairs the interaction intensity was high.

Both CAT and Interactive Alignment can help teachers prepare students for communicative situations in English and encourage them to actively participate in the negotiation of meaning. Having a native-like accent is not a prerequisite for making oneself understood. While universal intelligibility and comprehensibility might be difficult concepts to define accurately, CAT and Interactive Alignment are possible frameworks which can help learners achieve context- and interlocutor-specific intelligibility and comprehensibility. This is the approach to intelligibility and comprehensibility that I follow in this dissertation, and this is the reason why communicative exercises related to asking for clarification or using humor to solve disruptions in communication were topics introduced in the experimental class sessions in the classroom investigation.

In the following three sections, i.e., Sections 2.3., 2.4., and 2.5., motivation, perfectionism, and willingness to communicate are explored in more detail, which have already been introduced in Section 2.1.4. among the influencing factors of attitude formation and potential attitude change. The attitude questionnaires used for my classroom investigation and online survey were complemented with questions related to motivation, perfectionism and willingness to communicate, as well.

2.3. Motivation

Motivation can come from within the individual (intrinsic motivation), or there can be factors outside the individual that provide motivation (extrinsic motivation), and these two types of motivation have a different effect on the individual, according to Deci and Ryan (1985). They discuss the following:

> "[w]hen people are intrinsically motivated, they experience interest and enjoyment, they feel competent and self-determining, they perceive the locus of causality for their behavior to be internal, and in some instances they experience flow. The antithesis of interest and flow is pressure and tension. Insofar as people are pressuring themselves, feeling anxious, and working with great urgency, we can be sure that there is at least some extrinsic motivation involved. Their self-esteem may be on the line, they may have deadlines, or some material reward may be involved" (Deci and Ryan, 1985: 34).

Motivation can be further divided into integrative vs. instrumental motivation (e.g., Lambert, 1974; Dörnyei, 1990; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991). Integrative motivation is related

to the L2 speaker's desire to know and understand better the target language community, due to their fascination with and deep interest in the lingua-cultural group, while instrumental motivation is fueled by the practical usefulness of knowing another language (Lambert, 1974). Dörnyei (1990) describes an Integrative Motivational Subsystem and an Instrumental Motivational Subsystem, which constitute the construct of motivation. The Integrative Motivational Subsystem consists of more attitudinal and emotional aspects, such as attitudes towards the native speakers of the target language, and, in foreign language learning, the learners' "general disposition towards language learning and the values the target language conveys" (Dörnyei, 1990: 65) are of utmost importance. The Instrumental Motivational Subsystem involves more extrinsic motives, such as job requirements, and is often strongly related to one's career goals (Dörnyei, 1990). Gardner and MacIntyre (1991: 69) found that "both integrative motivation and instrumental motivation can influence second language learning".

As discussed briefly above in Section 2.1.4. among the factors influencing attitude formation and change, the L2 Motivational Self-System approach to motivation (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005; 2009) applied existing terminology of a self-system from Markus and Nurius (1986) to language learning motivation, as Dörnyei (2005) explains. Dörnyei (2005: 98, italics in the original) argues that "*possible selves* offer the most powerful, and at the same time the most versatile, motivational self-mechanism, representing the individuals' ideas of what they *might* become, what they *would like* to become, and what they are *afraid of* becoming". Higgins's 1987 concepts of the ideal self, the ought self and his self-discrepancy theory were of utmost importance for the creation of the L2 Motivational Self-System (Dörnyei, 2005). The 'ideal self' is one kind of possible self, which the individual sees as desirable to achieve. This is what the language learner strives to reach, while the 'ought-to self' is defined in negative terms, i.e., what they need to avoid becoming or prevent happening to them as L2 learners (Dörnyei, 2005; 2009). Using Higgins's 1987 self-discrepancy theory as a base, the L2 Motivational Self-System approach (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005; 2009) postulates that the quest to decrease the differences between one's current self and the ideal self they would like to reach, as well as to avoid the negative outcomes (as outlined by the ought-to self) contributes to language learning motivation.

I find it plausible that, if one's ought-to self is not likely to be reached (e.g., if native-likeness is considered a necessity by language learners), motivation might decrease after a while, as lots of EFL learners might realize that they cannot avoid having a non-native accent even if they work diligently on their English proficiency. The present dissertation uses the L2

Motivational Self-System approach to motivation, based on Dörnyei (e.g., 2005, 2009), and the 'motivation'-related items of the classroom and online questionnaires were based on this model. (The questionnaire design is discussed in more detail in the Methodology section.)

Motivation research can have not only theoretical but also important practical implications for L2 teaching and learning. One such finding is that positive emotions seem to show stronger correlations with motivation than negative emotions do, which can be helpful for language learning, as positive emotions might be able to help motivate learners, while negative emotions might not be severely demotivating, according to MacIntyre and Vincze (2017). However, two negative emotions, namely, anger and hate are exceptions, as these emotions show correlations with motivation (MacIntyre and Vincze, 2017).

Clement et al. (1994) recognize integrative motivation, linguistic self-confidence, and the classroom environment as the three main components of motivation, suggesting that, beyond more individualistic factors, group dynamics and group cohesion in the classroom can also contribute to language learning motivation. Similarly, Dörnyei (1994) distinguishes the Language Level, the Learner Level, and the Learning Situation Level as contributing factors to motivation, which also reveals that the environment in which the language learning process happens has a vital role in motivation.

When language learning motivation is compared in ESL vs. EFL contexts, it can be seen that the ESL context is linked to somewhat more engagement on the students' part than the EFL context, Dimitroff et al. (2018) report. They highlight that "[EFL] teachers should attempt to make the language as relevant as possible to students. Since a correlation of attitude and engagement was discovered, teachers should consider that fostering more positive student attitudes may also increase student engagement and vice versa" (Dimitroff et al., 2018: 11). English can be made relevant to non-native speakers through emphasizing the importance of ELF communication, as it has been discussed above.

You et al. (2016) argue for the importance of visionary motivation, based on a study with the participation of Chinese EFL learners in high school and at university. They claim the following:

> "[t]he term "vision" is closely related to imagery, but it is used in motivational contexts, that is, when imagery is associated with ensuing behavior. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, a vision is "a vivid mental image, especially a fanciful one of the future" and it can be perceived as a future goal-state that an individual has personalized by adding to it the imagined reality of the actual goal experience […].

> In other words, a vision involves preliving hoped-for future experiences" (You et al., 2016: 99).

Women in general, and the most highly motivated group (English majors) were characterized by the highest occurrence of 'vision', a "future self-imagery" (You et al., 2016: 118), which can be beneficial for motivating the language learner. However, one's 'vision' about themselves is not stable throughout the language learning process; it is dynamic, as positive or negative changes can shape one's imagined future trajectory. "Learners who experienced a positive change in their ideal self-image consistently outscored those who experience a negative change" (You et al., 2016: 119).

Nevertheless, in 2020, Hiver and Al-Hoorie conducted an investigation reexamining You et al.'s 2016 study, and claimed that "[their] study did not offer unambiguous support for a vision scale that is distinct from the ideal L2 self, itself shown to be a weak predictor of academic achievement in the L2" (Hiver and Al-Hoorie, 2020: 89). It was also found by Lee and Lee in 2020 that a stronger sense of an ideal and ought-to self in Korean high school students learning English seems to be related to their being more willing to communicate in their L2, both in class and outside the classroom setting. In the case of Korean university students, a stronger ideal self tended to occur together with more willingness to communicate in English, both in and outside the classroom, while a stronger ought-to self negatively correlated with their willingness to communicate (WTC).

Based on these findings, three specific pedagogical implications are pointed out by Lee and Lee (2020) for the Korean EFL context. First, as having a strong sense of an ought-to self had different implications for high school and university students, it seems advisable to strengthen high school students ought-to selves (as it was positively correlated with WTC) but avoid doing so in the case of university students (as it was negatively correlated with WTC). Second, as having a strong ideal self image correlated positively with WTC in both groups of respondents, teachers might find it fruitful to strengthen language learners' ideal selves through class activities. And third, allocating some agency to language learners in choosing digital resources and tools for completing language tasks outside the classroom might help them become more interested in their own learning.

Thompson (2019) highlights two important newer approaches to multilingualism and motivation which might have increasing influence on future studies: Perceived Positive Language Interaction (PPLI) and the Ideal Multilingual Self, which are both informed by the Dynamic Model of Multilingualism. These three approaches are described in the following paragraphs.

Thompson's 2013 theory of PPLI defines the concept as a "subcategorization of multilingualism [which] differentiates between language learners who perceive positive interactions between foreign languages (FLs) studied and those who do not" (Thompson, 2013: 686), in other words, whether they feel that their knowledge of other foreign languages helps them learn a new foreign language. "The results of this study indicate an effect for even very limited experience in a previous language" (Thompson, 2013: 697), which means that there does not seem to be a threshold below which the knowledge of another language cannot influence the learning of a new language. If a language user does not recognize the interrelated nature of their languages, they might not be considered multilingual according to the PPLI categorization, which is in contrast with the fact that even some very restricted FL experience can help one learn a new foreign language. These contrasting ideas suggest that more research in this area is necessary (Thompson, 2013).

As a newer approach, Henry and Thorsen (2017) propose the idea of the Ideal Multilingual Self, the development of which might be useful in language education to potentially help motivate learners. They state the following:

> "[i]n an expanded multilingual agenda for language learning/language teaching with reconceptualized learning goals, motivational strategies aimed at developing an integrated ideal multilingual self can become a part of curricula initiatives that position individual languages as elements within broader repertoires, that frame skills as distributed across languages, and which encourage resourcefulness, innovation and multilingual accomplishments" (Henry and Thorsen, 2017: 360).

The Dynamic Model of Multilingualism, which underlies both PPLI and the Ideal Multilingual Self, as highlighted by Thompson (2019), was presented by Herdina and Jessner (2002). The Dynamic Model of Multilingualism was developed using a Dynamic Systems approach, and aims to bridge the gap between Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Multilingualism Research, as the dynamic model suggests that the same principles can be observed in SLA and multilingualism, making the distinction between the two unnecessary (Herdina and Jessner, 2002). Instead, the development of a theory which can accommodate the notion of "interdependent language systems forming part of an overall multicomponential psycholinguistic system" (Herdina and Jessner, 2002: 86) is called for.

As newer models of motivation increasingly seem to incorporate the notion of multilingualism and the dynamic interaction of one's language systems, it seems likely that

future studies will explore these areas in more detail. In the following section, approaches to perfectionism are explored.

2.4. Perfectionism

Originally, Hamachek (1978) differentiated between normal vs. neurotic perfectionism. Normal perfectionism involves having sensible and feasible expectations towards oneself, which can help one succeed, whereas neurotic perfectionism involves having unrealistic and extreme expectations towards oneself that cannot be reached most of the time; and therefore, might cause anxiety and fear. This twofold distinction was kept but later renamed as positive vs. negative perfectionism, where the distinction between the two is recognizable from their impact on people's functioning: the type of perfectionism which is associated with the fear of failure, shame or ridicule is termed negative perfectionism, while positive perfectionism describes people's desire for great achievement (e.g., Terry-Short et al., 1995; Chan, 2007). The consequence of the existence of two different types of perfectionism is that perfectionism can stimulate people to be better achievers, or it might fill them with debilitating fear (Stoeber et al., 2018).

When investigating the combined impact of the two types of perfectionism, Stoeber et al. (2020: 7) highlight that "[…] perfectionism is a personality disposition comprised of different dimensions that often have different, sometimes opposing, effects in relation to adaptive and maladaptive psychological processes and outcomes." Using the two-factor model of perfectionism, which is made up of perfectionistic strivings (which are considered adaptive) and perfectionistic concerns (which are considered maladaptive), they found that the impact of the maladaptive perfectionistic concerns is larger than the effect of the adaptive strivings, "indicating that the maladaptive edge of the perfectionism sword may be sharper and cut deeper" (Stoeber et al., 2020: 7), which suggests that the combined impact of perfectionism seems to be negative (Stoeber et al., 2020).

As perfectionism seems to play a role in the development of language learning anxiety and performance deficits in one's L2, reducing the level of perfectionism in learners is important (Flett et al., 2016). Flett and Hewitt (2024) argue that teachers (as well as mental health professionals and parents) need to be aware of the dangers of perfectionism in young people, such as mental and physical health problems, and even suicide. Bell et al. (2010) recount the story of a young man, who committed suicide when he was 18 years old. "Despite achieving excellent results, Ryan was apparently unable to enjoy his success. It seemed he found the whole experience emotionally exhausting, rather than gratifying" (Bell et al., 2010: 257).

Starley (2019) argues that perfectionism arises as a coping skill in young people, but remains with the person long after its potential initial usefulness is over. She conceptualizes perfectionism as "a way of coping with the anxiety arising from an unmet need" (Starley, 2019: 136). I consider the lack of EFL learners' familiarization with non-native and non-standard native accents of English in formal language education as such an unmet need, which might contribute to the learners' desire to sound 'perfect' (i.e., native-like and standard). On the other hand, perfectionism might also be a predisposition in learners that makes it harder to change their attitudes towards non-native-accented English. In the following section, the notion of 'willingness to communicate' in an L2 is explored.

2.5. Willingness to communicate

One of the most frequently referred to models of willingness to communciate (WTC) in an L2 is MacIntyre et al.'s 1998 six-layer model of the variables which influence L2 learners' WTC. (The following description of the model is based on Figure 1 in MacIntyre et al., 1998: 547).

This six-layer model is further divided into two sections: Layers I, II and III are specific to the given communicative situation, while Layers IV, V and VI present more permanent and fixed influences. With regard to Layer I (L2 use), MacIntyre et al. (1998) call for the 'creation' of a willingness to communicate in L2 learners, which should be set as one of the most vital aims of language education. If this willingness is created (i.e., encouraged and facilitated) through the learning process, successful communication in the learners' L2 can ensue. Willingness to communicate in Layer II is defined "as a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 547), which emphasizes the situation-, context- and interlocutor-specificity of the concept. This definition of WTC does not require that the language learners actually produce speech in class; if they raise their hands to provide the answer to the teacher's question, it already signals their readiness to engage in communication. There are two components to Layer III; the first of which is the desire to communicate with a specific person. One's desire to communicate with a specific person depends on two main factors: affiliation and control. In informal situations, one is more inclined to communicate in their L2 if they consider their L2-speaking interlocutor as likeable and similar to themselves (i.e., affiliation). The other factor is control, which refers to "any task-related situation where interlocutors seek to influence each other's behaviour" (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 549).

In cases involving a degree of control, the language of the speaker with a higher status will usually be selected as the language of communication, and language learners will typically engage in L2 communication only if they are sufficiently confident and comfortable using their L2. The other component of Layer III is state communicative self-confidence, which refers to a situation-specific type of self-confidence (not a personality trait), which can change from moment to moment. Layer IV consists of interpersonal motivation, intergroup motivation and self-confidence. The previously mentioned affiliation and control do not only influence one's desire to communicate with a certain interlocutor, but these can also become communicative aims that can give interpersonal motivation for communication. Intergroup motivation is different from its interpersonal counterpart in that attitudes towards different groups of people play an important role here, and so does group affiliation; whereas it is similar to interpersonal motivation considering that establishing affiliation or control can become communicative aims between groups, as well as individuals. The third component of Layer IV is L2 self-confidence, which refers to "the overall belief in being able to communicate in the L2 in an adaptive and efficient manner" (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 551).

Layer V consists of intergroup attitudes, the social situation, and communicative competence. The component intergroup attitudes can influence integrativeness, the fear of assimilation and the motivation to learn the L2. MacIntyre et al. (1998: 552) emphasize that "[t]he desire to be a part of the L2 community is indicative of increased involvement with that community." However, becoming a member of another group can have disadvantages, such as a sense of losing one's original (L1) self, which can lead to fearing intensive contact with the L2 and its speakers. Attitudes can have an impact on the general enjoyment of learning a language, as well. "Enjoyment and satisfaction in learning and using the L2 may encourage the individual to apply a more intense and thorough effort to the learning process" (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 552). The authors highlight that one of the important influences of the social situation on WTC can be that different topics arise in different situations, and the topic-related proficiency in one's L2 will have an impact on their confidence and readiness to speak. The component communicative competence comprises several different types of competence: linguistic competence, discourse competence, actional competence, sociocultural competence and strategic competence; which all contribute to successful communication in one's L2.

The last layer (Layer VI) includes the most stable and fixed characteristics: intergroup climate and personality. The intergroup climate might be tainted by discriminatory tendencies, negative attitudes, and prejudice, which can hinder the learning and use of one's L2. And finally, one's personality can indicate a predisposition for positive or negative attitudes and

reactions to people with different L1s than themselves, which can facilitate or hinder L2 communication. However, Layer VI comprises variables that are more loosely connected with WTC than the layers above it (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

In 2007, MacIntyre added that, although language anxiety and motivation definitely influence one's WTC in an L2, these have an impact on WTC over a longer period of time. These long-term influencing factors are the ones that are commonly researched, but the variables specific to the 'here-and-now' of the communicative situation receive less focus, such as the psychology of the L2 speaker. MacIntyre (2007) highlights the volitional aspect of WTC, which means that "a set of driving and restraining forces that may operate with or without the speaker's explicit awareness" (MacIntyre, 2007: 573) are in play when a non-native speaker decides whether to opt for communicating in their L2 in that specific moment.

Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2015) focus specifically on the types of tasks that increase or impede language learners' WTC, as they conceptualize WTC as a fluctuating entity which is influenced by several factors, such as issues with proficiency regarding the task or topic, boredom, or having the chance to present one's own ideas. The participants' WTC decreased during listening, when having problems related to lacking vocabulary, and with the passage of time (as they became bored with the otherwise stimulating topic). Also, the necessity of having relevant ideas about a topic was highlighted by some respondents. Therefore, rather specific pedagogical implications for facilitating WTC are proposed by Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2015). First, giving strict and thorough guidelines for the completion of communicative tasks seems to be hindering learners' readiness to engage in L2 conversation, as detailed prompts might be perceived as restricting rather than helpful. Creative task completion seems to facilitate learners' WTC. (For this reason, the teaching experiment reported on in this dissertation included tasks where creativity was foregrounded.) At the same time, participants were not well acquainted with strategies to show interest in their interlocutors' ideas. "As a result, instead of a genuine exchange of ideas, the conversations often took the form of intermittent monologues" (Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015: 8).

Therefore, while detailed prompts might not be beneficial for learners' WTC, they still seem to need some training in "how to present arguments and counterarguments, showing interest in and respect for the partner's opinions" (Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015: 8). Additionally, if a more advanced and more talkative learner dominates the discussion in a group, the others might not feel the need to participate in the conversation, which highlights that the grouping of students for tasks needs to be done consciously, and not randomly. If students are allowed some say in the choice of topics (i.e., the teacher knows what the students

are interested in and chooses topics for discussion exercises accordingly), and they are given appropriate preparation time before having to present their ideas, they might be more willing to communicate in their L2 (Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015).

Yashima (2019) summarizes the two main reasons why improving language learners' willingness to communicate is important. First, WTC is imperative for communicating with people with different lingua-cultural backgrounds successfully, and, second, in order to develop learners' language competence, they need to find opportunities for L2 use not only in the classroom, but in naturally occurring communication outside the classroom, as well. The reason why WTC in one's L1 is more self-evident might be the fact that one cannot survive without communicating with those around them while growing up, Yashima (2019) argues. This is highlighted by the following claim:

> "If L1 acquisition comes more naturally than L2 learning, it is partly because L1 acquisition is embedded in a child's life, where willingness to communicate with others is entirely natural and essential to survival. One educational goal of L2 teaching will therefore be to create environments in which L2 learners are naturally willing to communicate" (Yashima, 2019: 218).

Elahi Shirvan et al. (2019) found in their meta-analysis that perceived communicative competence shows a higher correlation with WTC in one's L2 than language anxiety and motivation do. I suggest that this finding is in support of the proposal of this dissertation that helping students understand that not having a native-like accent does not render them 'bad' language users, as this realization might help them perceive their communicative competence more positively, which might go hand in hand with an increase in their WTC.

While silence might be an alarming sign for language teachers, seemingly indicating a lack of WTC in students, Syed and Kuzborska (2020) argue that it would be a mistake to evaluate all cases of L2 learners' silence as a sign that they are unwilling to communicate, as WTC is a dynamic process which can be influenced by "mental engagement, pre-occupation, cognitive block and inner speech" (Syed and Kuzborska, 2020: 497), which can all manifest as silence but do not stem from students' refusal to communicate in their L2. This understanding is in line with MacIntyre et al.'s 1998 conceptualization of WTC (as discussed above), which does not require oral language production for a learner to be seen as willing to communicate, as it proposes that if a student does not get the chance to give the answer in class but raises their hand, it already signals WTC.

Based on the above discussions of motivation, perfectionism and willingness to communicate (in Sections 2.3., 2.4., and 2.5., respectively), the attitude questionnaires used in the classroom investigation and the online survey reported on in this dissertation were complemented with questions related to these three concepts, as well. This way, the questionnaires comprise an 'attitudes and motivation', a 'perfectionism' and a 'willingness to communicate' section.

The following section (2.6.) explores action research in education, which provided a theoretical and methodological framework for the format and documentation of the classroom teaching experiment reported on in the present dissertation.

2.6. Action research in education

Kurt Lewin is considered to be the originator of action research starting in the 1940s, who wanted to devise a method to improve social wrongs, especially those that put minorities and poverty-stricken social groups in a disadvantaged position (Stringer, 2010). Today, action research is not limited to efforts against these forms of social injustice. "Action research [in education] is usually defined as an inquiry conducted by educators in their own settings in order to advance their practice and improve their students' learning" (Efron and Ravid, 2013: 2). Some other terms are often used interchangeably with action research, such as practitioner research or teacher as researcher, which highlight the fact that, when using this strategy, the teacher is the one carrying out the investigation (or the researcher is the one teaching). The main draw of this type of research is that teaching and learning can be reevaluated and improved through the process, as new ideas are tested in practice (Efron and Ravid, 2013).

Sáez Bondía and Cortés Gracia (2022) list refining teaching practices, reviewing what happens in the classroom, developing professionally as teachers, and reflecting on one's teaching practices as the most important motives for conducting action research in education. Investigating a problem in detail, in practice, with the intention to devise a solution for it lies at the center of this type of investigation. They explain that "[action research] is based on practical needs and seeks to distance itself from theory, from an unreal educational situation" (Sáez Bondía and Cortés Gracia, 2022: 855), while Somekh (1995: 340) prefers to define action research as something that "bridges the divide between research and practice". Somekh and Zeichner (2009) argue that, as action research can improve both theory and practice, and blurs the line between a scholar and an activist, and body and mind, it can play a remarkable part in educational reform.

Participatory action research (called participatory for its emphasis on people's (re)examination of what they know or how they see the world, and for its focus on 'us, the participants' and not 'them, the subjects') in the context of education can be an important means of devising better curricula and facilitating professional self-reflection. Carrying out action research is not only an educational process, but a social one, as well. The critical nature of participatory action research allows educators to question and improve ineffective practices (Kemmis and Wilkinson, 1998).

Action research can be used, for example, for "encouraging more positive attitudes to work, or modifying pupils' value systems with regard to some aspect of life" (Cohen et al., 2007: 297), which suggests that, if one wants to change students' language attitudes, conducting action research seems to be the suitable choice.

The format and documentation of the experimental classes reported on in this dissertation follow the ideas underpinning participatory action research, as I, the researcher, was the teacher in this teaching experiment, and the main goal of the investigation was the improvement of EFL pedagogical practices with the subjects' active engagement. For this reason, and for reliability and validity purposes, the Appendices include the detailed description of the content of the experimental classes (including the links to the accent samples) with some additional reflection by the researcher (Appendix 6). The technical details of the action research are detailed in the Methodology.

2.7. Summarizing the main arguments of the Literature review

In this Literature review, I have argued that, due to the effect of age on language acquisition discussed in Section 2.2.2., it is not a sensible requirement for EFL learners in Hungary to achieve a native-like accent in English. Relying on Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self-System approach (e.g., 2005, 2009), I have proposed that wanting to sound native-like might potentially be an unreachable ideal self. Additionally, as the ought-to self is conceptualized in more negative terms by Dörnyei's Motivational Self-System approach (e.g., 2005, 2009), meaning that this self is based on the notion of escaping an undesirable self, if sounding Hungarian-accented is considered undesirable by Hungarian EFL learner's, it can have a detrimental impact on how they conceptualize themselves as language learners, especially since it might not be likely for them to acquire a native-like accent.

In Sections 2.1.1. and 2.1.2. I have established that non-standard native and non-native English tend to be viewed rather negatively by L2 users, as they often desire to sound like a

‘standard’ native speaker. This is detrimental for language learning, as WTC can be negatively impacted and language anxiety might stop L2 users from performing well.

In a globalized world, we need to move beyond the native speaker model and focus more on attainable models of successful L2 learning. The notions of Global Englishes, World Englishes, EIL, ELF, etc. have been introduced (Section 2.2.4.) as alternatives for native-centered EFL education.

The problematization of native speakerism (Sections 2.1.3. and 2.2.3.) has focused on the understanding that intelligibility and comprehensibility are more important than native-likeness for EFL learners. I have conceptualized intelligibility for the purposes of this dissertation as context- and interlocutor-specific (and not universal), and as a notion that is informed by CAT and Interactive Alignment (cf. Section 2.2.5.).

Motivation, perfectionism, and WTC have been listed as some of the influencing factors of attitude formation and attitude change (cf. Section 2.1.4.), and these concepts were discussed in more detail in Sections 2.3, 2.4., and 2.5, respectively. Following this line of thought, the classroom and online questionnaires used for the studies reported on in the present dissertation comprised three sections: ‘attitudes and motivation’, ‘perfectionism’ and ‘willingness to communicate’.

Based on these understandings, the following four research questions were formulated (cf. Introduction):

1. What impact does familiarizing Hungarian EFL learners/users with multiple native and non-native accents of English through an indirect teaching method have on their ‘language attitudes and motivation’ and ‘willingness to communicate’ (and potentially ‘perfectionism’)?
2. How open are Hungarian EFL learners/users to such teaching?
3. What kind of relationship is observable between ‘language attitudes and motivation’, ‘perfectionism’ and ‘willingness to communicate’ in English as a foreign language among Hungarian learners/users?
4. What similarities and differences can be found between Hungarian EFL learners’ and teachers’ ‘attitudes and motivation’, ‘perfectionism’, and ‘willingness to communicate’, as well as their responses to indirect teaching targeting attitude change?

Research Question 1 is answered with the help of the classroom investigation and the online survey, Research Question 2 pertains to the preliminary exploratory phase, the classroom investigation, and somewhat to the online survey, Research Question 3 is related to the

classroom investigation and the online survey, and Research Question 4 is answered by the online survey. As some research questions are answered based on the classroom and the online data in conjunction, the term *EFL learner/user* was selected when formulating the questions to include adult respondents (i.e., EFL teachers), too.

In Section 3, the methodology of the investigations reported on in the present dissertation is described in three subsections (3.1. Preliminary exploratory phase, 3.2. Classroom investigation, and 3.3. Online questionnaire). Each of the three subsections is further divided into the description of the participants, instruments, and procedures.

3. Methodology

As the investigations reported on in this dissertation were carried out in three steps, a table (Table 1) summarizing the details of the three studies is included here for ease of reference. Then, the methodology of the three steps is provided in detail in three separate subsections.

Table 1. Summary of the methodology and aim of the three steps in the research project

	Preliminary exploratory phase	**Classroom investigation**	**Online survey**
Participants	25 university students (English majors)	12 high school students (experimental group), 10 high school students (control group), the EFL teacher of the experimental group	92 EFL teachers, 250 high school students
Time	Spring semester, 2021	Fall semester, 2022; delayed post-test in Spring 2023	January 2024 – March 2024
Method	Jamboard, open-ended questions and a text to read	Teaching experiment, pre-, post-, delayed post-test with rating scales and open-ended questions, class evaluation sheet, interview with the experimental group's EFL teacher	Online survey with rating scales and a text to read
Analysis	Quantitative (SPSS) and qualitative	Quantitative (SPSS) and qualitative	Quantitative (SPSS)
Aim	Pre-testing the rationale of the planned further steps, questionnaire design (rating scales from open-ended questions), **partially answering Research Question 2**	Testing the experimental teaching materials, questionnaire design for the online survey, gaining insight from the teacher's perspective, **answering Research Questions 1 and 3, as well as contributing to the answer to Research Question 2 (through the class evaluation sheet and the interview)**	Comparison of teachers' and students' responses on a larger sample, **answering Research Question 4 and contributing to the answer to Research Questions 1, 2, and 3**

Based on Patton (1999), Carter et al. (2014: 545) defines triangulation as "the use of multiple methods or data sources […] to develop a comprehensive understanding of phenomena". What this means is that triangulation can "increase the validity of study findings" (Carter et al., 2014: 546). Denzin (1978) differentiates four types of triangulation: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation, and methodological triangulation. Patton's 1999 categories of triangulation are very similar, namely, methods triangulation, triangulation of sources, analyst triangulation, and theory/perspective triangulation. Based on Denzin's 1978 and Patton's 1999 categorization, Carter et al. (2014) name method triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation, and data source triangulation as the four methods for ensuring that the data collected and the results and conclusions drawn from them are valid.

In the present dissertation, method triangulation and data source triangulation were used, as quantitatively analyzed rating scale questionnaires were paired with qualitatively analyzed open-ended questions and interview data. The open-ended questions of the preliminary exploratory phase served the purpose of narrowing down the research interest and designing rating scales for the classroom questionnaires. The rating scales of the classroom questionnaire were later used as a basis for the online survey. The open-ended questions in the classroom questionnaires facilitated deeper understanding of the participants' answers, and the open-ended questions of the class evaluation sheet gave pedagogical insight and ideas for further improving the study materials. This way, the participatory action research phase (i.e., the classroom investigation) was complemented with more traditional surveys (the preliminary exploratory phase and the online questionnaire), which is a form of method triangulation.

Data source triangulation was achieved in the present dissertation by involving a smaller sample of high school students (12 in the experimental group and 10 in the control group) in the classroom investigation and a larger sample (250) of high school students in the online survey, as well as one EFL teacher in the interview followed by a larger sample (92) of EFL teachers in the online survey.

The use of quantitative and qualitative methods together is known as mixed methods research (Dörnyei, 2007). It is highlighted that the main draw of such methodological complexity is that "the strengths of one method can be utilized to overcome the weaknesses of another method used in the study" (Dörnyei, 2007: 45). Additionally, complex, multifaceted phenomena can be explored better by combining numerical and oral or written qualitative data, according to Dörnyei (2007: 45), who claims that "[w]ords can be used to add meaning to numbers and numbers can be used to add precision to words". This means that more clear-cut

conclusions can be drawn from numerical data, but it is qualitative data that can give depth and detail to such results.

Johnson et al. (2007) add that, while pure mixed methods research entails that the qualitative and the quantitative component of the study are of equal importance, this is not always feasible or the goal. There are quantitative or qualitative dominant mixed methods research projects, in which one component receives more emphasis. I consider the studies on which the present dissertation reports quantitative dominant.

Furthermore, mixed methods research can contribute to taking social action, that is, it can have the potential to transform practices by taking part in or initiating some social change (Mertens, 2003). Bringing about some social change was at the core of the investigations reported on in this dissertation, as the ultimate goal was to suggest a way for helping Hungarian EFL learners in a school setting to accept their non-native accents more through the formation of more positive language attitudes towards non-native accents.

3.1. Preliminary exploratory phase

3.1.1. Participants

The study for the preliminary exploratory phase was carried out with the participation of 25 students of the University of Szeged, 22 female and 3 male respondents, ages 18–24, all of them first-year English Studies students. They had been learning English for 5–15 years at the time of the data collection, which was carried out in the spring semester of the 2020/2021 academic year, during the period of online education ordered by the government due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The researcher and the respondents were in a teacher–student relationship.

3.1.2. Instruments

The data collection was conducted in Hungarian, using Jamboard, an online platform where participants were able to share their thoughts anonymously on virtual ‘sticky notes’ on a ‘notice board’. They were asked to use the ‘sticky note’ with the same number throughout the data collection to make sure that it is identifiable which answers were given by the same respondent.

After answering the first six questions related to their attitudes towards non-native-accented English in general and their own accent in particular on the virtual ‘sticky notes’, respondents were asked to read a text (i.e., concise, preliminary ‘study materials’) created to

pre-test their reactions to materials designed to change or form their attitudes towards their own accents and other non-native accents. For this reason, three open-ended questions followed the text, eliciting their reflections on the short text and their experiences with high school pronunciation teaching. The nine questions of the preliminary exploratory questionnaire are presented in Section 3.1.3., where the quantification of the answers is explained in detail, question-by-question, and they are also included in Appendix 1.

The text was written in Hungarian (see Appendix 1A), but for the purposes of the present description, the English translation is included here (and in Appendix 1B, as well). The text was as follows:

> The English language has several native varieties (e.g., British, American, Australian, New Zealand, Canadian, Irish, Scottish English, etc.) and within these native varieties we can find lots of non-standard dialects (e.g., Cockney, African American Vernacular English, etc.). In the world, in virtually every country, to differing extents, English is a part of everyday life for lots of people. Naturally, non-native varieties are also various and do not follow one standard form. However, every variety can be used effectively for communication and to fulfill the needs of the speakers. Therefore, just because one does not have a native accent, their language use and pronunciation are not less valuable than those of native speakers. Even native speakers don't speak alike, which makes the unified notion of "native pronunciation" problematic. Which accent do we mean? If there is no unified "native accent", then why should language learners worry about not having a "native accent"?

The questions of the preliminary exploratory questionnaire were designed in a way that the answers could be used for the identification of main difficulties, insecurities, and prevailing negative attitudes among the respondents, informing questionnaire design in the further stages of the research project.

3.1.3. Procedures

While sharing their thoughts on Jamboard, the respondents were keeping in touch with the researcher via Zoom in order for the researcher to be able to provide prompt technical help if necessary. All the 25 participants answered all the questions, and there were no incomprehensible or unrelated answers. Data collection happened in two groups anonymously,

with the use of the numbers on the 'sticky notes' as codes, and it took approximately 25 minutes for the respondents to answer all the questions.

Originally, the study for the preliminary exploratory phase was designed for qualitative analysis only, as the respondents gave longer, written answers to each open-ended question, which were devised to aid questionnaire design for the classroom investigation. However, following technical consultations with my advisors, the written data were quantified in order to explore the possible correlations between the answers. The details of the quantification of the data are presented below, question by question.

The Jamboard questionnaire (the questions of which are also listed in Appendix 1A in Hungarian (original) and 1B in English) started with the following six open-ended questions about participants' attitudes towards and experiences with Hungarian-accented English in general and their own English accent in particular:

1. Mennyire elégedett a jelenlegi angol kiejtésével? Miért? "How satisfied are you with your own English pronunciation? Why?" The answers for this question were coded from 1 to 3, where 1 means 'not satisfied', 2 means 'somewhat satisfied', and 3 means 'totally satisfied'. The justifications were not included in the coding; those were analyzed qualitatively.

2. Ha még nem elégedett a jelenlegi angol kiejtésével, milyen kiejtésre vágyik? "If you are not yet satisfied with your current pronunciation in English, what kind of accent do you wish to have?" The answers were coded in two different ways, and the analysis was carried out for both versions. In the first coding, the appearance of various target accents in the answers (British, American, Australian, non-specified native accent, or a more intelligible accent) was checked, and the answers were coded 1 or 0 based on whether each of these target accents were mentioned by the respondents or not. In the second coding, it was checked whether the respondent indicated any desire to have a native-sounding accent or not, and the codes for these were again 1 and 0, respectively.

3. Ha magyar akcentussal beszélt angolt hall, mi a véleménye róla? "If you hear Hungarian-accented English, what is your opinion of it?" The coding for the answers of this question was from 1 to 5, where 1 means 'entirely negative opinion', 2 means 'mainly negative opinion', 3 means 'neutral opinion', 4 means 'mainly positive opinion' and 5 means 'entirely positive opinion'.

4. A saját kiejtését „magyar akcentusosnak" tekinti? "Do you consider your own English as Hungarian-accented?" Similarly to the previous question, the coding for this item is also from 1 to 5, where 1 indicates 'not Hungarian-accented', 2 indicates 'not entirely

Hungarian-accented', 3 indicates 'somewhat/sometimes Hungarian-accented', 4 indicates 'yes, it is Hungarian-accented' and 5 indicates 'unfortunately it is Hungarian-accented'.

5. Mennyire szükséges egy magyar anyanyelvű, angolt tanuló személynek anyanyelvi kiejtésre törekedni az angolban? Miért? "How necessary is it for a Hungarian L1 speaker who is learning English as a foreign language to strive for achieving a native-like accent in English? Why?" The coding involved the answers for the first question only, and the justifcations were qualitatively analyzed. The answers were coded from 1 to 5 as follows: 1 = 'not necessary', 2 = 'necessary only until intelligibility is reached', 3 = 'it depends on one's goals with the English language", 4 = 'yes, it is necessary, BUT…', 5 = 'yes, it is definitely necessary'.

6. Van-e a saját angol kiejtésével kapcsolatban valamilyen negatív emléke (pl. tanár/diák/anyanyelvi beszélő kritizálta)? Ha van ilyen, írja le röviden az esetet! "Do you have any negative memories related to your English pronunciation (e.g., a teacher/student/native speaker criticized it)? If yes, please describe the situation briefly." The coding of the answers was done in two different ways, and the analysis was carried out for both versions. In the first coding, positive vs. negative feedback/criticism were separated, and the answers received a 1 or 0 code for both types of criticism according to whether one or the other was indicated by the respondent. In the second coding, regardless of the type of criticism or feedback (positive/constructive or negative), the answers received a 1 code if some reference to criticism was mentioned by the respondents, and 0 if no reference to it was made. In the analysis, the second coding proved to be more meaningful, as respondents seemed to show similar tendencies in their responses if their accent had received feedback or criticism at all, regardless of whether the nature of it was positive/constructive or negative. After the first six questions, the participants were asked to read the text, and the following three questions were provided after the text.

*7. Középiskolában hallott-e az előbb olvasott szövegben leírtakról? "*Did you hear about the information presented in the text in high school?" The answers were coded as follows: 1 = 'did not hear about it', 2 = 'seldom/ partially heard about it', 3 = 'heard about it'.

8. Az Ön számára hasznos-e a szövegben leírt információ? (Válaszát indokolja!) "Is the information presented in the text useful for you? (Please explain your answer.)" The coding does not include the explanation; that was included in the qualitative analysis only. The answers for the main question were coded as 1= 'yes' when the answer was positive, and 0 = 'no' when the answer was negative.

9. A saját tapasztalatai szerint középiskolában mennyire és milyen módon van jelen angolórákon a kiejtés tanítása? "According to your own experiences, to what extent and in

what way is the teaching of pronunciation present in high school English classes?" Two types of coding were used to quantify the answers to this question, and the analysis was conducted for both. The first coding used 1 = 'yes' for answers indicating that teaching pronunciation was present in some way in high school, and 0 = 'no' for answers indicating that teaching pronunciation was not present in any form in high school. The other coding concentrated on the reported presence or absence of *focused* pronunciation teaching (that is, teaching that goes beyond accidental comments on pronunciation or mere error correction) in high school, where 1 indicated its reported presence and 0 its absence.

3.2. Classroom investigation

3.2.1. Participants

The preliminary exploratory phase revealed that several university students would have appreciated learning about the diversity of English accents in high school. Their responses also showed that they already tended to have rather fixed or strong attitudes towards non-native accented English. These results informed the selection of the participants for the subsequent phases, that is, choosing high school students instead of university students as the respondents.

Twelve tenth-grade EFL students from a high school in Szeged, Hungary, took part in the teaching experiment (ages 15–16, eight female and four male students), and another 10 tenth-grade EFL students from the same high school (ages 15–16, six female and four male students) formed the control group for the data collection. Due to the Matura Examinations, which are the compulsory school leaving exams in Hungarian high schools, 11th- and 12th-grade students were deliberately not selected in order not to interfere with their preparations for the exams.

The control group was using the same course book for learning English as the experimental group, they did not receive the materials designed for the teaching experiment, and were not taught by the teacher of the experimental group, so their EFL teacher did not have the opportunity to include any of the experimental materials in her classes, as she had no knowledge of the content of the experiment.

Both the experimental and the control group were studying (in their regular English classes with their regular teachers) from the *Solutions Pre-Intermediate* course book while the teaching experiment was ongoing, and by the time the delayed post-test was filled out by the

students, they had started the *Solutions Intermediate* level course book[1]. The CDs accompanying the *Pre-Intermediate Student's Book* and *Workbook* together contain over 150 audio samples, and although I did not carry out a full systematic course book analysis, I checked the recordings for non-native-accented speech to ascertain that the accents used for the teaching experiment were not commonly encountered by the students. It was found that the vast majority of the recordings use what can be termed as a Standard British accent, that is, an accent close to or identical with Received Pronunciation. There was only one recording with four non-native speakers, of whom 2 had near native accents. There were some missed opportunities for including some non-native accents, such as the one recording discussing English as a global language. This recording took an interview format, and an RP-speaking linguistics professor discussed global Englishes instead of including some examples for non-native English. In another recording, foreign people's attitudes and opinions about the British were discussed by a Standard British speaker based on some statistical data. This is another missed opportunity for actually interviewing some non-native speakers.

I also examined the first half of the Intermediate Student's book and Workbook which they started around the time when the delayed post-test was administered. Instead of the inclusion of non-native accents, several missed opportunities were found here, too, for including non-native speech. For example, students in another country where the medium of instruction is not English were also given Standard British English-speaking voices. When immigrants were included in the situations, they were described as people who arrived at a very young age and were given native-sounding voice actors. I believe that a more diverse voice acting team would benefit the students learning from these course books. This also suggests that the participants in my teaching experiment were very rarely exposed to non-native accents in their regular classes.

The English teacher of the experimental group participated in a semi-structured interview after the teaching experiment was over. She is in her 50s and used to be a Latin and Russian teacher before receiving her qualifications as an English teacher. This also means that

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1

Falla, Tim and Paul A. Davies. 2020. *Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book (Third edition).* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Falla, Tim and Paul A. Davies. 2020. *Solutions Pre-Intermediate Workbook (Third edition).* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Falla, Tim and Paul A. Davies. 2020. *Solutions Intermediate Student's Book (Third edition).* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Falla, Tim and Paul A. Davies. 2020. *Solutions Intermediate Workbook (Third edition).* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

she started learning English as an adult. These conditions and circumstances undoubtedly have an impact on her experiences with and views on using L2 English. Therefore, her experiences and opinions are not to be understood as the representation of those of the majority of EFL teachers in Hungary.

3.2.2. Instruments

While Cook (2009) argues that action research can be seen as 'messy' in comparison with other research methods which distance the researcher from the object of study more, she states that reframing and reshaping previously existing knowledge and practices can only happen if the researcher does not insist on being a purely objective outsider. "If we accept that we are agents who act in the world on the basis of our own sense-making, and that human community involves mutual sense-making, then to do research *on* rather than *with* people can exclude much of the knowledge in context, especially tacitly held knowledge" (Cook, 2009: 287, italics in the original). This suggests that, to reshape existing teaching practices and the attitudes held by students, being an outside observer is not sufficient. While action research has the disadvantage of being less objectively measurable, it also holds the potential to contribute to social change.

Based on Kemmis et al.'s 2014 categorization, the classroom investigation reported on in the present dissertation is a combination of classroom action research and critical participatory action research. Classroom action research is carried out "by teachers […] to improve their own practices" (Kemmis et al., 2014: 11), which was the main focus of my investigation, but there was an added focus on "the relationship between education and social change" (Kemmis et al, 2014: 12) and on "the reciprocity between practitioner-researchers and others" (Kemmis et al., 2014: 16), for which reason the investigation can be considered participatory. Its purpose is a critical inquiry (as opposed to technical or practical action research), as the main aim of the classroom study was to "emancipat[e] people and groups from irrationality, unsustainability, and injustice" (Kemmis et al., 2014: 14), namely, to change negative attitudes towards and stereotypes about non-native-accented English and to help students accept their own non-native English more.

Action research is constituted of four main steps in a cycle, according to Burns (2009), who considers Kemmis and McTaggart's 1988 model as the most widely used one, involving a phase of plan development followed by the implementation of the plan, the observation of its potential impact, and finally a reflection on the achieved results. According to Soh (2024), these phases can have a reciprocal relationship with one another, in which, for example, the action or

implementation process is not only informed by the plan development phase, but it also has an impact on further development. The spiral-like nature of action research is also highlighted by Kemmis et al. (2014), who emphasize the importance of re-planning after reflection, and starting another cycle of implementation and the observation of its potential effects. They also state that the cycle is rarely perfectly carried out in practice, but the sense of improving one's practices is of utmost importance.

The planning phase of the action research (i.e., the classroom investigation) first involved a detailed analysis of the preliminary exploratory phase, in which the written answers to the open-ended questions served the purpose of designing the questionnaire to be used as a pre-, post-, and delayed post-test for the investigation, by identifying main themes, difficulties, and prevalent negative attitudes. The text used for the preliminary exploratory phase served as a basis for the ideas to be introduced during the teaching experiment. The experiment did not have a completely pre-designed schedule, as I needed to be constantly in touch with the experimental group's EFL teacher to first check the students' proficiency level and interests, and also incorporate some of the topics the students needed to practice for their regular English classes (as without some inclusion of topics from the regular curriculum the experiment would not have been feasible, for the students would have fallen behind the official requirements of their year).

The original plan for the experiment was to give 10-minute experimental study materials to the group's EFL teacher to implement at the end of her classes at least once a week for an extended period, without my personal involvement in the classes. This idea was disfavored and considered to be unfeasible by the examiners at my Comprehensive Exam, who suggested a more intensive teaching experiment, in which full classes are dedicated to the experimental material as frequently as possible, for a shorter period of time. For this reason, I myself needed to be the instructor in the experiment, as it would have been immensely time consuming to prepare the EFL teacher of the experimental group to give full classes using the newly developed experimental materials. This way, the EFL teacher became a participant instead of the facilitator of the research.

As I received some feedback at a conference where I was presenting the results of the preliminary exploratory phase that the text used for the questionnaire was slightly more direct than necessary, making students accept ready ideas instead of coming to realize and understand these ideas on their own, the planning phase of the classroom investigation involved a large emphasis on making the ideas to be introduced indirect, letting the participating students recognize the legitimacy of non-native, non-standard, and non-dominant varieties of English on

their own, from diverse video and audio samples and group discussions. For this reason, the general format of the classes was decided to be the following: encountering new accents (followed by the discussion of the content and their ease or difficulty understanding the accent), some related exercises (mostly communicative pair or group exercises; or grammar tasks if required by the group's EFL teacher), and a brief summary and reflection at the end of the class. The interests of the age group were taken into account to make the materials engaging and motivating, and famous people's accent samples were preferred in order to help the participating students find new role models in terms of accent.

The last part of the planning phase (other than the continuous adjustments based on conversations with the group's EFL teacher and the students' in-class reactions to the materials) happened during the four introductory sessions, which were not yet part of the teaching experiment. These classes served the purpose of familiarizing the students with me and my teaching style, lowering the impact of the observer's paradox, and gaining a deeper understanding of the group dynamics and the students' proficiency level (which had already been partially explored in conversations with their EFL teacher). The implementation, observation and reflection phases are described in section 3.2.3. below.

The four introductory sessions were followed by nine experimental sessions, the aim of which was to attempt to help students form more positive attitudes towards Hungarian-accented English in general and their own Hungarian-accented English in particular, by letting them encounter numerous native and non-native accents of English and encouraging them to recognize the immense variety of accents with which English is spoken around the world. The 13 classes took place between 22nd September and 8th December 2022, and involved 60-minute sessions once or twice a week. A pre-test, a post-test, and a delayed post-test were filled out by the students in Hungarian.

No mention of accent was made in the initial four introductory sessions, and mainly topics recommended by the group's regular English teacher were discussed. After the introductory classes, as a pre-test, the students filled out an anonymous written questionnaire containing 84 Likert scales and five open-ended questions. (See the questionnaire in Appendix 2A in the Hungarian original, and its English translation in Appendix 2B.)

The first section contained statements related to language attitudes and language learning motivation, the second section tested the participants' predisposition for positive and negative perfectionism, and the third section investigated their willingness to communicate orally in English. The use of 5-point Likert scales seemed fitting for the school context, as it is similar to the Hungarian grading system, where 1 means the lowest and 5 the highest grade.

This logic is presumed to be the most self-evident for Hungarian students. Also, the odd number of points allows for a neutral response to be given, which allowed students not to take sides if they did not want to. In the case of most rating scales in the questionnaire, 1 stands for "I don't agree at all", 2 for "I mostly do not agree", 3 for "I somewhat agree, somewhat disagree", 4 for "I mostly agree", and 5 for "I completely agree" with the given statement. The only exception is Part 2 of the 'willingness to communicate' section, where 1 stands for "not at all", 2 for "rather not", 3 for "maybe", 4 for "probably", and 5 for "certainly" in response to questions inquiring how likely it is that they would behave in the described way.

The questions of the 'attitudes and motivation' part of the questionnaire were influenced by the motivation questionnaire used in the 1993–2004 Hungarian survey project carried out by Dörnyei and his colleagues (e.g., Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei et al., 2006), and the results of the preliminary exploratory phase carried out by myself. However, in my questionnaire, no further subscales were used within the 'attitudes and motivation' section (unlike in Dörnyei and Csizér's 2002 work), as the three subsections of my questionnaire ('attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate') were the only subdivisions created. For the section on 'perfectionism', the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Frost and Marten, 1990) was used as a base. Relevant items were selected and translated into Hungarian with occasional small modifications (questions 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, and 17 in the 'perfectionism' section), and completed with the author's own additional questions specific to the participants' life experiences (questions 4, 6, 10, 15, and 18 in the 'perfectionism' section). The first part of the 'willingness to communicate' section contained questions translated with occasional small modifications from the questionnaire in Khatib and Nourzadeh's 2015 study (questions 2, 3, 4, and 5 in the first part of the 'willingness to communicate' section), with some additional questions included by me (questions 1, 6, 7, and 8 in the first part of the 'willingness to communicate' section). The second part of the 'willingness to communicate' section, which describes specific situations in which EFL learners might need to use their L2, was entirely designed by myself.

The questionnaire contained six other questions beside the 84 rating scales: five open-ended questions and a related yes/no question. The first four open-ended questions were included at the end of the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the questionnaire, and the other two questions (a yes/no question and an open-ended question) were at the end of the 'perfectionism' section.

The first open-ended question asked respondents to indicate their opinion about Hungarian-accented English (*Mit gondolsz a magyar akcentussal beszélt angolról?*), the second

inquired about their goals with learning English (*Mi a célod az angol nyelv tanulásával?*), the third asked them to describe their own accent in English briefly (*Szerinted milyen a jelenlegi angol kiejtésed? Jellemezd röviden!*), and the fourth was about their level of satisfaction with their current accent in English, after which students were also asked to briefly explain their answer. (*Mennyire vagy elégedett a jelenlegi angol kiejtéseddel? Válaszodat röviden indokold!*) These four questions were part of the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the questionnaire, as the first, third and fourth inquired about language attitudes and the second about language learning motivation.

The fifth question was a yes/no question inquiring whether the respondent considered themselves to be a perfectionist (*Maximalistának tartod magad?*), and the sixth question was related to the previous one, asking respondents to explain the effects and consequences of being/not being a perfectionist (*Ez milyen hatással van rád (hogy maximalista vagy/nem vagy maximaista), mi ennek a következménye?*) These two related questions were analyzed together.

As indicated above, the questionnaire is included in Appendix 2A in Hungarian (the language in which it was administered) and in Appendix 2B in English. Those questions which were based on previous English-medium questionnaires (as noted above) are provided in English preserving the original wording or a wording as close to the original as possible.

Following the pre-test, the experimental class sessions started, which the regular English teacher of the group did not always attend. The classes were not recorded in order to help the students feel at ease and be able to speak English and express their opinions without concerns about their mistakes and opinions being recorded and stored. Instead, written reports were made after each session to document the students' immediate reactions to the class materials and contributions to the pair or group discussions.

As highlighted before, the experimental sessions had an indirect approach to changing the participants' attitudes towards Hungarian-accented English. Rather than telling the learners what to think, allowing students to explore native and non-native, standard and non-standard, dominant and non-dominant varieties of English in class was used as a means of encouraging them to realize that accents of English are various, and their own accent is just one of the many accents with which their target language is spoken by native and non-native language users. (The indirect nature of the teaching method also contributed to minimizing the observer's paradox, as the research agenda was never stated during the class sessions.) When encountering various accents in the experimental classes, understanding the content was also in focus, as it would have been unreasonable to attempt to help students form positive attitudes towards newly encountered varieties which they could not understand.

The accents encountered throughout the teaching experiment were the following (in this order): Scottish-accented English by a TED speaker (who is also a coach and author); Scouse accent by Liverpool-born comedian John Bishop; Cockney accent by acclaimed London actor Michael Caine and another (non-famous) Cockney speaker; 'standard' British vs. 'standard' American English (the same excerpt from two audio book versions of Antoine de Saint-Exupéry's *The Little Prince*) by actors Kenneth Branagh and Viggo Mortensen, respectively; and two successful speakers with Hungarian-accented English (one of them a Hungarian-born Canadian doctor and author with a less salient Hungarian accent, and the other a Hungarian-born linguist, who worked in the UK, with a more prominent Hungarian accent). Next, students encountered Chinese-accented English through Jackie Chan's Honorary Academy Award acceptance speech, New Zealand-born actor Russell Crowe's New Zealand–Australian accent, Idris Elba's Hackney and Matthew McConaughey's Texan accent, Antonio Banderas's Spanish-accented English and Chris Hemsworth's Australian accent. Then, students watched Austrian actor Christoph Waltz's two Academy Award acceptance speeches and another Academy Award acceptance speech from Spanish actress Penelope Cruz, listened to Scottish singer Nathan Evans's song titled "Wellerman", watched an interview with Israeli-born actress Gal Gadot, and listened to "The Music of the Night" from the *Phantom of the Opera* performed live at the London Wembley Stadium by Italian singer Andrea Bocelli.

The content of each recording was discussed in order to ensure students' understanding of the newly encountered accents; therefore, new words were learnt in each session. The related exercises were mainly communicative, and when new grammar had to be practiced, its communicative purposes were emphasized instead of providing purely form-focused instruction. The tasks in the exercises were as follows: learning to ask for clarification (with the help of fixed expressions or conventional indirectness) if they do not understand their interlocutor due to differences in accent, using humor to avoid uncomfortable situations (e.g., when encountering difficulties in English communication, among other situations), using second conditional (i.e. conditional sentences expressing 'imaginary present' situations) to express where they would travel in the world and what they would do there (e.g., communicate with the locals), using the passive voice (which can make one's speech sound more advanced without having to sound native-like), discussing varieties of English that they were familiar with (as a student-friendly way of introducing the topic of World Englishes), writing and performing individual acceptance speeches for an imaginary award, using English to communicate positive experiences, e.g., things that changed their lives for the better or

moments they would never forget (with the help of useful expressions and prompts given in advance), filling out the gaps in the lyrics of a song performed by a Scottish singer.

In each session, one or more new accents were introduced followed by (mostly) communicative exercises, and a summary concluded each class. Recordings from successful non-native speakers of English were selected as samples following Murphy's above described 2014 idea of presenting students with non-native role models to follow. Lesser-known native accents were included to show students that a unified 'native accent' cannot be identified.

According to the group's English teacher, and in line with my own observations presented in section 3.2.1., the course books used by the group are typically accompanied by audio recordings of 'standard British' or (less frequently) 'standard American' speakers, that is, speakers whose accents are close to Received Pronunciation or General American. The rationale behind the experimental class sessions was to have the participants experience non-standard, non-native, and non-dominant varieties of English being used in the classroom, thus giving legitimacy to their use.

At the end of the last experimental session, students filled out the same questionnaire as for the pre-test, and an additional class evaluation sheet, in which they were encouraged to express their opinions about the sessions. The second questionnaire will be referred to as the post-test.

The six open-ended questions of the class evaluation sheet inquired about the students' experiences with and reflections on the intervention period. The questions were in Hungarian, the students' L1, in order to allow them to express their views as clearly and precisely as possible. In this section, the English translations of the questions are provided, which can also be found in Appendix 3B. (Please see the Hungarian original in Appendix 3A).

1) What did you like about the classes? Try to list 3 things.
2) What did you dislike about the classes or what did you find difficult? Try to list 3 things.
3) What did you learn about the English language through the class sessions?
4) What did you learn about yourself through the class sessions?
5) What would you change/improve to make the classes better, more useful, or more effective?
6) Would you be happy if getting to experience various native and non-native accents of English were part of the compulsory school curriculum in high school? Why or why not?

The respondents then filled out the same questionnaire as they did for the pre- and the post-test for a third time, as a delayed post-test, three months after the end of the teaching experiment, in order for the researcher to be able to check how long-lasting potential changes are once the intervention is over. The control group filled out the same questionnaires (except for the class evaluation sheet) at the same pace, keeping the length of time between the questionnaires the same as in the case of the experimental group, but without receiving any experimental teaching. All the questionnaires were administered in a paper format. The experimental sessions were held as part of the students' compulsory school schedule, and not as extracurricular activities.

A semi-structured interview (in Hungarian) was conducted with the group's English teacher (female, in her 50s) on 13th December 2022, five days after the end of the intervention period. As she was not always present at the class sessions, most of the questions were not strictly related to the class sessions themselves. The interview questions mainly focused on the English teacher's language attitudes, expectations towards her students and herself in terms of accent attainment, and her openness to familiarizing her students with various native and non-native accents of English in class. The 22-minute-long interview was conducted in person in her office, and was recorded with her consent. (The transcript of the interview can be found in Appendix 4A in the Hungarian original and in Appendix 4B in English translation.)

3.2.3. Procedures

The principal of the school and the English teacher of the experimental group gave permission for the teaching experiment to be carried out, and the parents of the students in the experimental group gave their signed consent to their children's taking part in the intervention.

The implementation of the teaching experiment followed the pre-planned pattern (i.e., new accent, pair or group work, summary/reflection) with occasional changes as required by the group's progress or their EFL teacher. As the students experienced more difficulty understanding the new accents than I had previously though, constant adjustments needed to be made (e.g., more times listening to the material, using subtitles when available, stopping the recording and discussing the content in shorter sections, repeating the words heard in the recording, discussing difficulties in general, writing key words into their dictionary notebook, etc.). The EFL teacher of the group also contributed some pieces of advice, as she had a greater knowledge of the group's proficiency and techniques which can help their uptake. Students' difficulties were constantly monitored and taken into account when finalizing the plans for the

next class. The focus on not teaching ready-made ideas about accents to the students but letting them extract their own meanings from the materials was prioritized throughout the sessions.

The observation of the effects of the teaching experiment happened with the help of written reports after each session, which are included in Appendix 6, and through the analysis of the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test results. The written reports are part of this dissertation: each session is first described in a table in Appendix 6, including the introductory or warm-up materials, the main discussion for the session, the (mainly oral) practice tasks for the students, and a summary or conclusion at the end of the class. The links to the recordings used in the sessions are also included in the tables. The table describing the schedule for each class session is followed by the researchers' reflection on the session.

The reflection phase consisted of reflections from the students', the EFL teacher of the experimental group's and the researcher's perspective, which underscores the participatory nature of the research. The students' reflections were mainly elicited with the help of the class evaluation sheet, in which they were encouraged to indicate their opinions about the experimental classes. They also reflected on the newly encountered accents in each class session. The EFL teacher's reflections were elicited in the form of a semi-structured interview, in which she reflected on the experimental classes and her own practice. My reflection on the efficiency of each class session informed the development of the materials for the next session (which is in line with Kemmis et al.'s 2014 emphasis on re-planning after reflection) and my present reflection on the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test results can influence further investigations.

The reliability of the classroom questionnaire was assessed after the pre-test, and both respondent groups (the experimental and the control group, $N = 22$) were included in the analysis. The reliability of the three sections of the questionnaire was within a good range: *Cronbach's* $\alpha = .742$ for the 50-item 'attitudes and motivation' section, $\alpha = .883$ for the 18-item 'perfectionism' section, and $\alpha = .917$ for the 13-item 'willingness to communicate' section.

For the statistical analysis of the results of the Likert-type rating scale questions in the classroom questionnaire, the answers of the paper-based questionnaires were entered into SPSS (version 26). In the first section ('attitudes and motivation'), reverse coding was used for items indicating L2 orientation, i.e., negative opinions about non-native accents or a strong desire to sound native-like (Questions 1, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 14, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 27, 33, 35, 36, 39, 41, 42, 45, 47, 48, and 52), while the coding remained the same for the remaining items indicating L1 orientation, that is, the acceptance and recognition of non-native accented English. This means that the total score of the questionnaire can show how much or to what

extent the respondents accept non-native-accented English vs. how strong their idealization of a native accent model in their target language is. If the total score is higher, the respondents show more acceptance of non-native-accented English, and less insistence on native standards for L2 speakers.

Of the 53 questions in the 'attitudes and motivation' section, one question was misunderstood by some respondents (Questions 9), and two questions (29 and 30) did not fit either grouping, that is, L1- or L2-orientation, and were therefore eliminated from the final analysis. Question 9 included the phrasing *anyanyelvi kiejtéssel beszélek angolul* "I speak English with a native accent", which was understood by some respondents as speaking English with an accent that is influenced by their native language (i.e., Hungarian); therefore, in these students' answers, agreement with the idea of speaking Hungarian-accented English and also with having a native accent in English was observable, which made the elimination of Question 9 necessary.

In the second part of the questionnaire, which focused on 'perfectionism' and included 18 questions, no items needed to be reverse coded or eliminated. In the case of the 'perfectionism' section, a higher total score indicates a higher level of perfectionism in the learners. The total scores for 'negative' vs. 'positive perfectionism' were counted separately as well. The questions grouped together and labelled as 'positive perfectionism' are questions 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 10, 13, 15, and 18 of the 'perfectionism' section of the questionnaire. The rest of the questions in the 'perfectionism' section, that is, questions 3, 5, 7, 8, 11, 12, 14, 16, and 17 were grouped together and labelled as questions related to 'negative perfectionism'. The criteria for distinguishing between the two types of perfectionism followed Hamachek's 1978 and Chan's 2007 distinctions described in the Literature review.

The third part of the questionnaire had two subsections, where the first concentrated on the respondents' willingness to communicate in English orally in general terms (8 items), and the second subsection presented hypothetical situations for L2 use (5 items). The responses for three hypothetical situations in the second part of the 'willingness to communicate' section, Questions 1, 4 and 5, were reverse coded. This way, a higher total score for the 'willingness to communicate' part of the questionnaire (both subsections included) indicates a higher level of willingness to speak English in front of others.

The answers to the open-ended questions were analyzed qualitatively, which involved identifying common themes in the answers and grouping them together based on these themes. Since the respondents were given the opportunity to answer the questions in detail, more than one key concept or theme can appear in one person's answer. Therefore, the sum of all the

instances when the students included the various themes in their answers might be more than the number of participating students, as one student might belong to multiple categories based on their complex answers. The fifth (yes/no question) and the sixth (open-ended question) were related; therefore, they were analyzed together.

In the analysis of the class evaluation sheet, the students' answers were also grouped based on categorizable themes in them. For most questions, students gave a list of answers (not only a single response); therefore, the number of themes indicated can be more than 12 per question; or less, as, in some cases, students preferred not to give an answer to a particular question. The description of the results includes the number of students who indicated the same idea in their responses to each particular question.

Then, the most relevant themes emerging from the interview with the students' English teacher are described using qualitative analysis, and her reflection on her own accent and her students' accents are compared.

3.3 Online questionnaire

3.3.1. Participants

The online survey was open from January, 2024 to March 2024, and 250 high school (in Hungarian: *gimnázium* or *szakgimnázium*, depending on the type of high school) students and 92 Hungarian EFL teachers working at various institutions participated. Among the participating 250 students, there are 161 female and 89 male students, and their ages range from 14 to 19, with 4.8% of them 14 years old, 13.2% of them 15 years old, 23.6% of them 16 years old, 33.2% of them 17 years old, 18.8% of them 18 years old, and 6.4% of them 19 years old. Their age distribution is also summarized in Table 2 below.

High school students (N = 250)	
Female (n = 161)	Male (n = 89)
Ages: 14–19	
14	4.8%
15	13.2%
16	23.6%
17	33.2%
18	18.8%
19	6.4%

Table 2. The age distribution of the high school students participating in the online survey

At the time of the data collection, they had been learning English as a foreign language for 1 year to 18 years, with the majority of them having between 4–12 years of experience with learning EFL. Among the students, 82 people have an English language certificate, and 168 people do not. The students come from various parts of Hungary, with the majority from Csongrád–Csanád county, where the researcher is located. More specifically, 76.8% of the students are from Csongrád–Csanád county, 9.6% from Békés county, 4.8% from Pest county (not including Budapest), 3.6% from Bács–Kiskun county, 2% from Baranya county, 1.2% from the capital city, Budapest, 1.2% from Vas county, and 0.8% from Tolna county. (The number of participating students from each county is shown in Figure 1 below.)

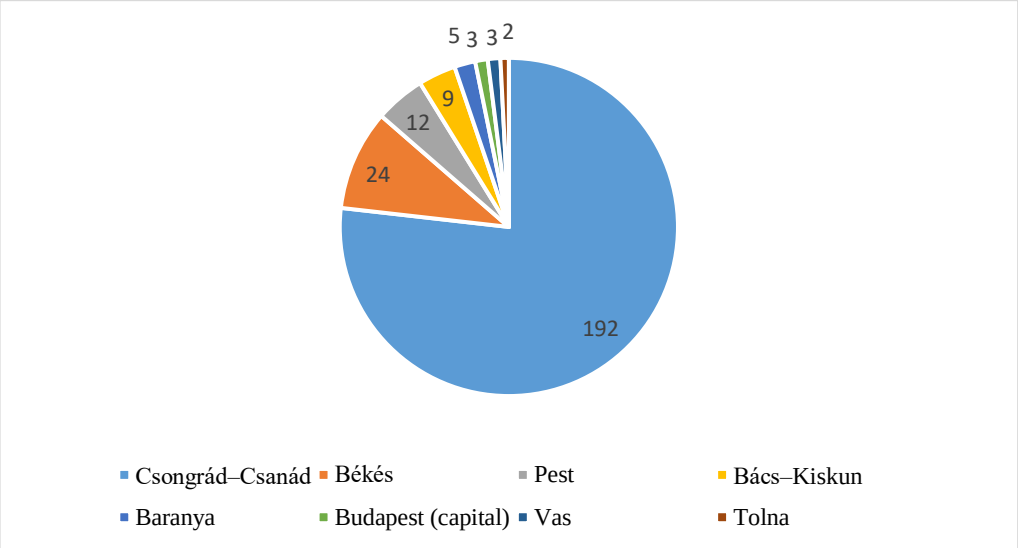

Figure 1. Number of students per county (online questionnaire), *n* = 250

The 92 teacher respondents' ages range from 25 to 67, among whom 8 respondents are male and 84 are female. Their length of EFL teaching experience ranges between 1 and 42 years, with the most frequent being 25 yeas (10 people). They teach at various institutions: *egyetem/főiskola* "university/college 3.3%, *gimnázium/szakgimnázium* "high school" 37%, *szakképző iskola/technikum* "vocational school" 7.6%, *általános iskola* "primary school" 43.5%, *egyéb* "other" (e.g., language school or private tutoring) 8.7%. (Please see the summary of the data regarding distribution per institution type in Table 3 below.) Some of the teachers might work at multiple types of institutions, e.g., university and high school, but they were asked to indicate the institution where they teach more classes.

Type of institution	Distribution of teachers (n = 92)
University/college	3.3%
High school	37%
Vocational school	7.6%
Primary school	43.5 %
Other	8.7%

Table 3. The distribution of teachers per institution type in the online survey

The teachers come from 16 different counties of Hungary and the capital: Pest county [not including Budapest] (16.3%), Budapest (14.1%), Békés county (14.1%), Csongrád–Csanád county (9.8%), Bács–Kiskun county (5.4%), Borsod–Abaúj–Zemplén county (5.4%), Fejér county (5.4%), Baranya county (4.3%), Jász–Nagykun–Szolnok county (4.3%), Vas county (4.3%), Győr–Moson–Sopron county (3.3%), Szabolcs–Szatmár–Bereg county (3.3%), Veszprém county (3.3%), Hajdú–Bihar county (2.2%), Heves county (1.1%), Komárom–Esztergom county (1.1%), Somogy county (1.1%), Tolna county (1.1%). (The number of participating teachers from each county is shown in Figure 2 below. The numbers of teachers per county are presented clockwise, in a decreasing order, and the names of the corresponding counties can be read linearly, from left to right.)

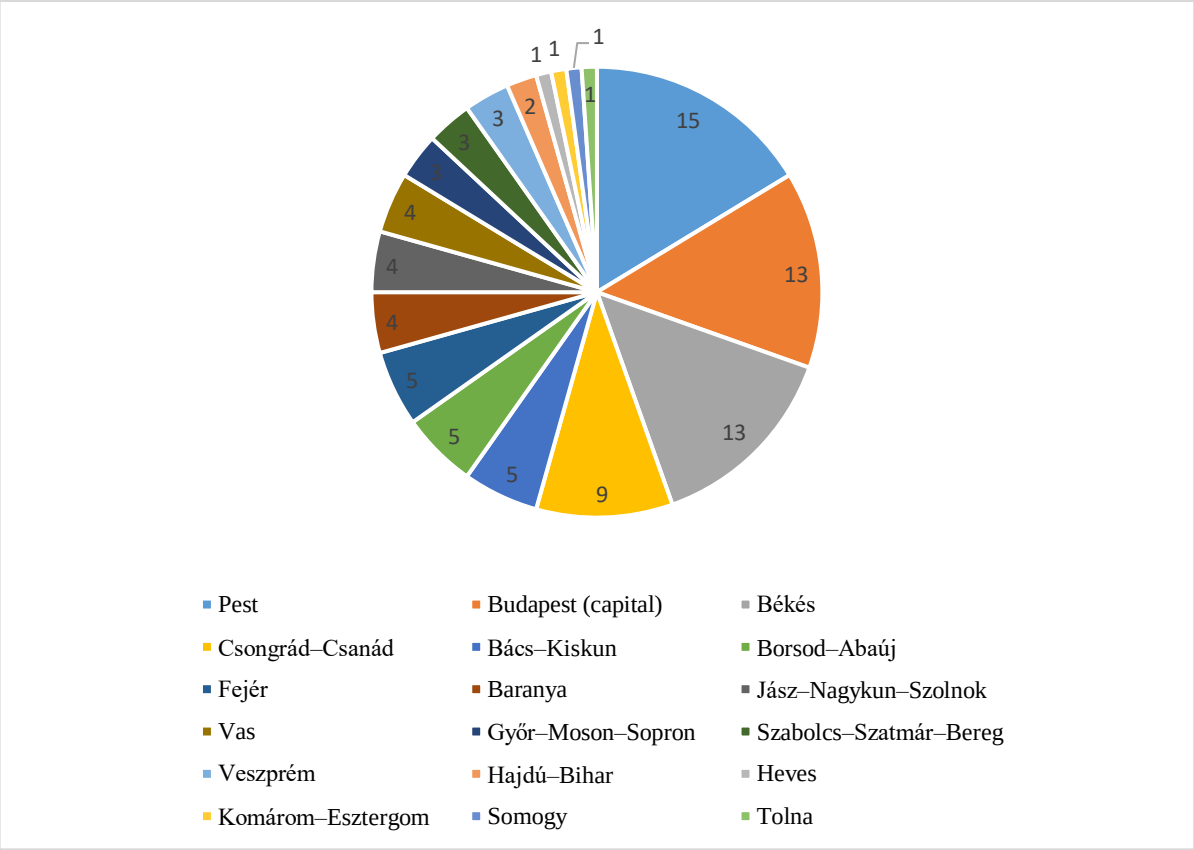

Figure 2. Number of teachers per county (online questionnaire), *n* = 92

3.3.2. Instruments

The online questionnaire is a shortened version of the classroom questionnaire, and was distributed to the respondents using Google Forms. Those questions were selected from the classroom questionnaire to be part of the online survey that correlated significantly with the total score of their respective sections (‘attitude and motivation’, ‘perfectionism’, and ‘willingness to communicate’) in the classroom study. The analyses the results of which are presented here were carried out on the classroom questionnaire and describe the process and criteria of shortening it for online use. The numbers of the selected questions indicate questions in the classroom questionnaire (cf. Appendices 2A and 2B).

The reliability of the shortened online questionnaire was first calculated using the classroom data, which served as a form of piloting. (Also, as the online questionnaire contained statistically selected questions from the classroom questionnaire, the classroom questionnaire itself (the reliability of which was within a good range) can be considered as both a separate main phase of the investigation and a pilot to the online survey.) Then, after the online data was collected, the reliability was recalculated using the online data. Both numbers are reported in Tables 4, 5, and 6 below, for the three sections of the questionnaire, respectively.

There were 12 items in the 'attitudes and motivation' section which correlated significantly with the total score of the section. The Spearman's correlation coefficient (ρ) for each of these questions is shown in Table 4, and so is the reliability (Cronbach's α) of the shortened section.

The initial 12-item shortened version of the 'attitudes and motivation' questionnaire for the online survey mostly included statements with a negative meaning (e.g., "My Hungarian-accented English bothers me.", etc.). In order to avoid negatively biased responses, seven additional questions were added, which were positive rewordings of the previously selected items. Therefore, the added questions measure the same concepts and also allow for cross-checking the consistency of the respondents' answers. The added, positively worded questions are underlined in the online questionnaire included in the Appendices – Appendix 5A (students' version, Hungarian original), 5B (students' version, English translation), 5C (teachers' version, Hungarian original), and 5D (teachers' version, English translation).

Table 4. The selected questions for the shortened 'attitudes and motivation' section of the online survey, based on the individual questions' correlations with the total score of the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the classroom questionnaire (* = p < .05; ** = p < .01)

Q	**12**	**14**	**15**	**21**	**23**	**24**	**36**	**39**	**41**	**42**	**47**	**52**
ρ	.70**	.62**	.50*	.61**	.43*	.65**	.65**	.45*	.60**	.43*	.66**	.49*
Cronbach's α = .851 (based on the classroom questionnaire) Cronbach's α = .791 (based on the online, augmented questionnaire)												

In the 'perfectionism' section of the classroom questionnaire, 15 items correlated significantly with the total score of the section. (See Table 5 below.).

Table 5. The selected questions for the shortened 'perfectionism' section of the online survey, based on the individual questions' correlations with the total score of the 'perfectionism' section of the classroom questionnaire (* = p < .05; ** = p < .01)

Q	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**11**	**12**	**13**	**14**	**15**	**16**	**17**	**18**
ρ	.53*	.66**	.65**	.77**	.69**	.78**	.57**	.53*	.66**	.68**	.45*	.43*	.55**	.47*	.66**
Cronbach's α = .881 (based on the classroom questionnaire) Cronbach's α = .853 (based on the online questionnaire)															

In the 'willingness to communicate' section, 13 (i.e., all) questions in the classroom questionnaire correlated significantly with the total score of the section, therefore this part of the questionnaire did not need to be shortened for the online survey. (See Table 6 below.)

Table 6. The selected questions for the 'willingness to communicate' section of the online survey, based on the individual questions' correlations with the total score of the 'willingness to communicate' section of the classroom questionnaire (* = p < .05; ** = p < .01)

Q	I.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	II.	1	2	3	4	5
ρ		.89 **	.69 **	.82 **	.65 **	.71 **	.70 **	.75 **	.90 **		.71 **	.47 *	.83 **	.55 **	.64 **
Cronbach's α = .917 (based on the classroom questionnaire)															
Cronbach's α = .919 (based on the online questionnaire)															

The shortened 'perfectionism section' and the 'willingness to communicate' section were included without the inclusion of additional questions. After the three sections of the online questionnaire, the respondents read a text which was an improved version of the text used for the preliminary exploratory phase. Compared to the preliminary exploratory phase, the text for the online survey was less direct, allowing the respondents to infer the acceptability and legitimacy of their own accent from those of other accents and varieties. The online survey was conducted in Hungarian, but, for the purposes of this description, the English translation of the text is included here. (See Appendices 5A, 5B, 5C, 5D for the full online questionnaire in English and Hungarian.)

> The English language has several native varieties (e.g., British, American, Australian, New Zealand, Canadian, Irish, Scottish English, etc.) and within these native varieties we can find lots of non-standard dialects. We can think of Cockney, which is spoken in and near London, Scouse spoken in Liverpool, or African American Vernacular English spoken by approximately 60% of the African American population in the United States. These are non-standard varieties of English, and differ from the varieties typically encountered by students in a classroom setting, but the speakers of these varieties are native speakers of English and their language use is appropriate for effective communication. In the world, in virtually every country, to differing extents, English is a part of everyday life for lots of people. In India and Nigeria, for example, English is an important language of business and education, and, even in Hungary and other, neighboring countries, the importance of English is steadily growing. Naturally, non-native

> varieties are also various, and do not follow one standard form. However, every variety can be used effectively for communication and to fulfill the needs of the speakers. Accents are different, but, if speakers understand each other, they have used the language efficiently.

After the text, five questions from the 'attitudes and motivation' section were repeated (Questions 3, 5, 7, 15 and 12 from the online survey, in this order, were repeated as Questions 48, 49, 50, 51, and 52, respectively). Questions from the 'perfectionism' and 'willingness to communicate' sections were not repeated, as these two areas did not show significant change even during the classroom investigation. Although considerable and long-lasting change cannot be expected even in the case of the five repeated question in a one-time online survey, those were selected from the 'attitudes and motivation' section which might show the most immediate change if the participants respond to the text favorably.

The validity of the five repeated questions was proven by Spearman's correlations carried out on the whole sample ($N = 342$), which indicate that the five questions (48–52) mostly show weak to moderate correlations with each other, suggesting that the five questions measure the same construct. The detailed results are presented below in Table 7.

Question	**49**		**50**		**51**		**52**	
($df = 340$)	***ρ (rho)***	***p***	***ρ (rho)***	***p***	***ρ (rho)***	***p***	***ρ (rho)***	***p***
48	.28	< .001	.11	.043	.34	< .001	.51	< .001
49			.65	< .001	.29	< .001	.36	< .001
50					.27	< .001	.25	< .001
51							.46	< .001

Table 7. Spearman's correlations between the five repeated questions (48–52)

After the five repeated questions, another five questions were included to inquire about the respondents' thoughts about and reactions to what they read in the short text. The validity of the five reflection questions was tested by Spearman's correlations carried out on the whole sample ($N = 342$). The results show that the five questions (53–57) mostly show weak to moderate correlations with each other, suggesting that the five questions measure the same construct. The results are summarized in Table 8 below.

Question	**54**		**55**		**56**		**57**	
(*df* = 340)	***ρ (rho)***	***p***	***ρ (rho)***	***p***	***ρ (rho)***	***p***	***ρ (rho)***	***p***
53	.24	< .001	.60	< .001	.39	< .001	.28	< .001
54			.13	.017	.20	< .001	.46	< .001
55					.37	< .001	.30	< .001
56							.41	< .001

Table 8. Spearman's correlations between the five questions reflecting on the short text (53–57)

All questions needed to be answered on 5-point rating scales. This format was selected for the same reason as in the classroom investigation, i.e., its similarity to the Hungarian grading system.

As the online questionnaire was intended to be filled out by both EFL learners and EFL teachers, two versions were created. The teachers' version was based on the same items which are described above, but some items in the 'perfectionism' and 'willingness to communicate' sections, one in the 'attitudes and motivation' section, and another among the text-related reflection questions needed to be modified to fit their life experiences as adults and educators, e.g., students' experiences at school vs. teachers' experiences at work, but the slightly reworded questions remained comparable and inquired about the same topic or type of experience. The student and teacher versions of the questionnaire had some slight differences in wording in the cases of the following twelve questions: 14, 22, 24, 35, 36, 38, 39, 40, 43, 46, 47, and 56. Question 24 is presented here as an example. *Ha valaki az osztályban jobban csinál meg egy feladatot, mint én, úgy érzem, sikertelen vagyok.* "If someone does a task in class better than I do, then I feel like a failure." (students' version) vs. *Ha valaki a munkahelyemen jobban csinál meg egy feladatot, mint én, úgy érzem, sikertelen vagyok.* "If someone does a task at my workplace better than I do, then I feel like a failure." (teachers' version). (See the teacher and student versions of the online questionnaire in Appendices 5A, 5B, 5C, and 5D.)

3.3.3. Procedures

The link to the Google Forms questionnaire was shared with teachers and students all across Hungary using a combination of convenience and snowball sampling. The results of the online survey were analyzed with the help of SPSS (version 26). Similarly to the results of the classroom investigation, reverse coding was necessary for some items in the online questionnaire to make the results of the statistical analyses consistent, following the same criteria as in the case of the previously described classroom questionnaires. Reverse coding was

used for the following items: Questions 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13, 15, 18, 43, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51 and 52.

The ‘perfectionism’ items were once again grouped into ones connected to ‘positive’ vs. ‘negative’ perfectionism the same way as for the classroom investigation. In the online questionnaire, the numbers of the ‘positive perfectionism’ questions are 20, 22, 26, 29, 31, and 34, and the ones grouped as ‘negative perfectionism’-related questions are the items numbered 21, 23, 24, 25, 27, 28, 30, 32, and 33.

4. Results

In this section, the results of the preliminary exploratory phase, the classroom investigation, and the online questionnaire are presented in separate subsections. The results are later interpreted in light of previous studies in the Discussion (Section 5).

4.1. Preliminary exploratory phase

The aim of the preliminary exploratory phase was to help design a workable questionnaire for the classroom investigation (by identifying common themes and creating rating scales informed by the longer written answers to the open-ended questions) and pre-test the rationale behind the further steps of the teaching experiment (i.e., the use of teaching materials about the diversity of English accents for potential attitude change). Additionally, the preliminary exploratory phase provides a part of the answer to the second research question connected to testing participants' openness to the proposed teaching materials targeting attitude change.

The qualitative analysis of the respondents' answers in the preliminary exploratory phase shows that the participants tend to find it difficult to accept their own English accent as it is. Highlighting mistakes and what they are lacking in comparison with native speakers are dominant themes. Out of the 25 respondents, 18 indicated in various ways that they wished to have some form of a 'native accent'. Hungarian-accented English was often considered to be 'funny', 'distracting' or 'difficult to take seriously'. This is illustrated by the following answer: *Nem szoktam emiatt elítélni senkit, nekünk sem igazán tanították a kiejtést középiskolában, viszont sokszor elég kellemetlen hallgatni, és nehezebb így komolyan venni a beszélőt.* "I don't typically judge people negatively for it, as we were not really taught pronunciation either in high school, but it is often unpleasant to listen to and it is more difficult to take the speaker seriously."

There are respondents for whom a hypothetical speaker's Hungarian-accented English is more acceptable than their own. The answers suggest that not speaking Hungarian-accented English counts as a 'victory' and is praised, while speaking Hungarian-accented English can be seen as problematic and something to be ashamed of.

The contents of the text targeting attitude change were received positively, as it was considered new and useful by 72% of the participants. The explanations for the positive responses to the text included that these topics are rarely focused on in high school, although it would be reassuring and comforting to hear about the variety of English accents and dialects,

because it could encourage them to accept their own accent even though it is not 'perfect' and be less shy to speak. The responses included the following, for example: *Hasznosnak találtam, mivel ezúton talán könnyebben el tudom fogadni azt, hogy nem biztos, hogy valaha úgy fogok tudni beszélni mint egy native speaker.* "I found it useful because with its help it might be easier for me to accept that I might not ever be able to sound like a native speaker." and *Igen. Jó tisztában lenni azzal, hogy az akcentus egyedi, emiatt egyik sem jobb vagy rosszabb a másiknál. Főleg hogy az angol nyelvnek, mint anyanyelvnek ennyi változata van.* "Yes. It is good to understand that accents are unique, and for this reason, none of them are better or worse than the others. [It is] especially [important to understand] considering how many native varieties the English language has." According to the participant's own experiences, teaching English pronunciation and familiarizing students with the wide variety of English accents is very scarcely present in high school English classes.

The correlation analyses (Spearman) using the previously described codes yielded results that allow for a deeper understanding of the relationships between the participants' answers to the nine questions. Eight significant correlations will be presented (see Table 9). Throughout this dissertation, results with a *p*-value smaller than .05 are considered significant, and results with a *p*-value smaller than .01 are considered highly significant.

Table 9. Significant correlations in the preliminary exploratory phase (* = p < .05; ** = p < .01)

	Own English Hungarian-accented	Opinion about Hungarian-accented English	Native-like accent attainment necessary	Text is useful	Wants non-specified 'native-like accent'
Self-evaluation, satisfaction	- .46*		- .54**	- .40*	- .57**
Wants native accent		- .50*			
Own English Hungarian-accented			.53**		
Received criticism			- .51**		
Wants British accent			.43*		

The respondents' self-evaluations regarding their own accent in English showed a moderate negative correlation with considering their English Hungarian-accented [$\rho(23) = -.46$, $p = .021$]. That is, those students who considered their English more noticeably Hungarian-accented tended to be less satisfied with their pronunciation and found it less acceptable.

The students' opinion about Hungarian-accented English showed a moderate negative correlation with their desire to have a 'native speaker accent' [$\rho(23) = -.50$, $p = .010$], which means that those who had negative opinions about Hungarian-accented English had a stronger desire to sound native-like.

There is a moderate negative correlation between the participants' self-evaluations regarding their own accent and their belief in the necessity of native-like accent attainment for language learners [$\rho(23) = -.54$, $p = .006$]. This indicates that those who are less satisfied with their own accent consider native-like accent attainment more necessary for language learners.

Following from the previously described correlations, it is not surprising that there is a moderate positive correlation between considering one's own accent Hungarian-accented and indicating that native-like accent attainment is necessary for language learners [$\rho(23) = .53$, $p = .007$]. This means that the more Hungarian-accented the respondents considered their English to be, the more important they considered native-like accent attainment for language learners.

Having received criticism/feedback on one's accent seems to be in moderate negative correlation with considering native-like accent attainment necessary for language learners [$\rho(23) = -.51$, $p = .009$], that is, those students who reported having received criticism/feedback on their accent considered native-like accent attainment less necessary for language learners. This was true for any type of criticism/feedback, regardless of whether it was considered negative or positive/constructive criticism.

Desiring to have a British accent showed different connections with the participants' other answers compared to desiring to have an American accent or a non-specified 'native accent'. Specifying a British accent as the goal of their accent attainment showed a moderate positive correlation with considering native-like attainment necessary for language learners [$\rho(23) = .43$, $p = .034$], while this relationship cannot be found in the case of those who named an American accent or any other native accent as the accent model they wished to emulate. That is, those students who wanted to speak English with a British accent found native-like accent attainment more necessary for language learners than the other participants.

However, it was not wishing for a British accent that could be connected to evaluating oneself negatively regarding their accent in English. Rather, it was desiring to have a non-specified 'native accent' that showed a moderate negative correlation with the respondents'

self-evaluations [$\rho(23) = -.57$, $p = .003$], which shows that those who were not satisfied with their own accent tended to indicate that they desired to have a 'native speaker accent' without specifying the exact variety they wished to emulate.

Significant results were found in relation to the text targeting attitude change, as well. The students' self-evaluations show a moderate negative correlation with finding the contents of the text useful [$\rho(23) = -.40$, $p = .050$]. This result indicates that those students found the contents of the text the most useful who expressed negative evaluations about their own accent.

The qualitative analysis of the explanations the respondents gave for their answers can shed light on the reasons for why these students tended to find the text useful. The most common explanations were the following: language learners can experience relief when they are familiarized with the wide variety of native and non-native varieties of English, as study materials like this can help language learners to accept their non-native accent more and become braver to use the language orally. Therefore, many of the respondents who found the text useful would appreciate if these topics could be introduced to students in high school.

The positive responses to the text in the preliminary exploratory phase confirmed that using teaching materials for attitude change, that is, the rationale behind the next steps of the investigation, seems a well-founded idea to test, and the answers to the open-ended questions provided the basis of devising rating scales for the classroom questionnaire. The text used in the preliminary exploratory phase was later updated and included in the online survey. In the next section, the results of the classroom investigation are presented.

4.2. Classroom investigation

In this part of the Results section of the present dissertation, the pre-, post-, and delayed post test results are described in separate subsections. Each subsection is further divided into an 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate' section. After the description of the results of the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test in separate subsections, the changes between the students' scores across the three data collections are presented. These changes will then form the basis of my main arguments in the Discussion.

The classroom investigation contributes to answering the first and third research questions, namely, the questions connected to the impact of teaching materials targeting attitude change and the relationships between 'attitudes and motivation', perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate', and contributes to answering the second research question with regard to the participants' openness to the teaching materials.

4.2.1. Pre-test

The pre-test of the classroom investigation was carried out to assess and compare the 'default' scores of the treatment and the control group before the intervention, and to establish potential correlations between the three sections of the test (i.e., 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate'.) In the following four subsections, the results of the 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate' sections of the questionnaire are described separately, which are followed by a description of the correlations between these sections.

4.2.1.1. Attitudes and motivation

As discussed in Section 3.2.1. in the Methodology of the present dissertation, and as the data presented in Table 10 below shows, the whole sample (N = 22) was divided into two groups, the experimental group (n = 12) and the control group (n = 10). The whole sample's mean score (M) for the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the pre-test is 170.82 points (out of a total of 250 points, where higher scores mean more positive attitudes towards non-native-accented English), the experimental group's mean score is 169.92 points, and the control group's score is 171.90 points. There is no standardized 'attitudes and motivation' data for the whole population of Hungarian high school EFL learners to which these results could be compared.

The standard deviation (SD) in the control group (17.84) is higher than in the experimental group (12.22), which means that the students' results were somewhat more diverse in the control group than in the experimental group.

Sample	***N (n)***	***M***	***SD***
Whole sample	22	170.82	14.68
Experimental group	12	169.92	12.22
Control group	10	171.90	17.84

Table 10. Descriptive statistics for the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the pre-test

In order to assess whether the experimental and the control groups' scores were sufficiently similar in the pre-test to make later comparisons possible, an independent samples

t-test was carried out to compare their mean scores. The results of the independent samples *t*-test show that there is no significant difference between the experimental group's (*M* = 169.92, *SD* = 12.22) and the control group's (*M* = 171.90, *SD* = 17.84) pre-test scores for the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the questionnaire [t(20) = -0.31, p = .761]. This indicates that later comparisons between the two groups are valid, as their pre-treatment results do not differ significantly. In the following subsection, the pre-test 'perfectionism' results are described.

4.2.1.2. Perfectionism

As Table 11 below shows, the mean score of the whole sample (*N* = 22) for the 'perfectionism' section of the pre-test is 57.77 points (out pf a total of 90 points, where a higher score means a higher level of perfectionism in the respondents), the experimental group's (*n* = 12) mean score is 60.00 points, and that of the control group (*n* = 10) is 55.10. There is no standardized 'perfectionism' data for the whole population of Hungarian high school EFL learners to which these results could be compared.

The standard deviation (*SD*) is higher in the experimental group (13.15) for this section of the pre-test than in the control group (9.24), which indicates that the students' answers in the control group were somewhat less varied than in the experimental group.

Sample	***N (n)***	***M***	***SD***
Whole sample	22	57.77	11.55
Experimental group	12	60.00	13.15
Control group	10	55.10	9.24

Table 11. Descriptive statistics for the 'perfectionism' section of the pre-test

To assess whether the differences between the two groups' 'perfectionism' scores in the pre-test are significant, an independent samples *t*-test was carried out. The results show that there is no significant difference between the experimental group's (*M* = 60.00, *SD* = 13.15) and the control group's (*M* = 55.10, *SD* = 9.24) mean scores for the 'perfectionism' section of the pre-test [*t*(20) = 0.99, *p* = .334].

In order to get a more detailed picture of the participants' perfectionism, their 'negative' vs. 'positive perfectionism' scores were also assessed separately (following the criteria for categorization explained in the Methodology). Their results are presented in Table 12 below.

Sample	***N (n)***	***M***	***SD***
Whole s. positive	22	31.86	5.76
Whole s. negative		25.91	7.02
Experim. positive	12	32.33	5.88
Experim. negative		27.67	8.32
Control positive	10	31.30	5.87
Control negative		23.80	4.64

Table 12. Descriptive statistics for 'negative perfectionism' and 'positive perfectionism' separately in the pre-test

As Table 12 above shows, the mean 'positive perfectionism' score of the whole sample is 31.86 points (out of a total of 45 points, where a higher score indicates a higher level of positive perfectionism in the students), and their mean 'negative perfectionism' score is 25.91 points (out of a total of 45, where a higher score indicates a higher level of negative perfectionism). The experimental group's mean score is 32.33 for positive perfectionism (*SD* = 5.88), and 27.67 for negative perfectionism (*SD* = 8.32), and the control group's mean score is 31.30 points for positive perfectionism (*SD* =5.87) and 23.80 for negative perfectionism (*SD* = 4.64).

The independent samples *t*-tests which were carried out to compare the 'positive' and 'negative perfectionism' scores of the two groups in the pre-test show that the positive perfectionism scores of the experimental group (*M* = 32.33, *SD* = 5.88) show no significant difference from those of the control group (*M* = 31.30, *SD* = 5.87), $t(20) = 0.41$, $p = .686$, and the same is true for the negative perfectionism scores of the experimental group (*M* = 27.67, *SD* = 8.32) and the control group (*M* = 23.80, *SD* = 4.64), $t(20) = 1.31$, $p = .206$. These results indicate that the two groups' pre-treatment levels of 'perfectionism' (or 'positive' vs. 'negative perfectionism' assessed separately) do not differ significantly, making later comparisons between the two groups possible.

It needs to be highlighted that 'perfectionism' was not directly targeted by the teaching experiment, and changes in 'perfectionism' scores across the three questionnaires were not expected, as the reason for its inclusion in the questionnaire was mainly to establish its

correlations with the other two sections of the questionnaire. In the following subsection, the pre-test 'willingness to communicate' results are presented.

4.2.1.3. Willingness to communicate

In the 'willingness to communicate' section of the pre-test, the whole sample's (N = 22) mean score is 45.41 points (out of a total of 65 points, where a higher score means more willingness to communicate orally in English in various situations). The experimental group's (n = 12) mean score separately is 43.75 points (SD = 11.23), and the control group's mean score is 47.40 points (SD = 10.30). The results are summarized in Table 13 below. (There is no standardized 'willingness to communicate' data for the whole population of Hungarian high school EFL learners to which these results could be compared.)

Sample	***N (n)***	***M***	***SD***
Whole sample	22	45.41	10.73
Experimental group	12	43.75	11.23
Control group	10	47.40	10.30

Table 13. Descriptive statistics for the 'willingness to communicate' section of the pre-test

To assess the comparability of the two groups' levels of 'willingness to communicate', an independent samples t-test was carried out. The results show that there is no significant difference between the pre-treatment 'willingness to communicate' scores of the experimental group (M = 43.75, SD = 11.23) and the control group (M = 47.40, SD = 10.30), $t(20) = -0.788$, $p = .440$, which makes later comparisons between the two groups possible. In the following subsection, the correlations between the 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate' sections of the pre-test are discussed.

4.2.1.4. Correlations between the three sections of the pre-test

Correlation analyses between the three sections of the pre-test were run to determine the 'default' relationships between 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate' before the teaching experiment. The total scores of the sections of the questionnaire were counted separately for the correlation analyses. Then, the total scores for

‘negative’ vs. ‘positive perfectionism’ were counted separately, as well., as it was also done in Section 4.2.1.2. For the pre-test correlation analyses the whole sample’s scores were used, as neither group had taken part in any treatment at this point, and there was no significant difference between the scores of the two groups for either section of the pre-test questionnaire.

Spearman’s correlations were conducted, and four significant correlations were found between the total scores of the sections of the pre-test, which can shed light on the connections between ‘attitudes and motivation’, ‘perfectionism’, and ‘willingness to communicate’ in EFL in a Hungarian high school setting.

The total scores for ‘attitudes and motivation’ show a moderate positive correlation with the total scores for ‘willingness to communicate’, indicating that those who accept Hungarian-accented English and their own accent more are also more willing to use the language for oral communication. This supports the presupposition of the study that improved language attitudes might later go hand in hand with more willingness to communicate [$\rho(20) = .50$, $p = .018$].

Conversely, ‘attitude and motivation’ scores were found to be in a moderate negative correlation with ‘perfectionism’ scores (positive and negative combined), meaning that higher levels of perfectionism occurred together with less acceptance of Hungarian-accented English [$\rho(20) = -.52$; $p = .013$].

When total scores for negative vs. positive perfectionism were counted separately, only ‘negative perfectionism’ showed a statistically significant relationship with ‘attitudes and motivation’, namely, there was a moderate negative correlation between the two scores [$\rho(20) = -.47$; $p = .029$]. This seems to suggest that those who have a predisposition for negative perfectionism might accept Hungarian-accented English less readily than those who experience only positive perfectionism or those who cannot be considered perfectionists at all.

However, it was also found that there was a moderate positive correlation between positive and negative perfectionism [$\rho(20) = .60$; $p = .003$], meaning that if scores for one increase, so do scores for the other. Therefore, it seems rather unlikely that one has only one type of perfectionism but no traces of the other. The results are also summarized in Table 14 below.

	Willingness to communicate	Perfectionism	Negative perfectionism
Attitudes & motivation	.50*	-.52*	-.47*
Positive perfectionism			.60**

Table 14. Significant correlations between the total scores of the (sub)sections of the pre-test, N = 22 (* = p < .05; ** = p < .01)

In the following section, the results of the post-test are presented following a similar structure to the presentation of the results of the pre-test.

4.2.2. Post-test

The post-test was carried out to test the students' 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate' scores immediately after the treatment. In the following four subsections, the results of the three sections of the questionnaire are described separately, followed by the correlations between these sections.

4.2.2.1. Attitudes and motivation

The difference between the mean scores for 'attitudes and motivation' in the two groups was larger in the post-test than in the pre-test, as the experimental group's mean score is 190.75 and the control group's score is 176.80 points out of a total of 250 points (cf. 171.90 and 169.92 points respectively in the pre-test). Please see the summary of the results in Table 15 below.

Sample	***N (n)***	***M***	***SD***
Whole sample	22	184.41	20.81
Experimental group	12	190.75	20.01
Control group	10	176.80	20.08

Table 15. Descriptive statistics for the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the post-test

Although the difference between the post-test 'attitudes and motivation' scores is greater between the experimental group (M = 190.75, SD = 20.01) and the control group (M = 176.80, SD = 20.08) in the post-test than in the pre-test, an independent samples t-test shows that the difference is not significant, $t(20) = 1.63$, $p = .120$, possibly due to the small sample size. In the next section, the post-test 'perfectionism' scores are discussed.

4.2.2.2. Perfectionism

The experimental group's and the control group's mean scores for the 'perfectionism' section of the post-test are 58.67 and 54.30 points, respectively, out of a total of 90 points. The results are summarized in Table 16 below. The experimental (M = 58.67, SD = 12.94) and the control group's (M = 54.30, SD = 10.54) post-test scores for 'perfectionism' are not significantly different, $t(20) = 0.86$, $p = .402$.

Sample	***N (n)***	***M***	***SD***
Whole sample	22	56.68	11.85
Experimental group	12	58.67	12.94
Control group	10	54.30	10.54

Table 16. Descriptive statistics for the 'perfectionism' section of the post-test

When the respondents' 'positive' vs 'negative perfectionism' scores are assessed separately, the following results are observable (see Table 17 below). The total score for both types of perfectionism is 45 points.

Sample	***N (n)***	***M***	***SD***
Whole s. positive	22	31.77	6.06
Whole s. negative		24.91	7.05
Experim. positive	12	32.58	5.90
Experim. negative		30.80	6.43
Control positive	10	26.08	7.91
Control negative		23.50	5.95

Table 17. Descriptive statistics for 'negative perfectionism' and 'positive perfectionism' separately in the post-test

The independent samples *t*-tests which were carried out to compare the two groups' 'positive' and 'negative perfectionism' scores show no significant difference between the experimental group's (M = 32.58, SD = 5.90) and the control group's (M = 26.08, SD = 7.91) positive perfectionism scores, $t(20) = 0.68$, $p = .505$. The same is true for the experimental (M = 30.80, SD = 6.43) and the control group's (M = 23.50, SD = 5.95) negative perfectionism scores, $t(20) = 0.85$, $p = .405$.

In the following section, the post-test 'willingness to communicate' scores are described.

4.2.2.3. Willingness to communicate

The mean scores for 'willingness to communicate' in the experimental and the control group in the post-test are 43.50 and 43.80 points, respectively, out of a total of 65 points for this section of the questionnaire. (See Table 18 below.) These two main scores are almost identical, and the results of the independent samples *t*-test confirm that there is no significant difference between the experimental (M = 43.50, SD = 12.44) and the control group's (M = 43.80, SD = 11.15) scores, $t(20) = -0.06$, $p = .954$.

Sample	***N (n)***	***M***	***SD***
Whole sample	22	43.63	11.59
Experimental group	12	43.50	12.44
Control group	10	43.80	11.15

Table 18. Descriptive statistics for the 'willingness to communicate' section of the post-test

In the following subsection, the correlations between the 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate' sections of the post-test are discussed. This time, only the experimental group's results were included in the analysis, as they were the only respondents who received a treatment; and therefore, their results might be different from the 'default' correlations established based on the pre-test scores.

4.2.2.4. Correlations between the three sections of the post-test

Spearman's correlations were run to determine the relationships between the mean scores of the three sections of the post-test questionnaire in the experimental group in order to

compare them to those observed in the pre-test. Significant positive correlations can be observed between 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' in the post-test, namely, a moderate correlation [$\rho(10) = .59$, $p = .045$] can be observed between the two areas, compared to the strong correlations observed in the pre-test [$\rho(10) = .81$, $p = .001$]. Similarly, there was a strong positive correlation between 'negative' and 'positive perfectionism' in both the pre- test [$\rho(10) = .74$, $p = .006$] and the post-test [$\rho(10) = .72$. $p = .008$]. The other two significant correlations which were found in the larger sample pre-treatment (i.e., between 'attitudes and motivation' and 'perfectionism', and 'attitudes and motivation' and 'negative perfectionism') were not observed in the experimental group in the post-test.

In the following section, the results of the delayed post-test, conducted three months after the end of the teaching experiment (and the post-test) are described in detail.

4.2.3. Delayed post-test

The delayed post-test measured how long-lasting the potential impact of the teaching experiment was, and its main importance will be seen when the changes between the results of the three data collections are discussed in Section 4.2.4. In this section, the 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism' and 'willingness to communicate' scores are described in separate subsections followed by the correlations between the three parts of the delayed post-test.

4.2.3.1. Attitudes and motivation

The experimental group's mean score for 'attitudes and motivation' is higher (183.67 points) compared to the control group's results (177.30 points) in the delayed post-test (out of a total of 250 points for this section), as it can be seen in Table 19 below. However, this difference between the experimental group ($M = 183.67$, $SD = 23.92$) and the control group ($M = 177.30$, $SD = 18.37$) is not statistically significant, $t(20) = 0.69$, $p = .499$, probably due to the small sample size.

Sample	***N (n)***	***M***	***SD***
Whole sample	22	180.77	21.31
Experimental group	12	183.67	23.92
Control group	10	177.30	18.37

Table 19. Descriptive statistics for the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the delayed post-test

In the next subsection, the delayed post-test results for 'perfectionism' are described. As indicated previously, perfectionism scores were not expected to change during the teaching experiment or shortly after it. Instead, 'perfectionism' was mainly assessed in order for the researcher to observe its relationship with 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate'.

4.2.3.2. Perfectionism

The 'perfectionism' mean scores of the experimental group (60.08 out of a total of 90 points) are slightly higher than those of the control group (52.90 out of a total of 90 points), which is a tendency that is observable throughout the three data collections. (Please see Table 20 below.) However, the difference is not statistically significant between the experimental (M = 60.08, SD = 14.49) and the control group (M = 52.90, SD = 12.36), $t(20) = 1.24$, $p = .231$, similarly to the pre-test and the post-test 'perfectionism' scores.

Sample	***N (n)***	***M***	***SD***
Whole sample	22	56.82	13.74
Experimental group	12	60.08	14.49
Control group	10	52.90	12.36

Table 20. Descriptive statistics for the 'perfectionism' section of the delayed post-test

In order to gain more insight into the type of 'perfectionism' the respondents have, their 'positive' vs. 'negative perfectionism' scores were assessed separately, as well, as shown in Table 21 below. The mean score for 'positive perfectionism' in the experimental group is 32.83 (out of a total of 45 points), and it is 30.50 (out of 45) in the control group. For 'negative perfectionism', the experimental group's mean score is 27.25 and the control group's score is 22.40 (out of a total of 45 points).

Sample	*N (n)*	*M*	*SD*
Whole s. positive	22	31.77	6.80
Whole s. negative		25.05	8.00
Experim. positive	12	32.83	6.22
Experim. negative		27.25	8.90
Control positive	10	30.50	7.56
Control negative		22.40	6.19

Table 21. Descriptive statistics for 'negative perfectionism' and 'positive perfectionism' separately in the delayed post-test

The results of an independent samples *t*-test show that the 'positive perfectionism' scores in the experimental group (M = 32.83, SD = 6.22) and the control group (M = 30.50, SD = 7.56) are not significantly different in the delayed post-test, $t(20) = 0.80$, $p = .436$. The same is true for the experimental group's (M = 27.25, SD = 8.90) and the control group's (M = 22.40, SD = 6.19) 'negative perfectionism' scores, $t(20) = 1.45$, $p = .162$.

In the next subsection, the delayed post-test results for 'willingness to communicate' are explored in detail.

4.2.3.3. Willingness to communicate

In the delayed post-test, the experimental group's mean score for 'willingness to communicate is 43.25, and the control group's is 48.20 out of a total of 65 points for this section of the questionnaire, as shown in Table 22 below. The difference between the experimental group's (M = 43.25, SD = 11.19), and the control group's (M = 48.20, SD = 6.51) results is not statistically significant, $t(20) = -1.23$, $p = .232$. The control group's 'willingness to communicate' scores were slightly higher in the pre-test and the post-test, as well, as it was previously shown, but the difference was not significant in either case.

Sample	*N (n)*	*M*	*SD*
Whole sample	22	45.50	9.49
Experimental group	12	43.25	11.19
Control group	10	48.20	6.51

Table 22. Descriptive statistics for the 'willingness to communicate' section of the delayed post-test

In the following subsection, the correlations between the three parts of the delayed post-test (i.e., 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate') are explored.

4.2.3.4. Correlations between the three sections of the delayed post-test

Spearman's correlations were run to determine the relationships between the scores of the three sections of the delayed post-test questionnaire in the experimental group in order to see potential changes after the teaching experiment. These results are presented here in light of the correlations found between the three sections of the questionnaire in the pre- and the post-test. Significant positive correlations can be observed between 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' in all three questionnaires, with the post-test showing moderate correlations between the two areas, compared to the strong correlations observed in the other two questionnaires. [Pre-test: $\rho(10) = .81$, $p = .001$; Post-test: $\rho(10) = .59$, $p = .045$; Delayed post-test: $\rho(10) = .73$, $p = .007$]. Similarly, there was a strong positive correlation between 'negative' and 'positive perfectionism' throughout the three data collections. [Pre-test: $\rho(10) = .74$, $p = .006$; Post-test: $\rho = .72$. $p = .008$; Delayed post-test: $\rho(10) = .79$, $p = .002$]. The only new significant correlation after the teaching experiment was observed in the scores of the delayed post-test, namely, a strong negative correlation appeared in the delayed post-test between 'attitudes and motivation' and 'positive perfectionism' [$\rho(10) = -.65$, $p = .021$].

The following subsection focuses on the changes between the respondents' pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test results.

4.2.4. Changes between the respondents' pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test scores

This section will be the most important basis for the argumentation (in relation to the classroom investigation) in the Discussion section, as this section focuses on the changes that took place across the three data collections. Paired samples *t*-tests were carried out in order to compare the results of the three questionnaires within the same group (subsections 4.2.4.1., 4.2.4.2 and 4.2.4.3). For this, the mean scores of the students' total scores for each section of the questionnaires are included in the present analysis, marked with *M1*, *M2*, and *M3* for the first, second, and third questionnaire, respectively (i.e., the pre-, post-, and delayed post- test). The highest possible (maximum) score for 'attitudes and motivation' was 250 points, 90 points for 'perfectionism', and 65 points for 'willingness to communicate'.

Then, the change between the results is also compared between the experimental and the control group using independent samples *t*-tests (subsection 4.2.4.4.). The change is

calculated by subtracting the pre-test mean score from the post-test mean score, as well as the pre-test mean score from the delayed post-test mean score.

In order to assess the impact of negative perfectionism, a cut-off point was created above which participants in the experimental group were considered highly negative perfectionists (subsection 4.2.4.5). This cut-off point is 32 points out of a total of 45 points, which is the first whole number of points above the 70% mark, i.e., when participants scored over 70% of the points indicating 'negative perfectionism'.

4.2.4.1. Attitudes and motivation

In the experimental group, significant differences were found between the total scores for the 'attitudes and motivation' section of each round of questionnaires. The total score of the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the post-test showed a significant increase (*M2* = 190.75, *SD* = 20.01) compared to that of the pre-test (*M1* = 169.92; *SD* = 12.22), $t(11) = -4.86$, $p = .001$. This indicates that after the teaching experiment, students were more willing to accept Hungarian-accented English in general and their own accent in particular, as higher scores mean worrying less about not having a native-like accent in English. On the other hand, no significant difference was found between the control groups' responses to the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the first and second questionnaires (*M1* = 171.90; *SD* = 17.84, *M2* = 176.80, *SD* = 20.08), $t(9) = -1.16$, $p = .276$.

The experimental group's scores for the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the delayed post-test still showed a significant increase (*M3* = 183.67, *SD* = 23.92) in comparison with the pre-test (*M1* = 169.92, *SD* = 12.22), $t(11) = -2.99$, $p = .012$, although to a lesser extent. This means that, three months after the end of the intervention period, the tendency to show more acceptance towards Hungarian-accented English was maintained, but the difference became less pronounced compared to the post-test. In the control group, no significant difference was found between the scores of the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the first and third questionnaires (*M1* = 171.90, *SD* = 17.84, *M3* = 177.30, *SD* = 18.34), $t(9) = -1.00$, $p = .344$.

Following from the results discussed in the previous paragraph, a significant decrease was found between the total scores of the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the post-test (*M2* = 190.75, *SD* = 20.01) and the delayed post-test (*M3* = 183.67, *SD* = 23.92) in the experimental group, $t(11) = 2.41$, $p = .035$. This means that the positive effect achieved by the intervention period was stronger in the immediate post-test, while the delayed post-test showed a weakening of this effect. No significant difference was found between the respective scores of the control group (*M2* = 176.80, *SD* = 20.08, *M3* = 177.30, *SD* = 18.34), $t(9) = -0.11$, $p = .918$. The means

of the total scores for the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the three questionnaires are summarized in Table 23 below.

Questionnaire	**Group (*n*)**	**Mean of total scores (*SD*)**
Attitudes & motivation (pre-test)	Experimental (12)	169.92 (12.22)
	Control (10)	171.90 (17.84)
Attitudes & motivation (post-test)	Experimental (12)	**190.75** (20.01)
	Control (10)	176.80 (20.08)
Attitudes & motivation (delayed post-test)	Experimental (12)	**183.67** (23.92)
	Control (10)	177.30 (18.34)

Table 23. Mean of total scores for the 'attitudes and motivation' section (classroom questionnaire)

4.2.4.2. Perfectionism

There is no significant difference between the total scores for perfectionism across the three questionnaires for either the experimental or the control group. The results of the experimental group when the pre-test and the post-test results for the 'perfectionism' section are compared are the following: *M1* = 60.00, *SD* = 13.15, *M2* = 58.67, *SD* = 12.94, *t*(11) = 1.15, *p*= .274. Similarly, no significant difference was found between the corresponding scores of the control group: *M1* = 55.10, *SD* = 9.24, *M2* =54.30, *SD* = 10.54, *t*(9) = 0.18, *p* = .864.

When the pre-test and the delayed post-test scores are compared, the results are the following in the experimental group: *M1* = 60.00, *SD* = 13.15, *M3* = 60.08, *SD* = 14.49, *t*(11) = -0.04, *p* = .971; and in the control group: *M1* = 55.10, *SD* = 9.24, *M3* = 52.90, *SD* = 12.36, *t*(9) = 1.09, *p* = .305.

The comparison of the post-and delayed post-test scores showed no significant difference, either. The experimental group's scores are as follows: *M2* = 58.67, *SD* = 12.94, *M3* = 60.08, *SD* = 14.49, *t*(11) = -0.51, *p* = .622. The corresponding results of the control group were *M2* = 54.30, *SD* = 10.54, *M3* = 52.90, *SD* = 12.36, *t*(9) = 0.27, *p* = .794.

Positive vs. negative perfectionism

When 'positive perfectionism' is assessed separately, the following results are observable. In the experimental group, there is no significant difference between the pre-test (*M1* = 32.33, *SD* = 5.88) and the post-test (*M2* = 32.58, *SD* = 5.90) results for 'positive perfectionism', $t(11) = -0.42$, $p = .681$. The same is true for the control group: *M1* = 31.30, *SD* 5.87, *M2* = 30.80, *SD* = 6.43, $t(9) = 0.18$, $p = .864$.

The pre-test (*M1* = 32.33, SD = 5.88) and the delayed post-test (*M3* = 32.83, SD = 6.22) scores for 'positive perfectionism are not significantly different in the experimental group, $t(11) = -0.43$, $p = .673$. The comparison of the pre-test (*M1* = 31.30, *SD* = 5.87) and the delayed post-test (*M3* = 30.50, *SD* = 7.56) shows that there is no significant difference between the 'positive perfectionism' scores of the control group, either, $t(9) = 0.63$, $p = .545$.

When the post-test and the delayed post-test results are compared for 'positive perfectionism, the results in the experimental group are as follows: *M2* = 32.58, *SD* = 5.90, *M3* = 32.80, *SD* = 6.22, $t(11) = -0.21$, $p = .840$. The same can be seen in the control group's results, as well (*M2* = 30.80, *SD* = 6.43, *M3* = 30.50, *SD* = 7.56, $t(9) = 0.11$, $p = .914$. Therefore, there is no significant difference between the post-test and delayed post-test results for 'positive perfectionism' in either group.

When 'negative perfectionism' is assessed separately, we can see that there is no significant difference between the pre-test (*M1* = 27.67, *SD* = 8.32) and post-test (*M2* = 26.08, *SD* = 7.91) scores of the experimental group, $t(11) = 1.43$, $p = .179$, and the same is observed in the control group (*M1* = 23.80, *SD* = 4.64, *M2* = 23.50, *SD* = 5.95, $t(9) = 0.14$, $p = .892$).

The comparison of the pre-test (*M1* = 27.67, *SD* = 8.32) and the delayed post-test (*M3* = 27.25, *SD* = 8.90) scores of the experimental group for 'negative perfectionism' shows no significant difference between the two scores, $t(11) = 0.28$, $p = .783$. Similarly, no significant difference was found in the control group between the pre-test and delayed post-test scores for 'negative perfectionism' (*M1* = 23.80, *SD* = 4.64, *M3* = 22.40, *SD* = 6.19, $t(9) = 0.78$, $p = .457$).

The results of the post-test (*M2* = 26.08, *SD* = 7.91) and the delayed post-test (*M3* = 27.25, *SD* = 8.90) are not significantly different from each other in the experimental group, $t(11) = -0.58$, $p = .576$, and they are not significantly different in the control group, either (*M2* = 23.50, *SD* = 5.95, *M3* = 22.40, *SD* = 6.19, $t(9) = 0.38$, $p = .710$).

As it was indicated previously, changing 'perfectionism' scores was not among the goals of this study. 'Perfectionism' scores were assessed mainly in order to establish the relationships between 'perfectionism', 'attitudes and motivation', and 'willingness to communicate'.

4.2.4.3. Willingness to communicate

Similarly to perfectionism, the participants' scores for the 'willingness to communicate' section showed no significant differences across the three questionnaires. When the pre- and post-test results are compared, the results for the experimental group are as follows: *M1* = 43.75, *SD* = 11.23, *M2* = 43.50, *SD* = 12.44, $t(11) = 0.16$, $p = .877$. The corresponding results for the control group were *M1* = 47.40, *SD* = 10.30, *M2* = 43.80, *SD* = 11.15, $t(9) = 1.07$, $p = .312$. Comparing the 'willingness to communicate' scores of the pre- and the delayed post-test yielded the following results for the experimental group: *M1* = 43.75, *SD* = 11.23, *M3* = 43.25, *SD* = 11.19, $t(11) = 0.28$, $p = .783$; and for the control group: *M1* = 47.40, *SD* = 10.30, *M3* = 48.20, *SD* = 6.51, $t(9) = -0.42$, $p = .685$. Lastly, a comparison between the results of the post- and the delayed post-test was made, but no significant difference was found, as the results of the experimental group (*M2* = 43.50, *SD* = 12.44, *M3* = 43.25, *SD* = 11.19, $t(11) = 0.13$, $p = .897$) and the control group (*M2* = 43.80, *SD* = 11.15, *M3* = 48.20, *SD* = 6.51, $t(9) = -1.26$, $p = .241$) show.

Therefore, as the data above shows, significant differences were found between the total scores for the 'attitudes and motivation' section of each round of questionnaires in the experimental group, but no significant differences were found between the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test scores of the other two sections of the questionnaire, i.e., 'perfectionism' and 'willingness to communicate'.

In the next subsection, the changes in scores for the 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' parts of the questionnaire are compared in the two groups of respondents.

4.2.4.4. Comparing the changes of scores in the experimental and the control group

The mean changes in scores for the 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' sections of the questionnaire are calculated by subtracting the pre-test mean score from the post-test mean score, as well as subtracting the pre-test mean score from the delayed post-test mean score. The mean change scores are shown in Tables 24 and 25 below. (As changing 'perfectionism' scores was not among the aims of the investigation, the change in 'perfectionism' scores is not included in this subsection.) Independent samples *t*-tests were used to compare the change between the experimental and the control group.

Attitudes and motivation

The mean score of the change between the pre-test and the post-test scores for 'attitudes and motivation' in the experimental group is 20.83, which is considerably higher than the control group's mean score of 4.90 points. (See Table 24 below.) The difference between the experimental group's (M = 20.83, SD = 14.85) and the control group's (*M* = 4.90, *SD* = 13.36) mean change scores is statistically significant, $t(20) = 2.62$, $p = .016$.

The mean score of the change between the pre-test and the delayed post-test scores for 'attitudes and motivation' in the experimental group is 13.75, whereas it is 5.40 points in the control group. Although the difference between the experimental (*M* = 13.75, *SD* = 15.93) and the control group's (*M* = 5.40, *SD* = 17.12) results seems large, it is not statistically significant, $t(20) = 1.18$, $p = .250$, potentially due to the small sample size.

Change in scores	**Sample**	***n***	***M***	***SD***
Post- vs. pre-test 'attitudes and motivation'	**Experimental group**	12	20.83	14.85
	Control group	10	4.90	13.36
Delayed post- vs. pre-test 'attitudes and motivation'	**Experimental group**	12	13.75	15.93
	Control group	10	5.40	17.12

Table 24. Descriptive statistics for the changes in scores across the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test, 'attitudes and motivation' section

Willingness to communicate

The mean score of the change between the pre-test and the post-test scores for 'willingness to communicate' in the experimental group is -0.25, and -3.60 points in the control group. (See Table 25 below.) This means that there was an insubstantial decrease in willingness to communicate in both groups. The difference between the experimental (*M* = -0.25, *SD* = 5.46) and the control group's (*M* = -3.60, *SD* = 10.64) change in scores is not significant, $t(20) = 0.95$, $p = .352$.

When the change between the pre-test and delayed post-test results is calculated, we can see that the experimental group's mean score of the change is -0.50 and the control group's mean score is 0.80 points. When the mean scores for the change are compared in the

experimental (*M* = -0.50, *SD* = 6.13) and the control group (*M* = 0.80, *SD* = 6.03), we can see that the difference is not significant, *t*(20) = -0.50, *p* = .623.

Change in scores	Sample	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Post- vs. pre-test	**Experimental group**	12	-0.25	5.46
	Control group	10	-3.60	10.64
Delayed post- vs. pre-test	**Experimental group**	12	-0.50	6.13
	Control group	10	0.80	6.03

Table 25. Descriptive statistics for the changes in scores across the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test, 'willingness to communicate' section

In the next subsection, the potential impact of negative perfectionism is analyzed in the experimental group by finding a cut-off point above which students are considered to have high 'negative perfectionism' scores.

4.2.4.5. Testing the impact of negative perfectionism on the changes of scores

In order to measure the impact of negative perfectionism on the change of scores in the 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' sections of the questionnaire (cf. Tables 24 and 25 above above), a cut-off point was created above which participants in the experimental group were considered highly negative perfectionists. This cut-off point is 32 points out of a total of 45 points, which is the first whole number of points above the 70% mark, i.e., when participants scored over 70% of the points indicating 'negative perfectionism'. Only the experimental group's results were used for this analysis, as the main aim of carrying out this analysis was to see whether there is a relationship between 'negative perfectionism' and the effectiveness of the teaching experiment.

There is only one significant result, namely, those students who are in the 'equal to or above 32 points' group (that is, those who show higher levels of 'negative perfectionism', *n* = 4) had a significantly higher mean score (*M* = 5.00, *SD* = 4.08) for the change in their 'willingness to communicate' between the pre- and the post-test than those who showed less indication of 'negative perfectionism' (*n* = 8), i.e., those students whose scores were below 32 points (*M* = -2.88, *SD* = 4.02), *t*(10) = 3.19, *p* = .010. This means that those students who can be considered more negative perfectionists showed significantly more improvement after the

teaching experiment in their WTC than those who did not show such high levels of negative perfectionism, potentially because there was more room for improvement in their case.

In the next subsection, the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test results for the open-ended questions are described one by one and compared across the three data collections. The answers to these questions give deeper and more nuanced insight into the participating students' opinions.

4.2.5. Open-ended questions: The comparison of the answers across the pre-, post- and delayed post-test

4.2.5.1. Opinions about Hungarian-accented English

In the pre-test, in the experimental group (n =12), six respondents' opinions about Hungarian-accented English contained straightforwardly negative expressions. *Zavaró* "disturbing", *nagyon zavaró* "very disturbing", *probléma* "a problem", *vicces* "funny", *nem szeretem* "I don't like it", and *jobban szeretem, ha nem hallatszik* "I like it better when [the accent] can't be heard" were the expressions used by these respondents.

There are answers that include elements that look entirely positive at first glance, but when given a more detailed analysis, the wording makes them stand out: they negate a negative expression, rather than using a positive one to express positive attitudes. Eight respondents included negated negative expressions in their answers, such as *nem probléma* "not a problem", *nem nagy probléma* "not a big problem", *nem gond* "not an issue", *nincs bajom vele* "I don't have a problem with it" and *nem zavaró* "not disturbing", which seem to involve a presupposition about a common view that Hungarian-accented English can be considered as a 'problem', an 'issue' or a 'disturbing accent' by some people.

There is only one respondent, who did not include either straightforwardly negative or negated negative expressions in their answer, only positive ones (*elfogadható teljesen* "totally acceptable" and *normális* "normal").

Reference to the importance of intelligibility was made by three students in the following contexts: *ha érthető, nem probléma* "if [Hungarian-accented English] is intelligible, then [the accent] is not a problem" (or the reverse, *ha érthetetlen, az már probléma*, that is, "it is a problem [only] if it is unintelligible"), and *a lényeg a megértés* "the most important point [to consider] is intelligibility".

In the post-test (i.e., the second questionnaire), in the experimental group, some changes are noticeable in their opinions about Hungarian-accented English compared to the pre-test.

Only two students included straightforwardly negative elements in their answers in the post-test (compared to six students in the pre-test.) These two expressions were *nem a kedvencem* "not my favorite" and *egy kicsit zavaró* "a little disturbing".

Negated negative expressions were used by six respondents (cf. eight in the pre-test). The common themes were some variations on the following expressions: *nem gond* "not a problem", and *nincs rajta semmi szégyellni való* "there is nothing to be ashamed of".

There were five participants (compared to one person in the pre-test) who included only positive expressions in their answers, and no negative or negated negative ones. The explanations for these positive answers were various: *sokkal tisztabban megértem, mint más nem anyanyelvi akcentusokat* "I can understand it much more clearly than other non-native accents", *nagyon szép is lehet* "it can be very beautiful", *teljesen normális és elfogadható* "completely normal and acceptable", *teljesen normális* "completely normal", and *elfogadható, legalább tudják, honnan származol* "acceptable; at least people know where you come from.".

Reference to intelligibility appeared in six students' answers (cf. three students in the pre-test), in contexts referring to the idea that the most important issue is intelligibility (e.g. *a lényeg a megértés* "the most important point [to consider] is intelligibility") and that Hungarian-accented English is relatively easy to understand (e.g. *könnyű megérteni* "easy to understand", *jól érthető* "can be understood well", *sokkal tisztábban megértem, mint más nem anyanyelvi akcentuskat* "I can understand it much more clearly than other non-native accents").

In the delayed post-test (i.e., third questionnaire), the experimental group retained some of the positive changes noticeable in the post-test and some were even amplified. Two students included straightforwardly negative elements in their responses (cf. six in the pre-test and two in the post-test), which were *nem szeretem annyira* "I don't like it that much" and *nem szép* "not beautiful".

Negated negative expressions were used by only four respondents (compared to eight in the pre-test and six in the post-test): *nincs vele baj* or *semmi baj nincs vele* "there is no problem with it", *nem vészes* "not awful" and *nem probléma* "not a problem".

Positive opinions without any negative or negated negative elements were indicated by four students (compared to one person in the pre-test and five in the post test). Their justifications resembled the ones indicated in the post-test (e.g. reference to acceptability and the idea that the accent is 'normal' or intelligible), with one person specifically indicating that they considered Hungarian-accented English beautiful (*szerintem szép* "I think it's beautiful").

Reference to the importance of intelligibility was made by five students (compared to three in the pre-test and six in the post-test), involving two themes again: that intelligibility was

the main issue to consider (e.g. *a cél, hogy megértsenek* "the goal is to make myself understood") and that Hungarian-accented English is relatively easy to understand (e.g. *könnyebben megérthető, mint az anyanyelvi angol [nyelvtanulók számára]* "more easily intelligible than native English [for language learners]", and one of the five respondents even indicated that "people may be able to understand each other regardless of the accent they have" (*ugyanúgy meg lehet érteni egymást, bármilyen akcentussal is beszélünk*), possibly referring to the idea which was discussed in one of the class sessions, namely, that if people accommodate to each other, ask for clarification, and negotiate meaning together, they can arrive at mutual intelligibility regardless of their accent.

The control group's (n = 10) answers are relatively stable and show less change throughout the three questionnaires. Straightforwardly negative opinions were indicated by three students in the pre-test, three in the post-test, and two in the delayed post-test. Negated negative expressions appeared in five students' answers in all three data collections. Positive opinions without any negative or negated negative elements were found in two students' responses in the pre-test, two in the post-test, and three in the delayed post-test. Intelligibility was highlighted by three, three, and four students in the first, second and third data collections, respectively.

4.2.5.2. Students' goals with learning English

In the experimental group (n = 12), the pre-test revealed that seven students wanted to get an English language certificate in the near future, six students would like to work or live abroad or communicate with people from other countries, three specified using English in an intelligible way, two highlighted doing well on the Matura examination (i.e. the school leaving examination for high school students in Hungary), one student included being able to understand spoken English better, and another student highlighted not being ashamed or shy when it comes to speaking English. (As mentioned previously, the reason why the sum of the students indicating these key concepts can be higher than the number of students in the group is that students typically gave complex answers, based on which they might belong into multiple categories.)

In the post-test, students in the experimental group added new goals to the ones indicated previously. Being able to communicate in more than one language, taking courses at university in English, knowing English because it is useful and needed in one's everyday life (e.g., to understand news and films), to be brave enough to communicate in English, to use the language in real life and even for one's job (in Hungary) were the new concepts added to the ones

mentioned in the pre-test. Out of the newly added goals, university studies in English as a goal was mentioned by two students and the rest of the new ideas were indicated by one student each. This shows that some more practical and real-life uses of English appeared in the responses, while studying English for mainly exam purposes (language certificate or Matura exam) seems to have become somewhat less important, as five students included getting a language certificate (cf. seven in the pre-test) and one student mentioned doing well on the Matura exam (cf. two on the pre-test) as one of their main goals with learning English.

The tendency to highlight more practical uses of English in their answers continued in the delayed post-test, as well. The number of respondents mentioning a language certificate or the Matura exam as one of their main goals remained the same as in the post-test, and new goals appeared, such as travelling a lot (not necessarily to English-speaking countries), using the language 'out there in the world', speaking English fluently and becoming a more 'valuable' person through knowing more than one language.

The notion that using English when travelling, working or living abroad does not necessarily entail doing so in an English-speaking country was noticeable in some of the answers in both the post- and the delayed post-test, indicating that the idea of using English as a lingua franca among non-native speakers was more and more appealing to the students.

In the pre-test, the control group named receiving a language certificate (four respondents), finding a job where English is needed (three respondents), working or spending time abroad (two respondents), being intelligible (one respondent), using sources written in English for learning new things (one respondent), using the language at university (one respondent) and travelling (one respondent) as their goals with learning English. In the post-test, working or living abroad became more prevalent (five participants), and the answers became less varied (cf. the answers becoming more diverse in the experimental group.) Getting a language certificate in English, intelligible language use, and using sources written in English for learning were mentioned by one person each. Two students indicated that they had no goals with learning English currently, which was a new theme that did not appear in the pre-test. In the delayed post-test, the control groups' preference for learning English in order to work or live abroad remained prevalent (five respondents). Three students indicated getting a language certificate and one student mentioned using English for their university studies. There was one respondent who indicated that they had no goals at all with learning English. Similarly to the post-test, there were less varied answers in the delayed post-test compared to the pre-test. This shows that, in the control group, the experimental group's growing diversification of goals and strengthening emphasis on everyday, real-life uses of the language were not observable.

4.2.5.3. Students' descriptions of their own accents

Out of the 12 students in the experimental group, there were only two who did not indicate any negative opinions about their own accent in the pre-test. One of them explained that they do not sound native-like, but that is all right, as most English-speakers in the world are non-native, and the other student highlighted that their accent fulfills the expectations towards high school EFL learners. The other 10 students included at least some negative description or unfavorable opinion about their accent, such as *nem a legjobb* "not the best", *nagyon nem tökéletes* "really imperfect", and *problémás* "problematic"". Out of the 10 students with negative attitudes, five explained their dissatisfaction with their accent due to it being Hungarian-accented/ not native-like, with expressions such as *nagyon magyar* "very Hungarian-accented" or *közel sem anyanyelvi* "not even close to native-like".

In the post-test, fewer students from the experimental group expressed negative attitudes towards their own accent. Six respondents were found to describe their accent in negative terms or have clearly negative elements to their answers (cf. 10 respondents in the pre-test). Their answers included elements such as *szeretném, ha minél jobban hasonlítana az anyanyelvi kiejtésre* "I want it to resemble native pronunciation as much as possible", *nem a legjobb* "not the best" and *nem könnyű megérteni* "not easy to understand". The latter signals a departure from the notion of 'not good because Hungarian-accented', and places greater focus on the importance of intelligibility. The same is shown by the fact that only three students justified their negative attitudes towards their own accent by it not being native-like (cf. five in the pre-test).

Four students expressed positive attitudes towards and satisfaction with their accent, by using the following expriessions: *érthető* "intelligible" (used by two students), *elfogadható* "acceptable", and *egyre jobb* "better and better". Negated negative expressions appeared in the responses of two students, which are better than negative expressions but less favorable than positive ones. These negated negative expressions were *nem rossz* "not bad" and *nem olyan rossz* "not that bad". In the pre-test, negated negatives did not appear and reference to intelligibility was not made at all.

The delayed post-test brought fascinating results. The tendency to move away from a native-centered approach to one's own accent, which was noticeable in the post-test, was not continued. Two students highlighted the intelligibility of their own accent as the justification for their positive attitudes towards it, but seven students made some comparison between their own accent and L1-accents. However, this comparison was not always used as an argument for being dissatisfied with one's own accent. In three cases, the comparison was made in a neutral,

factual way, without attaching value judgements to the differences: *hallatszik, hogy nem az anyanyelvem* "it can be heard that it is not my first language", *néhány szót magyar akcentussal ejtek* "I pronounce some words with a Hungarian-accent", *kicsit magyaros, de inkább amerikai* "a bit Hungarian-accented, but rather American-sounding". Altogether six students expressed negative opinions about their accent: four of whom did so due to it being Hungarian-accented, and two expressed a general dissatisfaction with it.

In the control group (n = 10), five students indicated negative attitudes towards or dissatisfaction with their accent in all three data collections. One student made reference to the importance of intelligibility in the pre-test, but it did not reappear in the post-test or the delayed post-test. In the pre-test, two students found their accent acceptable and good, and only one student each in the post- and delayed post-test. A comparison between the respondents' own accent and native pronunciation was made three times in the pre-test, four times in the post-test, and three times in the delayed post-test, out of which the comparison was neutral in two cases in every data collection. These results indicate that the control group showed relatively little change throughout the three data collections with regard to the students' descriptions of their own accent in English.

4.2.5.4. Students' satisfaction with their own accent

In the experimental group, there were only two students who reported complete satisfaction with their current accent in the pre-test, while the other 10 students expressed at least some dissatisfaction with their accent in English. Out of these ten students, three explained their dissatisfaction with their current accent by stating that they have a noticeably Hungarian accent in English, and two students indicated not being satisfied with their current accent at all. One of these two students explained that she used to be quite satisfied with her accent until she was humiliated for her accent, and now she is not at all satisfied with how she speaks English. Another two students highlighted the importance of intelligibility when speaking English.

In the post-test, there were five students who reported complete satisfaction with their current accent (cf. two in the pre-test), and only one student (cf. three in the pre-test) indicated that their dissatisfaction with their current accent was due to it being a non-native accent (*szeretném, ha minél amerikaisabb lenne* "I want it to be as American-sounding as possible"). There were no students who reported a complete lack of satisfaction with their current accent (cf. two students in the pre-test). Three students highlighted the importance of intelligibility (cf. two in the pre-test) when speaking English.

In the delayed post-test, the positive changes were partially preserved. Four students reported being completely satisfied with their current accent, which is two more students than in the pre-test, and one less compared to the post-test. There was one student who felt not at all satisfied with their current accent (cf. two in the pre-test and none in the post-test), but the respondent clearly stated that it was not having a Hungarian accent that made them dissatisfied with their accent, but rather their own perfectionism. One student indicated that the reason for not being completely satisfied with their current accent was that it was not close to a native accent (British English). This number is down from three in the pre-test, and identical with the results of the post-test. The concept of intelligibility was highlighted by two students, which is the same number as in the pre-test, and one less compared to the post-test.

In the control group, four students reported complete satisfaction with their current accent in the pre-test, three in the post-test, and four in the delayed post-test. There was one student, who was not at all satisfied with their accent in the pre-test, there was no such student in the post-test, and one student in the delayed post-test. One student in each data collection compared their current accent to native accents (e.g., using the designation *Hunglish* for their accent). The concept of intelligibility was highlighted by one student in the pre-test, one in the post-test, and four students in the delayed post-test, which is the only occasion when noticeable positive change occurred in the control group.

4.2.5.5. Perfectionism and its consequences

Perfectionism, as the results of the statistical analysis have also shown, is very difficult to change through teaching. The number of self-reports of perfectionism remained constant throughout the three data collections in both the experimental and the control group (six in the former and five in the latter). The respondents tended to consider the consequences of both answers (being vs. not being a perfectionist) to be negative. Those who did not consider themselves perfectionists indicated that they were lazy and had poorer grades because of their lack of perfectionism, and those who considered themselves perfectionists indicated that their perfectionism often made them stressed, dissatisfied, and exhausted, and impacted their self-esteem negatively. There was one exception in both groups, who indicated throughout all three data collections that perfectionism was motivating and a prerequisite for achieving success.

The following subsection focuses on the answers given on the class evaluation sheet as part of the post-test. These responses can give pedagogical insight into similar future investigations and help further develop the teaching materials to fit students' needs and interests.

4.2.6. Class evaluations sheet

As described in the Methodology section, students filled out a class evaluation sheet in the last class session, as part of the post-test. In the present analysis, similarly to the analysis of the open-ended questions of the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test, the sum of all the instances when the students included the various themes in their answers might be more than the number of participating students, as one student might belong to multiple categories based on their complex answers.

The first question of the class evaluation sheet inquired about the elements of the experimental classes that students liked. Of the 12 participating students, seven indicated that watching a lot of videos was interesting and new to them. Five students highlighted working in pairs, four students found the handouts (e.g., tasks, speaking prompts, and lyrics) useful, and another four students considered the classes to be modern and innovative. Three students highlighted that they enjoyed watching videos of famous people, another three students appreciated getting to know various accents, another three enjoyed the topics chosen for the classes, and yet another three students liked that the language of the classes was English (except for necessary explanations in Hungarian) and that they learnt lots of new words through the videos. Two students enjoyed that they had a good rapport with the instructor.

The second question, focusing on the elements of the classes that the students did not enjoy or found difficult, yielded the following results. Four students crossed out the lines provided for the answers, indicating that they did not have anything they did not like about the sessions. Another four students highlighted that, due to the recurring structure of the sessions, they became somewhat monotonous after a while. (This is probably due to the fact that the intervention period was quite intensive due to time constraints.) Three students said that it was difficult for them to understand the various accents presented in class. Not having enough speaking tasks, having too much group work, not enough group work, or too much individual work were mentioned by one student each.

In response to the third question, inquiring about what they had learnt about the English language through the class sessions, 11 students answered that they came to understand how diverse English accents were – a diversity they had not known about before. Two students learnt that intelligibility was more important than having a native-like accent, one student mentioned being able to recognize the differences between various accents and dialects, and another student indicated that they were able to expand their knowledge about the English language in general.

Connected to the topic of the previous question, the fourth one inquired about what the students believed they had learnt about themselves during the intervention period. Four students emphasized that they became more willing to speak English, feeling braver and more confident to start a conversation in their L2. Three students implied that they needed to improve their comprehension skills, as they found the video samples of the different accents difficult to understand. One student realized that their accent was all right as it was, and another student came to believe that their accent was not good enough. Another student highlighted that one does not have to worry about not knowing every single word used in the videos, as it is possible to understand them without precisely understanding all the vocabulary used by the speaker.

When asked about the elements of the classes they would like to change (Question 5), six students answered that they did not want to change anything, five students would enjoy even more speaking tasks (even one-on-one discussions with the instructor), one student would have appreciated more playful tasks, and another student missed competitive tasks.

The sixth question, exploring whether the responding students would be happy about the inclusion of the introduction of various native and non-native accents of English in the compulsory EFL curriculum in high school, yielded rather homogeneous results. Eleven of the 12 participants believed that it would be a positive addition to the curriculum. Their explanations included that it would prepare students for real-life situations when they needed to use English with interlocutors who speak non-native or non-standard English, it would make it easier for them to understand foreign people with various accents, and help them learn more about how the English language is used in general. There was one student who would not appreciate it if multiple accents were introduced to students as part of the curriculum, as this participant is more interested in grammar than other aspects of language learning.

The following subsection focuses on the qualitative analysis of the interview with the experimental group's EFL teacher. The teacher's answers do not represent Hungarian EFL teachers' experiences as a whole, but they can give insight into a few of the issues some Hungarian EFL teachers might find challenging or worth discussing with regard to non-native English.

4.2.7. Interview with the group's English teacher

According to the teacher of the experimental group's own experiences, English teachers tend to equate having a native accent in English with having a 'standard British accent', and course book audios also typically contain 'standard British' samples, although American

samples are also included sometimes. These audio samples are typically close to what linguists term Received Pronunciation and General American, with very few exceptions.

She describes her experiences with speaking English in front of her class as somewhat frightening. She explains that she tends to feel insecure because she feels she is lacking something, as her accent is not native-like. It was especially anxiety-inducing for her to stand in front of her students and speak English in her first 15–20 years as an English teacher. Besides her insecurity about her non-native accent, she also felt anxious about her non-British-influenced accent. She had spent some time in the United States; therefore, she spoke more American-influenced English, which, according to her, was not seen as very prestigious by the English teacher community she was part of. This corresponds with her assertion that English teachers seem to define having a native accent as having a British accent.

However, in the last 8–10 years, there has been a slight change in her attitude towards her own accent. Students have started to use more American-influenced and more varied accents, possibly due to the movies and series they watch, which makes her feel more at ease when speaking English in front of her students.

When asked about her minimum requirement or expectation towards her students in terms of accent attainment, she highlighted intelligibility as the key factor. This stands in contrast with her expectations towards her own accent attainment and her long-lasting insecurity about not speaking native-like English.

She highlighted that students might be more willing to accept others' non-native accents than their own. Additionally, it was interesting to notice that she (at least originally) misunderstood the research agenda, even though I discussed with her in advance what I wanted to study in her English group. She seemed to believe that a part of the aim of this investigation was to teach multiple accents to students, that is, the production of, e.g., Vietnamese English, and was surprised when she found that awareness raising was one of the main goals of the teaching experiment. She kept reflecting on my level of English and my "British pronunciation" (which I do not have) instead of language attitudes in her students, which seems to indicate that the idea of language attitudes is not yet a very familiar concept for her; and therefore, it was difficult for her to grasp what the investigation entailed. Instead, she seemed to be comparing her English to mine, and implied that my pronunciation was better than hers. This particular comment was in opposition with what the investigation aimed to accomplish. (If she had participated in more of the experimental classes, she might have had a deeper understanding of the experiment, but her participation was not always possible for personal reasons.) Towards the end of the interview, she started to formulate what could be considered as a definition of

‘language attitudes’, and that seemed to be the point when my goal with the experiment started to become clearer to her.

She seems open to the idea of introducing various non-native, non-standard or non-dominant varieties of English to her students, but her main complaint is that there is no designated time for these topics in the current school curriculum. Unless it is part of the compulsory curriculum and course books, it would be very difficult to ‘squeeze’ new topics into the already crammed schedule. In addition, finding such materials can be very time consuming, so she implied that she would prefer pre-designed teaching materials she can draw on to having to search for suitable accent samples on her own. (Please see the transcript of the interview in Appendices 4A and 4B in Hungarian and English, respectively.)

Section 4.3. below describes the results of the online questionnaire, which was conducted based on the insights learnt from the classroom investigation. The online questionnaire is a modified version of the classroom questionnaire, also containing an altered version of the text from the preliminary exploratory phase. (The method for the selection of the online questions is described in the Methodology section).

4.3. Online questionnaire

The online questionnaire mainly helps answer the third and fourth research questions, namely, it can shed light on the correlations between the subsections of the questionnaire and reveal the similarities and differences between the test scores for ‘attitudes and motivation’, ‘perfectionism’, and ‘willingness to communicate’ among EFL teachers vs. high school students, and explore their reactions to a text targeting attitude change. Additionally, it somewhat contributes to answering the first research question about potential changes after engaging with the study materials, and provides some details to the answer to the second research question about the participants’ openness to the materials.

The online questionnaire was developed from the classroom questionnaire, as described in the Methodology (Section 3.3.2.). The online questionnaire comprised three main sections, the same way as the classroom questionnaire: ‘attitudes and motivation’, ‘perfectionism’ (divided into ‘positive’ vs. ‘negative perfectionism’), and ‘willingness to communicate’.

The three sections were followed by a short text about the large variety of native and non-native Englishes in the world, which was an improved version of the text used in the preliminary exploratory phase. The text can be viewed as a very condensed version of the teaching experiment. Still, the text in the questionnaire cannot be seen as a ‘treatment’;

therefore, a post-test was not administered in the form that was used in the classroom investigation, as large changes cannot be expected.

To gain some insight into the participants' reactions to the test, five follow-up questions were included after the text, which were repeated versions of five original questions from the 'attitudes and motivation section' of the online survey. Only 'attitudes and motivation' questions were repeated after the text, as the classroom questionnaire showed that 'perfectionism' and 'willingness to communicate' scores did not change significantly after the intervention.

After the five repeated questions, participants were also asked to respond to five questions encouraging reflection on the content of the text. The main purpose of the online questionnaire was to compare EFL teachers' and high school students' responses. This comparison can shed light on the differences between successful advanced EFL users' and beginner/intermediate language learners' responses.

In the following paragraphs, the 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate' parts of the online questionnaire are analyzed separately, then the correlations between the sections are explored, followed by the description of the results for the five repeated questions after the texts, and the changes between the original five questions and their repeated counterparts. Lastly, the five reflection questions after the text are discussed.

As there was no real post-test in the online survey, only follow-up questions, the number of which is not identical with the number of items before the text, instead of the mean of the total scores, the mean of the ratings (on the 5-point rating scale) were calculated for the analyses to make comparisons easier throughout the questionnaire and between the two groups of respondents.

4.3.1. Attitudes and motivation

First, the results of the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the online questionnaire are described and compared across the two groups of respondents. The teachers' (n = 92) mean rating for the 'attitudes and motivation' questions is 4.12 on a 5-point scale, and the students' (n = 250) mean rating is 3.71. Please see the summary of the results in Table 26 below.

Sample	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Teachers	92	4.12	0.48
Students	250	3.71	0.53

Table 26. Descriptive statistics for the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the online questionnaire

Independent samples *t*-tests were administered in order to compare the teachers' and students' mean ratings for the 'attitudes and motivation' questions. (The mean scores of the two groups will be differentiated by adding the initial of the group in subscript, i.e., M_t for teachers vs. M_s for students). The results show that teachers' mean scores for 'attitudes and motivation' (M_t = 4.12, *SD* = 0.48) are significantly higher than those of the students (M_s = 3.71, *SD* = 0.53), $t(340) = 6.52$, $p < .001$.

In the next subsection, the 'perfectionism' scores of the two group are described and compared.

4.3.2. Perfectionism

The teachers' mean 'perfectionism' rating is 3.25 on a 5-point scale, and the students' mean score is 3.32. No significant difference was found between the 'perfectionism' scores of the two groups (M_t = 3.25, *SD* = 0.56; M_s = 3.32, *SD* = 0.73; $t(210.85) = -0.85$, $p = .395$). The results are summarized in Table 27 below.

Sample	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Teachers	92	3.25	0.56
Students	250	3.32	0.73

Table 27. Descriptive statistics for the 'perfectionism' section of the online questionnaire

However, when the two types of perfectionism (negative and positive) are separately analyzed, there is a significant difference between teachers' and students' scores. Teachers' 'positive perfectionism' scores are significantly higher (M_t = *4.08*, *SD* = 0.56; M_s = 3.57, *SD* = 0.80; $t(230.46) = 6.50$, $p < .001$), whereas their 'negative perfectionism' scores are significantly lower compared to those of the students (M_t = *2.70*, *SD* = 0.75; M_s = 3.14, *SD* = 0.87); $t(340) = -4.33$, $p < .001$). The 'positive' vs. 'negative perfectionism' results are summarized in Table 28 below.

Type of perf.	Sample	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Positive	**Teachers**	92	4.08	0.56
	Students	250	3.57	0.80
Negative	**Teachers**	92	2.70	0.75
	Students	250	3.14	0.87

Table 28. Descriptive statistics for the 'positive' vs. 'negative perfectionism' components of the 'perfectionism' section of the online questionnaire

In the following subsection, teachers' and students' 'willingness to communicate' ratings are described and compared.

4.3.3. Willingness to communicate

In the 'willingness to communicate' section of the online questionnaire, the teachers' mean rating is 4.39, whereas the students' score is 3.35. The results can be seen in Table 29 below.

Sample	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Teachers	92	4.39	0.62
Students	250	3.35	0.85

Table 29. Descriptive statistics for the 'willingness to communicate' section of the online questionnaire

The same tendency can be observed in the respondents' 'willingness to communicate' scores as in their 'attitudes and motivation scores', with teachers (M_t = 4.39, SD = 0.62) scoring significantly higher than students (M_s = 3.35, SD = 0.85), $t(222.34) = 12.44$, $p < .001$.

In the next subsection, the significant correlations between 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism' and 'willingness to communicate' in the online survey are described similarly to how the relationships between the three sections of the questionnaire were discussed in the Classroom investigation subsection of the Results. The correlations are discussed separately in the two respondent groups.

4.3.4. Correlations between 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism' and 'willingness to communicate'

Teachers

Spearman's correlations were carried out to assess the relationships between the sections of the online questionnaire. Among teachers (n = 92), the results indicate a moderate positive

correlation between the mean scores for ‘attitudes and motivation’ and ‘willingness to communicate’ [$\rho(90) = .37$, $p < .001$], and a weak negative correlation between the mean scores for ‘attitudes and motivation’ and ‘perfectionism’ [$\rho(90) = -.21$, $p = .041$].

When questions related to ‘positive’ vs. ‘negative perfectionism’ are grouped separately, and Spearman’s correlations are run, a more nuanced result comes to view with regard to the statistically significant correlations of ‘perfectionism’ and the other sections of the questionnaire (i.e. ‘attitudes and motivation’ and ‘willingness to communicate’).

A weak negative correlation is found between ‘negative perfectionism’ and ‘attitudes and motivation’ [$\rho(90) = -.30$, $p = .004$] and, in this group, the negative correlation between ‘negative perfectionism’ and ‘willingness to communicate’ is also significant [$\rho(90) = -.28$, $p = .007$]. The significant positive correlation between ‘positive’ and ‘negative perfectionism’ among teachers is weaker [$\rho(90) = .27$, $p = .009$] than among students (see below).

Students

Spearman’s correlations were run to evaluate the relationships between the sections of the online questionnaire among students, as well. In this group, ($n = 250$), there is a moderate positive correlation between the mean scores for ‘attitudes and motivation’ and ‘willingness to communicate’ [$\rho(248) = .51$, $p < .001$], and a weak negative correlation between the mean scores for ‘attitudes and motivation’ and ‘perfectionism’ [$\rho(248) = -.18$, $p = .005$].

When questions related to ‘positive’ vs. ‘negative perfectionism’ are analyzed separately, the significant results are a weak negative correlation between ‘negative perfectionism’ and ‘attitudes and motivation’ [$\rho(248) = -.26$, $p < .001$], and a moderate positive correlation between ‘negative’ and ‘positive’ perfectionism [$\rho(248) = .46$, $p < .001$].

In the next subsection, the results of the five repeated questions are compared between teachers and students.

4.3.5. Follow-up questions (i.e., the five repeated questions) and changes compared to the original five questions

The five repeated questions after the short text targeting attitude change (all selected from the ‘attitudes and motivation’ section of the online questionnaire) were included in the investigation as a short-term measure of the impact of the brief teaching material included in the online questionnaire. A comparison was made between the two groups of respondents’ scores. After the comparison of the two groups, the results of the five repeated questions are compared to their original counterparts answered before reading the text.

4.3.5.1. Comparing teachers' and students' scores for the five repeated questions

Independent samples *t*-tests were run to compare the results of the two groups for the five repeated questions. For all the five repeated questions, teachers' scores are significantly higher than students' scores. The results of the statistical tests can be seen in Table 30 below. (Higher scores mean more positive attitudes towards Hungarian-accented English regardless of how the question is worded, as reverse coding was employed in the case of questions implying negative attitudes to make sure that high scores always correspond to positive attitudes, in order to make the results comparable across all the sections and items of the questionnaire.)

The repeated questions were the following: 48. *Zavar a saját magyar akcentusom.* "My own Hungarian accent bothers me."; 49. *Zavar, ha mások magyar akcentussal beszélnek angolul.* "If others speak English with a Hungarian accent, it bothers me."; 50. *Megkritizálom azokat, akik erős magyar akcentussal beszélik az angolt.* "I criticize those who have a strong Hungarian accent in English."; 51. *Ha nem anyanyelvi a kiejtésem, akkor nem beszélek jól angolul.* "If my accent is not native-like, I do not speak English well."; and 52. *Szégyellem, ha az angol kiejtésemből rájönek, hogy nem vagyok anyanyelvi beszélő.* "I feel ashamed if people notice, based on my accent, that I am not a native speaker of English."

	Teachers (*n* = 92)		**Students (*n* = 250)**				
Question	***M***	***SD***	***M***	***SD***	***t***	***df***	***p***
48	4.37	0.95	3.92	1.11	3.49	340	< .001
49	4.28	1.00	3.87	1.14	3.08	340	.002
50	4.48	0.88	4.18	1.06	2.62	193.64	.010
51	4.54	0.88	4.24	0.97	2.78	177.45	.006
52	4.68	0.77	4.30	1.02	3.71	213.14	< .001

Table 30. The results of the independent samples t-tests measuring the difference between teachers' and students' scores for the five repeated questions (48–52)

4.3.5.2. Comparing the difference between the two groups' responses before and after reading the text

The above results, namely, that teachers' scores are significantly higher than students' scores for all the five repeated questions, are more relevant if the scores for the same questions when they appeared for the first time (before the short text) are taken into account. When answering the questions for the first time, the teachers' scores were significantly higher than

those of the students in the case of only two questions (questions 3 and 12, which were repeated as questions 48 and 52). The results of the independent samples *t*-test measuring the differences between the two groups scores before reading the text can be seen in Table 31 below, with the two significant results highlighted in grey. (The corresponding original and repeated questions are as follows: 3–48, 5–49, 7–50, 15–51, and 12–52.)

	Teachers (*n* = 92)		**Students (*n* = 250)**				
Question	***M***	***SD***	***M***	***SD***	***t***	***df***	***p***
3	4.22	1.04	3.91	1.18	2.19	340	.029
5	3.58	1.24	3.40	1.45	1.08	188.32	.280
7	4.40	0.97	4.17	1.13	1.86	186.27	.065
15	4.49	0.93	4.33	0.91	1.45	340	.149
12	4.61	0.80	4.33	0.93	2.72	186.80	.007

Table 31. The results of the independent samples *t*-tests measuring the difference between teachers' and students' scores for the selected five questions (before the short text)

4.3.5.3. Within-group changes

In order to infer the impact of the text targeting attitude change in the two groups of respondents, within-group comparisons were carried out using paired samples *t*-tests. When the overall mean scores of all the original five questions (grouped together) and their repeated counterparts (grouped together) are compared, the increase in scores after reading the text is only nearing significance among students [*M1* = 4.03, *SD* = 0.71; *M2* = 4.10, *SD* = 0.70; *t*(249) = -1.91, *p* = .058] but among teachers, it is highly significant [*M1* = 4.26, *SD* = 0.60; *M2* = 4.47, *SD* = 0.60; *t*(91) = -4.51, *p* < .001].

When comparing the responses to the five original questions and their repeated counterparts one-by-one among the participating students using paired samples *t*-tests, we can see that there is one question pair that shows a significant increase in mean scores after the participants have read the text about the diversity of the accents of English, namely, that they feel less likely to be bothered by other people's Hungarian-accented English. However, there was no significant improvement in attitudes with regard to their own Hungarian-accented English. (The detailed results are presented in Table 32 below.)

STUDENTS	Original question		Repeated question				
Questions	***M***	***SD***	***M***	***SD***	***t***	***df***	***p***
Pair 1 (3–48)	3.91	1.18	3.92	1.11	-0.06	249	.954
Pair 2 (5–49)	3.40	1.45	3.87	1.14	-6.24	249	< .001
Pair 3 (7–50)	4.17	1.13	4.18	1.06	-0.14	249	.888
Pair 4 (15–51)	4.33	0.91	4.24	0.97	1.39	249	.166
Pair 5 (12–52)	4.33	0.93	4.30	1.02	0.44	249	.662

Table 32. Paired samples *t*-test results of the original vs. repeated five questions among student respondents

The question-by-question comparison of the responses to the five original questions and their repeated counterparts among teachers using paired samples *t*-tests yielded very similar results, as it is the same question pair that shows a significant increase in scores, while no significant change is observable in the case of the other four pairs of questions. (The detailed results can be seen in Table 33 below.)

TEACHERS	Original question		Repeated question				
Questions	***M***	***SD***	***M***	***SD***	***t***	***df***	***p***
Pair 1 (3–48)	4.22	1.04	4.37	0.95	-1.72	91	.090
Pair 2 (5–49)	3.58	1.24	4.28	1.00	-5.98	91	< .001
Pair 3 (7–50)	4.40	0.98	4.48	0.88	-0.88	91	.381
Pair 4 (15–51)	4.50	0.94	4.54	0.88	-0.84	91	.401
Pair 5 (12–52)	4.61	0.80	4.68	0.77	-0.96	91	.339

Table 33. Paired samples *t*-test results of the original vs. repeated five questions among teacher respondents

The relationship between 'perfectionism' and the repeated questions

In order to determine the potential relationship between 'perfectionism' and the scores of the repeated questions (and therefore, the potential impact of the text), Spearman's correlations were carried out.

Among students (n = 250), there is a weak negative correlation between the 'perfectionism' scores and the scores of the five repeated questions [$\rho(248) = -.21$, $p = .001$],

and the same is true for the relationship between 'negative perfectionism' specifically and the scores of the five repeated questions [$\rho(248) = -.29$, $p < .001$].

Among teachers ($n = 92$), these correlations are stronger, as a moderate negative correlation can be observed between "perfectionism" and the results of the repeated questions [$\rho(90) = -.34$, $p = .001$], and a moderate negative correlation is found between 'negative perfectionism' and the scores of the repeated questions [$\rho(90) = -.38$, $p < .001$].

4.3.6. The five reflection questions

After the five repeated questions following the short text, another five questions (53-57) were included, which encouraged the participants' reflection on the content of the text. The results are summarized in Table 34 below.

Question	Sample	*M*	*SD*
53	Teachers (n = 92)	4.40	0.94
	Students (n = 250)	3.83	1.01
54	Teachers	2.73	1.56
	Students	3.53	1.36
55	Teachers	4.47	0.88
	Students	4.00	1.06
56	Teachers	4.05	1.14
	Students	3.34	1.32
57	Teachers	3.16	1.46
	Students	3.53	1.31

Table 34. Teachers' and students' results for the five reflection questions

In order to compare the teachers' and the students' opinions measured by the five reflection questions (Questions 53–57), independent samples *t*-test were administered. Teachers' answers indicate a significantly higher mean rating ($M_t = 4.40$, $SD = 0.94$) than those of the students ($M_s = 3.83$, $SD = 1.01$), $t(340) = 4.74$, $p < .001$, for the statement that they consider the content of the text useful (Question 53).

For the statement suggesting that there was new information (for the participant) in the short text (Question 54), teachers' scores ($M_t = 2.73$, $SD = 1.56$) were significantly lower than students' scores ($M_s = 3.58$, $SD = 1.36$), $t(144.75) = -4.64$, $p < .001$.

Question 55, inquiring about the participant's opinion whether they believe that learning such information as was presented in the text can be positive reinforcement for language learners, yielded significantly higher ratings among teachers (M_t = 4.47, SD = 0.88) than among students (M_s = 4.00, *SD* = 1.06), $t(340) = 3.78$, $p < .001$.

The wording of question 56 was slightly different for teachers and students (as already indicated in the Methodology section), as teachers were asked to indicate whether they believed that their students would be more willing to communicate orally in English (while students were asked to mark whether they found it possible that they themselves would be more willing to talk) if they were familiarized with a larger variety of accents of English. The teachers' scores (M_t = 4.05, *SD* = 1.14) for this question are significantly higher than those of the students (M_s = 3.34, *SD* = 1.32), $t(185.70) = 4.89$, $p < .001$.

The last item focusing on the participants' reflection on the text (Question 57) posed the question whether participants believed the English language to be more diverse (after reading the text) than they had thought (before reading the text). Teachers' scores (M_t = 3.16, *SD* = 1.46) for this item are significantly lower than students' ratings (M_s = 3.53, *SD* = 1.31), $t(340) = -2.22$, $p = .027$.

The connections between the reflection questions and the repeated questions

In order to see the connections between the five reflection questions and the previously described repeated questions, Spearman's correlation analyses were carried out, focusing on Question 49 specifically, as both groups of participants' scores showed a significant increase for Question 49 compared to Question 5 (its original counterpart). This change indicated more willingness to accept others' Hungarian-accented English after reading the text, as it was previously indicated.

This item, Question 49, was used to run Spearman's correlations with the five questions reflecting on the short text about the diversity of the accents of English (Questions 53–57). For this analysis, the teachers' and the students' results were used together (N = 342), as both groups showed a significant improvement in scores only for Question 49 among the five repeated questions. The only significant result was a weak correlation with Question 53 (*Hasznosnak találom a szöveg tartalmát.* "I find the content of the text useful."), which means that those who found the content of the text useful seemed somewhat more likely to indicate that they would not be bothered by others' Hungarian-accented English after reading the text [$\rho(340) = .16$, $p = .003$].

5. Discussion

In this section, first the rationale behind the investigations reported on in this dissertation is confirmed using the insights from the preliminary exploratory phase (Section 5.1.), then the four research questions are answered separately in Sections 5.2., 5.3., 5.4, and 5.5. The answers to the research questions are discussed in light of previous studies.

5.1. Confirming the rationale behind the series of investigations for the present dissertation based on the preliminary exploratory phase

The aim of the preliminary exploratory phase was to provide a workable questionnaire design for the later steps of the investigation and confirm the rationale behind the teaching experiment by testing whether negative attitudes towards Hungarian-accented English are a problem among Hungarian EFL learners and whether the introduction of diverse accents of English might be helpful in shaping students' attitudes. The results of the preliminary exploratory phase show a predominant 'not good because Hungarian-accented' attitude, as those students who considered their own English noticeably Hungarian-accented were less satisfied with their own accent. This suggests that they equate 'correctness' and 'acceptability' with having a 'native speaker accent', similarly to Jenkins's 2007 respondents. This finding is further supported by the fact that those who evaluated Hungarian-accented English negatively had a stronger desire to sound native-like. These students have unfavorable attitudes towards Hungarian EFL learners' accents in general, which might be the root of their dissatisfaction with their own accent, as well. As Monfared and Khatib found in 2018, speakers of Expanding Circle varieties (as defined by Kachru, e.g., 1990, 1992, 1997) might find it harder to accept their non-native English than speakers of Outer Circle varieties. On the other hand, the qualitative analysis showed that it seemed to be easier for the participants to accept a hypothetical speaker's Hungarian-accented English than their own.

The less acceptable participants believe their own accent to be, the more necessary they consider native-like accent attainment for Hungarian EFL learners. If we compare this with the above findings, we can see that those who evaluate their own pronunciation negatively tend to believe that sounding native-like would be necessary for not only themselves but Hungarian EFL learners in general. As it was those students who reported speaking Hungarian-accented English who tended to express negative views about their accent, and they were also the ones who found it vital for Hungarian EFL learners to strive for a native-like accent, it can be seen that, while the intelligibility principle (Levis, 2005) might be well known and supported by linguists, it is not widely known or favored by language learners.

The best period for learning about the intelligibility principle (as defined by Levis, 2005) and becoming familiar with multiple different varieties of English might be one's high school studies, as the results show that first-year university students already have some rather negative attitudes towards their own accent, which might also make them less willing to communicate orally in English. These salient negative attitudes can make it difficult to attempt to change their attitudes at university. Earlier intervention seems to be necessary. In high school, students already have a level of knowledge of the English language that makes it easier for them to engage with study materials about various native and non-native, standard and non-standard, dominant and non-dominant varieties of English. As, at first, understanding a newly encountered accent might be challenging, beginner learners in primary school might not benefit from these study materials as much as their more advanced counterparts in high school. Also, expressing language attitudes, discussing abstracts notions such as the legitimacy of different varieties, and making students infer the acceptability of their own accent from the acceptability of other speakers' accents requires a level of cognitive maturity which is presumed to be reached by the time students attend high school. This is the reason why high school students were selected for the teaching experiment following the preliminary exploratory phase.

Several participants in the preliminary exploratory phase indicated that they had heard about the large diversity of the varieties of English in their linguistics classes at university for the first time, as English language teaching in high school tended to focus mainly on two native varieties: 'standard British' and 'standard American' English.

I believe that students would benefit from changing this tendency. Becoming familiar with non-standard and non-native accents seems to be important in the case of English mainly due to its status as a lingua franca, which entails more communication between non-native speakers than between a native and a non-native speaker (e.g., Seidlhofer, 2011). This approach might not be suitable for L2 learners of some other languages; I consider this proposal language specific. Learners of Hungarian as a foreign or second language might not profit as much from becoming familiar with many non-native accents of Hungarian, as it is much less plausible that two L2 speakers of Hungarian will converse in Hungarian than the idea that two L2 speakers of English will do the same in English. (In addition, there is an immense diversity of accents even within a single English-speaking country (e.g., USA), whereas Hungary Hungarian is considerably less diverse.) Therefore, an L2 learner of Hungarian might not find it as necessary to be familiar with multiple non-native (or non-standard) varieties of their target language as an L2 learner of English would.

The results of the preliminary exploratory phase show that those respondents who wished to attain a native-sounding British accent tended to find it necessary for Hungarian EFL learners to strive for having a native-like accent. This finding might be explained by Carrie's 2017 results, which showed that language learners tended to consider speakers with a British accent more 'professional' and more 'competent' than speakers with an American accent. The idealized 'perfection' of a British accent might be connected to their desire to sound native-like.

The qualitative analysis of the respondents' accounts of their experiences with pronunciation teaching in high school shed light on another important aspect of language attitudes towards one's own accent. Most of the participants did not encounter focused (that is, not merely accidental or error correction type) pronunciation teaching during their high school studies. However, this did not lead to accepting their own accent; rather, it seems to have led to some insecurity about the 'acceptable' and 'correct' way of pronouncing certain words. Therefore, it is important to highlight that this dissertation does not argue for the dismissal of L2 pronunciation teaching. The 'whatever goes' approach is not effective, as it might not only cause insecurity but jeopardize intelligibility (the main goal of communication), as well. Rather, the aim of this dissertation is to explore ways to help EFL learners understand that even if they might never acquire a native-like accent, they can be effective and proficient communicators in their L2, as acknowledging this might enhance their willingness to communicate in English in the long run. 'Listen and repeat'-type drills, which were criticized by Jones already in 1997, still appear to have some prevalence in EFL classes, and the problem with these from the perspective of this dissertation is that these highlight perfect imitation as the desired quality of the good student, which pressures them to strive for native-likeness.

The results of the preliminary exploratory phase established that negative attitudes towards Hungarian-accented English were a problem among the respondents, which confirmed that the next two steps of the research project focused on an important issue. As 72% of the respondents of the preliminary exploratory phase considered the contents of the text targeting attitude change useful and reassuring, especially those students who evaluated their own accent negatively, investigations testing the changeability of language attitudes through teaching seem well-founded and meaningful to carry out; and therefore, the rationale behind the following two steps of the present research project was supported by the preliminary exploratory phase. In the following four subsections, the four research questions are answered one by one.

5.2. Answering the first research question regarding the impact of familiarizing EFL learners/users with different accents of English

The answer to the first research question, i.e., "What impact does familiarizing Hungarian EFL learners/users with multiple native and non-native accents of English through an indirect teaching method have on their 'language attitudes and motivation', 'willingness to communicate' (and potentially 'perfectionism')?" is that such a teaching method can successfully improve Hungarian EFL learners' 'attitudes and motivation', as shown by the results of the classroom investigation. ('Willingness to communicate' and 'perfectionism' were not impacted by the teaching experiment.)

The participants achieved significantly higher scores after the classroom intervention, as the total score of the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the post-test showed a significant increase (*M2* = 190.75) compared to that of the pre-test (*M1* = 169.92, *p* = .001), and the improvement stayed significant three months after the classroom investigation, as well, as the experimental group's scores for the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the delayed post-test still showed a significant increase (*M3* = 183.67) in comparison with the pre-test (*M1* = 169.92, *p* = .012), although to a lesser extent.

The fact that a significant increase is observable in the participants of the experimental group's mean of total scores for the 'attitudes and motivation' questions on both the immediate and the delayed post-tests compared to the pre-test shows that introducing various non-standard and non-native varieties to high school students as part of their English classes can be an indirect method of developing more positive attitudes in the students towards Hungarian-accented English, as well as their own accent in English. This underlines the findings of the preliminary exploratory phase, which indicated that the university student respondents would have appreciated if they had been introduced to a larger variety of Englishes during their high school years, as it would have been reassuring for them and could have helped them to have less negative views about their own English. This idea also goes hand in hand with Rose et al.'s 2021 suggestion to incorporate Global Englishes into TESOL in order to help students encounter a more practical and less theoretical approach to learning English.

As Seidlhofer (2011) notes, communication between non-native speakers is highlighted in the conceptualization of ELF (similarly to the overarching Global Englishes approach), which indicates that L1 standards might not always apply to ELF speakers. As in EFL and ELF contexts native-like proficiency is not likely to be a relevant and achievable goal (because ELF is for the transmission of meaning and effective communication between speakers of different L1s), there seems to be a great discrepancy between what is considered to be relevant in English

language teaching and what is relevant for lingua franca communication. The findings of this study suggest that this discrepancy between the academic expectations and the practical needs that students face can be mitigated by incorporating a larger variety of Englishes into English classes and giving non-native models to the learners to emulate.

It can also be seen that a longer and more sustained intervention, or more ideally, the incorporation of such materials into the EFL curriculum might prevent the weakening of the positive impact of the teaching experiment over time, as, in this relatively short experiment, a significant decrease was found between the total scores of the 'attitudes and motivation' section of the post-test (*M2* = 190.75) and the delayed post-test (*M3* = 183.6, *p* = .035) in the experimental group. It is apparent that a relatively short intervention might not be enough to maintain the positive impact of the experimental teaching materials. Incorporating the introduction of a larger variety of Englishes into the EFL curriculum might be more effective, since, that way, learning about the diversity of English would be an everyday practice, that is, a sustained, long-term alternative to the teaching experiment, which might be a good measure against the weakening of positive attitude change. This idea is in line with Matsuda and Friedrich's 2012 call for a complete curriculum change, in which the international use and lingua franca function of the English language are highlighted.

The answers to the open-ended questions in the classroom questionnaire indicate that fewer negative opinions about Hungarian-accented English were expressed in the post-test, which tendency was partially retained in the delayed post-test, as well. The students in the experimental group's goals with the English language became more varied after the teaching experiment, and more practical uses of the language started to gain importance, which was also observed in the delayed post-test. Fewer negative evaluations of their own accents were included in the post-test compared to the pre-test, and students started to move away from the idealization of native-centered standards for non-native speakers. However, this tendency was discontinued in the delayed post-test, and the importance of having native models to emulate was once again emphasized by the students, suggesting that it is easier to change their attitudes towards Hungarian-accented English in general than towards their own accent specifically, as well as underscoring the importance of a more sustained intervention. The idea that the students' might be more ready to accept others' non-native accents was also confirmed by their EFL teacher in the interview. Still, in the post-test, more students reported satisfaction with their accent and more students emphasized intelligibility than in the pre-test, and this improvement was partially retained in the delayed post-test, as well.

The responses to the questions of the class evaluation sheet show that the majority of the students (11 out of 12) realized the diversity of the accents of English with the help of the teaching experiment, and there were students who emphasized the importance of intelligibility over native-likeness. The importance of improving one's comprehension skills (of multiple varieties) arose as an important consideration.

The interview with the students' EFL teacher underscores the rationale behind the study, as she argued that she became a more confident speaker of English in her classes when her students started to arrive in high school using various accents in class due to the influence of consuming global English-language media. Mirroring Mompeán-González's 2004 and Carrie's 2017 findings, the participating English teacher has experienced that British English tends to be seen as more professional, and, as a consequence, she had been strongly dissatisfied with her non-native, American-influenced English before her students started using multiple kinds of (not necessarily British-influenced) accents in class. This is in line with Llurda's 2009 assertion that, if non-native teachers feel 'downgraded' due to their status as L2 speakers of the language they are teaching, it can be helpful for their self-confidence to experience diverse varieties of English.

The idea of the potential role model status of non-native teachers, that is, successful non-native speakers in the EFL classroom (e.g., Medgyes, 1994 and 2001; Ayudhya, 2021) might be extended based on the classroom experiment to include the use of non-native speech samples in the classroom, as well, as students started to view Hungarian-accented English and their own accent less negatively after the intervention. Murphy (2014) evaluated Javier Bardem's speech as a good candidate for a non-native speech sample for language learners, as it is not only clearly understandable but also comes from a successful person who can be seen as a role model. The present investigation proves that the list of non-native speech samples for EFL teaching purposes from popular and/or successful people can be considerably expanded; and it seems that these samples do provide beneficial input for EFL learners.

The results also demonstrate that Hall's 2012 suggestion, namely, that L1 speakers should not be constructed as the ultimate source of wisdom when it comes to language learning, could be achieved through familiarizing students with multiple native and non-native varieties of English. In addition, the inclusion of lesser-known native accents was also well received by the students. The immediate in-class reactions to these accents (e.g., Scottish, New Zealand, Scouse, Cockney accent, etc.) showed students' surprise at the salient differences between the accents of L1 speakers of English, some of whom (e.g., the Scottish speaker in the first session) were believed to be EFL learners by the students due to their accents' being different from the

native accents the students had been familiar with (cf. Tévar, 2014 on Scottish English being perceived by learners as a non-native variety).

The results also indicate that Fang and Ren's 2018 proposal to familiarize learners with Global Englishes to enhance their critical thinking about native-centered ideologies might be a fruitful method to counter native speakerism in the classroom, especially considering Kung and Wang's 2019 assertion that accent preferences in L2 learners might be influenced by the teaching materials available.

Contrary to the successful attitude change achieved by the teaching experiment, no significant differences were found between the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test scores for 'perfectionism' and 'WTC'. Perfectionism can be seen as a feature closer to a personality trait than a perception which can be more easily changed, which is implied by Hamachek (1978), Terry-Short et al. (1995), Chan (2007), and Stoeber et al. (2020) when they describe it as a quality or disposition influencing people's daily functioning. For this reason, changing 'perfectionism' scores was not among the aims of the study. Instead, its correlations with the other two sections of the questionnaire were in focus.

Similarly, the unchangeability of WTC in a short period of time is not surprising, considering that this complex concept is made up of social and individual, affective-cognitive, motivational, situational, behavioral intention- and communication-related layers, according to MacIntyre et al. (1998). The importance of the 'perfectionism' and 'WTC' rating scales lies more in the discovery of correlations between 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate' in the Hungarian high school EFL context, which, in the long run, might suggest that changed language attitudes could eventually coexist with changes in one or the other related concept.

In particular, the relationship between 'negative perfectionism' and the change in 'WTC' scores was discovered to be such in the classroom investigation that those who had higher 'negative perfectionism' scores (at least 32 out of 45 points) showed a significantly greater improvement, i.e., positive change in their 'WTC' scores between the pre- and the post-test (M = 5.00) than the other students whose 'negative perfectionism' scores were lower than 32 points (M = -2.88, p = .010), signaling that, although 'WTC' scores did not change significantly in the whole experimental group, students experiencing negative perfectionism seemed to benefit from the intervention with regard to their WTC.

Additionally, the online questionnaire shows that the experimental teaching materials might have an even greater positive impact on EFL teachers (who are successful, advanced language learners) than students, as the increase in scores in the repeated questions after reading

the text is only nearing significance among students (*M1* = 4.03, *M2* = 4.10, $p = .058$) but among teachers, it is highly significant (*M1* = 4.26, *M2* = 4.47, $p < .001$).

5.3. Answering the second research question regarding the openness of Hungarian EFL learners/users to the introduction of various accents of English

The second research question, "How open are Hungarian EFL learners/users to such teaching?" yielded positive results in all three steps of the research project. In the preliminary exploratory phase, 72% of the participants found the provided text useful.

In the class evaluation sheet after the teaching experiment, 11 out of 12 students considered the potential incorporation of such teaching materials into the curriculum a valuable addition.

In the online survey, it was especially the teacher respondents who found the brief teaching material useful and beneficial for EFL learners. Teachers' answers indicate a significantly higher mean rating ($M_t = 4.40$) than those of the students ($M_s = 3.83$, $p < .001$) for the statement that they consider the content of the text useful (Question 53). Additionally, the teachers' scores ($M_t = 4.05$) for the statement that EFL learners' willingness to communicate orally in English would be higher if such materials were introduced to them (Question 56) are also significantly higher than those of the students ($M_s = 3.34$, $p < .001$).

The teachers' openness to including non-native, non-dominant, and non-standard accents in English language teaching seems to be in contrast with Litzenberg's findings (2016 [2014]), as the pre-service English teachers in this particular study often indicated that error correction-focused analysis was the first thought that came to mind with regard to using high-intermediate non-native speech samples in class, and even advanced samples were mainly evaluated based on the idea of containing 'few mistakes'. The teacher respondents of my online survey seem to be more accepting of the idea of familiarizing students with various accents in class (although they did not answer open-ended questions; and therefore, their more nuanced responses are not known). The difference between the present findings and Litzenberg's findings (2016 [2014]) might also be attributable to the fact that Litzenberg's respondents were pre-service teachers while the respondents of my online survey were in-service teachers. The more negative and native-centered approach of pre-service teachers seems to indicate that students taking part in teacher education might also benefit from being familiarized with various native and non-native varieties of English during their studies to avoid developing negative attitudes or a lack of openness towards these varieties.

The contrast between the experimental group's English teacher's expectations towards herself and towards her students in terms of accent attainment was especially striking. Her insecurity about her own non-native accent is not something she wants to transmit to her students, as intelligibility is her main requirement when her students speak English in class. She seems to realize the negative impact of the nativeness principle, as defined by Levis in 2005, and is open to transforming her classes in order to provide more encouragement to her students for them to be willing to use English for oral communication without the anxiety she has experienced, provided that the innovations are included in the curriculum and course books, in order to ensure that there is enough time to introduce them in class.

5.4. Answering the third research question regarding the relationship between 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate'

The third research question, "What kind of relationship is observable between 'language attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate' in English as a foreign language among Hungarian learners/users?" yielded similar results in the classroom and the online part of the investigation. The pre-test for the classroom investigation showed positive correlations between 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' [$\rho(20) = .50$, $p = .018$], and between 'positive' and 'negative perfectionism' [$\rho(20) = .60$; $p = .003$], while negative correlations were observed between 'attitudes and motivation' and 'perfectionism' [$\rho(20) = -.52$; $p = .013$], and more specifically, it was 'negative perfectionism', not 'positive perfectionism' that had a significant negative relationship with 'attitudes and motivation' [$\rho(20) = -.47$; $p = .029$].

The classroom pre-test is the questionnaire which is comparable to the online survey, as the online respondents did not take part in a full teaching experiment. Among teachers, the results indicate a moderate positive correlation between the mean scores for 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' [$\rho(90) = .37$, $p < .001$], and a weak negative correlation between the mean scores for 'attitudes and motivation' and 'perfectionism' [$\rho(90) = -.21$, $p = .041$]. A weak negative correlation is found between 'negative perfectionism' and 'attitudes and motivation' [$\rho(90) = -.30$, $p = .004$] and, in this group, the negative correlation between 'negative perfectionism' and 'willingness to communicate' is also significant [$\rho(90) = -.28$, $p = .007$]. The significant positive correlation between 'positive' and 'negative perfectionism' among teachers is weaker [$\rho(90) = .27$, $p = .009$] than among students.

Among the student respondents, there is a moderate positive correlation between the mean scores for 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' [$\rho(248) = .51$, p

< .001], and a weak negative correlation between the mean scores for 'attitudes and motivation' and 'perfectionism' [$\rho(248) = -.18$, $p = .005$]. Additionally, there is a weak negative correlation between 'negative perfectionism' and 'attitudes and motivation' [$\rho(248) = -.26$, $p < .001$], and a moderate positive correlation between 'negative' and 'positive' perfectionism [$\rho(248) = .46$, $p < .001$].

As the correlations between the sections of the larger-scale online survey are similar to the results of the classroom investigation, the classroom results are mostly supported by the data collected from a larger sample from across Hungary.

The results indicate that there is a negative correlation between 'attitudes and motivation' and 'perfectionism', or 'negative perfectionism' specifically, among the respondents, meaning that those respondents who have higher expectations towards themselves in general seem to be less satisfied with Hungarian-accented English and their own accent. For them, 'perfection' seems to be connected to 'native-likeness' (cf. Jenkins, 2007; Sung, 2016).

As the online survey has shown, it is 'negative perfectionism' that has a negative relationship with 'WTC' (among teacher respondents), which is in line with Stoeber et al.'s 2020 claim that negative perfectionism can be considerably more detrimental for people. The disadvantageous relationship between 'negative perfectionism' and 'WTC' is not surprising, as 'negative perfectionism' is conceptualized as perfectionism that is based on the fear of failure instead of on a desire to achieve well (cf. Hamachek, 1978; Terry-Short et al., 1995; and Chan, 2007.)

While 'perfectionism' has been proven to be unchangeable through a relatively short teaching experiment (the alteration of which was not among the goals of this investigation), 'attitudes and motivation', which also seems to have a positive correlation with 'WTC', is an area that targeted teaching can have a positive impact on. On the long term, 'WTC' might also be impacted due to the positive correlation between the two areas, which underscores the importance of a sustained intervention as part of the curriculum.

As alignment can be used to avoid communication breakdowns (Trofimovich, 2016), focusing on teaching strategies to students for interactive alignment instead of letting them believe that native-likeness is the only valuable outcome of language learning might help them develop their willingness to communicate. This is the reason why tasks such as asking for clarification and using humor to avoid communication breakdowns were included in the experimental class sessions. Asking for clarification is recommended to be taught to language learners as a communicative strategy to help them overcome difficulties which might arise as a result of not yet fully developed linguistic skills (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011).

In my view, the negative correlation between 'negative perfectionism' and 'attitudes and motivation' could be interpreted using Dörnyei's (e.g., 2005, 2009) conceptualization of the Motivational Self System. Although it was not studied as part of this investigation, it is possible that students who were found to be negative perfectionists might set an unreachable ideal self as the coveted model to follow (i.e., a native-like accent), and they might evaluate the consequences of not being able to avoid having a Hungarian accent very negatively. This might entail that the unreachability of their ought-to self demotivates them. This is an idea that cannot be proven based on the data presented here, and would need further exploration.

5.5. Answering the fourth research question regarding the similarities and differences between EFL teachers' and students' scores

The fourth research question, "What similarities and differences can be found between Hungarian EFL learners' and teachers' 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism', and 'willingness to communicate', as well as their responses to indirect teaching targeting attitude change?" yielded the following main findings based on the online survey.

Teachers had significantly higher 'attitudes and motivation' (M_t = 4.12) scores than students (M_s = 3.71, $p < .001$), and a similar tendency is observed in the case of their 'willingness to communicate' scores, as well, with teachers (M_t = 4.39) scoring significantly higher than students (M_s = 3.35, $p < .001$), while there was no significant difference between their total 'perfectionism' scores.

When 'perfectionism' scores were divided into 'positive' vs. 'negative perfectionism', teachers' scores were significantly higher for the positive ($M_t = 4.08$, M_s = 3.57, $p < .001$) and significantly lower for the negative ($M_t = 2.70$, M_s = 3.14, $p < .001$) component.

The repeated questions after reading the text all showed significantly higher scores among teacher respondents than among students (cf. they were significantly higher than students' scores in the case of only two questions before the text). Please see Section 4.3.5.2. for the details.

Within-group comparisons showed that there was one repeated question showing significant improvement in attitudes compared to its original counterpart found before the text (Question pair 5–49) in both groups, namely the idea that they would not be that bothered by another person's non-native accent after reading the study material. (Please see Section 4.3.5.3. for the details.) This highlights what was also found in the preliminary exploratory phase and the classroom investigation, and was also suggested by the experimental group's English

teacher, namely, that the respondents seem to be more willing to accept a hypothetical person's non-native accent than their own.

Teachers found the text significantly more useful (M_t = 4.40) than the students (M_s = 3.83, $p < .001$), they also found it more likely to be positive reinforcement for language learners (M_t = 4.47, M_s = 4.00, $p < .001$), and more helpful for improving learners' willingness to communicate (M_t = 4.05, M_s = 3.34, $p < .001$).

On the other hand, teachers (M_t = 2.73) found the ideas in the text significantly less new than students (M_s = 3.58, $p < .001$), and agreed significantly less with the statement that the English language is more diverse than they had thought (M_t = 3.16, M_s = 3.53, p = .027), showing more prior knowledge of the introduced concepts.

Teachers' more in-depth knowledge of the English language might be the reason why they did not feel that the information in the text was completely new or that the diversity of English surprised them considerably. They might also have encountered ideas similar to Dimitroff et al.'s 2018 argument that English needs to be made relevant to learners (as course book varieties do not exist outside the classroom), and requiring the use of standard, native-like English from all EFL learners is not something that helps achieve this goal.

The answers to all the four research questions appear to point in the same direction, namely, that the familiarization of language learners with Global Englishes seems to have a positive impact on how they view non-native-accented English, and potentially also on how they evaluate their own accent. Therefore, it is argued that, for a sustained positive impact, the EFL curriculum in Hungary and EFL course books in general could help students accept the fact that their accent might never become native-like (cf. the discussion of the critical period in Section 2.2.2.) by incorporating multiple accents of English in their compulsory schedule.

In the next section, the Conclusion of the findings can be found. The Conclusion focuses on the summary of the main findings, the pedagogical implications of the findings, the limitations of the investigations, and suggestions for further analysis and research, and highlights the significance of the investigations reported on in this dissertation.

6. Conclusion

6.1. Summary of the main findings

In this dissertation, I have investigated the changeability of language attitudes through teaching among Hungarian EFL learners/users in the form of a classroom investigation (designed based on a preliminary exploratory phase) an online questionnaire (designed based on the classroom investigation).

First, it has been shown through the classroom investigation that implicit teaching that involves the familiarization of students with a large variety of native and non-native accents of English can have a positive effect on the participants' 'attitudes and motivation' scores, and this result remains significant in the delayed post-test, too, although the positive impact is weakened.

Second, it has been found that the majority of the participants (students and teachers alike) are open to engaging with study materials targeting attitude change, and teachers consider the experimental study materials even more useful than students.

Third, the correlations between 'attitudes and motivation', 'perfectionism' (more specifically 'negative' vs. 'positive perfectionism') and 'willingness to communicate' among EFL learners/users have been established, namely, that there is a positive relationship between 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' and between 'positive' and 'negative perfectionism', and a negative relationship between 'attitudes and motivation' and 'perfectionism' (especially 'negative perfectionism'), according to the classroom study. Additionally, it has been revealed by the online survey that 'negative perfectionism' has a negative relationship with 'willingness to communicate' among teachers.

Fourth, it has been highlighted that EFL teachers have higher 'attitudes and motivation' and 'willingness to communicate' scores than high school students, their 'positive perfectionism' is higher and 'negative perfectionism' is lower, and they seem to react more positively to the teaching material targeting attitude change, as all the repeated questions in the online survey show that the teachers' scores are significantly higher than the students' scores, while there were only two such questions (among the five) before the participants engaged with the text. Additionally, when the overall mean scores of all the original five questions (grouped together) and their repeated counterparts (grouped together) are compared, the increase in scores after reading the text is only nearing significance among students ($M1 = 4.03$, $M2 = 4.10$, $p = .058$) but among teachers, it is highly significant ($M1 = 4.26$, $M2 = 4.47$, $p < .001$).

6.2. Pedagogical implications

The study has implications for EFL teaching in Hungary, namely, that the introduction of various native and non-native accents of English to EFL learners can have a positive impact on their attitudes towards non-native-accented English and their own non-native accent. For this to be successful and manageable, students' familiarization with multiple different accents should be part of the EFL curriculum and EFL course books.

If teachers feel that they are expected to search for additional materials themselves and try to fit them into the syllabus without having officially designated time for such topics in the curriculum, they might feel disheartened to start such an endeavor. That is why this dissertation argues for the importance of administering some changes to the EFL curriculum in Hungary, to allocate time and pre-designed materials for teachers to familiarize students with a greater variety of native and non-native accents of English.

Using materials from less mainstream course books with a stronger focus on Global Englishes, such as the Keynote series by National Geographic Learning (which is not currently on the list of course book options for high school English teachers in Hungary, but if teachers can select only a few exercises and non-native audios from it for occasional use, it might already have a positive impact on students' attitudes), and providing a collection of pre-designed exercises involving various accent samples (e.g., from TEDx talks, Academy Award acceptance speeches, interviews, etc.) for EFL teachers to choose from when designing their classes would be a step towards more diversity in accents and varieties in Hungarian EFL education. As well-known non-native or non-standard speakers might easily become role models for the students, I suggest including accent samples from famous people.

As the interviewed EFL teacher showed clear signs of accent anxiety and negative attitudes towards her own accent, helping EFL teachers with negative attitudes to accept their own accent also seems to be an important task for the future. I strongly believe that if the curriculum included more diverse accents of English it could have a positive impact on the teachers' perceptions as well as the students', as the teacher respondents reacted positively to the text in the online survey.

The development of more positive language attitudes towards non-native accents is not the only benefit students could experience if a larger variety of accents were introduced to them in EFL classes. The classroom investigation has shown (cf. Appendix 6) that the students had difficulty understanding non-standard or non-dominant native accents, and some of these speakers were even considered to be language learners by the respondents. Familiarizing

learners with a larger variety of Englishes could help them understand varieties of English which are considerably different from RP and GenAm.

In summary, I want to highlight the importance of awareness raising about accents and varieties of English and incorporating more non-native, non-dominant, and non-standard varieties into EFL classes in Hungarian high schools.

6.3. Limitations and suggestions for further analysis and research

This dissertation is not without limitations. The classroom investigation reported on in this dissertation involved only 12 students in the experimental group, and the intervention was limited in time by the availability of the participants. Further studies would need to explore the reactions of a larger number of students to the study materials, from multiple age groups, for an extended period of time.

Additionally, the interview with the experimental group's English teacher represents the experiences of only one teacher, who started learning English as an adult. Interviewing more EFL teachers from various institutions would be a valuable addition to this project.

The statistical analyses reported on in this dissertation involved Spearman's correlations, independent samples and paired samples *t*-tests. As correlation does not mean causation, regression analyses could complement the analysis presented in this dissertation in order to explore cause-and-effect relationships, as well.

It was indicated in the Discussion section that using Dörnyei's (e.g., 2005, 2009) conceptualization of the Motivational Self System might help explain why wanting a native-like accent might have a negative impact on EFL learners' 'attitudes and motivation' scores, as it is plausible that students who are negative perfectionists might set an unreachable ideal self as the desired model to follow (i.e., a native-like accent), and they might evaluate the consequences of not being able to prevent having a Hungarian accent very negatively, which might mean that the unreachability of their ought-to self is demotivating for them. This idea cannot be confirmed based on the results presented here; and therefore, would need further exploration.

Additionally, the relevance of anxiety was discussed in the Literature review, but was not included in the investigations as a factor because, although I recognize its importance in language learning, and it is also closely connected to willingness to communicate, the 3-step project carried out for this dissertation is quite complex even in its current form, and the steps (or phases) themselves are made up of several different parts, for which reason including another subsection in the questionnaire would have made the research project overly

complicated. However, I consider the role of anxiety crucially important to be included in further studies.

The findings of the present dissertation are not generalizable for every Hungarian EFL learner and EFL teacher, as stratified random sampling was not a viable option for the investigation. This entails that the responses of the participants described here are not to be interpreted as the universal experiences of Hungarian EFL learners. However, as the results of the classroom investigation were similar to those of the larger-scale online survey, the conclusions drawn in this dissertation are supported by data from multiple sources.

6.4. Significance

The present dissertation has focused on the practical implementation of the insights gained from language attitude studies for the purposes of improving the practice of EFL teaching and learning in a Hungarian context. While attitude studies involving non-native speakers of English and/or focusing on the respondents' evaluations of non-native English are not scarce, and asking (pre-service) teachers' opinions about incorporating non-native recordings into their classes has also been part of research projects, the actual implementation of the idea in the classroom with pre-, post-, and delayed post-testing to assess potential attitude change has not been carried out before to my knowledge. Making attitude studies interdisciplinary by using them to improve the practice of EFL teaching and learning is an important new trajectory in my view, to which the present dissertation is a contribution.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 – Preliminary exploratory phase questionnaire

The list of questions in the Hungarian original and English translation of the questionnaire used for the preliminary exploratory phase, originally carried out using Jamboard

1A) Hungarian (original)

1. Mennyire elégedett a jelenlegi angol kiejtésével? Miért?
2. Ha még nem elégedett a jelenlegi angol kiejtésével, milyen kiejtésre vágyik?
3. Ha magyar akcentussal beszélt angolt hall, mi a véleménye róla?
4. A saját kiejtését „magyar akcentusosnak” tekinti?
5. Mennyire szükséges egy magyar anyanyelvű, angolt tanuló személynek anyanyelvi kiejtésre törekedni az angolban? Miért?
6. Van-e a saját angol kiejtésével kapcsolatban valamilyen negatív emléke (pl. tanár/diák/anyanyelvi beszélő kritizálta)? Ha van ilyen, írja le röviden az esetet!

Olvassa el a következő szöveget! (A következőkben ezzel kapcsolatban lesz néhány kérdés.)

> Az angol nyelvnek számtalan anyanyelvi nyelvváltozata létezik (pl. brit, amerikai, ausztrál, új-zélandi, kanadai, ír, skót, stb.), és az anyanyelvi nyelvváltozatokon belül is számtalan nemstandard változatot találunk (pl. Cockney, African American Vernacular English). A világon pedig szinte minden országban (kisebb vagy nagyobb mértékben) sokaknak a mindennapi élet része az angol nyelv használata. Természetesen a nem anyanyelvi változatok is sokfélék, nem egyetlen standard formát követnek. De minden nyelvváltozat alkalmas lehet a hatékony kommunikációra, és a beszélő szükségleteinek megfelelő használatra. Tehát attól, hogy valaki nem úgy beszél, mint egy anyanyelvi beszélő, a nyelvhasználata, kiejtése nem értéktelenebb, mint az anyanyelvi beszélőké. Az anyanyelvi beszélők sem egyformán beszélnek, így az "anyanyelvi kiejtés" fogalma is problémás. Melyik kiejtésre is gondolunk? Ha nem létezik

egyetlen "anyanyelvi kiejtés", akkor miért kellene a nyelvtanulóknak azon aggódniuk, hogy nem "anyanyelvi" a kiejtésük?

7. Középiskolában hallott-e az előbb olvasott szövegben leírtakról?
8. Az Ön számára hasznos-e a szövegben leírt információ? (Válaszát indokolja!)
9. A saját tapasztalatai szerint középiskolában mennyire és milyen módon van jelen angolórákon a kiejtés tanítása?

1B) English (translation)

1. How satisfied are you with your own English pronunciation? Why?
2. If you are not yet satisfied with your current pronunciation in English, what kind of accent do you wish to have?
3. If you hear Hungarian-accented English, what is your opinion of it?
4. Do you consider your own English Hungarian-accented?
5. How necessary is it for a Hungarian L1 speaker who is learning English as a foreign language to strive for achieving a native-like accent in English? Why?
6. Do you have any negative memories related to your English pronunciation (e.g., a teacher/student/native speaker criticized it)? If yes, please describe the situation briefly.

Please read the following text. (After the text, there will be some questions related to it.)

The English language has several native varieties (e.g., British, American, Australian, New Zealand, Canadian, Irish, Scottish, etc.) and within these native varieties we can find lots of non-standard dialects (e.g., Cockney, African American Vernacular English, etc.). In the world, in virtually every country, to differing extents, English is a part of everyday life for lots of people. Naturally, non-native varieties are also various and do not follow one standard form. However, every variety can be used effectively for communication and to fulfill the needs of the speakers. Therefore, just because one does not have a native accent, their language use and pronunciation are not less valuable than those of native speakers. Even native speakers don’t speak alike, which makes the unified notion of “native pronunciation” problematic.

Which accent do we mean? If there is no unified “native accent”, then why should language learners worry about not having a “native accent”?

7. Did you hear about the information presented in the text in high school?
8. Is the information presented in the text useful for you? (Please explain your answer.)
9. According to your own experiences, to what extent and in what way is the teaching of pronunciation present in high school English classes?

Appendix 2 – Classroom questionnaire

The Hungarian (original) version and the English translation of the classroom questionnaire, which was administered three times, as a pre-, post- and delayed post-test

For ease of reference, only the list of questions is provided (in both Hungarian and English) in the Appendix, with titles for the sections. These titles were not included in the students' version of the questionnaire. Please see the studies and questionnaires which were used as a basis for the compilation of this questionnaire in the Methodology section.

Students needed to mark their answers on 5-point Likert scales, where
1 = *egyáltalán nem gondolom így* "I do not agree at all"
2 = *inkább nem így gondolom* "I mostly do not agree"
3 = *egyet is értek meg nem is* "I somewhat agree, somewhat disagree"
4 = *nagyjából így gondolom* "I mostly agree"
5 = *teljes mértékben így gondolom* "I completely agree"

For Part 2 of the 'willingness to communicate' section, the meanings of the five points on the Likert scales were slightly different, as student had to mark how likely it was that they would behave in certain situations the described way.
1= *egyáltalán nem* "not at all"
2 = *inkább nem* "rather not"
3 = *lehet* "maybe"
4 = *valószínűleg* "probably"
5 = *biztosan* "certainly"

2A) Hungarian (original)

Attitudes and motivation section

1. Anyanyelvi kiejtéssel szeretném beszélni az angolt.
2. Magyar akcentussal beszélek angolul.
3. Fontos nekem, hogy az angol kiejtésemen ne érződjön, hogy magyar vagyok.
4. Úgy gondolom, hogy a magyar akcentussal beszélt angol szép.
5. Biztos vagyok benne, hogy meg fogok tanulni anyanyelvi kiejtéssel beszélni angolul.
6. Szeretem a magyar akcentussal beszélt angolt.
7. A magyar akcentussal beszélt angolt nehéz komolyan venni.

8. Könnyen megértem a magyar akcentussal beszélt angolt.
9. Jelenleg anyanyelvi kiejtéssel beszélek angolul.
10. Szeretek idegen nyelvet tanulni.
11. A tökéletes idegennyelv-tudáshoz az anyanyelvi kiejtés elsajátítása is hozzátartozik.
12. Elégedett vagyok az angol kiejtésemmel.
13. A magyar akcentussal beszélt angol nevetséges.
14. Félek megszólalni angolul a magyaros kiejtésem miatt.
15. A kiejtésem miatt sosem féltem angolul megszólalni.
16. A magyaros kiejtés megmutatja, hogy az ember honnan származik, és ez jó dolog.
17. Általában félek megszólalni angolul.
18. Nem szívesen beszélek angolul mások előtt.
19. Szeretném amerikai akcentussal beszélni az angolt.
20. Szeretném brit akcentussal beszélni az angolt.
21. Nehéz nyelvnek tartom az angolt.
22. Ha egy nyelvtanuló anyanyelvi kiejtéssel beszél angolul, elveszti az eredeti identitását, önazonosságát.
23. Zavar a saját magyar akcentusom.
24. Zavar, ha mások magyar akcentussal beszélnek angolul.
25. Zavar, ha valakinek a kiejtésén érződik, hogy nem az angol az anyanyelve.
26. Szerintem a különféle akcentusok elfogadhatók.
27. Főként a kiejtésre figyelek, amikor angolul beszélek.
28. Főként az érthetőségre törekszem, amikor angolul beszélek.
29. Főként a nyelvtanra figyelek, amikor angolul beszélek.
30. Főként a szóhasználatra figyelek, amikor angolul beszélek.
31. Az a célom, hogy külföldön tanuljak/dolgozzak felnőttként.
32. Sokszor nézek angolul filmet/sorozatot.
33. Az iskolai angolórákon számomra fontos az angol kiejtésemet az anyanyelvihez közelíteni.
34. Dicsérték már az angol kiejtésemet.
35. Az iskolai angolórákon elvárás, hogy anyanyelvi-szerű kiejtéssel beszéljünk angolul.
36. Kaptam már negatív kritikát az angol kiejtésemmel kapcsolatban.
37. Szeretem az angol nyelvet.
38. Szeretem tanulni az angol nyelvet.
39. Megkritizálom azokat, akik erős magyar akcentussal beszélik az angolt.
40. Ha megértem, mit mond a másik angolul, akkor nem számít, milyen a kiejtése.

41. Nem szeretem, ha mások hallják az angol kiejtésemet, ezért inkább nem beszélek mások előtt angolul.
42. Ha nem anyanyelvi a kiejtésem, akkor nem beszélek jól angolul.
43. Lehet valakinek nagyon magas szintű az angoltudása akkor is, ha nem anyanyelvi a kiejtése.
44. A nem anyanyelvi angoltanárok is lehetnek olyan hatékonyak a nyelvoktatásban, mint az anyanyelviek.
45. Szeretném, hogy ne lehessen hallani, hogy magyar vagyok, amikor angolul beszélek.
46. Szívesen próbálkozom az angol beszéddel, és nem félek attól, hogy rosszul ejtek ki valamit.
47. Szégyellem, ha az angol kiejtésemből rájönnek, hogy nem vagyok anyanyelvi beszélő.
48. Az anyanyelvi beszélők nagyjából egyformán beszélnek angolul.
49. Az angoltanulás egyik legfőbb célja, hogy más nemzetiségűekkel is meg tudjuk értetni magunkat.
50. Fontosabb az, hogy megértsenek, amikor angolul beszélek, mint az, hogy „tökéletes" kiejtésem legyen.
51. Nincs gond azzal, ha valakinek „magyaros" a kiejtése, amikor angolul beszél.
52. Ha jobban hasonlítana az angol kiejtésem az anyanyelvihez, bátrabban megszólalnék.
53. Nem akarok úgy hangozni, mintha az angol lenne az anyanyelvem.

Open-ended questions related to attitudes and motivation:

A) Mit gondolsz a magyar akcentussal beszélt angolról?

B) Mi a célod az angol nyelv tanulásával?

C) Szerinted milyen a jelenlegi angol kiejtésed? Jellemezd röviden!

D) Mennyire vagy elégedett a jelenlegi angol kiejtéseddel? Válaszodat röviden indokold!

Perfectionism section

1. Fontos számomra, hogy teljes mértékben kompetens, hozzáértő legyek abban, amit csinálok.
2. Jellemző rám, hogy jól szervezett és rendezett vagyok.
3. Felzaklat, ha hibázom.
4. Számomra nagyon fontos, hogy mindig ötöst kapjak.
5. Magasabb elvárásaim vannak önmagammal szemben, mint a legtöbb embernek.
6. Törekszem a tökéletességre a feladataim elvégzésekor.
7. Ha valaki az osztályban jobban csinál meg egy feladatot, mint én, úgy érzem, sikertelen vagyok.

8. Csak a kimagasló eredmény számít elég jónak.

9. Nagyon jó vagyok abban, hogy egy cél érdekében erőfeszítéseket tegyek.

10. Nem elégszem meg a minimummal, az „éppen elégséges" számomra nem megfelelő cél.

11. Még ha nagyon odafigyelve végzek is el egy feladatot, gyakran úgy érzem, hogy nem tökéletes az eredmény.

12. Utálom, ha nem én vagyok a legjobb valamiben.

13. Nagyon magas elvárásaim vannak önmagammal szemben.

14. Ha nem teljesítek jól mindig, akkor az emberek nem fognak tisztelni.

15. Mivel alapos és precíz vagyok, ritkán adok ki hibás munkát a kezemből.

16. Gyakran kételkedem abban, hogy az egyszerű hétköznapi feladataimat jól végzem-e.

17. Minél kevesebbet hibázom, annál többen fognak szeretni engem.

18. Mindig a lehető legjobb eredményre törekszem, és teszek is azért, hogy ezt elérjem.

Open-ended questions related to perfectionism:

A) Maximalistának tartod magad? igen nem

B) Ez milyen hatással van rád (hogy maximalista vagy/nem vagy maximalista), mi ennek a következménye?

Willingness to communicate section, Part 1

1. Hajlandó vagyok angolul beszélni órán, akkor is, ha gyakran hibázom.

2. Hajlandó vagyok angolul beszélni órán, akkor is, ha tudom, hogy van a csoportban olyan, aki jobban beszél nálam angolul.

3. Szívesen adok elő vagy beszélek mások előtt angolul.

4. Akkor is hajlandó vagyok angolul beszélni órán, ha a hibáimra gyakran felhívja a figyelmet a tanárom.

5. Szívesen beszélek páros vagy csoportmunkában angolul.

6. Sokszor jelentkezem angolórán, hogy én mondjam meg a választ.

7. Szeretek angolul beszélni.

8. Bátran megszólalok angolul.

Willingness to communicate section, Part 2

1. Ha egy külföldivel találkozom az utcán, megijedek, ha segítséget kér tőlem angolul.

2. Ha egy külföldivel találkozom a boltban, aki láthatóan nem talál valamit, magamtól odamegyek, és angolul megkérdezem, hogy miben segíthetek.

3. Egy angol anyanyelvű diák érkezik az iskolába, aki nem beszél egyáltalán magyarul, és valakinek körbe kell vezetnie. Bártan jelentkezem a feladatra.
4. Amerikai tanár érkezik előadást tartani az iskolába. Kérdéseket lehet feltenni neki. Szeretnék kérdezni, de félek, hogy rossz a kiejtésem, ezért inkább csöndben maradok.
5. Megkérnek, hogy egy, az iskolánkat népszerűsítő videóban olvassak fel egy rövid beszédet angolul. Először örülök a felkérésnek, de nem akarom, hogy az egész iskola meghallja az angol kiejtésemet, ezért inkább nem vállalom el.

2B) English (translation)

Attitudes and motivation section

1. I would like to speak English with a native-like accent.
2. I speak English with a Hungarian accent.
3. Making sure that my accent in English does not reveal that I am Hungarian is important to me.
4. I think that Hungarian-accented English is beautiful.
5. I am sure that I will learn to speak English with a native-like accent.
6. I like Hungarian-accented English.
7. Hungarian-accented English is difficult to take seriously.
8. I can understand Hungarian-accented English easily.
9. Currently I speak English with a native-like accent.
10. I like learning foreign languages.
11. The perfect knowledge of a foreign language includes native-like pronunciation, too.
12. I am satisfied with my accent in English.
13. Hungarian-accented English is ridiculous.
14. I am scared to speak English because of my Hungarian accent.
15. I have never been scared to speak English because of my accent.
16. Having a Hungarian accent in English shows where one is from, and that is a good thing.
17. I am usually scared to speak English.
18. I do not like to speak English in front of others.
19. I would like to speak English with an American accent.
20. I would like to speak English with a British accent.
21. I think English is a difficult language.
22. If a language learner speaks English with a native-like accent, they lose their original identity.

23. My own Hungarian accent bothers me.

24. If others speak English with a Hungarian accent, it bothers me.

25. It bothers me if someone's accent in English reveals that it is not their first language.

26. I think the diversity of accents is acceptable.

27. I mainly focus on pronunciation when I speak English.

28. I mainly focus on intelligibility when I speak English.

29. I mainly focus on grammar when I speak English.

30. I mainly focus on vocabulary when I speak English.

31. My goal is to study/work abroad as an adult.

32. I often watch films/TV series in English.

33. In high school English classes, trying to approximate native pronunciation is important to me.

34. I have been praised for my accent in English.

35. It is a requirement in high school English classes that we have a native-like accent in English.

36. I have been negatively criticized for my accent in English.

37. I like the English language.

38. I like learning English.

39. I criticize those who have a strong Hungarian accent in English.

40. If I can understand what the other person says in English, their pronunciation does not matter.

41. I don't like when others hear my accent in English, so I rather do not speak English in front of others.

42. If my accent is not native-like, I do not speak English well.

43. One can have very advanced level English knowledge even if they do not have a native-like accent.

44. Non-native English-speaking teachers can teach the language as effectively as native English-speaking teachers.

45. I would prefer if others could not tell that I am Hungarian when I speak English.

46. I like trying to speak English and I am not scared of not pronouncing something well.

47. I feel ashamed if people notice, based on my accent, that I am not a native speaker of English.

48. All native speakers speak English roughly the same way.

49. One of the most important goals of learning English is being able to make ourselves understood when we meet people of other nationalities.
50. Others' understanding me when I speak English is more important than having a "perfect" accent.
51. There is no problem with having a Hungarian accent in English.
52. If my accent were more similar to the "native speaker accent", I would be more willing to speak English.
53. I don't want to sound like a native speaker of English.

Open ended questions related to attitudes and motivation

A) What is your opinion about Hungarian-accented English?
B) What is your goal with studying English?
C) In your view, what is your current accent in English like? Please describe it briefly.
D) How satisfied are you with your current accent in English? Please justify your answer briefly.

Perfectionism section

1. It is important to me that I be thoroughly competent in what I do.
2. I am an organized person.
3. I am upset if I make a mistake.
4. Getting a 5 [the best grade in Hungary] all the time is very important to me.
5. I set higher expectations towards myself than most people.
6. I strive for perfection when doing my tasks.
7. If someone does a task in class better than I do, then I feel like a failure.
8. Only outstanding performance is good enough.
9. I am very good at focusing my efforts on attaining a goal.
10. I am not satisfied with the "bare minimum"; what is "minimally satisfactory" is not the right goal for me.
11. Even when I do a task very carefully, I often feel that the result is not perfect.
12. I hate being less than the best at things.
13. I have extremely high expectations towards myself.
14. If I do not do well all the time, people will not respect me.
15. As I am thorough and precise, my finished tasks rarely contain mistakes.
16. I usually have doubts about the simple everyday things that I do.

17. The fewer mistakes I make; the more people will like me.
18. I always strive for the best possible result, and I make an effort to reach this goal.

Open-ended questions related to perfectionism

A) Do you consider yourself a perfectionist? yes no

B) What impact does it have on you; what are the consequences (of the fact that you are/are not a perfectionist)?

Willingness to communicate section, Part 1

1. I am willing to speak English even if I often make mistakes.
2. I am willing to speak English in class even if I know that there are students in my English group who are better than me at speaking English.
3. I am willing to give a presentation or speak in front of others in English.
4. I am willing to speak English in class even if my teacher points out my mistakes frequently.
5. I am willing to talk in group- or pair-work English language learning activities.
6. I often volunteer in English class to give the answer [to the teacher's questions].
7. I love speaking English.
8. I am not scared to speak English.

Willingness to communicate section, Part 2

1. If I meet a foreigner on the street, I get scared if they ask for help in English.
2. If I meet a foreigner in a shop and they visibly cannot find something, I take the initiative and go up to them and ask them in English if I can help.
3. A native English-speaking student arrives at our school, who does not speak Hungarian at all. Someone needs to show them around. I confidently volunteer to do so.
4. An American teacher arrives at our school to give a lecture. We can ask questions. I would like to ask a question but I am scared that my pronunciation is bad, so I stay silent.
5. I am asked to read a short speech in a video promoting our school in English. At first I am happy about the request, but I don't want the whole school to hear my English pronunciation so I rather turn it down.

Appendix 3 – Class evaluation questions

The list of questions in Hungarian and English for the class evaluation sheet administered after the teaching experiment

3A) Hungarian (original)

1. Mi az, ami tetszett az órákon? Írj 3 dolgot!
2. Mi az, ami nem tetszett/nehéz volt az órákon? Írj 3 dolgot!
3. Mit tanultál magáról az angol nyelvről az órákon?
4. Mit tanultál magadról az órákon?
5. Mit változtatnál/fejlesztenél az órákon, hogy a jövőben jobbak, hasznosabbak, hatékonyabbak legyenek?
6. Örülnél-e, ha az órarendi angolórákon a kötelező tananyag részét képezné az, hogy sokféle anyanyelvi és nem anyanyelvi kiejtéssel ismerkednek meg a középiskolás diákok? Miért?

3B) English (translation)

1. What did you like about the classes? Try to list 3 things.
2. What did you dislike about the classes or what did you find difficult? Try to list 3 things.
3. What did you learn about the English language through the class sessions?
4. What did you learn about yourself through the class sessions?
5. What would you change/improve to make the classes better, more useful or more effective?
6. Would you be happy if getting to experience various native and non-native accents of English were part of the compulsory school curriculum in high school? Why?

Appendix 4 – Interview transcript

The transcript of the interview with the experimental group (in the classroom investigation)'s EFL teacher in Hungarian (original) and English (translation)

Author's note: The researcher and the subject had known each other for years before the interview took place. This is the reason for the subject's unfinished sentences and implied meanings, as there is some background knowledge shared by the researcher and the subject. The subject might see herself as an older mentor to the researcher, which sometimes made her reflect on the researcher's L2 and teaching skills not the teaching experiment itself.

R = researcher

S = subject

4A) Hungarian (original)

R: Köszönöm szépen, hogy részt veszel ebben az interjúban. Nagyon sokat segítesz. Az első kérdésem az lenne, hogy angoltanárként számodra (önmagad számára) mennyire fontos az, hogy anyanyelviszerű legyen a kiejtésed angolban?

S: Hát ez azért vicces, mert eleve nagyon későn tanultam meg angolul, és akkor már így nagyon azzal szembesültem, hogy nem is voltak rendes ilyen alap óráim, hirtelen kellett összeszednem a tudásomat. Meg így már orosztanárként, átképzősként, hogy inkább csak a hiányérzet volt meg, hogy nekem ez sose lesz. Tehát, hogy egy ilyen leküzdhetetlen távolságban van. Tehát ráadásul az anyanyelvit így angolszakosként inkább a British English-hez igazítjuk. És én az amerikai [redacted for anonymity reasons]-től is tanultam kurzuson. Nem is vettem észre, hogy melyik melyik. Tehát kb. egy ilyen mix alakult ki az én kiejtésemben. Úgyhogy hát ebben…ebben nem nagyon dicsekszem. Nagyon jó lenne.

R: És ez számodra okozott-e valaha negatív érzéseket, hogy úgy érzed, hogy ez egy elérhetetlen cél?

S: Hát, hogy ne okozott volna! Ez azért így nehéz – megküzdeni ezzel! És szerintem nagyon sok nyelvi gátat betettem. Hát, hogy ezt magamnak-e? Tehát hiába mondták, hogy milyen jó veled, meg milyen jó, hogy megtanultál angolul, ahhoz képest, hogy semmit nem beszéltem előtte, de azért…azért még a diákok elé kiállni is persze, igen, bennem volt. Akkor oldódott egy kicsit, amikor már a diákok is hozták a sokféle ilyen saját élményüket az angol filmekből meg a… tehát hogy kezdett rájuk ragadni. Tehát az első 15–20 évben az…az nehezebb volt.

Most az utolsó ilyen 8–10 évben könnyebb ezzel már. Tehát azt mondom, a kétharmada az volt a rosszabb, most az egyharmada, amint a gyerekeknek ez szerintem már inkább az amerikai felé tolódik – ez most már így nem…nem…nem olyan…most már nem… nem ostorozom magam miatta.

R: És a diákjaidtól mennyire várod el, hogy ők kövessék az anyanyelvi mintát kiejtés alapján, kiejtés szempontjából?

S: Hát azért van…van egy ilyen minimum. Tehát, hogy ha ugye azt mondjuk, hogy félreérthető, ahogy kiejti, vagy ilyen nagyon torzul ejti – tehát nem amiatt, mert valamelyik akcentust fölszedte, hanem mert nem tudja kiejteni –, akkor azért kijavíttatom. Pláne, ha nem olyan nagy a fluency, [nem az van, hogy] gyorsan kell valamit mondani, vagy látom, hogy benne van, akkor megállítom, és akkor…de felolvasásnál is azért javítgatom a kiejtésüket.

R: Igen, értem.

S: Igen. De úgy, úgy módjával. Tehát, hogy kicsit úgy, mint a nyelvtant. Hogy azért van ideje, amikor beleszólunk, de van ideje, amikor meg én szerintem kár megakasztani, hogyha átmegy a kommunikáció.

R: Igen, igen. Ez így el is vezet minket a következő kérdéshez, hogy számodra, a nyelvtanulók számára, vagy a tanításban az érthetőség vagy az anyanyelviszerűség elsajátítása fontosabb?

S: Hát az érthetőség, egyértelműen. De annak meg úgy tudok örülni, mert, hogy ugyan én vagyok 12 vagy 15 embernek a tanára, úgy…úgy mindenkinek egyéni a kiejtése és azért van akinek hasonlít nagyon arra, amit ilyen „ó de szép, de jó", meg „ezt nem tőlem tanulta, hanem így ráragadt"! De azt látom, hogy így…így…úgy konkrétan nem megyek neki, hogy na akkor ezt…ezt ne így, vagy na, tehát egy-egy szónak igen, de mondjuk az intonációban max. amikor question tageket tanultunk, vagy…vagy nagyon magyarosan vagy…vagy nagyon ilyen tagolva a szavakat ejti ki. Tehát ezen túl azért nem szoktam bele…belemenni. Igen. Nincs is rá idő. Tehát, hogy igazából a nyelvtan meg a szókincs, meg az, hogy a négy alap skillt azt gyakoroljuk, pláne, ha valaki már ilyen versenyre, vizsgára készül – szóval, hogy így nem, szerintem külön erőfeszítéseket nem teszek arra, hogy mindenképpen anyanyelvi legyen. Örülök, ha valaki jön viszont és akkor így hallanak ilyet, de hát úgyis hallanak a neten meg… meg filmekből, úgyhogy ez most már nem olyan nagy kuriózum, hogyha egy élő ember besétál anyanyelvi kiejtéssel.

R. És a diákjaid körében érezted-e már azt valaha, vagy kifejezetten esetleg ennél a [kísérleti] csoportnál, hogy a kiejtésük miatt nem mernek megszólalni?

S: Mindig van olyan szerintem, minden csoportban van olyan, mert ilyenkor nem is hozzám méri, hanem szerintem úgy egymáshoz méregetik. Tehát ilyen szempontból lehet, hogy szerencsés vagyok, hogy nem olyan echte jó a kiejtésem, mert szerintem én nem nyomom le [őket], max. más miatt nem mer előttem [beszélni], mert én vagyok a tanár. De egymás között igen van [olyan, hogy nem mernek megszólalni a kiejtésük miatt], viszont azt látom, hogy, ha párban dolgoznak – például ez a csoport nagyon jól dolgozik párban kezdetektől fogva, ők…ők nem bliccelik el a pármunkát, és akkor bármilyen kiejtésű lehet bármilyen kiejtésűvel –, akkor nem akadnak fönn ezen még ezek a visszahúzódóbbak sem.

R: Igen, ez jó dolog.

S: Igen, tehát őnáluk valahogy ez ilyen természetesen, szépen alakul, meg így egymást is jól segítik. Tehát nem szoktam sokáig hagyni őket egy párban, bár most éppen már régóta úgy vannak, de, hogy így…így jó is, hogy hallják egymást különböző pármunkákkal, csoportmunkákkal. Igen. Úgy kiállni egymás elé, azt emlékszem, hogy nehezen vették ők is kilencedik [osztály] elején – mert ugye akkor kaptam meg őket ebben a felállásban –, de már nagyon sokat oldódtak szerintem. Ott is volt egy ilyen, hogy „jaj, nem tudok megszólalni” meg „milyen a kiejtésem”, tehát nemcsak az, hogy nem tudom a szavakat, hanem az, hogy mit fognak szólni a többiek, hogy én most ezt hogy ejtem ki.

R: Igen.

S: Ja. De ez…ez…ez…így megy le. Szerintem ez így szépen oldódik náluk.

R: Ez jó, ezt…ezt én is észrevettem egyébként, hogy egyre bátrabbak, meg kiállnak egymás elé és mernek kommunikálni egymással is. Esetleg azokon az órákon, amikor bent ültél, amikor én tanítottam, azokon az órákon éreztél-e olyat, hogy változik valamit a nem anyanyelvi kiejtéssel való kapcsolatod vagy az…az, amit arról gondolsz?

S: Nekem? Személyesen?

R: Neked, igen.

S: Hát, én nem tudtam elképzelni, hogy mit fogsz ezekkel [a diákokkal] csinálni az órán azon kívül, hogy bemutatod [a különböző kiejtéseket], volt bennem egy olyan, hogy lehet, hogy megtanítod, hogy meghallja, hogy ezt így ejtjük, ezt úgy ejtjük, ismételjétek el, nem tudom.

Egy picit, igen, kérdeztél erre, hogy észreveszik-e, de hogy így nem sulykoltad, csak ennyi, hogy egy ilyen awareness, tehát egy…egy ilyen tudatosság vagy valamiféle ilyen észrevétel kialakuljon, de hogy ez olyan…olyan, nem, mint amikor van egy zaj, amikor dolgozunk és akkor jó, ott van a zaj, de utána nem a zajjal foglalkozom, hanem csinálom tovább a munkámat. Tehát, hogy annyira nem zavar be, hogy megakadályozzon abban, amit beszélgetünk – szerintem ez változott szintén.

R: És…és…

S: Tehát ez a saját magam kapcsolata [az órákkal, a témával]. Igen. Ez egy… Szerintem ilyen színfolt volt, tehát hogy ezt….ezt be lehet iktatni, hogyha valaki ezzel szívesen foglalkozik, egy…egy [tanulási] szakaszában a nyelvtanulóknak. Talán túl korán nem érdemes, de…de kuriózumnak mindenképp jó. Akkor az…azokon az anyagokon keresztül, amiket hoztál az… azzal meg nagyon felpezsdítetted őket, és az meg így…így, na, az egy nyereség volt – akár az a…a dalszövegek vagy a híres emberek, tehát, hogy így kapaszkodniuk kellett, tehát, hogy nem nem volt egyszerű a kérdésekre válaszolni, de, hogy ilyen…ilyen rejtett módon szerintem belevitted őket ilyen…ilyenekbe ügyesen. Na, szóval, hogy úgy jó izmos… tehát ez egy ilyen fitneszpróba volt ott, angol fitneszpróba.

R: Köszönöm. És te magad szívesen viszel-e be ilyen nemstandard anyanyelvi vagy nem anyanyelvi anyagokat órára?

S: Igen, bizonyos szintig. Nem tudom, hogy ez…ez-e a… ez-e a szemüveg, amin keresztül megnézem az anyagot. Tehát valószínűleg nem a kiejtés alapján döntöm el, hanem, hogy mennyire élveznék, mennyire használható, mennyire illik ahhoz éppen, amit tanulunk. Azért hogyha nagyon nehezen érthető, akkor azt hiszem, hogy nem [vinném be órára], mert akkor sok kudarcélmény lehet belőle. Tehát hogy ilyen méregetés van előtte. Nekem személyesen az afrikaiakkal van így problémám [megértés szempontjából] ilyen [redacted for anonymity reasons] szinten is ugye vannak afrikai [redacted for anonymity reasons]-eink, tehát én nem is tudom, mennyi idő kellene ahhoz, hogy megszokjuk az ő kiejtésüket. Tehát… nem… Azt viszont észrevettem, hogy még ezek a hivatalos CD-k is egyre jobban betesznek akár ilyen magyar vagy, nem tudom, spanyol vagy…vagy érződik, hogy német… tehát, hogy nem… nem anyanyelvi kiejtéssel párbeszédben résztvevő szereplőket. Tehát, hogy már nem…nem… nemcsak a BBC angolját lehet ezeken a gyakorló feladatokon hallani.

R: Az..Az jó dolog, hogyha már ilyen szempontból van változás.

S: Szerintem van. Én nem vagyok ennek szakértője, de, na, tehát, hogy szerintem ebben így ők is elmozdultak.

R: És az még mindig elmondható, hogy a tankönyvi CD-nek azért nagy része inkább standard brit angol?

S: Persze, igen, igen, igen. Szerintem ez azért elmondható. Biztos, hogy mi is a vizsgakövetelmények kapcsán is valamihez kell, hogy igazodjunk, és azért alapvetően nekünk ez…ezek a vizsgák, amiket szeretnénk a diákokkal megugorni. Úgyhogy igen. Tehát ez…ez a dominancia, ez megvan.

R: Igen. Ez számomra azért is érdekes, mert sokszor [angol] nyelvvizsgán találkoznak először esetleg a diákok, nehezítésképpen, valamilyen japán turista [angol] beszédével – én jártam így nyelvvizsgán vagy versenyen –, és, hogy olyankor nem szeretném, hogy a diákok azt érezzék, hogy „kiszúrásképpen" van nekik ott az az anyag, hanem hogyha esetleg egy kicsit megismerkednek vele, akkor nem érzik büntetésnek azt, hogy olyankor veszik elő ezeket, amikor nehezíteni akarják a feladatokat. Mert akkor alapvetően elég negatív attitűdöket alakítanak ki, hogyha pont a nyelvvizsga azért nem sikerült, mert japán volt, aki beszélt [angolul a felvételen].

S: Hát igen, ehhez hozzá kell szokni, tehát, hogy az első…első reakció ne egy ilyen megrökönyödés legyen, hanem füleljek, amikor is bárkinek, igen, a kiejtésével találkozom.

R: És így mondtad, hogy számodra az volt a talán a pozitív hatása annak, hogy… hogy így bent voltál néhány órán, hogy más szemmel nézel ezekre a kiejtésekre, vagy úgy jobban elfogadod, hogy ilyen létezik és nem… nem zavaró annyira, hogy valaki másképp beszél. Szerinted a diákokra nézve milyen pozitív hatása lehetett a…az óráknak vagy annak, amit bevittem?

S: Hát nyilván a személyiséged az…az mindenképpen, a…akkor az, hogy megtapasztalták, hogy milyen jó szinten, milyen szépen beszélsz. Én nem tudom eldönteni a…a te beszédedről, hogy az menniyre neked így sajátod vagy ezt…ezt fejlesztetted – mármint így a British English felé –, nem…nem volt nyomasztó, az…azt mondom, tehát, hogy érthetően, jól, folyékonyan kommunikáltál, és akkor ez…ez mindig a legnagyobb példa szerintem nekik, hogy lehet így…lehet így, és akkor ez…ez így a… a… a cél. Nem tudom, hogy ők átérezték-e, hogy ezzel ez a célod, nyilván benne volt a kérdőívben, meg hát ez volt minden óra anyaga, de hogy mennyire tudatosult, tudatosították ők ezt, azt…azt nem tudom. Az majd kiderül most a végső kérdőívekből.

R: Igen. És te mit fejlesztenél ezeken az órákon, mi lehetett az, ami annyira nem volt jó benne, és, amit lehetne a jövőben jobbá tenni?

S: Nekem most azóta nem jutott eszembe semmi azon kívül, amit egyszer ajánlottam neked, ilyen komolyabb…

R: Hogy a [hallott szövegértés] kérdéseket előre tegyem fel [amikre a választ meg kell találni a diákoknak a videók meghallgatása során]?

S: Igen, hogy egy kicsit, igen, hogy segítsd meg őket azzal, hogy…hogy ne mindenre kelljen figyelni, hanem csak ezekre a célzott kérdéseidre. Nyilván van helye, amikor nem kell előre kérdezni, de, hogy amikor meg ilyen hosszabb, tehát ilyen extensive listening van, akkor azért elveszik, meg én is elveszem abban, hogy, hú, te most arra gondoltál, hogy ott hogy ejtette ki azt a szót, azt…azt…azt már nem tudom visszakeresni. És akkor egy kicsit ilyen fókuszált…fókuszálni velük. Esetleg őket is be lehet vonni, persze nekik most könnyű dolguk volt, nem volt házi feladat. Tehát az...az még egy jó kutatómunka, hogy ők…ők mit hoznának ebbe bele, mert ahhoz már elég nagyok. Tehát, hogy esetleg segít…szálljnak be ezzel, hogy ők saját, nem tudom, kedvenc valami stand-upost vagy valakit behoznak, akit tutifix, hogy meghallgatnak, vagy egy számot, amit szeretnek, és akkor „jé, akkor ez ki, lehet", hogy nem is tudja, de most azzal, hogy keresgél, meg saját maga így dolgozik vele, akkor lehet, hogy rájön, hogy, na hát ezt nem is gondolta volna, hogy ez nem a standard angol szerint [van], és mégis milyen jó és ők élvezik.

R: Ez nagyon jó ötlet, köszönöm szépen. Ezt…ezt kipróbálom, hogyha lesz még lehetőség ilyet csinálni. És ezzel kapcsolatban még azt szeretném kérdezni, hogy beszéltük, hogy elég indirekt módon, inkább ilyen „awareness" szintjén próbáltam bevinni [az anyagokat], és ez…ez…tényleg ez is volt a célom, hogy nem megmondani [a résztvevőknek], hogy mit kell gondolni a kiejtésekről, hanem, hogyha kicsit indirekt módon csak bemutatok dolgokat, az esetleg elég lehet-e anélkül, hogy megtanítanám, hogy milyen attitűdöket kell „hinni" vagy elfogadni. És, hogy szerinted ez a fajta megismerkedés a különböző kiejtésekkel, meg ez a látókörbővítés az elég lehet-e egy első lépésként afelé, hogy elfogadják a diákok ezeket a különböző kiejtéseket, vagy szerinted érdemes ennél direktebben kezdeni hozzá a tanításhoz?

S: Mert te úgy érzed, hogy nem…nem fogadják el ezeket a különböző kiejtéseket? Szerintem ott van egy gát, hogy ő elfogadja, hanem, hogy nem biztos, hogy saját magáról elhiszi, hogy megfelelő [a kiejtése]. Tehát, hogy azt…azt nem tudom, hogy lehet fejleszteni azon kívül, hogy próbálunk önbizalmat plántálni vagy csepegtetni beléjük. Tehát ezt…ezt érzékeltem, meg ezek

nagyon jók voltak, hogy ez a híres ember, meg ez, akit szeretsz, meg aki [inaudible] lett, hogy ezekkel találkozni, de hogy…hogy a…az ő…ő maguk [kiejtésével kapcsolatban] – [ha azt gondolják, hogy] „még én nem vagyok híres meg még nem tanultam annyit", hogy „ez már elfogadható-e" – tehát, hogy erre nem tudom, milyen feladatot lehet kitalálni. De, hogy a saját magam magyar kiejtésével, igen, hogyan boldogulnék, ezt…ezt, na, tehát erre nem tudok ötletet mondani. Mert szerintem azzal nincs probléma, hogy ők elfogadják ezeknek a különböző [embereknek a kiejtését], mivel, hogy ebben élnek, tehát pont azért már neten mindenfélét kapnak, sokféle akcentussal találkoznak. Igen, azért mondom, hogy inkább a kívülről jövőt elfogadják, de a magáét még nem biztos, hogy ettől jobban tolerálja vagy…vagy meri használni [a diák].

R: Igen, ez is lett volna az egyik kérdésem, hogy szerinted mennyire tudják átvinni egyéb kiejtések elfogadását a saját kiejtésük elfogadására?

S: Hát, ha rákérdeztél [a kérdőívben], akkor ezt fogod látni, mert ezt én nem kérdeztem meg tőlük. Nyilván, minél több helyzetbe belevisszük őket, azzal is, hogy most más kezébe kerültek ezen az órán, azzal, hogy csináltattál velük minden órán – nekem az nagyon tetszett – a végén egy ilyen [feladatot, hogy] akkor most… most legyen erről egy ilyen saját élményük, tehát tényleg beszélgessenek meg utána menjen vissza egy ilyen *sharing* vagy ilyen *report*, akkor…akkor ezt mindig kipróbálhatták. Tehát, hogy nem…nem az volt a cél, hogy most a vietnámi kiejtést gyakorolja, vagy nem tudom, akármit, hanem azt…azt, ahogyan ő tud beszélni. Akkor ez ilyen nagyon jó volt, ezek a szempontsorok vagy, amiket adtál nekik, frázisok, hogy azokat beépítve akkor azért neki is legyen egy kis produktuma az óra végén. Hát szerintem ez…ez...ezzel célt értél. Megmozgattad, nagyon intenzíven meg tudtad őket mozgatni szerintem.

R: Köszönöm. És még egy...egy utolsó kérdésem lenne, utána meg még, hogyha van valamiféle hozzáfűzni valód, azt szívesen fogadom. Hogy, amit így említettem, hogy sokszor esetleg nyelvvizsgán vagy versenyen találkoznak először ezekkel az ismeretlenebb kiejtésekkel mint a skót angol vagy a japán akcentussal beszélt angol, és akkor esetleg büntetésként fogják föl, hogy nekik nehezíteni akarják a feladatot, és azért van ott ez a fajta kiejtés… hogy esetleg, hogyha angolórákra jobban be lehetne vinni, vagy lenne idő esetleg egy picit ezzel foglalkozni, hogy sokféle kiejtéssel megismerkednek, és meg is értik…hogy elkezdenek arra fókuszálni, hogy, na, mit mondhatott, és elkezdik próbálni megérteni, akkor is, ha elsőre nagyon „furcsa" kiejtés és sose hallottak olyat… hogy az a tény, hogy megértik, akkor is, ha teljesen másképp

beszél, mint ők, vezethet-e egyféle nagyobb elfogadás felé, akár maguk akár a mások kiejtése szempontjából?

S: Hegyezni a fülüket? Hát, biztosan. Tehát szerintem az óriási sokkhatás, ha valaki soha nem találkozott – nem mondom, minden kiejtéssel, de hogy [olyan kiejtéssel, amely] legalább megnehezítette a dolgát – és ott először [találkozik vele], hát az szerintem teljes hidegzuhany. Tehát lehetne esetleg egy ilyen része a, nem tudom, öt év múlva kiadott Oxford angol nyelvkönyveknek, hogy ez egy ilyen…ilyen „barátkozzunk a kiejtésekkel" [rész], de hát nem tudom ez…ehhez meg nekik maguknak kellene ugye ennek teret adni. Tehát, ezt nem tudom, hogy bárhol van-e erre valamiféle próbálkozás. Azt látom, hogy például tanárok között már ilyen továbbképzések - ugye egyre több ilyen webinar – van, mióta online próbálkozások voltak vagy hát ilyen kényszerűség [COVID-19]. Most is délután visszahallgattam, amin tegnap nem tudtam részt venni, és ott egy…egy lengyel hölgy az Oxford [tankönyvkiadó] képviselő[je], és akkor ő tartja a magyar tanároknak a webináriumot. Tehát ő aztán erős akcentussal beszél. Tehát, hogy ezt a gyerekek felé, mondjuk tankönyvi szituációban, mennyire engedi meg az Oxford, azt még így nem látom, de szerintem azért haladunk e felé. Tehát muszáj… muszáj lesz nekik is e…ebbe az irányba nyitni…tehát, igen, kell… tehát nem… szerintem nem fair betenni a vizsgán, hogyha a kurzuskönyvekben nincs…nincs erre valamiféle rákészítés.

R: Hát, nagyon köszönöm. Van-e esetleg valamilyen hozzáfűzni valód, vagy valami, ami kimaradt esetleg, vagy valami, amit ezzel az időszakkal [a tanítási kísérlet] kapcsolatban szívesen elmondanál?

S: Hát, szerintem egy nagyon tartalmas és örömteli időszak volt ez, ahogy velük így…így dolgoztál, én köszönöm, hogy mindig elmondtad előre, hogy mi az, amivel te készülsz, hogy ez a terv, és, hát, nagyon büszke lehetsz magadra, mert igazából mindig szinte mindennel belefértél, amit így terveztél, ügyesen felépítve az órát. Úgyhogy…úgyhogy most nincsen [más hozzáfűzni valóm], de még, ha még egyszer végig gondolom, és valami eszembe jut, megígérem, hogy mondom vagy írom. Jó az úgy neked?

R: Nagyon köszönöm. Igen, nagyon jó.

S: Esetleg még olyan kérdésem van, hogy – ezt sose tetted föl kérdésnek – de, hogy lehet-e ebben még plusz olyan az akcentuson kívül, hogy annak a kultúrának az elfogadása vagy annak a kultúrának a, hogy mondjam, megismerése, mert azért mi magyarok elég zárt világ vagyunk. Lehet, hogy ezek a fiatalok már nem, meg a te korosztályod, de, hogy, nem tudom, tehát a kettőt akár még kombinálni is lehet.

R: Igen.

S: [Az a kérdésem,] hogy ez cél-e, vagy lehet-e esetleg egy következő ilyen, nem tudom, segédeszköz ahhoz, hogy a…akár a beszédkészségét is fejlessze ezzel [a diák], vagy közelebb kerüljön [hozzá] az a kultúra vagy, na, tehát ez oda-vissza hat szerintem.

R: Igen, az mindenképpen fontos, mert ugye a nyelvi attitűdök is nem kifejezetten a nyelven alapulnak, hanem a mindenféle kulturális sztereotípiákon, amiket hozunk magunkkal, és teljesen elképzelhető, hogy, amire reagál [a diák], az az embernek a kinézete vagy a kultúrája, amit hozzá kapcsol, és nem feltétlenül csak az, ahogy beszél.

S: Igen. Tehát nemcsak hallott, hanem igen, a látott [információ] is [számít], vagy esetleg a háttérismerete az egy…egy nagyobb fajta elfogadást, vagy egy, igen, tehát egy elfogadást eredményez. Azért én hálás vagyok [inaudible], hogy nem…nem feladat ez mondjuk egy nyelvvizsgán, hogy fel kell ismerni, hogy ez most milyen akcentus, mert szerintem az…az nagyon nehéz lenne. Tehát, hogy ez nem cél.

R: Nem, ez nekem…nekem sem célom.

S: Ez nem olyan, mint a zenei, nem tudom én, daraboknak a felismerése, hogy akkor most mondja meg, hogy ki a szerző vagy, nem tudom mi, tehát, hogy azért ennyire nem…nem kell profinak lenni benne.

R: Igen, az nekem sem volt célom, hogy a felismerésig eljussunk, hanem csak a megismerésig. Igen. Tényleg, az a tudatosítás, hogy létezik ilyen.

S: Megismerés. Igen, ez a tudatosítás. Igen, igen.

R: Kaptam visszajelzésben olyat, hogy „nem is tudtam, hogy az angolt ennyiféleképpen lehet beszélni”, és té… pont ez is volt talán a cél, hogy…hogy rácsodálkozzunk [a résztvevő diákokkal], hogy nem egyféle angol van.

S: Na, de jó! A cél, igen, tehát kicsit oldani azokat a kereteket, amit gondol másokról is meg magáról is, tehát, hogy a kettő együtt.

R: Hogy ne tegye magát bele egy „dobozba” [hogy ő nem anyanyelvi és ezért nem elég jó].

S: Igen, igen, amiből saját magának – vagy én magam tanárként – így mondom azért, így ettől feszelegtem jobban hosszú, hosszú éveken át. Na, igen, tehát ez…nem kell benne maradni ebben a „dobozban”.

R: Igen. Nagyon köszönöm.

S: Nagyon szívesen, Gyöngyi.

4B) English (translation)

Researcher (R): Thank you very much for taking part in this interview. You help my work greatly. My first question is how important is it for you, as an English teacher, to have a native-like accent in English?

Subject (S): Well, this is funny because I started learning English very late to begin with, and at that time I realized that I didn't have real "foundational" classes, and I needed to gather knowledge in a rush. As a Russian teacher who was retrained as an English teacher, I always felt that I lacked something, and that I would never have it [i.e., a native-like accent]. And that there is an undefeatable distance. On top of that, we, as English teachers, associate native-likeness with British English. And I learnt from American [redacted for anonymity reasons], too, on a course. I didn't even realize which is which. So, something like a mixture [of accents] is what I developed. So, I can't really be proud of it. It would be great [to have a native-like accent].

R: Has it ever caused negative feelings for you that you consider it an unreachable goal?

S: Of course, it has. It is difficult to grapple with that. And I think it caused a lot of linguistic inhibition. Have I caused it myself? No matter how much they said that it was good to be with me and that it was good that I had learnt English, considering that I hadn't spoken any English before, but still, even when standing in front of the students, I felt it [i.e. anxiety]. It loosened up a bit when the students started to bring their own various experiences from English language films [to class] and… they started to pick it [i.e. the accents they heard] up. So, in the first 15–20 years, it was harder for me. Now, in the last 8–10 years, it has become easier. So, I would say that two thirds were worse and now in this one third [i.e. the last third of my career as an English teacher], in which the children also tend to gravitate towards American English, I no longer beat myself up about it.

R: To what extent do you expect your students to follow the native model in terms of pronunciation?

S: Well, there is a minimum [requirement], so, for example, if it can be misinterpreted the way the student pronounces it, or they pronounce it in a very distorted way – not because they picked up a certain accent but because they don't know how to pronounce it –, then I make them correct their pronunciation. Especially if their fluency is not that great, or they don't have to speak fast, or they are not caught up in the flow [of the conversation], I will stop them, and I also correct their pronunciation when they are reading aloud.

R: Yes, I see.

S: Yes, but only in moderation. A bit like in the case of grammar [mistakes]. There is a time for correcting it, and there is a time when it is unnecessary to stop them when they can transmit their meaning.

R: Yes, yes. This leads us to our next question. For you, your students, or when teaching English, is intelligibility or native-likeness more important?

S: Well, intelligibility, without a doubt. But I am really happy when – although I am the teacher of 12 or 15 people, but everyone has their own pronunciation – there are students whose pronunciation resembles very much what we call "very beautiful" and "good", and [then I think that] they didn't learn it from me; they picked it up themselves. But I don't approach the topic directly, like... "you shouldn't pronounce it like this". When it comes to individual words, I will correct them, but when it comes to intonation… for example, I correct question tags when that's what we are focusing on, or if they pronounce something with a very salient Hungarian accent, or in a "choppy" way [I will correct that]. But beyond this I don't usually focus on it. Yes. We don't even have time for it. In fact, it is grammar, vocabulary and the four skills that we need to practice, especially if someone is preparing for a competition or a language exam, so I don't make a special effort to have them learn a native-like accent. But I am happy if someone comes [who has a native(-like) accent] and they [i.e. the students] have the opportunity to hear it, but they hear it anyway on the Internet, and in movies. So, it is no longer such a unique thing to hear a real, living person with a native accent.

R: And, among your students, or specifically in this [i.e. the experimental] group, have you ever experienced that they are afraid to speak English due to their accent?

S: There are always people like that in every group, because, in these cases, they don't even compare their accent to mine but rather to each others' [accent]. So, in this regard, I might be lucky for not having a really 'good' accent, because I don't think I pressure them. They might be afraid to speak in front of me, because I am the teacher, due to peer pressure, though. Among themselves, there are situations when they are afraid to speak because of their accent, but I have experienced that when they work in pairs – the [experimental] group, for example, has been able to work in pairs very well since the beginning; they don't evade working when in pairs –, students with any kind of accent can be paired with students with any kind of accent, and they don't find this weird, even the shy ones.

R: Yes, this is a good thing.

S: Yes, it is. So, in this group, somehow, this happens naturally and nicely, and they can help each other effectively. Therefore, I don't usually leave them in the same pairs for long, although, at this point, they have been in the same pairs for quite a long time. But it is true that it is good for them to hear each other in various pair and group exercises. Yes. I remember that it was difficult for them to stand in front of the whole group [and speak English] in ninth grade – when I started teaching the group in this form –, but their anxiety has lessened considerably, in my opinion. They were like "I can't speak" and "what is my accent like", so what bothered them was not only not knowing the words, but also what the others would say if they pronounced something a certain [i.e., "wrong"] way.

R: Yes.

S: Yeah. But this is disappearing. I think they are loosening up.

R: That's good…I also noticed, by the way, that they are becoming braver and are willing to stand in front of the group [and speak] and communicate with each other. Perhaps, during the experimental classes that you attended, did you feel that your relationship with or views about non-native accents changed?

S: Mine? Personally?

R: Yes, yours.

S: Well, I couldn't imagine what you would do with them [i.e. the students] in the [experimental] classes besides showing various accents. I kind of thought that you might teach them to recognize that we pronounce this *this* way and that *that* way, "let's repeat it", I don't know. Yes, you asked a few questions about whether they noticed the differences, but you didn't forcefully emphasize it. You only mentioned it on the level of awareness raising, to develop this recognition in them. But it is like when there is a noise when we are working, and, OK, there is the noise, but after a while we don't concentrate on it, but continue working. So, it doesn't bother us or prevent us from communicating. I think this changed, too.

R: And..and…

S: So, this is my connection [with the topic]. Yes. This was…I think it [i.e. the teaching experiment] brought some color [to the classes]. This [type of teaching or materials] could be included, if someone likes to work with it, in a phase of the students' language learning. Perhaps

it isn't worthwhile to start too early, but it is good as a curiosity. With the help of the materials you brought, you stimulated them, and this was a great benefit for them – for example, the lyrics or the famous people… So, they needed to strive to keep up; it wasn't easy to answer the questions, but, in a hidden way, I think you involved them in the tasks nicely. So, it was like a fitness test for them, an English fitness test.

R: Thank you. And do you like to bring non-standard native or non-native audio samples to class?

S: Yes, to a certain extent. I'm not sure if it is the lens through which I approach the material. So, I would probably not choose materials based on the accent, but rather based on how much they would enjoy it, how useful it is, and how fitting it is to what we are learning. And if it is very difficult to understand, I don't think I would bring it to class, because it could cause a sense of failure. So, I weigh things like these beforehand. Personally, I have a problem with [understanding the pronunciation of] African [speakers], for example on the [redacted for anonymity reasons] level, we have [redacted for anonymity reasons]s, and I don't know how much time it would take to get used to their accent. So…no…But I have noticed that the official CDs are increasingly including, for example, Hungarian or Spanish, or audibly German [speakers], that is, participants in a dialogue who are non-native speakers, which means that it is not only BBC English that you can hear in these practice exercises.

R: That…That is a good thing if there is a change in this respect.

S: I think there is. I am not an expert in this. but they seem to have moved in that direction.

R: And is it still true that the larger part of a course book CD is recorded in standard British English?

S: Of course, yes, yes, yes. I think this is still true. Sure, we, too, have to adhere to the requirements of the exams, as, first and foremost these are what we need to help the students pass. So, yes. This dominance is still there.

R: Yes. This is interesting for me, as students often encounter, for example, the [English] speech of a Japanese tourist for the first time at a language exam, as a way to make the tasks more difficult for them – I have experienced this at language exam or competition –, and I don't want students to feel that these accents are there to "torment and annoy" them. Rather, if they are perhaps a bit familiar with them, then they don't consider it a punishment if these accents are included when they want to make the tasks more difficult. Because if they fail their language

exam due to the speaker's being a Japanese [speaker of English], it will inherently develop negative attitudes in them [towards these non-native accents].

S: Well, yes, one needs to get used to them in order to make sure that the first reaction is not panic but trying to listen eagerly, no matter whose accent we encounter.

R: And you said that attending some of the [experimental] classes might have had a positive impact on you – that you have a different approach to these accents now or accept more that they exist and it does not bother you that much when someone speaks a different way. When it comes to the students, what positive impact could the [experimental] classes have, do you think?

S: Well, obviously, your personality, definitely, [had a positive impact], and that they experienced your level of English and how well you speak. I can't decide about your accent how naturally it comes to you or whether you have worked on it to approximate British English. No, it wasn't too much, I would say that you communicated intelligibly and fluently, and this is always the best example for them – that this is possible and this is the goal. I don't know whether they realized what your goal was, of course it was in the questionnaires and it was the focus of all the classes, but I don't know how conscious they were [of your goal]. We'll see the results of the questionnaires.

R: Yes. And what would you improve, or what was not that good about the [experimental] classes that could be made better in the future?

S: Nothing else has come to mind since what I advised to you, nothing serious…

R: [Do you mean] that I should ask the [listening comprehension] questions [that I want the students to answer based on the videos] in advance?

S: Yes, [what I meant was] that you should help them a little with that, so they don't have to pay attention to everything, only these specific issues. Of course, there is a place for not asking in advance, but when there is a longer, extensive listening task, it is easy to get lost – I also get lost – in what you might want me to remember, how that particular word was pronounced, I can't search for that [in my memory]. So, [what I mean is] focusing their attention a bit. They could also be involved – of course it was easy for them now with no homework. So, it would make for some good individual research to see what they would bring [to class]. They are old enough for that, that is, to ask them to take an [active] part in it and bring [videos of] their favorite, for example, stand-up comedians or someone who they will definitely listen to, or a song they love, and then they can be like "Oh, who might that be?". They might not have known,

but now, by searching for it, they can realize that [this person] does not speak standard English and [what they say] is still good and enjoyable.

R: This is a great idea, thank you very much. I'll try it if I ever have the chance to do something like this again. In connection with this I want to ask, as we have mentioned that I tried to use a rather indirect method [for the teaching experiment], and I wanted to introduce the materials on the level of awareness raising, and it was really my goal not to tell [the participants] what to think about these accents, but to see if I introduce [different accents] in an indirect way, it can be enough without teaching them what attitudes to "believe" or accept. Do you think that this sort of introduction to various accents, this perspective shift can be a first step towards students' acceptance of these different accents, or do you think that a more direct method is necessary?

S: Do you think they don't accept these various accents? I think that there is a mental block, meaning that they accept them but they don't necessarily think that their own accent is acceptable. So, I don't know how this could be improved, other than trying to instill self-confidence in them. So, this is what I felt. These things were very good, [such as] the famous person, and who they love [inaudible] – encountering these [accents]. But in connection with their [own accent] – [what if they think that] "I am not yet famous and I haven't studied that much." and "Is it acceptable still?"... So, I don't know what types of exercises could be devised for this. I don't have ideas for how I could better deal with [the fact that I have] a Hungarian accent, for I don't think there is a problem with accepting these [people's] accents, as this is the world they live in exactly because they have access to all kinds [of accents] online. Yes, that's why I am saying that they would rather accept what comes from the outside [i.e., other people's accents], but this might not mean that they also tolerate or are willing to use their own accent.

R: Yes, this would be one of my questions, too. How well do you think they can transfer their acceptance of other accents to the acceptance of their own?

S: If you asked this [in the questionnaires], you will see [the answer], for I didn't ask them that. Of course, the more situations we involve them in [the better]. [An example of such a new situation] was that they were taught by a different teacher during the [experimental] classes, and you did all kinds of things with them, which I really liked, [such as the fact] that there was [a task] at the end [of each session] designed to give them an own experience [of L2 use], and to have them really talk and include a sharing or "reporting" phase – then they were always able to try [using the language orally]. [What I mean is that] the goal was not to have them practice a Vietnamese English accent, or, I don't know, whichever [accent], but [to practice English]

the way they can speak it. Then, the prompts and phrases you gave them were also very good, which allowed them to produce [their L2], using the [handouts] as help. I think you reached your goal with that. You were able to energize, to intensively energize them, in my opinion.

R: Thank you. I have one last question, and after that, if you have something to add, I would love to hear that. So, what I have already mentioned is that it can often happen that students encounter these lesser-known accents, such as Scottish English or Japanese-accented English, at a language exam or competition for the first time, and then they might consider including these accents as a punishment designed to make the tasks more difficult for them. So, perhaps, if there were opportunities to bring these accents to class and there were time to engage with them, students could become familiar with lots of different accents and be able to understand them, as well; and start to focus on the content and try to understand it, even if the accent sounds very "odd" at first, for they have never heard anything like it before. Do you think that the fact that they understand it even if the speaker has a completely different accent from their own can lead to more acceptance towards their own or others' accents?

S: To listen eagerly? Well, certainly. I think it is a huge shock if someone has never encountered – I wouldn't say all the accents, but – at least one that made it difficult [for them to understand] what was being said, and they encounter it for the first time there, it is really a bolt from the blue. So, there could perhaps be a part like this in the Oxford English course books published – I don't know – five years from now, a "let's get to know different accents" [section], but I don't know. For this to happen, they need to give some scope to it. But I don't know if such efforts exist anywhere. I can see, for example, that among teachers, there are trainings – of course, there have been more and more webinars since online teaching started, or there was this necessity [for online teaching due to COVID-19]. This afternoon, too, I listened to [the webinar] that I wasn't able to attend yesterday, and the representative of Oxford [University Press] is a Polish lady there, and she is in charge of the webinars for Hungarian teachers [of English]. She speaks with a strong accent. However, I don't yet see how much Oxford [University Press] allows this in a course book for children, but I think we are moving in that direction. It is a must for them, too, to open up in this direction… so, yes, it is necessary… so, no…I don't think it's fair to include [lesser-known accents] in exam tasks if they are not there in the course books, and there is no preparation for them.

R: Well, thank you very much. Do you perhaps have anything to add, or anything that you think we missed or anything that you would like say about the period [of the teaching experiment]?

S: Well, I think it was a very information-packed and happy time when you worked with the students, and thank you for always letting me know in advance what you had prepared, what the plan was. And you can be proud of yourself because you were able to finish almost everything you planned for each day, having skillfully built up the classes. So, I don't have [anything else to add], but I will think about it again, and if something comes to mind, I promise I will tell you or write [an e-mail]. Would that be all right for you?

R: Thank you very much. Yes, that would be very nice.

S: I might have a question – you have never asked this, but –, is it possible that besides accent-related issues, the acceptance of the culture, or how should I put it, getting to know [the culture] also matters, because we Hungarians live in quite an "isolated" world. This might no longer be true for these youngsters or your generation, but, I don't know, the two [topics] could even be combined.

R: Yes.

S: My question is whether this is a goal [of yours] or whether it could be the next, I don't know, tool to improve their speaking skills [researcher's note: more likely willingness to communicate was meant here] or help them feel closer to the culture, or, you know, I think these things have a mutual effect.

R: Yes, this is definitely important, as language attitudes aren't really based on language [use], but rather on the various cultural stereotypes that we are brought up with, and it is entirely possible that what [the students] react to are the speakers' looks or culture, and not necessarily only the way they speak.

S: Yes. So, not only the audible, but also the visible [information counts] or their background knowledge…this can result in a greater acceptance…or, yes, so an acceptance…I am grateful [inaudible] that it is not a requirement, for example, at a language exam, to recognize which accent is which, because that…that would be very difficult. All that to say, [I am grateful] that this is not a goal.

R: No, it is not my….my goal either.

S: This is not like in music, I don't know, when you have to recognize pieces, and tell who the composer is, or what not… so it's not to this extent, it isn't necessary to be so proficient at it.

R: Yes, it wasn't my goal either to achieve recognition, rather [I wanted to achieve] familiarity with the accents [among the students]. Yes. Really, just to raise awareness that they exist.

S: Familiarity. Yes, this awareness… Yes, yes.

R: I received feedback [from the students] saying "I didn't even know that English could be spoken in this many ways", and exactly this was the goal, I would say; that is, to make [the participating students] marvel at the fact that there is no unified English language.

S: How good is that! The goal, yes, was to loosen up those inhibitions that they have when they think about others' or their own [non-native accent], so the two things together [were important].

R: Not to put themselves in a box [that is labeled "non-native, therefore not good"].

S: Yes, yes, from which they themselves, or I, as a teacher [can't get out]. I would say I had anxiety and inhibitions for long, long years. Right, so this [is what is important] – you don't have to stay in that box.

R: Yes. Thank you very much.

S: You are welcome, Gyöngyi.

Appendix 5 – Online questionnaire

The online questionnaire in Hungarian (original) and English (translation)

For ease of reference, only the list of questions is provided (in both Hungarian and English) in the Appendix, with titles for the sections. These titles were not included in the respondents' version of the questionnaire. Please see the studies and questionnaires which were used as a basis for the compilation of the classroom questionnaire, based on which the online questionnaire was created, in the Methodology section. The underlined questions in the 'Attitudes and motivation" section were added to the statistically shortened classroom questionnaire to avoid negatively biased responses.

Students needed to mark their answers on 5-point Likert scales, where
1 = *egyáltalán nem gondolom így* "I do not agree at all"
2 = *inkább nem így gondolom* "I mostly do not agree"
3 = *egyet is értek meg nem is* "I somewhat agree, somewhat disagree"
4 = *nagyjából így gondolom* "I mostly agree"
5 = *teljes mértékben így gondolom* "I completely agree"

For Part 2 of the 'willingness to communicate' section, the meanings of the five points on the Likert scales were slightly different, as student had to mark how likely it was that they would behave in certain situations the described way.
1= *egyáltalán nem* "not at all"
2 = *inkább nem* "rather not"
3 = *lehet* "maybe"
4 = *valószínűleg* "probably"
5 = *biztosan* "certainly"

5A) Students' version – Hungarian (original)

Attitudes and motivation:

1. Elégedett vagyok az angol kiejtésemmel.
2. Félek megszólalni angolul a magyaros kiejtésem miatt.
3. Zavar a saját magyar akcentusom.
4. Könnyű nyelvnek tartom az angolt.
5. Zavar, ha mások magyar akcentussal beszélnek angolul.
6. Anyanyelvi kiejtés nélkül is lehet valakinek magas szintű nyelvtudása.

7. Megkritizálom azokat, akik erős magyar akcentussal beszélik az angolt.
8. Nem szeretem, ha mások hallják az angol kiejtésemet, ezért inkább nem beszélek angolul.
9. Nem zavar, ha az angol kiejtésemből rájönnek, hogy magyar vagyok.
10. Nehéz nyelvnek tartom az angolt.
11. A kiejtésem miatt sosem féltem angolul megszólalni.
12. Szégyellem, ha az angol kiejtésemből rájönnek, hogy nem vagyok anyanyelvi beszélő.
13. Ha jobban hasonlítana az angol kiejtésem az anyanyelvihez, bátrabban megszólalnék.
14. Sosem kritizálták még az angol kiejtésemet.
15. Ha nem anyanyelvi a kiejtésem, akkor nem beszélek jól angolul.
16. Egyáltalán nem zavar a saját magyar akcentusom.
17. Nem szoktam kritizálni azokat, akik erős magyar akcentussal beszélik az angolt.
18. Kaptam már negatív kritikát az angol kiejtésemmel kapcsolatban.
19. Egyáltalán nem zavar, ha mások magyar akcentussal beszélnek angolul.

Perfectionism:

20. Jellemző rám, hogy jól szervezett és rendezett vagyok.
21. Felzaklat, ha hibázom.
22. Számomra nagyon fontos, hogy mindig ötöst kapjak.
23. Magasabb elvárásaim vannak önmagammal szemben, mint a legtöbb embernek.
24. Ha valaki az osztályban jobban csinál meg egy feladatot, mint én, úgy érzem, sikertelen vagyok.
25. Csak a kimagasló eredmény számít elég jónak.
26. Nagyon jó vagyok abban, hogy egy cél érdekében erőfeszítéseket tegyek.
27. Még ha nagyon odafigyelve végzek is el egy feladatot, gyakran úgy érzem, hogy nem tökéletes az eredmény.
28. Utálom, ha nem én vagyok a legjobb valamiben.
29. Nagyon magas elvárásaim vannak önmagammal szemben.
30. Ha nem teljesítek jól mindig, akkor az emberek nem fognak tisztelni.
31. Mivel alapos és precíz vagyok, ritkán adok ki hibás munkát a kezemből.
32. Gyakran kételkedem abban, hogy az egyszerű hétköznapi feladataimat jól végzem-e.
33. Minél kevesebbet hibázom, annál többen fognak szeretni engem.
34. Mindig a lehető legjobb eredményre törekszem, és teszek is azért, hogy ezt elérjem.

Willingness to Communicate Part 1:

35. Hajlandó vagyok angolul beszélni órán akkor is, ha gyakran hibázom.
36. Hajlandó vagyok angolul beszélni órán, akkor is, ha tudom, hogy van a csoportban olyan, aki jobban beszél nálam angolul.
37. Szívesen adok elő vagy beszélek mások előtt angolul.
38. Akkor is hajlandó vagyok angolul beszélni órán, ha a hibáimra gyakran felhívja a figyelmet a tanárom.
39. Szívesen beszélek páros vagy csoportmunkában angolul.

40. Sokszor jelentkezem angolórán, hogy én mondjam meg a választ.
41. Szeretek angolul beszélni.
42. Bátran megszólalok angolul.

Willingness to communicate Part 2:

43. Ha egy külföldivel találkozom az utcán, megijedek, ha segítséget kér tőlem angolul.
44. Ha egy külföldivel találkozom a boltban, aki láthatóan nem talál valamit, magamtól odamegyek, és angolul megkérdezem, hogy miben segíthetek.
45. Egy angol anyanyelvű diák érkezik az iskolába, aki nem beszél egyáltalán magyarul, és valakinek körbe kell vezetnie. Bártan jelentkezem a feladatra.
46. Amerikai tanár érkezik előadást tartani az iskolába. Kérdéseket lehet feltenni neki. Szeretnék kérdezni, de félek, hogy rossz a kiejtésem, ezért inkább csöndben maradok.
47. Megkérnek, hogy egy, az iskolánkat népszerűsítő videóban olvassak fel egy rövid beszédet angolul. Először örülök a felkérésnek, de nem akarom, hogy az egész iskola meghallja az angol kiejtésemet, ezért inkább nem vállalom el.

Text:

> Az angol nyelvnek számtalan anyanyelvi nyelvváltozata van (pl. brit, amerikai, ausztrál, új-zélandi, kanadai, ír, skót, stb.) és az anyanyelvi nyelvváltozatokon belül is számtalan nemstandard dialektust is találunk. Például ilyen a Londonban és környékén beszélt Cockney dialektus, a Liverpool környékén beszélt Scouse dialektus vagy az USA-ban az afroamerikai lakosság kb. 60%-a által beszélt African American Vernacular English. Ezek nemstandard változatok, hangzásukban és nyelvtani szerkezeteikben nagyban eltérnek a tankönyvi hanganyagok segítségével megismert változatoktól, de beszélőiknek anyanyelve az angol, és nyelvhasználatuk tökéletesen alkalmas a hatékony kommunikációra. A világon pedig szinte minden országban (kisebb vagy nagyobb mértékben) sokaknak a mindennapi élet része az angol nyelv használata. Indiában vagy Nigériában az üzleti élet és az oktatás fontos nyelve az angol, de hazánkban és a környező országokban is egyre nagyobb szerepe van a nyelvnek. Természetesen a nem anyanyelvi változatok is sokfélék, nem egyetlen standard formát követnek. Ennek ellenére minden nyelvváltozat alkalmas lehet a hatékony kommunikációra, és a beszélő szükségleteinek megfelelő használatra. A kiejtések sokfélék, de ha megértik a beszélők egymást, akkor eredményesen használták a nyelvet.

Repeated questions:

48. Zavar a saját magyar akcentusom.

49. Zavar, ha mások magyar akcentussal beszélnek angolul.

50. Megkritizálom azokat, akik erős magyar akcentussal beszélik az angolt.
51. Ha nem anyanyelvi a kiejtésem, akkor nem beszélek jól angolul.
52. Szégyellem, ha az angol kiejtésemből rájönnek, hogy nem vagyok anyanyelvi beszélő.

Text-related reflection:

53. Hasznosnak találom a szöveg tartalmát.
54. A szövegben volt új információ.
55. Pozitív megerősítés egy nyelvtanulónak ilyenről tanulni.
56. Lehetségesnek tartom, hogy bátrabban megszólalnék angolul, ha sokféle angol kiejtéssel megismerkednék.
57. Az angol nyelv sokszínűbb, mint gondoltam.

5B) Students' version – English (translation)

Attitudes and motivation:

1. I am satisfied with my accent in English.
2. I am scared to speak English because of my Hungarian accent.
3. My own Hungarian accent bothers me.
4. I consider English to be an easy language [to learn].
5. If others speak English with a Hungarian accent, it bothers me.
6. One can have high proficiency in English without a native-like accent.
7. I criticize those who have a strong Hungarian accent in English.
8. I don't like when others hear my accent in English, so I rather do not speak English in front of others.
9. It does not bother me if people realize, based on my accent in English, that I am Hungarian.
10. I think English is a difficult language.
11. I have never been scared to speak English because of my accent.
12. I feel ashamed if people notice, based on my accent, that I am not a native speaker of English.
13. If my accent were more similar to the 'native speaker accent', I would be more willing to speak English.
14. My accent in English has never been criticized.
15. If my accent is not native-like, I do not speak English well.
16. My own Hungarian accent doesn't bother me at all.

17. I don’t criticize those who have a strong Hungarian accent in English.
18. I have been negatively criticized for my accent in English.
19. It doesn’t bother me at all when others speak English with a Hungarian accent.

Perfectionism:

20. I am an organized person.
21. I am upset if I make a mistake.
22. Getting a 5 [the best grade in Hungary] all the time is very important to me.
23. I set higher expectations towards myself than most people.
24. If someone does a task in class better than I do, then I feel like a failure.
25. Only outstanding performance is good enough.
26. I am very good at focusing my efforts on attaining a goal.
27. Even when I do a task very carefully, I often feel that the result is not perfect.
28. I hate being less than the best at things.
29. I have extremely high expectations towards myself.
30. If I do not do well all the time, people will not respect me.
31. As I am thorough and precise, my finished tasks rarely contain mistakes.
32. I usually have doubts about the simple everyday things that I do.
33. The fewer mistakes I make; the more people will like me.
34. I always strive for the best possible result, and I make an effort to reach this goal.

Willingness to communicate Part 1:

35. I am willing to speak English even if I often make mistakes.
36. I am willing to speak English in class even if I know that there are students in my English group who are better than me at speaking English.
37. I am willing to give a presentation or speak in front of others in English.
38. I am willing to speak English in class even if my teacher points out my mistakes frequently.
39. I am willing to talk in group- or pair-work English language learning activities.
40. I often volunteer in English class to give the answer [to the teacher’s questions].
41. I love speaking English.
42. I am not scared to speak English.

Willingness to communicate Part 2:

43. If I meet a foreigner on the street, I get scared if they ask for help in English.
44. If I meet a foreigner in a shop and they visibly cannot find something, I take the initiative and go up to them and ask them in English if I can help.
45. A native English-speaking student arrives at our school, who does not speak Hungarian at all. Someone needs to show them around. I confidently volunteer to do so.
46. An American teacher arrives at our school to give a lecture. We can ask questions. I would like to ask a question but I am scared that my pronunciation is bad, so I stay silent.
47. I am asked to read a short speech in a video promoting our school in English. At first I am happy about the request, but I don't want the whole school to hear my English pronunciation so I rather turn it down.

Text:

> The English language has several native varieties (e.g., British, American, Australian, New Zealand, Canadian, Irish, Scottish, etc.) and within these native varieties we can find lots of non-standard dialects. We can think of Cockney, which is spoken in and near London, Scouse spoken in Liverpool, or African American Vernacular English spoken by approximately 60% of the African American population in the United States. These are non-standard varieties of English, and differ from the varieties typically encountered by students in a classroom setting, but the speakers of these varieties are native speakers of English and their language use is appropriate for effective communication. In the world, in virtually every country, to differing extents, English is a part of everyday life for lots of people. In India and Nigeria, for example, English is an important language in business and education, and, even in Hungary and other, neighboring countries, the importance of English is steadily growing. Naturally, non-native varieties are also various and do not follow one standard form. However, every variety can be used effectively for communication and to fulfill the needs of the speakers. Accents are different, but, if speakers understand each other, they have used the language efficiently.

Repeated questions:

48. My own Hungarian accent bothers me.
49. If others speak English with a Hungarian accent, it bothers me.
50. I criticize those who have a strong Hungarian accent in English.
51. If my accent is not native-like, I do not speak English well.
52. I feel ashamed if people notice, based on my accent, that I am not a native speaker of English.

Text-related reflection:

53. I find the content of the text useful.
54. There was new information in the text.
55. It is positive reinforcement for a language learner to learn such things.
56. I find it possible that I would be more willing to communicate orally in English if lots of varieties of English were introduced to me.
57. The English language is more diverse than I thought.

5C) Teachers' version – Hungarian (original)

Attitudes and motivation:

1. Elégedett vagyok az angol kiejtésemmel.
2. Félek megszólalni angolul a magyaros kiejtésem miatt.
3. Zavar a saját magyar akcentusom.
4. Könnyű nyelvnek tartom az angolt.
5. Zavar, ha mások magyar akcentussal beszélnek angolul.
6. Anyanyelvi kiejtés nélkül is lehet valakinek magas szintű nyelvtudása.
7. Megkritizálom azokat, akik erős magyar akcentussal beszélik az angolt.
8. Nem szeretem, ha mások hallják az angol kiejtésemet, ezért nem szívesen beszélek angolul.
9. Nem zavar, ha az angol kiejtésemből rájönnek, hogy magyar vagyok.
10. Nehéz nyelvnek tartom az angolt.
11. A kiejtésem miatt sosem féltem angolul megszólalni.
12. Szégyellem, ha az angol kiejtésemből rájönnek, hogy nem vagyok anyanyelvi beszélő.
13. Ha jobban hasonlítana az angol kiejtésem az anyanyelvihez, bátrabban megszólalnék.
14. Sosem kritizálták még az angol kiejtésemet.

15. Ha nem anyanyelvi a kiejtésem, akkor nem beszélek jól angolul.
16. Egyáltalán nem zavar a saját magyar akcentusom.
17. Nem szoktam kritizálni azokat, akik erős magyar akcentussal beszélik az angolt.
18. Kaptam már negatív kritikát az angol kiejtésemmel kapcsolatban.
19. Egyáltalán nem zavar, ha mások magyar akcentussal beszélnek angolul.

Perfectionism:

20. Jellemző rám, hogy jól szervezett és rendezett vagyok.
21. Felzaklat, ha hibázom.
22. Számomra nagyon fontos, hogy mindig tökéletesen teljesítsek.
23. Magasabb elvárásaim vannak önmagammal szemben, mint a legtöbb embernek.
24. Ha valaki a munkahelyemen jobban csinál meg egy feladatot, mint én, úgy érzem, sikertelen vagyok.
25. Csak a kimagasló eredmény számít elég jónak.
26. Nagyon jó vagyok abban, hogy egy cél érdekében erőfeszítéseket tegyek.
27. Még ha nagyon odafigyelve végzek is el egy feladatot, gyakran úgy érzem, hogy nem tökéletes az eredmény.
28. Utálom, ha nem én vagyok a legjobb valamiben.
29. Nagyon magas elvárásaim vannak önmagammal szemben.
30. Ha nem teljesítek jól mindig, akkor az emberek nem fognak tisztelni.
31. Mivel alapos és precíz vagyok, ritkán adok ki hibás munkát a kezemből.
32. Gyakran kételkedem abban, hogy az egyszerű hétköznapi feladataimat jól végzem-e.
33. Minél kevesebbet hibázom, annál többen fognak szeretni engem.
34. Mindig a lehető legjobb eredményre törekszem, és teszek is azért, hogy ezt elérjem.

Willingness to communicate Part 1

35. Hajlandó vagyok angolul beszélni akkor is, ha néha hibázom.
36. Hajlandó vagyok angolul beszélni mások előtt akkor is, ha tudom, hogy van a társaságban olyan, aki jobban beszél nálam angolul.
37. Szívesen adok elő vagy beszélek mások előtt angolul.
38. Akkor is bátran folytatom a beszédet angolul, ha észreveszem, hogy hibáztam.
39. Szívesen beszélek a diákjaim előtt angolul.

40. Bátran vállalok el olyan (akár kötelezőn kívüli) feladatokat, ahol az angol nyelvet szóban kell használni.
41. Szeretek angolul beszélni.
42. Bátran megszólalok angolul.

Willingness to communicate Part 2:

43. Ha egy külföldivel találkozom az utcán, megilletődöm, ha segítséget kér tőlem angolul.
44. Ha egy külföldivel találkozom a boltban, aki láthatóan nem talál valamit, magamtól odamegyek, és angolul megkérdezem, hogy miben segíthetek.
45. Egy angol anyanyelvű diák érkezik az iskolába, aki nem beszél egyáltalán magyarul, és valakinek körbe kell vezetnie. Bártan jelentkezem a feladatra.
46. Amerikai előadó érkezik az iskolába. Kérdéseket lehet feltenni neki. Szeretnék kérdezni, de nem akarom, hogy meghallja a kiejtésem, ezért inkább csöndben maradok.
47. Megkérnek, hogy egy, az iskolánkat népszerűsítő videóban mondjak el egy beszédet angolul. Zavarba jövök, mert így az egész iskola és még kívülállók is hallani fogják a kiejtésemet.

Text:

> Az angol nyelvnek számtalan anyanyelvi nyelvváltozata van (pl. brit, amerikai, ausztrál, új-zélandi, kanadai, ír, skót, stb.) és az anyanyelvi nyelvváltozatokon belül is számtalan nemstandard dialektust találunk. Gondolhatunk a Londonban és környékén beszélt Cockney dialektusra, a Liverpool környékén beszélt Scouse dialektusra vagy az USA-ban az afroamerikai lakosság kb. 60%-a által beszélt African American Vernacular Englishre. Ezek nemstandard változatok, hangzásukban és nyelvtani szerkezeteikben nagyban eltérnek a tankönyvi hanganyagok segítségével megismert változatoktól, de beszélőiknek anyanyelve az angol, és nyelvhasználatuk alkalmas a hatékony kommunikációra. A világon pedig szinte minden országban (kisebb vagy nagyobb mértékben) sokaknak a mindennapi élet része az angol nyelv használata. Indiában vagy Nigériában az üzleti élet és az oktatás fontos nyelve az angol, de hazánkban és a környező országokban is egyre nagyobb szerepe van a nyelvnek. Természetesen a nem anyanyelvi

változatok is sokfélék, nem egyetlen standard formát követnek. Ennek ellenére minden nyelvváltozat alkalmas lehet a hatékony kommunikációra, és a beszélő szükségleteinek megfelelő használatra. A kiejtések sokfélék, de ha megértik a beszélők egymás gondolatait, akkor eredményesen használták a nyelvet.

Repeated questions:

48. Zavar a saját magyar akcentusom.
49. Zavar, ha mások magyar akcentussal beszélnek angolul.
50. Megkritizálom azokat, akik erős magyar akcentussal beszélik az angolt.
51. Ha nem anyanyelvi a kiejtésem, akkor nem beszélek jól angolul.
52. Szégyellem, ha az angol kiejtésemből rájönnek, hogy nem vagyok anyanyelvi beszélő.

Text-related reflection:

53. Hasznosnak találom a szöveg tartalmát.
54. A szövegben volt új információ.
55. Pozitív megerősítés egy nyelvtanulónak ilyenről tanulni.
56. Lehetségesnek tartom, hogy a diákjaim bátrabban megszólalnának angolul, ha sokféle angol kiejtéssel megismerkednének.
57. Az angol nyelv sokszínűbb, mint gondoltam.

5D) Teachers' version – English (translation)

Attitudes and motivation:

1. I am satisfied with my accent in English.
2. I am scared to speak English because of my Hungarian accent.
3. My own Hungarian accent bothers me.
4. I consider English to be an easy language [to learn].
5. If others speak English with a Hungarian accent, it bothers me.
6. One can have high proficiency in English without a native-like accent.
7. I criticize those who have a strong Hungarian accent in English.
8. I don't like when others hear my accent in English, so I do not like speaking English in front of others.

9. It does not bother me if people realize, based on my accent in English, that I am Hungarian.
10. I think English is a difficult language.
11. I have never been scared to speak English because of my accent.
12. I feel ashamed if people notice, based on my accent, that I am not a native speaker of English.
13. If my accent were more similar to the "native speaker accent", I would be more willing to speak English.
14. My accent in English has never been criticized.
15. If my accent is not native-like, I do not speak English well.
16. My own Hungarian accent doesn't bother me at all.
17. I don't criticize those who have a strong Hungarian accent in English.
18. I have been negatively criticized for my accent in English.
19. It doesn't bother me at all when others speak English with a Hungarian accent.

Perfectionism:

20. I am an organized person.
21. I am upset if I make a mistake.
22. It is very important to me to always achieve perfect results.
23. I set higher expectations towards myself than most people.
24. If someone does a task at my workplace better than I do, then I feel like a failure.
25. Only outstanding performance is good enough.
26. I am very good at focusing my efforts on attaining a goal.
27. Even when I do a task very carefully, I often feel that the result is not perfect.
28. I hate being less than the best at things.
29. I have extremely high expectations towards myself.
30. If I do not do well all the time, people will not respect me.
31. As I am thorough and precise, my finished tasks rarely contain mistakes.
32. I usually have doubts about the simple everyday things that I do.
33. The fewer mistakes I make; the more people will like me.
34. I always strive for the best possible result, and I make an effort to reach this goal.

Willingness to communicate Part 1:

35. I am willing to speak English even if I sometimes make mistakes.

36. I am willing to speak English even if I know that there are people in my company who are better than me at speaking English.
37. I am willing to give a presentation or speak in front of others in English.
38. I am willing to continue speaking in English even after noticing that I have made a mistake.
39. I like speaking English in front of my students.
40. I confidently volunteer to do tasks (even extracurricular ones) which require the oral use of English.
41. I love speaking English.
42. I am not scared to speak English.

Willingness to communicate Part 2:

43. If I meet a foreigner on the street, I get self-conscious if they ask for help in English.
44. If I meet a foreigner in a shop and they visibly cannot find something, I take the initiative and go up to them and ask them in English if I can help.
45. A native English-speaking student arrives at our school, who does not speak Hungarian at all. Someone needs to show them around. I confidently volunteer to do so.
46. An American lecturer arrives at our school. We can ask questions. I would like to ask a question, but I don't want them to hear my pronunciation, so I stay silent.
47. I am asked to give a short speech in a video promoting our school in English. I feel self-conscious, because, this way, the whole school and even outsiders will hear my accent.

Text:

> The English language has several native varieties (e.g., British, American, Australian, New Zealand, Canadian, Irish, Scottish, etc.) and within these native varieties we can find lots of non-standard dialects. We can think of Cockney, which is spoken in and near London, Scouse spoken in Liverpool, or African American Vernacular English spoken by approximately 60% of the African American population in the United States. These are non-standard varieties of English, and differ from the varieties typically encountered by students in a classroom setting, but the speakers of these varieties are native speakers of English and their language use is appropriate for effective communication. In the world, in virtually every country, to differing extents, English is a

part of everyday life for lots of people. In India and Nigeria, for example, English is an important language in business and education, and, even in Hungary and other, neighboring countries, the importance of English is steadily growing. Naturally, non-native varieties are also various and do not follow one standard form. However, every variety can be used effectively for communication and to fulfill the needs of the speakers. Accents are different, but, if speakers understand each other, they have used the language efficiently.

Repeated questions:

48. My own Hungarian accent bothers me.
49. If others speak English with a Hungarian accent, it bothers me.
50. I criticize those who have a strong Hungarian accent in English.
51. If my accent is not native-like, I do not speak English well.
52. I feel ashamed if people notice, based on my accent, that I am not a native speaker of English.

Text-related reflection:

53. I find the content of the text useful.
54. There was new information in the text.
55. It is positive reinforcement for a language learner to learn such things.
56. I find it possible that my students would be more willing to communicate orally in English if lots of varieties of English were introduced to them.
57. The English language is more diverse than I thought.

Appendix 6 – The detailed description of the experimental class sessions in the classroom investigation

The links to the videos watched in class are provided in the tables summarizing the materials and tasks for each session. The links were all functional at the time of the classroom investigation (Fall semester of 2022). The table for each session is followed by a brief reflection.

6.1. The first session

1. Warm-up/ Introduction	2. Discussion	3. Students' practice tasks	4. Summary/ Conclusion
Pre-test questionnaire	Second viewing of the video (now with English subtitles)	Asking for clarification with the help of prompts (handout)	Familiarity with the accent and asking for clarification politely can help understanding
First viewing of a section from a TEDx talk by a Scottish speaker (no English subtitles) https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=veEQQ-N9xWU (Relevant section: first 3 minutes)	Show-of-hands question repeated		
Show-of-hands question: Is she a native speaker?	Third viewing of the video (with English subtitles again) – focusing on words whose pronunciation is saliently different from what they know		
	Show-of-hands question repeated		
	Introducing Scottish English		
	Discussing intelligibility (It increases with familiarity with the accent)		
	Answering comprehension questions about the content of the video, learning new words		

Reflection on the first session

The first class session started with the pre-test questionnaire, which took approximately 25 minutes to fill out. Then, students watched a section from a video of a TEDx speaker with a salient Scottish accent. They were then asked to indicate by a show of hands whether they

thought she was a native speaker of English. No one considered her to be a native speaker. Following this short discussion, the students watched the selected section from the same video again, but this time with English subtitles. After watching the recording for the second time, the same show-of-hands question was asked: whether they considered the speaker to be a native speaker of English. A few students put their hands up hesitantly. Then, the relevant section was played again a third time, this time focusing on some words the pronunciation of which was noticeably different from what students are accustomed to, and their meaning was discussed. The show-of-hands question was asked a third time about the speaker's status as a native or a non-native speaker. The same few students hesitantly indicated that they thought the speaker might be a native speaker, but the majority of the group insisted that she was a language learner. This time the students were told that the speaker was a native speaker of English, and the differences they could hear were due to the fact that she is Scottish and speaks English with a Scottish accent.

Then, the students were engaged in a discussion about intelligibility, namely, that the more familiar we are with a variety of English, the more we can understand it, and that the main goal of communication is understanding each other. They were also asked whether they considered it acceptable to give a talk at a prestigious occasion with a regional accent, and they had no objections against it. The content of the video was discussed in class in more detail to enhance the students' ability to understand an accent that is different from the ones encountered on the CDs accompanying their course book (as positive attitudes towards an accent cannot be fostered if the subjects cannot understand what is said). Students reported considerable difficulty understanding the speaker, but they were able to answer comprehension questions after watching the video for the third time. This also supported the ideas emerging in our previous discussion with the students, namely, that familiarity with certain accents enhances their ability to understand them.

Following from the positive effect of repeated encounters with the newly discovered accent, the topic of 'asking for clarification' was introduced. Students were given a list of possible phrases that they can use if they don't understand what their interlocutors say in English, and they were given the opportunity to practice asking for clarification in pairs. The task was to organize a meeting with their partners, but pretend that they could not hear the other's suggestions, and ask politely for clarification using the prompts on the handouts they received. They were also given prompts to check understanding once they believed they heard what the other student said.

The conclusion of the first experimental class session involved connecting the effect of the repeated encounters with Scottish-accented English and asking for clarification in pairs. Just as students were better able to answer comprehension questions after the third watch, asking for clarification can help to understand someone whose accent we are not familiar with. They were taught that asking for clarification is not a problem, the only thing to remember is being polite when doing so. The lack of understanding can be resolved if both interlocutors put effort into working towards mutual intelligibility, instead of blaming themselves or the other person for not succeeding immediately.

6.2. The second session

1. Warm-up/ Introduction	**2. Discussion**	**3. Students' practice tasks**	**4. Summary/ Conclusion**
Brief review of the first session	Second viewing of the John Bishop video with a special focus on words whose pronunciation is saliently different from how they know them Partial discussion of the content	Discussing and arguing about the use of humor in pairs with the help of prompts (handout)	Connecting the students' ideas about humor to the content of the first video
First viewing of an excerpt from a comedy show by John Bishop, a British comedian with a Scouse accent https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=N9yAJKcIVxk (Relevant section: 0:45–2:36)	Show-of-hands question repeated	When is humor acceptable and when is it hurtful?	Using humor to solve misunderstandings and other problems when communicating in English Not using humor to mock people who speak differently
Question: Is he easy to understand? Show-of hands-question: Is he a native speaker?	Third viewing of the John Bishop video		
	Show-of-hands question repeated		
	Question: Is this what you think of when hearing the term *British English*?		
	Second video: Michael Caine talking about Cockney (not in a salient Cockney accent) https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XBjp1oEZcwU (Content in focus) Discussion of the Cockney accent based on the video		

	Listening to a speaker with a salient Cockney accent (Recording received in mp3 format from a former teacher of mine) Answering content-related questions		

Reflection on the second session

The second experimental class session started with a brief review of the ideas discussed in the previous session, which was followed by watching a YouTube video of John Bishop, a British comedian with a Scouse accent (i.e., the accent used in and around Liverpool, UK). The students watched the recording three times, as it was done in the previous session. After the first watch, they were asked whether it was easy to understand the speaker and whether they thought the speaker was a native speaker of English. They reported barely understanding anything from the video, and the majority of the students thought the speaker was a non-native speaker of English. When watching the video for the second time, it was stopped multiple times and the standard form of some key words was demonstrated for the students, and some of the differences in pronunciation between standard British English and Scouse were discussed, without naming the newly encountered accent or revealing that it was a native variety. The content of the video was also partially explained to the students. When asked for the second time, the students still believed that the speaker was a non-native speaker of English. It was the third watch when students started to enjoy the humor in the video, as, in fact, the recording showed John Bishop performing in one of his shows. The students still considered him a non-native speaker when asked for the third time, but the fact they laughed at the humorous content after watching it for the third time showed that they achieved an adequate level of understanding of what was said and became somewhat familiar with the previously unknown accent. Then, it was finally revealed for the students that they had been listening to a native speaker using a non-standard variety of British English. The respondents were asked whether this accent was something they would think of when they heard the term *British English*. They explained that the first thing that comes to mind is 'standard British English' heard from the audio samples accompanying the course book they were studying from.

After becoming somewhat familiar with Scouse, students watched a video of actor Michael Caine, a famous Cockney speaker, talking about Cockney (i.e., the working-class variety spoken in the London area), and his desire to show young people that they can achieve great things even if they are non-standard speakers of English. This time, the content of the

video was in focus; the actor's accent was just briefly discussed, as he used an accent very close to 'standard British English' in the interview. The idea of the acceptability of non-standard accents, which emerged from the interview, was then connected to the students' own experiences as non-native speakers. The students' contributions to the discussion showed that they arrived at the conclusion that non-native speakers should not be afraid to speak English because of their accent, as even native speakers speak the language with various accents, and non-standard speakers sound very different from standard speakers. It came up in the discussion that Michael Caine was able to achieve great fame and recognition despite speaking a non-standard, working-class variety of English, which shows that differences in accent should not be taken as deficiencies.

After learning about Cockney, students listened to an audio recording of a speaker of the variety. The respondents expressed again that it was not an accent they would think of when hearing the term *British English*. As both Scouse and Cockney were completely unfamiliar to the students, they were encouraged to try to understand the content of the videos (through explanations and replays of the recordings) and answer comprehension questions related to them.

As the last task in the second class session, students were asked to discuss and argue about the use of humor in pairs. This topic was related to the first video, that is, the Scouse comedian's use of humor, which they gradually came to understand through replays of the video. The students received handouts with prompts and were encouraged to include in their discussions the definition of humor, whether humor can be hurtful, what should never be made fun of, whether humor has any benefits, and whether it could help people in their everyday lives.

The purpose of the speaking task was twofold: first, students practiced the oral expression of their opinions in English in a friendly and non-judgmental environment, which can enhance their willingness to communicate in English, and second, they were encouraged to reflect on making fun of people for various issues. When the pairs were asked to share their thoughts in front of the class, students explained certain situations when humor can cause more harm than good, such as making fun of people for the color of their hair, the shape of their eyes, or their body type that they naturally have. Then, the students were encouraged to reflect on making fun of people for their accent, which is natural to them and which they might not be able to change. It was discussed that making fun of people for the way they speak is similar to making fun of people for what they look like, and can have a harmful effect on their self-esteem. The benefits of humor were also discussed: students explained that humor has the power to

make one's day better and make difficult situations easier to endure. The students' ideas were then connected to the topic of the investigation: the benefits of humor for avoiding awkward situations when speakers with different accents do not understand each other were highlighted, and the respondents were reminded of the ways for asking for clarification that were learnt in the first session.

6.3. The third session

1. Warm-up/ Introduction	**2. Discussion**	**3. Students' practice tasks**	**4. Summary/ Conclusion**
Brief review of the second session	Second listening of the same two recordings (this time with printed transcript as handout, with target sounds highlighted)	A reading comprehension exercise on the differences between British and American English	There is no homogeneous 'native' accent in English
First listening: Comparing 'Standard' British vs. 'Standard' American English through two audiobook recordings of the same excerpt (only audio) by actors Kenneth Branagh and Viggo Mortensen, respectively (Excerpts edited by me, original source included here) https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=APG1upS8LDw (Relevant section: 1:24:4–1:24:43) https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WkYxRUHcJxA (Relevant section: 0:08–0:43)	Demonstrating key differences between the British and the American recording	Practicing Second Conditional (unreal present) for an upcoming test Speaking task in pairs with the help of prompts (handout) → Connecting Second Conditional to imaginary situations for travelling and using English	
	Third listening of the same two recordings with a more in-depth discussion of the target sounds and some of the content Learning new words		
	Question: Was the British or the American speaker easier to understand?		
	Third recording: Michael McIntyre (British comedian) on the differences in vocabulary between British and American English https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UCo0hSFAWOc Discussion of the video with the students		

	Fourth recording: video on the presence or absence of the TRAP/BATH split and rhoticity in 'standard' British vs. American English with examples demonstrating the differences https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MZjrjZPfK9A (Relevant section: 1:33–2:45)		

Reflection on the third session

In the third session, after a brief revision, the students listened to two different recordings of the same section from the audio book version of Antoine de Saint-Exupéry's *The Little Prince*. The recordings had been edited by me to control for unwanted differences in any other aspect of language use than accent, and had been previously used for a different purpose: in a verbal guise experiment on which a part of my 2020 master's thesis was based (also reported on in Püski, 2024a.). The audio book readers are a British and an American actor, Kenneth Branagh and Viggo Mortensen, who have what could be termed a 'standard British' and a 'standard American' accent, respectively, that is, accents that are close to Received Pronunciation and General American. This time, the aim of showing the students these recordings was to help them understand that it is not only regional and non-standard native varieties that differ greatly from each other, but numerous differences can be found between even the two most well-known standard varieties, as well.

The recordings were replayed three times. First, no transcript was available for the students to let them have an initial experience of the differences in accent, then, when listening to the recording for a second time, they were given the transcript of the recordings, in which the target words were marked in bold and the letters whose corresponding sounds were in focus were underlined for them. The transcript, which was also used in this form in my master's thesis (Püski, 2020: 19), is as follows:

> I made an **exasperated gesture**. It is **absurd** looking **for** a well, at random, in the **vastness** of the **desert**. **But** even **so**, we **started walking**.
> When we had **walked** for several **hours** in silence, night fell and **stars** began to **appear**. I **noticed** them as in a dream, being **somewhat** feverish on account of my **thirst**. The **little** prince's **words danced** in my memory.
> "**So** you'**re thirsty** too?" I **asked**.

But he didn't **answer** my question.

(Text source: Antoine de Saint-Exupéry: The Little Prince, Richard Howard's translation, my emphasis)

In addition to having the transcript available, the students were also given explanations regarding the differences between the pronunciation of some words they heard in the standard British and American recording. I demonstrated the differences, asked students to guess whether the pronunciation I demonstrated (as a non-native speaker myself) was a demonstration of the standard British or American form. Students were also asked to provide the standard British or American equivalent of certain target words from the recording. After they had listened to the recording for a third time, the highlighted words in the transcript were discussed in more detail, avoiding the use of linguistic terminology that is unfamiliar for high school students, and relying more on demonstration.

When asked which recording they understood better, there was only one student who indicated that she understood the American speaker better, the rest of the group found the British recording easier to follow.

After the discussion of accent differences, another video was shown to the students, in which both the speaker's accent and the content of the video were used for discussion. The speaker, Michael McIntyre, a British comedian, humorously explained some differences in vocabulary between British and American English. Himself a standard British speaker, switched to a well-imitated 'standard American accent' when demonstrating the American equivalents of the vocabulary items in focus. This way, the idea that all native speakers of English do not speak alike was reasserted, with some additional information on vocabulary differences.

The next video focused on the presence vs. absence of the TRAP/BATH split in standard British vs. American English, respectively, and discussed the issue of rhoticity (i.e., that standard British English is non-rhotic, while standard American English is rhotic), with ample examples for the differences. The TRAP/BATH split and rhoticity were selected as topics for discussion, as they are salient enough to understand even without previous linguistic knowledge on the students' part.

Following the videos, the students were given a reading comprehension exercise on the differences between British and American English, but this time, in order to give students a more detailed understanding of the differences between the two varieties, differences in grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling were all briefly explained in the text. Students were asked to answer seven comprehension questions about what was read.

As the students were about to write a test on Second Conditional (i.e. unreal present conditional sentences, e. g., *I would travel to London if I had enough free time*.) with their teacher, I was asked to review the material with the students. In order to fit the experimental class sessions into the students' schedule, I was sometimes asked by their teacher to focus on certain aspects of English grammar as part of the sessions. These were always incorporated in a way that fit the topic of the investigation. In this case, Second Conditional was used to express where they would go to travel and what they would do there. They were given handouts with prompts for speaking in pairs. The speaking exercise encouraged their use of spoken English and the prompts included the idea of travelling somewhere and using English there as one of the suggestions for a Second Conditional sentence (e.g., *If I traveled to the UK/Sweden/the Netherlands, I would speak English with the locals*.).

At the end of the session, the students were encouraged to draw conclusions from the videos and the reading comprehension task, and reflect on the differences between the two most well-known standard varieties of English, standard British and American English, with the greatest focus on accent differences. Students expressed their astonishment about the previously unknown differences, and that having a 'native accent' was not such a clear-cut notion as they had previously believed, as there was no uniform 'native accent' in English.

6.4. The fourth session

1. Warm-up/ Introduction	**2. Discussion**	**3. Students' practice tasks**	**4. Summary/ Conclusion**
Brief review of the third session	Second video: A section from a lecture by a Hungarian linguist who lived and taught in the UK (with a more noticeable Hungarian accent) https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hg6BSbpVgVU (Relevant section: first 3 minutes)	Practicing the passive voice for an upcoming test (discussion and written task)	Using the passive voice to sound more advanced, professional or formal without having to sound native-like
First video: Interview with a famous Hungarian–Canadian doctor (with a slight Hungarian accent) – with auto-generated Hungarian subtitles https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=N77CCsIEd9M The recording was only played once with ongoing commentary and pauses	Question: Which Hungarian-born speaker is easier to understand for you?	Speaking task in pairs (Imagining that they are detectives at a crime scene and have to describe what was moved, changed, broken, etc. by the criminals using the passive voice)	

Reflection on the fourth session

After some revision of the content of the previous session, the students watched a video of a famous Hungarian-Canadian doctor talking about raising children and the role of the father in a family. The speaker had a very slight Hungarian accent as he had been living in Canada since he was 12 years old. The students listened to the recording once with pauses and ongoing commentary and explanations from me.

The second recording was from a lecture held by a well-known and highly acclaimed Hungarian-born linguist who moved to the United Kingdom as an adult and taught there. The students understood him better than the first speaker, as he had a stronger Hungarian-accent, which they were more used to hearing in their everyday lives. In this case, the speaker's having a more noticeable accent was not a drawback but a benefit for the students.

The aim of presenting recordings by these two speakers to the students was to show that their success did not depend on their accent and non-native speaker status; they became very successful and well-known internationally. The idea of becoming effective language users and achieving professional success with a non-native accent was the topic of the group discussion.

As mentioned previously, conducting the experimental class sessions was only possible if the students also made progress with the compulsory study materials. This time, practicing the passive voice for an upcoming test needed to be a part of the class session, but it was presented in a way that it had a connection with the topic of the investigation. It was explained that language learners do not necessarily have to achieve a native-like accent in their target language to sound more professional and have a good command of the language. Using the passive voice can make one's language use more official, professional, academic or formal when the situation requires it, and it can also help avoid offence if the agent is left out of the sentence. This way, one's English can be 'upgraded' by using the passive without having a native accent. After discussing some other, more obvious functions of the passive, students were given passive sentences in which they needed to find the grammatical mistakes.

The last exercise of the session was a speaking task in pairs, in which they needed to imagine that they were detectives at a crime scene and had to describe what was moved, changed, broken, etc. by the criminals. This way, students had the opportunity to use the passive voice orally in a situation that required more formal and professional language use and where the agent of the sentence was unknown due to the nature of the imaginary situation. As a conclusion to the session, the use of the passive voice for sounding more professional or formal (without having to attain a native-like accent) was repeated.

6.5. The fifth session

1. Warm-up/ Introduction	2. Discussion	3. Students' practice tasks	4. Summary/ Conclusion
Brief review of the fourth session	Second viewing of the Jackie Chan video	Practicing passive voice (handout with sentences related to the video)	Students deliver their acceptance speeches at the beginning of the next session
First viewing of Jackie Chan's 2016 acceptance speech for the Academy Honorary Award (Chinese-accented English) https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rLQ1V_H7vh4	Answering comprehension questions	Handout for transforming sentences from the active voice to the passive voice	
	Replaying the first minute of the recording again, pausing after every sentence and asking students to repeat the words they heard (Only content was repeated, Chinese-accented English was not imitated)	Using the passive voice to sound more advanced, professional or formal without having to sound native-like (repeated from the previous session)	
		Writing their imaginary acceptance speeches for something they are good at (with the help of Jackie Chan's speech) → Connecting the oral use of English to a feeling of great achievement	

Reflection on the fifth session

After a short discussion of the topics covered in the previous session, the students watched Jackie Chan's 2016 acceptance speech for the Academy Honorary Award. After hearing the Chinese actor's accent for the first time, 11 out of 12 students reported that they had difficulty understanding what he said, because it was their first time hearing Chinese-accented English. Only one student indicated that understanding the actor's acceptance speech was easy. (It was the same student who seemed to enjoy watching American films and TV series in the original.)

Before replaying the video for the second time, the students were given some comprehension questions for which they were asked to find the answers. After the discussion of the answers, students watched the first minute of the recording again, and this time, the

recording was stopped after every sentence and the students were asked to repeat the sentence they heard, to ensure their understanding of the content delivered in an unfamiliar non-native accent. (Chinese accent was not imitated; only the content was repeated.)

After students became familiar with the newly encountered accent and could understand the recording without difficulty, an exercise for practicing the passive voice was given to them as a handout, in which the sentences were related to the content of the video, and students needed to choose from a list of verbs and use them in the appropriate form in the suitable sentence. Then, another handout for practicing how to transform active sentences into passive ones was given to them, and the idea that English can be spoken more professionally and formally with the help of the passive voice, even when one does not have a native accent, was reinstated.

As the last task of the session, students were asked to imagine receiving an award for something they were very good at, and write an acceptance speech for it, which they would perform at the beginning of the next session. This way, the speaking exercise followed logically from the first half of the class session, and encouraged students to link the oral use of English to a positive experience. Just as Jackie Chan was able to become a global phenomenon and an Academy Award winner despite his noticeable Chinese accent, students were encouraged to link communication in English to the feeling of success and fulfilment. The fact that Jackie Chan used Chinese-accented English in an important official setting has the potential to enhance the perceived acceptability of the accent, and potentially expand this acceptance to other non-native accents, as well, including students' own accent which they would use for the same function in the next class.

6.6. The sixth session

1. Warm-up/ Introduction	**2. Students' practice tasks**	**3. Discussion**	**4. Summary/ Conclusion**
Compulsory 10-minute test (required by the group's English teacher)	Students deliver their acceptance speeches in front of the whole group (Everyone receives a round of applause to connect the experience of speaking English to a positive memory)	(This time the discussion of accents followed the practice tasks) Questions: - What kinds of non-native accents of English have you heard before? - Was it easy to understand these accents?	Native and non-native accents show great diversity. Non-native accents are part of the immense diversity of English.

		- Were they very different from Hungarian-accented English? - What native accents/varieties of English do you know? - Is there a unified 'American English'?	
Brief review of the fifth session	Brief discussion after each acceptance speech to ensure intelligibility		
	Finishing the previous class's handout on the passive voice (creating passive sentences using the words given)		
	Summarizing the passive once again and listing its functions		

Reflection on the sixth session

In the first ten minutes of the class, students needed to write a test, as required by the group's English teacher, in order to make progress with the compulsory requirements, as well. After the test, students delivered the acceptance speeches one by one, which they were asked to compile in writing at the end of the previous session. Reading the text they compiled was allowed; it was not compulsory to recite the speech by heart. The order of the students' speeches was decided by them, and everyone received a round of applause after delivering their speech to encourage and motivate them to speak in front of others in English, and link the experience of delivering a speech in English to a sense of success and positive reinforcement. Grammatical mistakes were not in focus in the case of this speaking task; instead, intelligibility and the clear transmission of meaning was emphasized.

In order to foster and enhance intelligibility, every student's speech was discussed by the group: for what the imaginary award was given, why the speaker loves to do that activity, etc. Some students were shy, while others were more confident, but everyone delivered their speech with a smile and without feeling humiliated or criticized. The atmosphere was friendly and practice-oriented, not error-focused. After all the speeches were delivered, the students were asked what it was like to prepare for the speech and whether they enjoyed preparing and delivering it. Some students expressed that it was difficult for them at first to find a topic (i.e., and imaginary activity or achievement they could receive an award for), but all students reported enjoyment and positive excitement in delivering their speeches.

Then, the group finished the handout on the passive voice that was distributed in the previous session: this time they needed to create sentences out of the given words using the passive, but the order of words was not necessarily correct. The exercise was designed to emphasize the difference between the subject of the passive sentence and the agent. Then, the use of the passive was once again summarized and its functions listed.

In the last ten minutes of the class session, a group discussion was initiated about non-native-accented English. Students were asked to list what kinds of accents they have heard before, whether it was easy to understand these accents, and whether they were very different from Hungarian-accented English. They were also asked to express their views on whether there was a unified and homogeneous 'Hungarian-accented English', or whether Hungarian-accented English could be diverse.

They listed, e.g., German-, Japanese-, French-, Italian-, Indian-, Chinese- (due to encountering it in the experimental sessions), and Hungarian-accented English among the accents they had heard before, and explained that, Indian- and Italian-accented English sounded very different from Hungarian-accented English, and a few students included some slight mockery of these two accents in their accounts. I did not immediately respond to the somewhat sneering remarks, as the discussion was not yet over.

They were then asked to list the native accents of English they had encountered before. They listed British, American, Australian, Canadian and Scottish accents, where the latter one was included because it was introduced in one of the experimental sessions. This proved that there was no homogeneous 'native accent', and to discover and understand the diversity of native Englishes, further questions were asked, e.g., whether the students thought there was one American accent or multiple. They hesitantly indicated that they believed there were multiple accents of American English, but they were not able to name any that were different from the 'standard' accent (General American). I mentioned some accents that they might have been familiar with through films and TV series, such as the Texan accent and the accent used by speakers of African American Vernacular English.

The concluding idea of the session was that not only non-native accents, but also native accents are various, and there is a great variety of accents even within an English-speaking country. Therefore, non-native accents are simply constitutive elements of the immense variety that characterizes the English language nowadays.

6.7. The seventh session

1. Warm-up/ Introduction	2. Discussion	3. Students' practice tasks	4. Summary/ Conclusion
Brief review of the sixth session	Viewing an interview with Spanish actor Antonio Banderas on his Academy Award nomination and how his illness changed his life https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CxdpN50XiVE Comprehension questions about the content of the interview, learning new vocabulary	Discussing an experience that changed their lives for the better (pair work then sharing their partner's story in front of the group)	Multiplicity of native accents (legitimacy!)
Lesser-known native accents were shown from famous actors: Russell Crowe's New Zealand/Australian accent https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7y4iQ-ovdQE	Question: Which accent out of the four has been the most intelligible for you thus far in this session?		Sometimes non-native accents are easier to understand for language learners
Idris Elba's Hackney accent and Matthew McConaughey's Texan accent https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-sP_je8CMkE (Relevant section: 0:00–1:04)	Viewing an interview with actor Chris Hemsworth, who has an even more salient Australian accent than Russell Crowe https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BmgZ8VMLRnk (Relevant section: 0:00–2:20)		
	Second viewing of the section from Chris Hemsworth's interview based on students' requests due to comprehension difficulties		

Reflection on the seventh session

As the previous session closed with a discussion of the diversity of English accents, the seventh session continued this topic by showing students various examples for native and non-native accents by famous people. The reason why well-known and successful speakers were selected was to enhance the perceived acceptability of the accents, and, in the case of the recording from the non-native speaker in this session and other famous non-native speakers in the following sessions, they were selected to serve as possible 'language learning role models' for the students.

First, lesser-known native accents were shown spoken by famous actors: Russell Crowe's New Zealand/Australian accent (he was born in New Zealand but spent most of his life in Australia), Idris Elba's Hackney accent, and Matthew McConaughey's Texan accent. Comprehension questions were asked after each recording to enhance understanding, and new vocabulary was learnt. The speakers' accents were named and some comparisons were made between them. It was surprising for the students to hear three well-known native speakers of English use very different accents which they were not used to, and had difficulty understanding them. (Not being able to understand accents that are different from Received Pronunciation and General American emerged as a problem throughout the experimental class sessions, which underlines the importance of familiarizing students with multiple accents.)

After the native accents, and following the topic of the Academy Award acceptance speech we listened to previously, students watched an interview with Spanish actor Antonio Banderas on his Academy Award nomination and how his illness changed his life. After some comprehension questions, students were asked which accent was the most easily understandable for them out of the four they had listened to thus far in that session, and they unanimously selected Antonio Banderas's Spanish-accented English as the most intelligible one. It was a fascinating idea for them that they were able to understand a non-native speaker (who was not Hungarian) better than some native speakers.

As a pair-work task, students then discussed experiences that changed their lives for the better, and had to retell their partner's stories in front of the group (if it was not overly personal). In this task, intelligibility received primary focus, as they had to express their thoughts in a way that their partners could later summarize their stories.

After listening to Spanish-accented English, they were presented with another native speaker of Australian English, but this time with an even more salient Australian accent. The speaker was Australian actor Christ Hemsworth, who was the most well-known by the students among the five speakers whose accents they listened to in the seventh class session. They were surprised by his accent because, although they knew the actor, they had not heard him speak before, probably because they had watched dubbed versions of his films. The students immediately requested the recording to be played again and asked for help with understanding what the speaker said. Even though, in the previous class session, they listed Australian accent as one of the native accents they were familiar with, this seemed to mean being familiar with its existence rather than with how it sounds.

Beyond the initial rationale behind the selection of the speakers for the session, i.e., enhancing the perceived acceptability of accents that are noticeably different from Received

Pronunciation and General American, students' preference for the non-native speaker's accent emerged as an additional gain for the students in terms of accepting and having positive attitudes towards non-native accents.

6.8. The eighth session

1. Warm-up/ Introduction	2. Discussion	3. Students' practice tasks	4. Summary/ Conclusion
Brief review of the seventh session	Viewing Austrian actor Christoph Waltz's second Academy Award acceptance speech from 2013 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WWdn7pFmtdQ	The lyrics of *Wellerman* was given to students as a gap-fill task	Reflecting on high-achieving speakers of non-native or non-standard/non-dominant varieties of English
Viewing Austrian actor Christoph Waltz's 2010 Academy Award acceptance speech (with Spanish actress Penelope Cruz as the host) https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=j-ZEeYcSb6M	Comprehension questions, learning new vocabulary	Second listening – *Wellerman* Special attention to the pronunciation of the words used to fill the gaps in the lyrics	
Comprehension questions, learning new vocabulary	Viewing Penelope Cruz's Academy Award 2009 acceptance speech https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=A6QFfJHuFy4		
	Comprehension questions, learning new vocabulary		
	Listening to Scottish singer Nathan Evan's song *Wellerman* https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qP-7GNoDJ5c		

Reflection on the eighth session

In order to present students with more role models in terms of language learning, two Academy Award acceptance speeches (from 2010 and 2013) by Austrian actor Christoph Waltz were shown to them. He won two Oscars in his 50s, as a non-native speaker, who was over 40 years old when he first started to appear in English language films and began to use English more frequently. For him, English is a foreign language (not a second language), which he perfected as an adult. Due to the fact that the actor is originally from Austria, a country sharing a border with Hungary, his example might make it more believable for students that a language

learner's accent has legitimacy and is an acceptable way of speaking English. The indirect elicitation of these ideas came up in class after comprehension questions checking students' understanding of the two speeches.

New vocabulary was also learnt, which was a common activity in the sessions, as the recordings showed examples for real-life uses of English (as they were not created specifically for language learners); therefore, the students always encountered words which they were unfamiliar with. As having them write out all the new words into their vocabulary notebook would have been a tedious exercise that might have taken away the pleasure and excitement of encountering various accents of English, only those words were focused on that were necessary to understand the gist of what the speakers said.

The third video for this class session was Penelope Cruz's 2009 Academy Award acceptance speech (who was the host in the first video with Christoph Waltz). From the speech, it became clear for the students that she was born in a relatively small Spanish town where she never thought that winning an Academy Award could be a realistic dream for her. As she is another European-born L2 speaker of English who comes from a town that is smaller than Szeged, her example might further strengthen the belief in students that non-native accents are acceptable and even great success can be achieved by non-native speakers, which might help them develop more favorable attitudes towards non-native accented English.

The students acknowledged her noticeably Spanish-accented English but had no difficulty understanding her, and were able to answer questions about the content of the acceptance speech. This was the second time they encountered Spanish-accented English during the experimental class sessions, which might have helped them understand Penelope Cruz better, as exposure to an accent is important for enhancing one's comprehension of it.

The last video for the session was a song, titled *Wellerman*, which had relatively recently become popular at the time of the investigation, and was performed by Nathan Evans, a speaker of Scottish English. Students received the lyrics as a handout, but with some gaps where they had to provide the missing words while listening to the song. The words filling the gaps were words whose pronunciation is noticeably different in Scottish English compared to Received Pronunciation. When listening to the song for the first time, students were asked to fill the gaps with the suitable words. Then, the answers were discussed (they did not catch all the words) and the differences between the Scottish singer's pronunciation of the words and how they would typically hear them in the classroom were highlighted.

Then, the song was replayed, and the students were asked to pay attention to the pronunciation of the words they used for the gaps. This time they were nodding and smiling,

which signaled that they understood the difference and were able to make out the words in question more easily. Some students tried to imitate the Scottish pronunciation of these words, but, unlike previously when a few students started mocking Italian and Indian English, this time they imitated the newly encountered accent to understand the differences better and be able to recognize the differently pronounced words. No hurtful or mocking remarks were made. As Scottish English was shown to the students in a previous session, they were now more familiar with it and guessed the singer's origin correctly based on his accent.

The recent popularity of the song made it a useful demonstrative example of a native speaker with a regional accent becoming successful, which was an idea that went hand-in-hand with the previous examples of high-achieving non-native speakers. The aim of the class session was to provide relatable examples for the students of speakers whose accents were different from what students typically encountered in class, but whose accents and achievements were accepted and valued internationally.

6.9. The ninth and final session

1. Warm-up/ Introduction	**2. Discussion**	**3. Students' practice tasks**	**4. Summary/ Conclusion**
Brief review of the eighth session	Listening to Italian singer Andrea Bocelli's performance of the song *The Music of the Night* from the musical *The Phantom of the Opera* (by Andrew Lloyd Webber) at a memorial concert for Lady Diana in 2007, held at the London Wembley Stadium https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jZTsIljP9RQ	Students received the lyrics of *The Music of the Night* as a handout and were asked to follow the lines	Question: Can you name your favorite speaker or video from the sessions?
Viewing an interview with Israeli-born actress Gal Gadot https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TJVf3KZAIG4 Discussion about her successful communication skills		Question: Was it easy to follow the lyrics? Was it easy to understand the singer's words?	Post-test questionnaire + class evaluation sheet

Reflection on the ninth session

The aim of the last class session was to leave students with a positive impression about non-native accents. After a brief review of the previous session, two videos were selected: in the first one, the speaker was Israeli-born Hollywood actress Gal Gadot, the lead actress in the

film *Wonder Woman*. She was known by all the students and they enjoyed her humorous and story-telling style of speaking and fluent delivery, and were able to answer comprehension questions about the interview easily. The actress talked about what was new for her in the US and made no effort to hide the fact that she was not born and raised there. She spoke confidently and fluently, which made her a good role model for language learners. A discussion about her status as a non-native speaker and her successful and efficient communication skills was initiated.

The second accent the students listened to in the final session was Andrea Bocelli's Italian-accented English in the form of listening to him perform the famous song *The Music of the Night* from the musical *The Phantom of the Opera* by Andrew Lloyd Webber. The recording played was from a memorial concert for Lady Diana in 2007, held at the London Wembley Stadium. Students received the lyrics of the song as a handout and were asked to follow the lines. The official and solemn setting, the impressive location, and the large-scale event gave status to the performer. A discussion was initiated about his country of origin, the intelligibility of his accent, and the additional difficulty he faced as a blind learner of English as a foreign language. Students were able to follow the lyrics and did not consider the singer's accent difficult to understand. The fact that he, as a non-native speaker, was asked to perform in English at an event involving the British royal family was fascinating for the students.

To conclude the series of experimental sessions before the respondents filled out the post-test, I asked them to name their favorite speaker or video throughout the sessions. The majority of students highlighted Nathan Evans's song *Wellerman* as the most memorable video together with the gap-filling exercise where they needed to provide the suitable words which are pronounced considerably differently in Scottish English compared to Received Pronunciation. The second most memorable video was Jackie Chan's Academy Award acceptance speech. In the sessions, he was the speaker with the most salient non-native accent and the first non-native speaker whom the students themselves considered to be world-known and highly acclaimed. It was his acceptance speech based on which they wrote their own acceptance speeches.

In the second half of the ninth session, students filled out the same questionnaire which they completed as the pre-test at the beginning of the teaching experiment, and an additional class evaluation sheet was also attached to it, in which students were asked to evaluate the experimental sessions, and give constructive feedback about them. The open-ended questions of the class evaluation sheet made the in-depth expression of their opinions, likes, and dislikes possible.